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### BULLETIN

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## MUSEUM OF COMPARATIVE ZOÖLOGY

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No. 1.— On the Eared Seals (Otariade), with detailed Descriptions of the North Pacific Species, by J. A. Allen. Together with an Account of the Habits of the Northern Fur Seal (Callorhinus ursinus), by Charles Bryant.

I.

#### Introduction.

THE specimens on which the present essay is mainly based were collected by Captain Charles Bryant, at St. Paul's Island, one of the Pribyloff Group, situated near the coast of Alaska, and by him kindly presented to the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. They consist of two perfect skins and two complete ligamentary skeletons of the Eumetopias Stelleri Peters, and six perfect skins, four complete ligamentary skeletons and two partial skeletons of Callorhinus ursinus Gray. The skins were sent preserved in salt, and arrived in excellent condition. The specimens of Callorhinus ursinus represent both sexes of this species and the young, both in skins and skeletons; while the notes kindly furnished by Captain Bryant give a minute account of its habits. A summer's residence at the Pribyloff Islands, as government supervisor of the seal fisheries, has given Captain Bryant an opportunity of becoming thoroughly familiar with the habits of these interesting animals, and the description he has given of them shows that he made a good use of his opportunites. His notes, given in full, form part second of the present paper. In addition to the specimens collected by Captain Bryant, I am indebted to the Smithsonian Institution and the Chicago Academy of Sciences for the opportunity of examining skulls of Zalophus Gillespii and Otaria jubata. I have also in this connection to make acknowledgments to Dr. Taeodore Gill of Washington for various suggestions and other acts of kindness.

The only previous account of the Northern fur seal which has any great importance is that given by Steller, nearly a century and a quarter ago, and the observations of Krasheninikoff, published a few years later in his History of Kamtchatka. Krasheninikoff's account, however, was doubtless wholly or mainly derived from Steller's notes. The remarkable accuracy of Steller's account, considering the time when it

was written, is fully confirmed by Captain Bryant, who seems to have been the first naturalist who has had an opportunity of verifying Steller's observations. The history of this species is now far more fully known than that of any of its congeners, and better in fact than the majority of our best known mammals. A remarkable similarity of habits, however, so far as known, seems to pervade the whole group of cared seals, — a similarity which in many respects extends also to the walrus and the sea elephant (Macrorhinus elephantinus). As matter of collateral interest, for comparison with the account given by Captain Bryant of the species so fully described by him, the principal notices of the habits of the other species of the family have been cited as footnotes to Captain Bryant's article, and occasional abstracts are given of those most pertinent to the subject.

Through the important labors of Messrs. Gray, Gill, and Peters our knowledge of the Otariadæ has recently been greatly increased; yet not a single species of the family has been hitherto very satisfactorily known. Regarding the able essays of these gentlemen published in 1866 as representing the state of our knowledge of these animals five years since, their somewhat discrepant opinions respecting the number of known species, their distinctive characters, and their mutual affinities sufficiently indicate how imperfectly they were then known. A comparatively large number of specimens of the Otaria jubata has since been received at different scientific museums, which, with the facts obtained from persons who have recently been able to observe this species in its natural haunts, have served to render it, up to the present writing, the best known of any of the family. number of specimens formerly possessed by naturalists having been very small, and the sex, age, and habitat of the individuals they represented being generally but vaguely known, the unusually great differences resulting from individual variation, as well as from sex and age, which recent developments prove to exist in these animals, remained for a long time unsuspected, and are even now, it would seem, not fully appreciated by the few naturalists who alone have given them special attention. Hence there has arisen in many cases an almost unparalleled complication of synonomy and an unusually large number of nominal species.\*

<sup>\*</sup> The synonomy of Otaria jubata, for example, embraces no less than fifteen distinct specific names.

The collection of skins and skeletons above mentioned of two of the North Pacific species which has recently been received at the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy throws much light not only upon these species but also upon several of the others. The investigation of this material has led the writer to an examination of the whole group, the results of which are herewith presented.

Dr. J. E. Gray and others have recently made known the fact that great differences in the form of the skull in Otaria jubata result from differences in age. Also the existence of remarkably great sexual difference in size has been long established; whilst Professor Peters, of Berlin, has recently pointed out extraordinary variations in the dentition of Zalophus Gillespii. The specimens of Callorhinus ursinus and Eumetopias Stelleri in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy show that greater and more radical differences even in the osteological characters than those previously known are to be expected in all the species. The two adult male skulls of the Eumetopias Stelleri, for instance, differ from each other so much in form that, if their habitat was not precisely known and the evidence of their co-specific relationship unquestionable, one might well be excused for regarding them as belonging to distinct species; and the same is true of the two adult male skulls of Callorhinus ursinus. These specimens also show that some of the characters that have been relied on most frequently as affording generic distinctions, - as the form of the palatal surface of the intermaxillaries and of the hinder edge of the palatal bones, - vary so much, not only with age, but in specimens of the same age, that no given form of these parts can be regarded as affording even reliable specific characters. The great degree of asymmetry, especially in the skull, seen in these animals is sufficient to indicate clearly that an unusually great tendency to individual variation in these animals is to be naturally expected. Professor Peters has already referred to the presence of a supernumerary molar in one side of the upper jaw in two skulls of eared seals in the Levden Museum, and another instance of the same abnormality is exhibited by one of the skulls of Callorhinus ursinus previously referred to. Taken in connection with this tendency to variation, the interesting fact that the number of synonymes pertaining to the several species is in almost exact ratio to the number of specimens that naturalists have had for examination is readily explained. The incidental revision of the genera and species embraced in the present paper is based on these recent developments.

The greatest number of species recognized by any writer during the last five years is fifteen; but they have now been reduced, by general consent, to ten or eleven. These have been placed by Dr. Gray, in his later papers, in ten genera. In the present enumeration six species \* are regarded as fully established, and two or three other species † are given as doubtful. All are referred to five genera. ‡

One of the most singular facts connected with the history of these animals is that they should have so long remained among the species least known to naturalists, when their commercial importance is such that their capture has given employment to thousands of men and millions of capital for more than a century.

For many years, as is well known, hundreds of thousands of the skins of the Falkland Island fur seal, and hundreds of tons of the oil of other species, annually reached England; yet specimens of either the fur seals, or of any of the other species that naturalists were able to obtain, were exceedingly few and imperfect. Add to this the fact that, in many cases, the localities whence these fragmentary and isolated specimens were received were frequently wholly unknown or but vaguely surmised, and we can well understand how it happened that only till within the last decade have naturalists been able to decide with certainty as to which of the species on their catalogues were to be referred the various fur seals of commerce.

## I. Résumé of Recent Contributions to the Natural History of the

A brief statement of the present state of our knowledge of the Otariadæ seems to be demanded in the present connection, inasmuch as since the publication of the last general synopsis of the subject our knowledge of the group has greatly increased, without the new facts having been given in a single summary. As a résumé of the contributions to the literature concerning this group of animals which have appeared during the last two decades would necessarily give such a statement, and also at the same time a connected history of the recent changes in their nomenclature and classification, a synopsis of the

<sup>\*</sup> Eumetopias Stelleri, Zalophus Gillespii, Z. cinereus (= lobatus, Auct.), Otaria jubata, Call n hinus ursinus, Arctocephalus falklandicus.

<sup>†</sup> Phocarctos Hookeri, Arctocephalus australis, A. antarcticus.

<sup>†</sup> Eumetopias, Zalophus, Otaria, Callorhinus, Arctocephalus.

principal recent papers relating to the subject is accordingly here introduced. For references to earlier papers the reader is referred to the works cited in Dr. J. E. Gray's British Museum Catalogues of the Seals and Professor W. Peters's elaborate essay on these animals published in the Monatsberichte of the Berlin Academy for 1866.

The present notice of the literature of the Otariadæ begins with Dr. Gray's "Catalogue of the Seals in the British Museum," published in 1850, in which valuable work two genera (Arctocephalus and Otaria) and eight species \* are recognized. The next paper requiring mention is that of Dr. McBain,† describing, in 1858, a new species (Otaria Gillespii) from a skull from the Gulf of California. A few months later Dr. Gray published some important notes relative to the Northern sea bear (Arctocephalus ursinus Auct.),‡ based on a skin and skull of an adult male from Behring's Straits, received at the British Museum by way of Amsterdam and St. Petersburg, under the name of Otaria leonina. This paper is accompanied by an excellent profile figure of the skull, which seems to be the only figure of the skull of this species that has been hitherto published.

Two weeks later Dr. Gray communicated to the Zoölogical Society another paper on the Eared Seals, in which the fur seal of the Cape of Good Hope was described anew from a specimen received by him from Paris, and of which he published a view in profile of the skull. He appends to this paper a synopsis of the genus Arctocephalas, in which he divides it into three unnamed sections, based on characters drawn from the skull. Short diagnoses are also given of the species, which he groups as follows:—

"I. Arctocephalus ursinus; II. A. Hookeri; III. A. Delalandii, A. nigrescens, A. lobatus, A. Gillespii." He also gives a profile figure || of a cast of the skull described by Dr. McBain as Otaria Gillespii.

Some months later the same indefatigable author published a paper

<sup>\*</sup> These are Arctocephalus ursinus, A. falklandicus, A cinereus, A. lobatus, A. australis, A. Hookeri, Otaria Stelleri, and O. leonina.

<sup>†</sup> Proc. Edinburgh Royal Phys. Soc., Vol. I, p. 422.

<sup>‡ &</sup>quot;On the Sea Bear of Forster, the *Ursus marinus* of Steller, *Arctocephalus ursinus* of authors," Proc. London Zoël. Soc., 1859, pp. 101, 102, Pl. Ixviii.

<sup>§ &</sup>quot;On the Eared Scal of the Cape of Good Hope (Otaria Delalandii)," Ibid, pp. 107-116, Pl. lxix.

<sup>|</sup> Ibid., Pl. lxx.

on the Sea Lions of the Coast of California,\* with a profile figure of an adult male skull of what he supposed to be a new species (Arctocephalus monteriensis), but which proved to be identical with the Otaria Stelleri of authors, as first suggested by Dr. Gill. Another young skull was described and doubtfully referred to the same species, as was also the skin of a fur seal. The latter, however, is undoubtedly identical with the Northern fur seal (Callorhinus ursinus). In this paper he gives a new classification of the eared seals, in which he properly raised the first of the sections of his genus Arctocephalus, which he had previously instituted, to the rank of a genus (Callorhinus). The second and third sections he seems to have reunited, for which he retained the name of Arctocephalus. His genus Arctocephalus, as now restricted, he again divided into four unnamed sections. A valuable table of comparative measurements of the skulls of eight species is appended.

Seven years from the date last given (1859) carries us to the appearance of Dr. Gray's "Catalogue of the Seals and Whales," † published in 1866, during which interval little or nothing of importance was published relating to the group in question. In this Catalogue all the species of his "Catalogue of Seals" of 1850 are retained; the synonymy is brought up to date, and the species he and others had described since the appearance of that Catalogue are added. These are the Otaria Gillespii McBain (= Zalophus Gillespii Gill, the Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray (= Eumetopias Stelleri Peters), and the Arctocephalus Californianus Gray (= Callorhinus ursinus, in part or wholly), making the whole number of species thirteen. Only one of the three species supposed to be new, however, proved to be so.

The specific nomenclature is not changed from that adopted in his previous paper, so far as the species mentioned in that paper are concerned, and the introduction of one generic name is the only change from the generic nomenclature employed by him in 1850. Another new classification of the species of the genus Arctocephalus is given, in which the species are grouped in two primary sections and seven subsections, upon the arbitrary basis of the differences in the form of the bony palate. No new material is described, and but little new matter added, the Catalogue being essentially a compilation from his previously

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;On the Sea Lions, or Lobos Marinos of the Spaniards, on the Coast of California," Ibid., p. 557.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Catalogue of the Seals and Whales in the British Museum," 1866, pp. 44-60.

published papers, generally without any change in the language, and often embracing important typographical errors. In the Appendix, however, some interesting notes are added in respect to the manner in which the eared seals walk, and their attitudes when in a state of repose, he having had the opportunity of observing a living sea lion in the Cremorne Garden.

Nearly coincident with the appearance of Gray's Catalogue of Seals and Whales was the publication of a "Prodrome of a Monograph of the Pinnipeds," by Dr. Theodore Gill,\* of Washington. This important paper presents to a great extent a new classification of the Pinnipeds, and introduces numerous changes of nomenclature. The walrus, the eared seals, and the earless seals, for the first time for many years,† are again regarded as forming distinct families, as by Brookes, to which are applied respectively the names Rosmarida, Otariada, and Phocidæ. † The name Otaria, of Péron, is restricted to the Southern sea lion (Phoca jubata Schreber); Eumetopais is proposed as a generic name for the Northern sea lion (Leo marinus Steller, = Otaria californiana Lesson, = Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray); Zulophus is proposed as a generic name for the Otaria Gillespii McBain, and Halarctus for a group for which the Arctocephalus Delalandii is named as the type; Arctocephalus F. Cuvier is substituted for the generic name of Callorhinus, proposed by Gray for the Phoca ursina Linné. Brief diagnoses of these genera are given, and a species is indicated as the type of each. A list of the North American species is also added.

While most of the changes introduced by Dr. Gill in his Prodrome are judicious ones, errors occur in respect to the names of the genera of the Otariadæ. These were speedily pointed out by Dr. Gray § in a short critique upon Dr. Gill's paper, in which Dr. Gray calls attention to the fact that the type of Arctocephalus F. Cuvier was not, as Gill assumed, Steller's sea bear, as is clearly shown by Cuvier's figure of the skull of his type of Arctocephalus. Hence Gray properly reinstated his name Callorhinus for the generic name of Steller's Ursus marinus. He does not state, however, to what F. Cuvier's figure refers, this,

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Essex Institute, Vol. V, pp. 1-13, March, 1866.

<sup>†</sup> See my remarks on the synonomy of Otariada below.

<sup>†</sup> Catalogue of Brookes's Anat. and Zoöl. Museum, p. 36, 1828.

<sup>§ &</sup>quot;Observations on the 'Prodrome of a Monograph of the Pinnipedes,' by Theodore Gill," Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, Vol. XVII, pp. 444-447, June, 1866.

as suggested to me by Dr. Gill, being first pointed out by Professor Peters.\* The type of Cuvier's genus Arctocephalus being in all probability the Arctocephalus Delalandii Gray, Halarctus of Gill, based on the same type, became, as Gray points out, a synonyme of Arctocephalus.

Nearly contemporaneously with Gray's above-mentioned critique appeared an able paper on the Otariada by Professor W. Peters of Berlin.† In this essay Professor Peters reviews the whole family, and describes two species erroneously supposed by him to be new,‡ and gave figures of their skulls. The species are all described as Otaria, but are arranged under seven named subgenera or sections. || which appear in the main to be natural groups. The characters on which these divisions are based are drawn, not from the skull alone, but from all the available sources, the length of the ears, and the presence or absence of underfur ("Unterwolle") being for the first time made use of as distinctive characters in determining the lesser groups; Gray and Gill in their classifications having, with slight exceptions, made use of only the characters furnished by the skull. The specimens of eared seals contained in the Berlin Museum are described with considerable minuteness, and the synonymy of all the species quite fully and carefully presented. Professor Peters agrees with Gray (though at the time of writing he could not have seen his [Gray's] paper) in referring Halarctos to Arctocephalus and in reinstating Callorhinus. The names of all the other genera recognized by both Gill and Gray were adopted by him for the names of his sections, and to which he added two others (Arctophoca and Phocarctos). The arrangement of Professor Peters for the first time separated the hair seals from the fur seals, and to this extent at least an advancement was made towards a natural classification. The fur and hair seals differ markedly from each other in

<sup>\*</sup> Monath. d. k. P. Akad. z. Berlin, 1866, p. 271.

 $<sup>\</sup>dagger$  " Über die Ohrenrobben (Seelöwen und Seehören), Otariæ, insbesondere über die in den Sammlungen zu Berlin befindlichen Arten," Monatsberichte der k. P. Akadamie zu Berlin, 1866, pp. 261 – 281, with three plates.

<sup>†</sup> Otaria Godeffroyi and O. Philippii.

<sup>| (1.)</sup> Otaria, containing O. jubata. O. leonina, O. Godeffroyi, and O. Byronia; (2.) Phocarctos, containing O. Hookeri and O. Ullow; (3.) Arctocephalus, containing O pusilla, O. cinerea, and O. falklandica; (4.) Callorhinus, containing O ursina; (5.) Functopias, containing O. Stelleri; (6.) Zalophus, containing O. Gillespii, and O. lobata; (7.) Arctophoca, containing O. Philippii.

numerous other general features, as well as in the pelage, as will be more fully noticed hereafter. Fourteen species have been recognized, but three of them (O. leonina, O. Byronia, O. falklandica) he seems to have regarded as doubtfully distinct from others. He refers Gray's Arctocephalus Delalandii to the Phoca pusilla of Schreber, and (with a query, however) Gray's Arctocephalus nigrescens to the Otaria falklandica of Shaw.

In consequence of the publication of these papers of Dr. Gill and Professor Peters, Dr. Gray was led to a re-examination of the specimens of the Otariadæ in the British Museum, and in September of the same year he published the results of his investigations.\* In this paper he for the first time regards the Otaria as a family (though several other writers had done so previously), and speaks of certain features that indicate their superiority to the Phocidae. He adopts an entirely different generic classification from that given by him a few months before,† both as to the number of genera and their mutual relations. The seven named sections of Otaria of Peters he admits to the rank of genera, with the limits ascribed to them by Peters. He adds also one "new genus" (Neophoca), based on his Arctocephalus lobatus, which species Peters had referred to Gill's genus Zalophus. Gray had now eight genera and three subgenera.‡ Only ten species being recognized by him as valid, he has now but a single species to each of his generic and subgeneric subdivisions. Although the paper is a somewhat important one, containing as it does many valuable suggestions, no really new matter is described in it.

Another paper on the Eared Seals by Peters § immediately followed this one of Gray. In the few months intervening since the publication of his previous essay on this subject, Professor Peters had visited England and Holland, and examined the specimens contained in the principal museums of these countries, including among them the specimens in the Leyden Museum described and figured in the Fauna Japonica,

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Notes on the Skulls of the Sea Bears and Sea Lions (Otariadæ) in the British Museum," Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, Vol. XVIII. pp. 228-237, September 1866.

<sup>†</sup> In his Catalogue of Seals and Whales.

<sup>†</sup> Arctocephalus is divided into Arctocephalus, containing A. Delalandii; Euotaria, containing A. nigrescens; and Gypsophoca, containing A. cinereus.

<sup>§</sup> A supplement to his previous "Abhandlungen über die Ohrenrobben, Otarias." Monatsb. d. k. P. Akad. z. Berlin, 1866, pp. 665-672, November, 1866.

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and those in the British Museum described and figured by Dr. Gray. A skull of Tschudi's Otaria Ullow is figured, and many interesting facts are given respecting several of the species described by him in his previous paper. A list of the species is added, and while all of those given by him a few months before are included in the enumeration, they are numbered in such a way as to indicate that his estimate of them had somewhat changed. The whole number is ten, but under No. 1 he has "Nos. 1 a," "1 b," and "1 c," and under No. 9, "No. 9 a." \* One is left somewhat in doubt, however, as to whether he regarded these species as synonymous respectively with Nos. 1 and 9, or as subspecies. Gray's Arctocephalus nigrescens is now positively (previously with a query) referred to O. falklandica Shaw, to which species also his own O. Philippii is seemingly referred. Instead of dropping altogether his subgenus Arctophoca, based at first solely on his O. Philippii, which he now appears to regard as a nominal species, he transfers his O. falklandica from Arctocephalus to Arctophoca. The Otaria Stelleri of Schlegel is in this paper referred to O. Gillespii of MeBain, instead of in part to the O. cinerca of Péron, and in part to the Arctocephalus lobatus of Gray, as both he and Gray had previously referred it. In addition to the determination of the character of Schlegel's O. Stelleri, the most important thing decided by this paper is the exact character of Tschudi's O. Ullow, of which Peters was able to figure and describe original specimens.

In addition to the above-mentioned five papers published in 1866,—an important year in the history of the literature of the Otariadæ,—Dr. Sclater states, in the Proceedings of the Zoölogical Society of the same year,† that a "young living male sea bear (Otaria Hookeri), captured near Cape Horn, in June, 1862, by a French sailor named Lecomte, had been added to the society's menagerie. This animal had been exhibited by its captor in Buenos Ayres, and in various parts of France and England, and is the one doubtless referred to by Gray in the Appendix to his Catalogue of Scals and Whales.

At about the same time Dr. Burmeister ‡ also gives a description

<sup>\*</sup> O. jubata ex Forster and Blainville is given as "No. 1"; O. Byronia Blainv., as "No. 1 a"; O. leonina F. Cuv. as "No. 1 b," and O. Godeffroyi Peters, as "No. 1 c"; "No. 9" is O. falklandica Shaw, while his O. Philippii forms his "No. 9 a."

<sup>†</sup> Proceedings London Zool. Society, 1866, p. 80, January, 1866.

<sup>†</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, Vol. XVIII, p. 99, Pl. ix, February, 1866

and figure of a young skull of Arctocephalus falklandicus, and some interesting facts in respect to the distribution of the eared seals on the east coast of South America, where he says but two species exist. Under the improper name of A. falklandicus, he also refers to the specimen captured and exhibited by Lecomte. One is led by Burmeister's remarks to infer that he believed this specimen (and another which did not live to reach Europe) was captured in the Rio de la Plata. Later the death of this "sea bear" is announced in the Proceedings of the Zoölogical Society, and Dr. James Murie \* reports the results of his investigations as to the cause of its decease.

The next paper of moment on the Eared Seals appeared in February, 1868, and is entitled "Observations on Sea Bears (Otariadæ), and especially on the Fur Seals and Hair Seals of the Falkland Islands and South America."† In this paper Dr. Gray refers briefly to the two papers of Professor Peters, and very properly remarks, as it seems to me, that Peters in his first essay "formed no less than five species from the skulls of the Southern sea lion (Otaria jubata), - O. jubata, O. Byronia, O. leonina, O. Godeffroyi, and O. Ullow." He reviews at some length the complicated synonomy of the Falkland Island eared seals, and raises his subgenera of Euotaria and Arctocephalus (previously mentioned) to the rank of genera, and redescribes the Falkland Island and South American species. These are, (1) the Arctocephalus falklandicus Gray ex Shaw, (2) the Euotaria nigrescens Gray, and (3) Phocarctos Hookeri Gray. Dr. Gray contends that Peters's O. falklandica is not the O. falklandica of Shaw, but that it is the same as his Arctocephalus (or Euotaria) nigrescens. The Arctocephalus falklandicus of Burmeister‡ he, as it seems to me, erroneously referred to his Phocarctos Hookeri, doubtless from Dr. Burmeister having referred Lecomte's specimen of the "sea bear" already mentioned, which was really the O. jubata, to the "O. falklandica." The description of the skin by Dr. Burmeister, in Professor Peters's second essay, shows the animal to have been a fur seal, the P. Hookeri being a hair seal.

The young male sea lion (or sea bear, as it was also called), which

<sup>\*</sup> Proceedings London Zoöl. Society, 1867, p. 243.

<sup>†</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat Hist., 4th Series, Vol. I pp. 99-110, February, 1868.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., 3d Series, Vol. XVIII, p. 99, February, 1866.

<sup>§</sup> Monatsb. d. k. P. Akad. d. Wissensch, z. Berlin, 1866, p. 670.

lived for a time in the Zoölogical Garden, and which was figured by Dr. Sclater as O. Hookeri,\* he says is identical with the O. jubata,—an opinion subsequently shared by Dr. Sclater himself.†

A few weeks later Dr. Gray published another paper, on the Otariadæ, entitled "Observations on the Fur Seals of the Antarctic Seas and the Cape of Good Hope, with Description of a new Species"; he having in the mean time received additional material. In this paper he remarks still further concerning the complicated synonomy of the Falkland Island fur seals, and respecting the habitat of the specimens of Weddell, described by Mr. R. Hamilton, and the differences between these species and his A. cinereus of Anstralia and the fur seals of the Cape of Good Hope. He also describes what he regards as a new species, from two skins from the Cape of Good Hope, which species he calls Arctocephalus nivosus. These skins differ from those of his A. Delalandii, he says, in being so nearly destitute of under-fur, except just on the crown of the head, that he was convinced they could not be dressed as fur seals.

In "The [Cambridge, Eng.] Journal of Anatomy and Physiology" for November, 1868, ¶ Dr. McBain describes an imperfect skull of a female Otaria jubata from the Chincha Islands, which he calls "O. Ulloæ?" suggesting for it, however, the name O. Graii, in case it should prove to be new. In the same number of this journal Professor Turner\*\* describes, as that of a new species (Arctocephalus schisthyperoës††), a skull with a peculiar conformation of the palatine bones, from Desolation Island, which Dr. Gray examined later and referred to his Euotaria nigrescens.

In the Monatsbericht of the Berlin Academy for March of the same

- \* Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1866, p. 80.
- † Ibid., 1868, p. 190, foot-note, March, 1868.
- ‡ Ann and Mag. Nat. Hist., 4th Series, Vol. I, pp. 215-219, March, 1868.
- 6 Ibid., Vol. II, p. 81, Pl. iv. 1838.

- ¶ Vol. III, p. 109-112.
- \*\* Ibid., p. 113-117.

In this paper Gray repeats a misstatement made by him in his last paper preceding this, viz. that the *Eumetopias Stelleri*, a true *hair* seal, is one of the few eared seals that "have a close, soft, elastic fur." See further remarks on this point beyond under *E. Stelleri*.

<sup>††</sup> In the "Zoölogical Record" for 1869 Dr. Günther changes this name to schistuperus. McBain's "O. Ullow?" he regards as a new species, for which he proposes the name of Arctocephalus Graii.

year a letter from Dr. Burmeister to Professor Peters\* is published concerning the eared seals of the coast of the La Plata States. In this letter Dr. Burmeister restates his opinion † that only two species of these animals exist on the east coast of South America, one of which he regards as the Otaria leonina, and the other as the Otaria falklandica of Peters's first essay. Of the first of these he had examined a number of specimens, which he describes somewhat in detail, and remarks especially upon the great variations presented by different specimens in consequence of differences in age, and also upon the great amount of purely individual variation they present. He is consequently led to believe that the species described by Professor Peters in his first essay as O. jubata, O. Byronia, O. leonina, and O. Godeffroyi, form but a single species. These several nominal species he regards as based merely upon individual differences, and not constituting even "permanent races or varieties." In the statement of this opinion he was anticipated by Dr. Gray, who, as previously stated, one month earlier referred not only these, but also the O. Ullow of Peters, to the O. jubata. To the Otaria fulklandica of Shaw Dr. Burmeister also refers the O. nigrescens Gray and the O. Philippii Peters, as it seems to me with evident propriety. This short article contains highly important information respecting the South American eared seals. ‡

In the following month Captain C. C. Abbott § communicated to the London Zoölogical Society some interesting notes on the haunts, habits, and external features of *Otaria jubata* and *Arctocephalus falklandicus*, Among other things, he remarks that, in the hundreds of skins of the former (*O. jubata*) he had seen, he "never saw on any of them anything approaching fur." Captain Abbott's notes are the more valuable from the fact that he has deposited skulls of both these species in the

<sup>\*</sup> Monatsb. d. k. P. Akad. Wissensch. z. Berlin, 1868, pp. 180-182. The same account is substantially given in the Anal. Mus. Buen. Ayr. 1868, p. 303; Act. Soc. Paleont., p. xxxix, and Zeitschr. ges. Naturw., XXXI, pp. 294-301.

<sup>†</sup> See Aan. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, Vol. XVIII, p. 99, 1866.

<sup>‡</sup> It is perhaps but proper to state in this connection that the specimens referred to by Dr. Burmeister in the above-mentioned paper were collected by Dr. G. A. Maack at Cabo Corrientes, near the southern extremity of Buenos Ayres (lat. 38° S.) They are the specimens referred to by Dr. Maack in his paper in "Der Zoologische Garten" (Jan. 1870), and in his notes to the present paper.

<sup>§ &</sup>quot;On the Seals of the Falkland Islands," by Captain C. C. Abbott. Communicated, with notes, by P. L. Sclater, M. D., etc., Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1868, pp. 189–182, March, 1868.

British Museum, so that it is well known to which species his remarks refer. In a note to this paper Dr. Sclater observes: "I agree with Dr. Peters\* in thinking it best to retain the name jubata for the Southern species, and to call the Northern one Stelleri. I consider O. leonina Cuv. to be probably the same as O. jubata, as appears to be admitted by Dr. Peters in his last paper." † Dr. Sclater states that he was mistaken in referring the living specimen brought by Lecomte to the O. Hookeri, and agrees with Peters ‡ and Gray in regarding it as O. jubata:

At the first session of the Zoölogical Society of London, held in November, 1868, Dr. Sclater § announced that a young female sea lion (Otaria jubata), from the Falkland Islands, had been received during the preceding August at the society's menagerie. "This individual," he says, "was the only survivor of eight examples of this animal captured in various spots on the coast of the Falklands by Adolphe Alexandre Lecomte, || the society's keeper, who had been sent out there by the council of the society for the purpose of obtaining living specimens of it." The different localities at which M. Lecomte met with this species are mentioned in this communication, from which it appears that both this animal and "the fur seal of the Falklands (Otaria falklandica)" are far less numerous than formerly. The latter species was observed in considerable numbers at the Volunteer Rocks.

M. Lecomte also brought home a considerable number of skins and skeletons of the sea lion, concerning which Dr. James Murie ¶ soon published an exceedingly interesting communication. Lecomte's collection consisted of parts of fifteen individuals of the *Otaria jubata*, and of one of the *Arctocephalus nigrescens* Gray. The latter species, however, was represented by merely the "pectoral extremities" of an adult female; the former by the skull and skin of an "adult male," \*\* the skins and skeletons — the latter nearly complete — of four adult females, the

<sup>\*</sup> Monatsb. Berl. Ak. 1866, p. 670.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., p. 670.

<sup>‡</sup> Ibid., 666.

<sup>§</sup> Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1868, p. 527.

<sup>||</sup> François Lecomte, according to Dr. Murie. (See next foot-note.)

<sup>¶ &</sup>quot;Report on the Eared Seals, collected by the Society's Keeper, François Lecomte, in the Falkland Islands," by James Murie, M. D., etc., Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., Jan. 1869, pp. 100 – 109, Pl. vii, and two woodcuts.

<sup>\*\*</sup> This specimen, according to Dr. Murie's measurements, was but little larger than the so-called adult female, and hence cannot have been adult. Respecting the

skin and partial skeleton of a young male, skins of two very young males,\* skins of two young females, together with a partial skeleton of one of them, and five aged male skulls. The skins were preserved in salt, but the pelage of none of them was in perfect condition. The color of these skins is described in detail, and a few measurements are given of both the skins and skulls. The skulls are described only in general terms. The skull of a half-grown male is figured, as is also another skull of an adult female. Three figures of the animal (young male, adult female and young), showing its peculiar attitudes, also accompany the report. While the paper conveys highly important information in respect to these specimens, it is to be hoped that a far more detailed account of them will yet be given. Dr. Murie's paper also embraces valuable observations concerning the habits of these species, derived from M. Lecomte, who resided several months on the islands among them.

Dr. Murie remarks that he cannot agree with Dr. Gray, "that Dr. Peters's figured skull of Otaria Philippii is most nearly allied to O. Stelleri from California, inasmuch," he continues, "as I consider it nothing less than O. Hookeri"; both of these gentlemen evidently overlooked the fact that Dr. Peters states expressly that the O. Philippii has a thick under-fur ("die dichte Unterwolle ist rostroth"), whereas both the O. Stelleri and the O. Hookeri are true hair seals. On the other hand, Dr. Murie says he unhesitatingly supports Dr. Gray in his criticism of Dr. Peters as regards the species of sea lions termed respectively O. Byronia, O. leonina, O. Godeffroyi, and O. Ulloæ, as," he adds, "I am perfectly convinced they are but differently aged specimens of Forster's jubata." Dr. Murie further observes, and it seems to me justly, that the Arctocephalus nivosus Gray is "only a variety, seasonal, sexual, or of a different age" of a previously known species.

In October, 1869, Dr. Gray published some "Additional Notes on Sea Bears (Otariadæ)," † based mainly on an examination of three skulls from Desolation Island, and one from the Cape of Good Hope, which had recently been sent him by Professor Turner of Edinburgh.

comparative size of the sexes, see Captain C. C. Abbott's notes (Proc. Zoöl. Soc., 1868, p. 190) and Dr. Maack's remarks beyond. Also Burmeister's in the Monatsb. Akad. z. Berlin, 1868, p. 181; and D'Orbigny's in his Voyage dans l'Amérique Meridionale, Tome II, p. 140, 1839.

<sup>\*</sup> About three months old, according to Sclater (Proc. Zoöl. Soc., 1868, p. 528).

<sup>†</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 4th Series, Vol. IV, pp. 264 - 270.

The skull from the Cape of Good Hope is the one on which Professor Turner \* had founded his Arctocephulus schisthyperoës. This skull Dr. Gray is induced to believe is that of a half-grown Arctocephalus Delalandii, presenting an individual abnormality in the form of the palatine bones. The three skulls from Desolation Island he refers to his Euotaria nigrescens. In his remarks respecting them he speaks of certain differences he had observed in the relative position of the hinder grinders in the Desolation Island skulls, and also in the form of the posterior nares. In this connection he also compares Euotaria nigrescens with Arctocephalus Delalandii, and says that the last upper molar teeth being "placed in front of the hinder edge of the front part of the zygomatic arch" in the former is, so far as the skull is concerned (on which his distinction of his groups is mainly based), all that distinguishes them. This difference, he says, is slight in the adult, but more marked in the young; but "even then," he adds, "the difference is more imaginary than real." We should hardly expect, after this admission, and his apparently appreciative remarks in the same paper on the notable differences he had observed in skulls he regards as specifically identical, that in his subjoined new synopsis of the "tribes and genera" of the Otariada he should place, as he has done, these two species in different genera! He remarks that he does not now regard the "form of the hinder opening of the nostrils, and the form of its front edge," as constituting "a good character." The position of the grinders he regards as affording reliable specific characters during youth, but that in maturity their form is so much altered by age, "and their position in different species so similar, that the distinction of the species becomes more difficult." He finally briefly recapitulates the principal distinctive family characters of the Otariada, and concludes the paper with a synopsis of its "genera and tribes." He having previously established as many genera as there are commonly recognized specie-,† no new genera could well be added. It is, nevertheless, a radically new classification, and one as arbitrary a could well be devised. The family is first divided into two primary groups, termed "sections." The first section embraces a single "tribe," called Otariina, containing the single species Otaria jubata of the east and west coast of Southern South America.

<sup>\*</sup> See antea, p. 12.

<sup>†</sup> See his papers on the Eared Seals in the Ann. and Mag. Nat Hist. for 1866 and 1868.

The other section is divided into four "tribes," which are named respectively, (1) Callorhinina, (2) Arctocephalina, (3) Zalophina, and (4) Eumetopiina. The first embraces the single genus Callorhinus; the second, Phocarctos, Arctocephalus, Euotaria, and Gypsophoca; the third, Zalophus and Neophoca; the fourth, Eumetopias and Arctophoca, —ten genera in all. The short generic diagnoses given are drawn almost entirely from two exceedingly variable features of the skull, namely, the form and relative length of the palatal bones and the form and position of the teeth. The geographical distribution of the supposed genera is also indicated, in which the habitat of Zalophus is given as "South America," whereas it was founded solely on the Otaria Gillespii McBain of the North Pacific. Three alleged species are mentioned whose skulls, he says, are not known. These are, (1) Arctocephalus falklandicus, habitat, "New Georgia"; (2) A. nivosus, habitat, "Cape of Good Hope"; (3) "A. Forsteri Fischer" habitat, "New Zealand." The character of the latter I cannot satisfactorily determine. I have never seen an "Arctocephalus Forsteri Fischer" elsewhere mentioned; the Otaria Fischeri Lesson and the Phoca Forsteri Fischer\* have usually been referred to the A. fulklandicus. Gray's A. Forsteri seems to be based, judging from his references, exclusively on the "sea bear" of Dr. J. R. Forster,† whose habitat was the Cape of Good Hope, as Gray in another place specially states. But this species Gray in this paper regards as the same as the Phoca antarctica Thunberg ‡ and Fischer, § which, he says, is the same as what he had called Arctocephalus Delalandii, the name of which species he now consequently changes to A. antarcticus. Although Forster regarded the New Zealand fur seal as the same as the one he saw at the Cape of Good Hope, Gray's A. Forsteri seems to refer, from the habitat given, only to the New Zealand animal. I can see no evidence, however, of the New Zealand fur seal being specifically different from the fur seal of South Australia (A. cinereus auct.).

In this paper the dental formula of the eared seals is, for the first time correctly given by the author.

<sup>\*</sup> Synop. Mam., p. 232.

<sup>†</sup> Cook's Voyages, Vol. I, p. 174; Vol. II, p. 528.

<sup>†</sup> Mem. de l'Acad. de St. Petersbourg, 3d Series, Tome III, p. 322, 1811.

<sup>§</sup> Synop. Mam., p. 242.

<sup>||</sup> For more than fifteen years, through some strange inadvertence, the dental formula of the molars of the eared seals was given in Dr. Gray's papers as " $\frac{6}{6} - \frac{6}{6}$ ."

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In "Der Zoologische Garten" for January, 1870,† Dr. G. A. Maack describes his excursion to the Cabo Corrientes on the southern coast of Buenos Ayres (lat. 38° S.) for the purpose of obtaining specimens of the eared seals, and his difficulties in capturing them. He states that he met with both species (Arctocephalus falklandicus and Otaria jubata = O. leonina Maack) there, of both of which he secured examples. As these specimens had been previously described by Dr. Burmeister (l. c.), Dr. Maack's observations are mainly concerning the habits of the animals and the character of the locality. A figure of the O. jubata is also given, but through some mistake of the artist the limbs are improperly represented. The remarkable form of the nose, Dr. Maack informs me, correctly represents the specimen from which the figure was made. It differs greatly, however, in this respect from any other eared seal that has been figured or described, and may represent but an individual or abnormal variation.

In Mr. W. H. Dall's important work on Alaska† may be found valuable notes on the fur and other eared seals of the North Pacific, with a figure of the *Callorhinus ursinus* drawn from nature by Mr. Dall.

In addition to the above-mentioned scientific papers, other interesting articles of a popular character have recently appeared, but some of the statements given in them are evidently not wholly reliable.‡

In addition to the preceding summary of the more important of the recent contributions to our knowledge of the eared seals, the reader is

This mistake occurs in three consecutive synopses of the group (Cat. of Seals in Brit. Mus., 1850; Cat. Seals and Whales in Brit. Mus., 1866; Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, XVIII, 1866, —in the last case corrected, however, in the general list of errata appended to the volume), and twice in each synopsis (in the diagnosis of this group, called by him Arctocephalina, and in that of the genus Arctocephalus). The correct formula of the molars is, of course,  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$  for a part of the species, and  $\frac{5}{6} = \frac{5}{6}$  for the others. In the diagnosis of Arctocephalus given in the "Catalogue of Seals and Whales" (p. 47), the molars are stated to be " $\frac{2}{6} = \frac{6}{6}$ "; the molars of the first, third, and seventh species described under this genus are really, however,  $\frac{5}{2} = \frac{5}{6}$ , and in the others  $\frac{5}{6} = \frac{6}{6}$ .

<sup>+</sup> Vol. XI, pp. 1-8.

<sup>†</sup> Alaska and its Resources, Boston, June, 1870.

<sup>†</sup> One of the more important ones relative to the North Pacific species is a recent article in the "Old and New" Magazine (Vol. I, pp. 487-493, April, 1870), by Mr. O. Howes, Jr. In Hutchin's "Scenes of Wonder and Curiosity in California" (p. 187, figs. 1 and 2) are also a few interesting notes on the sea lions of the Farallone Islands. They contain, however, exaggerated statements, especially in respect to their size.

referred to three recent systematic synopses of the family for an expression of the later opinions relative to the genera and higher groups of the three eminent zoölogists who, within the last four years, have published special classifications of these animals, as no tabulated summary will properly represent them. These are Dr. Gill's "Prodrome," \* Professor Peters's revision † of the genera and species, published in 1866, and Dr. Gray's synopsis ‡ of the "tribes and genera," published in 1869.

2. On the Affinities, Distinctive Characters, and Synonymy of the Family Otariade, with Remarks on Sexual, Age, and Individual Variation, and a Conspectus of the Genera and Species, etc.

### FAMILY OTARIADÆ BROOKES.

Phocacea auriculata Péron, Voy. Terr. austr., II, 37, 1816.

Otariada Brookes, Cat. Anat. and Zoöl. Mus., 36, 1828.

" Otaridés Gervais, Hist. Nat. des Mammifères, II, 305."

Otariidæ GILL, Proc. Essex Institute, V, 7, 1866.

Otariadee Gray, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Ser., XVIII, 228, 1866.

Otariina GRAY, Ann. of Phil., 1825.

Arctocephalina Gray, Charlesworth's Mag. Nat. Hist., I, 583, 1837.

"Turner, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1848, 88; Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 1st Ser., III, 422, 1848.

Otaria Péron, Voy. Terr. austr., II, 37, 1816.

" Peters, Monatsb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, 261, 665.

Distinctive Characters.— Body less attenuated than in the majority of the Phocidæ; more attenuated than in the Rosmaridæ. Fore limbs finlike, situated very far back. Hind limbs comparatively free; hind feet directed forward when the animal is at rest, and serviceable for terrestrial locomotion. The digits terminate in long cartilaginous flaps, connected at the base by membranes. Bones of the upper and fore-arm and corresponding bones of the leg very short, exceedingly stout and heavy. The digits of the hand successively decrease in length from the first; without nails, or with extremely rudimentary ones, situated at a distance from the edge of the hand. Outer digits of the hind limbs longer than the middle ones; the latter sub-equal, and provided with well-developed nails; the outer digits without nails or with very rudimentary ones, and much shorter and thicker than the inner digits. Pubic bones

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Essex Institute, Vol. V, pp. 7, 10, 11.

<sup>†</sup> Monatsb. d. k. P. Akad. z. Berlin, 1866, p. 670.

<sup>†</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 4th Series, Vol. IV, p. 269.

not anchylosed, and in the female considerably separated. Acetabula opposite the posterior end of the second sacral vertebra. Ears provided with a sub-cylindrical external conch. The skull has a well-developed orbital process and an alisphenoid caual; the mastoid process is strong and salient, distinct from the auditory bulla, which is much smaller than in the *Phocidæ*. Molars either  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5}$  or  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$ ; canines,  $\frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{1}$ ; incisors,  $\frac{3}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$ ; whole number of teeth,  $\frac{9}{8} = \frac{9}{16} = \frac{1}{16} = 34$ , or  $\frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{16} = 26$ . Testes scrotal, situated as in the *Suidæ*.

Rank and Affinities.— The seals were all referred by the earlier writers to the Linnæan genus Phoca. Buffon was the first naturalist who recognized the division of the seals made by seamen into eared seals and earless seals, accordingly as they possessed or were devoid of external ears. Later Péron,\* in 1816, regarded these two groups as genera, and gave to the eared seals the name of Otaria, leaving the earless seals in Phoca. Finally these two groups were regarded by Brookes,† in 1828, as constituting two families, the walrus, in his system, forming a third.

These groups have been generally recognized as natural, but their rank has been variously estimated by different authors. Turner ‡ regarded the eared seals, the earless seals, and the walrus as together constituting a single family, which he divided into three subfamilies, — Arctocephalina, embracing Otaria and Arctocephalus; Trichecina, embracing only the walrus; and Phocina, embracing all the earless seals. He observes, however, in referring to the classification of the Pinnipedia made by Gray in 1837, \$ that if the sub-families of the Phocina, proposed by that author, be entitled to that rank, "the walrus and the Arctocephaline group, which differ so decidedly from the other seals, would almost seem entitled to the rank of families."

All writers, except Brookes and Gervais, previous to 1866, seem to have regarded these three groups as constituting a single family. Gill, however, in his Prodrome, || considered them as distinct families, which view has since been adopted by Gray. ¶

- \* Voy. Terr. aust., Vol. II, p. 37, 1816
- † Cat. of his Anatom. and Zoöl. Mus, p 36, 1828.
- † Proc. London Zoöl. Soc., p. 88, 1848.
- & Charlesworth's Mag. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 583.
- " Prodrome of a Monograph of the Pinnipedes," Proc. Essex Institute, Vol. V, p. 7, July, 1866.
  - ¶ Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Ser., Vol. XVIII, p. 229, 1866.

Believing that they have a higher than a sub-family value, I adopt for the present the classification elaborated by Dr. Gill in his Prodrome, which is, it seems to me, the most natural arrangement of the Pinnipedes that has been proposed. Gill's arrangement places the Otariadæ between the Phocidæ and the Rosmaridæ. No serial arrangement of these groups can, I think, fully express their relative rank and mutual affinities. The Otariadæ are evidently the highest, though they seem intermediate in general features between the earless seals and the walruses. Their affinities, as they appear to me, may be indicated as follows:—

#### OTARIADÆ.

ROSMARIDÆ.

#### PHOCIDÆ.

While the Rosmaridæ are lower than the Otariadæ, and the Phocidæ are still lower than the Rosmaridæ, the latter evidently do not connect the other two groups.

The evidence of the superiority of the Otariadæ over the Phocidæ consists mainly in that modification of their general structure, and especially of the pelvis and posterior extremities, by means of which they have freer use of their limbs, and are able to move on land with considerable rapidity; the Phocidæ, on the other hand, move with great difficulty when out of the water. But the higher rank of the former is also indicated by their semi-terrestrial habits, the scrotal position of the testes, and in the nearer approach in general features to the terrestrial Carnivores, especially in the more posterior position of the acetabula. Most of these modifications are, however, nearly equally shared by the Rosmaridæ, indicating likewise that their true station is above that of the majority of the Phocidæ.

Primary Subdivisions. — The members of the Otariadæ form among themselves a closely connected group, as well as a well-defined one. But in general form, in size, in color and in the character of the pelage, two tolerably distinct divisions of the Otariadæ may be recognized, which in a general way correspond with the sea bears\* and sea lions of seamen, and the fur seals and hair seals of commerce. F. Cuvier† was the first naturalist who recognized these divisions, he regard-

<sup>\*</sup> The term sea bear, however, has been sometimes applied indiscriminately to fur and hair seals, and even to the same animal by the same person, as in the case of the first living specimen of Otaria jubata, exhibited in England.

<sup>†</sup> Mem. du Mus., Tome XI, p. 295 et seq., 1824.

ing them as constituting two genera. To the first of these genera, embracing the sea bears, founded in fact on one of the Southern sea bears, (? Arctocephalus Delalandi Gray), he gave the name of Arctocephalus, and to the other, founded on the Southern sea lion (Otaria jubata Blainville), that of Platyrhynchus. These names indicate to some extent the differences seen in the general form of the head, in the two groups. In the first, or sea bears, the muzzle is narrow and pointed; in the other it is broad, and the aspect is more leonine. The name Platyrhynchus, however, is antedated by that of Otaria of Péron. Besides these differences in the shape of the head, the form of the body in the Arctocephaline species is more slender than in those of the other group. The hind feet, especially, are longer and slenderer, with relatively longer swimming-flaps at the end of the toes. Their size is smaller, and they differ in general color. The Arctocephaline species are also all provided with a dense, soft, thick under-fur, while the others are either entirely without under-fur, or possess it in too small a quantity to render the skins of any commercial value as furs.\* These two groups are as well defined as the several sub-families of the Phocidæ, and are co-ordinate with them. If the Otariadæ constitute a group entitled to family rank, - and the so-called sub-families of the Phocidæ have truly a sub-family value, — the Otariadæ must be considered as divisible into two sub-family groups, of which the hair seals constitute one and the fur seals the other.

In respect to what names should be used for their designation, none seem in themselves more appropriate than those derived from the names of the leading genera of these groups, Otariinæ for the hair seals and Arctocephalinæ for the fur seals. These names, however, in a slightly altered form (Otariina and Arctocephalina), have been used on different occasions in widely different senses, especially by Gray; the first for the whole group of eared seals, and afterwards the other in precisely the same sense. Later, both were again used simul-

<sup>\*</sup> I am aware of the alleged exceptions in the Otarys of Australia: the Zalophus lobatus Peters, a true hair seal, having, it is said, considerable under-fur when young. This is probably the case, to a greater or less extent, with the young of all the hair seals prior to the first moult. I feel sure, however, that it is quite different in character from the soft, long, dense fur of the true fur seals. It may be added that the genus Zalophus is in other respects, as in size and the general shape of the head, somewhat intermediate between the fur and hair seals, though its affinities are decidedly with the latter.

taneously, as the names of different sub-divisions of the group, but Arctocephalina still embraced both hair and fur seals. Later still, the same author restricted Otariina, so that it embraced but a single species, while the other, also greatly restricted in its scope, embraced still both hair and fur seals. In view of this confusion, the name Trichophocinæ\* is proposed for the hair seals, and Oulophocinæ† for the fur seals, in allusion to the different character of the pelage in the two groups.

Hitherto, owing to the fact that our best classifications of them have been based mainly on the number and position of the molar teeth, the hair and fur seals have been associated pell-mell and in almost every possible mode of combination. Formerly Arctocephalus was a heterogeneous association of members of two widely different natural groups. Although of late the hair and fur seals have been usually placed in different genera, the genera of the one set have variously alternated in the systems of different authors, and in the different systems of the same author, with those of the other set.

# COMPARISON OF THE SKELETON OF THE OTARIADÆ WITH THOSE OF THE PRINCIPAL TYPES OF THE PROCEDÆ.

The chief osteological differences which serve to distinguish the eared seals from the other types of the Pinnipedes, as the common Phoca, † Cystophora, Monachus, Macrorhinus, and Rosmarus, § may be indicated as follows:—

Comparison of the Otariadæ (Eumetopias) with Rosmarus.— The eared seals (of which Eumetopias is here taken as the type) differ

- \*  $\theta \rho i \xi = \text{hair}$ , and  $\phi \omega \chi \eta = Phoca$ .
- † οῦλος = soft, φώη = Phoca.
- † The materials mainly used in the following comparisons consist as follows: (1.) Of the eared seals, two complete ligamentary adult male skeletons of Eumetopias Stelleri, and two adult male and two adult female complete ligamentary skeletons of Cullorhinus ursinus. (2.) Of the earless seals, a complete adult male ligamentary skeleton of Phoca vitulina, and other partial skeletons of the same species; three complete ligamentary skeletons of Cystophora cristata, and two nearly complete disarticulated male skeletons of Macrorhinus elephantinus, besides partial skeletons of other species. (3.) Of the walrus, two complete ligamentary skeletons. Cuvier's figures of the skeleton of the "Phoque a ventre blane" (Monachus albiventer), Pander and D'Alton's of that of the Otaria jubata, and Schelgel's of that of Zalophus Gillespii, have also been examined.
- § Trichechus, as has been pointed out by Peters and Gill, was originally based by Linné (Syst. Nat., 10th Ed., 1758, I, 34) solely on the Manati (T. Manatus), and must hence be retained for that animal.

from Rosmarus in the form of the skull, in the relative length of the cervical vertebræ, in the form of the scapulæ, and in general proportions. In respect to the limbs, the principal difference consists in the relatively greater shortness of the foot in the walrus as compared with the other extremital segments (the femur and tibia posteriorly and the humerus and radius anteriorly), and the great divergence of the digits of the hind feet.

A skeleton of an aged male Alaska walrus I find varies in length but a few centimetres from that of an aged male of E. Stelleri. The dorsal and lumbar vertebræ have the same length in both, but the cervical vertebræ in the walrus are considerably shorter, and the caudal somewhat longer, than they are in the other. A vast difference, however, is seen in the general form, the E. Stelleri being slender and the walrus exceedingly robust, the bulk of the body in the latter being nearly twice that of the former. This gives a greater length to the ribs of the walrus, and much larger centrums to its vertebræ; but the development of most of the vertebral apophyses is nearly the same in both. The great thickness of the body also serves to increase the disproportionate shortness of the neck, as well as to increase the relative size of the pelvis and the divergence of the ilia. The limbs also are hence necessarily longer in proportion to the length of the body. The feet, however, are proportionally less developed than in the eared seals, and the whole form of the body indicates an animal of slow movements, especially in the water, and of rather sluggish habits.

The scapula in the walrus is long and narrow, with its greatest breadth near the middle, and its spine or crest situated but little behind the median line. In *Eumetopias* the scapula is short and broad, with its greatest breadth at the upper border, and its spine quite near the posterior edge. These considerable differences seem to result necessarily from the correlation of the form of the scapula with the great depth of the body.

The great differences which obtain in the skulls of these types, through the enormous development of the canines in the walrus, are too well known to require a detailed description. In the latter the skull is exceedingly massive throughout, but is especially developed anteriorly, to afford support to the immense tusks, while in *Eumetopias* it has the normal carnivore form.

The bones of the walrus, it may be added, are lighter and softer than

those of the eared seals, but they are far less so than those of some of the earless seals, especially *Macrorhinus*, in which they are more porous than in some of the cetaceans. All the sternal segments in the walrus are much less ossified than in the *Otariadæ*; in the former the first and ninth are almost wholly cartilaginous, leaving but eight ossified. In *Eumetopias* all are ossified, the first being also developed anteriorly into a long bony point, and the ninth similarly developed posteriorly.\*

Hence the *Otariadæ* differ from the walrus type not only in many details of structure, but radically in the general form and proportions of the whole skeleton.

Comparison with the Phoca vitulina.— The eared seals differ vastly from the earless seals, as represented by Phoca vitulina, in almost every feature. In addition to the well-marked differences of form existing between nearly all the principal bones, there are remarkable regional variations which indicate a wide difference in the zoölogical rank of the two types. In the eared seals the length of the cervical and thoracic regions of the body, as compared with its whole length, is much greater than in Phoca, but in respect to the lumbar and pelvic regions the reverse of this obtains, these regions being most developed in the Phocidæ.† In the eared seals (Eumetopias and Callorhinus, which represent the two leading types of the eared seals) the ratio of the length of the cervical vertebre to the whole length of the spinal column is as 19 to 100; in Phoca vitulina as 18 to 100. In the former, the ratio of the length of the dorsal vertebre to the whole length of the spinal column is as 44 to 100; in Phoca vitulina as 37 to 100. That of the lumbar to

<sup>\*</sup> See the detailed measurements of the skeletons of E. Stelleri and Callorhinus ursinus given beyond.

†	The following table gives the dimensions (in mm.) and the proportions of the differ-
ent	egions in E. Stelleri, C. ursinus, P. vitulina, and the Alaska walrus.

									E. Stel- leri. \$	C. ur- sinus. 3	Ph. vitu- lina. J	Rosma.
engtl	h of th	e cei	rvical vert	ehræ					490	400	235	33
44	4.6		rsal "						1.130	780	480	1,13
4.6	6.6		nbar "	2	٠.	٠.	٠.	٠.	370	270	220	37
4.6	4.6	63	u lal "	6					520	310	370	58
6.6	4.6	spi	inal colum	n			٠.		2,500	1,760	1.305	2,41
6.6	6.6		rnum						840	6.30	270	59
latio -	of leng		f cervical	vert.	to spi	inal	colui	nn.	15-100	23-100	18-100	14-10
4.6	66	6.	dorsal	4.6	66		6.6	, ,	43-100	44-100	37-100	47-10
6.6	4.6	4.6	lumbar	* 6	6.6		6.6		15-100	15.1-100	17-100	15.4-10
6.6	8.6	4.6	caudal	6.6	4.6		6.6		21-100	20-100	28-100	24-10
6.6	4.6	44	sternum		6.6		6.6		34-100	36-100	20.7-100	24.5-10

the whole length is in the former as 15 to 100; in *P. vitulina* as 17 to 100. The same proportion in respect to the caudal vertebræ is in the former as 20 to 100; in the latter as 28 to 100.\* The relative length of the sternum to the spinal column is as 35 to 100 in the eared seals, and as 28 to 100 in *Phoca vitulina*, indicating in the latter the relative shortness of the thorax as compared with the whole length of the animal, and hence its eminently cetacean form.

In regard to the skull, Turner † showed many years since that the eared seals are distinguished from the others by important cranial differences. He compares them as follows: In the earless seals "there is no trace of a postorbital process, nor of an ali-sphenoid canal; the mastoid can scarcely be said to constitute a process; it is swollen, and appears to form a portion of the auditory bulla, more or less connected with the tympanic portion, from which it is separated by a depressed groove running from the stylo-mastoid foramen backwards and a little inwards. The paroccipital process is never large in any of the family, but it is always distinctly developed and salient backwards. The Arctocephaline group are distinguished at once by their having a distinct postorbital process and an alisphenoid canal; the mastoid projects as a strong process, and seems, as it were, to stand aloof from the auditory bulla." In Phoca and in other types of the Phocidæ, the bulla is many times greater than in the Otariadæ, its increased size being doubtless compensatory for the absence of an external conch. In the latter the occipital and sagittal crests in old age attain an enormous development, which only a few of the higher forms of the Phocidæ at all approach.

Considerable differences are also found in the form of the different bones of the extremities of the two types. In the anterior extremities, these consist in the reduced size and structurally low form of the scapula in *Phoca*, as compared with *Eumetopias* and *Callorhinus* ‡ (Figs. 12, 13,

- \* In E. Stelleri as 15 to 100; in C. ursinus as 23 to 100; in the latter there being a greater development of the post sacral vertebræ.
  - † Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1848, p. 84.
- ‡ The general form of the scapula in these groups (including Rosmarus and Macro-rhinus) is indicated by the following table:—

	Rosmarus.	Eumetopias.	Callorhinus	Phoca.	Macrothinus.
Length	420	370	215	125	225
	260	405	280	110	215
	6-10	11-10	13-10	9-10	6.6-10

and 16, Plate III). In the latter the acromion is developed almost as much as in the terrestrial carnivores, the crests are high, and the expansion of the blade very great. In *Phoca* the blade is small, expanded about equally anteriorly and posteriorly, the crest moderate, and the acromion process slightly developed. The greater tuberosity of the humerus, though large, does not rise above the base of the head of the humerus, whilst the lesser tuberosity rises as a sharp point to a greater height than the head of the humerus. In *Eumetopias* and *Callorhinus* these conditions are reversed, the lesser tuberosity being but slightly developed, whilst the greater is excessively so, rising to a greater height than the head of the humerus, and extending downwards more than half the length of this bone, — much farther than in *Phoca*. Differences are also traceable in the form of the bones of the forearm, carpus, and metacarpus. In respect to the digits of the hand, they differ less in size and length in *Phoca* than they do in the *Otariadæ* and in *Rosmarus*.

By far the most important differences, however, are found in the posterior organs of locomotion,—the pelvis and the hind limbs. The latter are relatively smaller in the *Phocidæ* than in the *Otariadæ*, and are very differently constructed and adapted to widely different uses, as indicated in the following comparison.

In the *Phocidæ* the hind limbs are extended backwards in a line parallel with the body; the legs are so enclosed within the integuments of the body that they have little or no motion, and the feet are movable only in a relatively small degree, in an obliquely lateral direction.

In the Otariadæ the hind limbs are somewhat free, and when in a natural position (on land) the feet are turned forward, and serve to raise the body from the ground.\*

\* It may be added that the foot is also relatively longer, as compared with the length of the leg, than in *Phoca*, as shown by the following table, whilst the differences in the size of the outer toes as compared with the middle ones is also greater.

	Eumetopias.	Callorhinus.	Romarus.	Phoca.
Length of fore limb  " "humerus " "radius " "hand Ratio of length of hand to that of radius Length of him! limb	1,045 320 275 450 16-10 1,000	705 200 205 300 15-10	1,010 3\cdot 0 270 3\cdot 0 13-10 1,040	360 120 110 130 12-10 600
" " femur " " tibia " " foot . Ratio of length of foot to tibia " "	200 350 450 13-10	135 220 350 16-10	250 370 420 11-10	100 210 290 14-10

In consequence of this peculiar structure the only purpose which these organs can subserve is that of swimming. On land progression is mainly accomplished by a wriggling serpentine motion of the body, slightly assisted by the extremities.

In the *Phocidæ* the tarsal articulation allows but a small amount of movement of the foot, which when naturally at rest forms but a slight angle with the leg.

In the *Phocidæ* no unusual sexual difference in the form of the pelvis is known to exist; the principal difference being that the pubic bones are united for a shorter distance in the females than in the males. In the *Phoca vitulina* the pelvis, seen from the front, presents a pyramidal outline, with the apex pointing backward. Laterally and ventrally its outlines are straight.

The ilia are short and broad (length and breadth about equal), expanding anteriorly in a transverse line. Their crests are turned abruptly outward and recurved, their posterior surfaces being coneave.

The pubic bones are straight, slender, and subcylindrical; posteriorly they become flattened and somewhat expanded dorso-ventrally. In the male they are appressed posteriorly for one third their length, their point of widest divergence being at their anterior ends. In the females, however, they merely meet at the end,

They also (imperfectly) serve the purpose of walking; these animals being able to progress when out of the water several miles an hour, and to run for a short distance with nearly the rapidity of a man.\*

In the *Otariadæ* the foot when similarly at rest forms with the leg an angle of at least 90°.

In the Otariadæ (in Callorhinus and Eumetopias† at least) there is an exceedingly great sexual variation in the form of the pelvis. In the males it is narrow throughout, and seen from the front the sides are nearly parallel for the greater part of its length, the pubic bones abruptly converging posteriorly, and the ilia diverging moderately at their anterior ends. The front outline is gently hollowed.

The ilia are elongated (twice as long as broad), flattened posteriorly, with their dorsal and ventral borders parallel, and no lateral expansion or recurvation of the crest.

The pubic bones are stout and subcylindrical, a little broader and thinner behind, approximating both anteriorly and posteriorly. Barely meeting (in the males) at the latter point, they form with each other a more or less broad ellipse, which is only slightly open anteriorly in Callorhinus, but more widely in Eunetopias. They

<sup>\*</sup> See Captain Bryant's account, given below, of the habits of Callorhinus ursinus.

<sup>†</sup> The pelvis of Callorhinus differs from that of Eumetopias somewhat in certain details of its structure, as will be shown later in the comparison of these two species under C. ursinus.

much as in the *males* of the eared seals.

The ischia are dorsally arched, especially their dorsal margins, which rise in a high angular point opposite the posterior third of the thyroid foramen. Anteriorly they are sub-eylindrical, but posteriorly are flattened into broad thin blades, and unite with the corresponding parts of the pubic bones.

The thyroid foramen is an irregular elongated ellipse, its pubic outline being nearly straight.

The ilio-pubic spine is prominent, but the iliac tuberosity is wholly absent.

The middle of the acetabulum is situated a little in front of the posterior end of the *first* sacral vertebra, which is considerably anterior to its position in the eared seals.

Four fifths of the length of the innominate bone is posterior to the acetabulum, — in other words, the proportion of the length of the ischiopubic part to the length of the ilia is as three to one.

The bones of the pelvis are all thin and slender.

are not partially united as in *Phoca*, but merely touch each other at their extremities, and are most widely separated at the middle.

The ischia are considerably arched above, but otherwise have nearly the same form and size as the pubic bones. Their dorsal margins have not the high angular prominence seen in *Phoca*.

The form of the thyroid foramen is nearly the same as in *Phoca*.

The ilio-pubic spine is very large, and the iliac tuberosity is not only present, but is enormously developed.

The middle of the acetabulum is situated but a little in front of the posterior end of the second sacral vertebra,—the length of the second sacral vertebra posterior to its position in *Phoca*.

Only slightly more than one half of the length of the innominate bone is behind the acetabu'um. Hence the proportional length of the ischiopubic portion to the ilium is nearly as one to one.

The bones of the pelvis are all thick and stout, especially the walls of the acetabula. The acetabula are themselves very much larger than in *Phoca*.

In recapitulation it may be stated that the essential or most striking pelvic differences in the males between *Phoca* and *Eumetopias* and *Callorhinus* consist in the abbreviated ilia, with their outwardly produced crests, the greater elongation of the pubic and ischiae bones, and the more anterior situation of the acetabula in *Phoca* as compared with the others.

In *Phoca* and the earless seals generally no great sexual differences in the structure of the pelvis appears to be known. From the great breadth of the pelvis between the pubic bones in the male, no modification of the male form of the pelvis would seem requisite in the female. In the eared seals, however, especially in *Callorhinus*, the pelvis is exceedingly narrow, especially anteriorly, in the males, and of small capacity. In the females it is hence necessarily entirely open in front, and the pubic bones and the ischia are reduced to a mere bony rim enclosing the very large thyroid foramen. The ventral borders of the innominate bones are also less produced. The more posterior position of the acetabula in the eared seals places the hind limbs in a position better fitting them to support the body, and hence for terrestrial locomotion. They are, in fact, placed but little anterior to their position in many of the true walking mammalia.

The following table of comparative measurements indicates the difference in proportions and form of the pelvic bones in *Phoca*, *Macrorhinus*, *Eumetopias*, *Callorhinus*, and *Rosmarus*:—

	Rosma- rus.	Eume- topias.	Callo- rhinus.	Callo- rhinus.	Phoca.	Macro- rhinus.
Length of the os innominatum	330 330	350 160	235 110	140 975	190 135	380
Breadth (externally) at iliac crests  " at acetabula  Length of ilium	195 180	120 150	55 100	40 60	67	130
Breadth (antero-posterior) of do.  Length of iselium and os pubis	90 250	80 200	45 135	23 70	57 140	260
Greatest breadth of ischio pubic bones Length of thyroid foramen		110 125	70 65	35 45	73 87	180 150
Breadth " "	65	50 40	28 15	20 25	25 40	73
" of the inferior outlet		70 75-100	28 71.5-100	35 86-100	25 28-100	50-100

Owing mainly to the great elongation of the very thick neck in the Otariadæ, the fore limbs, as long since mentioned by Cavier,\* are apparently placed much farther back than in the Phocidæ.†

The neural spines in *Phoca* are but slightly developed, especially anteriorly, whilst in *Eumetopias* and *Callorhinus*, as well as in *Rosmarus*, they are largely developed, especially those of the anterior dorsal verte-

<sup>\*</sup> Oss. foss., Vol. V, p. 216.

<sup>†</sup> By actual measurement they are found to be but little anterior to the middle of the entire length of the animal.

bræ, which in *Phoca* are the smallest. These features, with others of a similar character, especially the high crests of the skull in all the eared seals, show these animals to be possessed of relatively much greater muscular power than the common *Phoca*, and that they are not only fitted for greater activity on land, but that they must also possess superior powers of motion in the water. The most strongly developed features in the skeleton of the *Phoca* type are those that best serve its strictly aquatic mode of life, and the character of its whole structure, as previously mentioned, gives it a rank far below the *Otariadæ*.

Comparison with Macroriinus, Cystophora, and Monachus.— In respect to size the *Phoca vitulina* and the *Macrorhinus elephantinus* represent the two extremes, not only of the *Phocidæ*, but of the Pinnipedes, the sea elephant in size far exceeding the walrus. Yet in general osteological features *Macrorhinus* is strikingly like *Phoca*. In the form of the pelvis and scapulæ, however, it slightly approaches the *Otariadæ*, and what is known of its habits indicates that it has greater powers of locomotion on land than the common *Phoca*.

Cystophora differs in no important particular in the general skeleton from Phoca and Macrorhinus. Monachus, from Cuvier's\* figure of its skeleton, much more nearly approaches the Otariadæ, and is hence a higher form than either Macrorhinus, Phoca, or Cystophora. The greater development of the neural spines and the other apophyses, the strongly developed crests of the skull, the very broad strongly keeled scapulæ, together with numerous other osteological features, indicate it to be an animal of great muscular power, whilst at the same time its comparatively slender form, and especially the elongated form of the thorax, indicate that it has a much nearer affinity to the Otariadæ than either Macrorhinus, Cystophora, or Phoca have.

These four forms — Monachus, Macrorhinus, Cystophora, and Phoca — represent four of the leading types of the Phocidæ. Their relative rank is doubtless in the order given, Monachus being unmistakably the highest and most like the Otariadæ. Stenorhynchus, it seems to me, is still lower than either of the above-mentioned genera. I should hence arrange the sub-families of the Phocidæ in the following order, with Monachus as the highest genus of Phocinæ, which is the highest sub-family:—

PHOCINE.

CYSTOPHORINE.

STENORHYNCHINE.

<sup>\*</sup> Oss. foss., Tome V, Plate XVII.

OF THE SEXUAL, AGE, AND INDIVIDUAL VARIATIONS.

Sexual Differences. — Whilst in the carnivores generally the sexual variations are considerable, especially in respect to size, they seem to never exist in greater degree than in the Otariadæ. In all the species of this family in which the sexes are well known, — especially in Otaria jubata, Enmetopias Stelleri, Callorhinus ursinus, and Arctocephalus falklandicus, — it has been found that the weight of the adult females is rarely above one sixth to one fourth that of the old males; — a sexual disproportion in size rarely if at all elsewhere met with in mammals. In the Pinnipedes the nearest approach to it is in the sea elephant (Macrorhinus elephantinus), which in some of its habits, as previously mentioned, also approaches nearer to the eared seals than any other well-known species of the Phocidæ.

The sexes differ also in *color*, the females being generally much lighter colored than the males.

They also differ in the size of the teeth, especially of the canines, the females having relatively, as well as absolutely, much smaller teeth than the males. The form of the palatal surface of the maxillaries also varies in the two sexes, in the females it being usually flatter or less depressed than in the males, and its lateral outlines straighter. The females also lack the high crests of the skull possessed by the males, and have the processes of the bones less developed.

One of the greatest sexual differences, however, is seen in the pelvis. In the female it is much smaller than it is in the male, and the pubic bones instead of meeting behind, as in the males (and also in the females in the *Phocidæ*), are widely separated, and with the ischia are reduced to a slender rim enclosing the large thyroid foramen; at least this is the case in *Callorhinus ursinus*, and there seems to be no reason for believing that similar differences in the structure of the pelvis do not exist in the other species of the *Otariadæ*.\*

<sup>\*</sup> Respecting the sexual differences in the Otaria jubata, Dr. G. A. Maack has furnished me with the following note:—

<sup>&</sup>quot;The most striking feature in *Otaria jubata* is the great dissimilarity between the males and females, not only in respect to size and general external features, but also in their osteological structure. It is a curious fact, that, whilst the male changes greatly with age in respect to its osteological characters, the female presents in this respect a greater or less constancy of character. In color, however, the reverse obtains,—the males preserving a greater constancy in this respect, whilst the females vary exceedingly at different ages."

Differences resulting from Age. — In color the young differ from the adult, as in most mammals, in being very much darker, especially previous to the first moulting of the pelage. During the first few months the young of both sexes of the fur seals are black, whilst the old males are more or less brownish- or grayish-black, and the females cinereous. In the hair seals the young are dark reddish-brown, whilst the adult are pale yellowish- or grayish-brown. The first coat of hair in the young is somewhat different in character from that they have later, in both the fur and hair species. The latter, whilst quite devoid of fur in adult life, or possessing only an exceedingly sparse undercoat of crisp eurled hair rather than fur, are said to have more or less "fur" when young. This is affirmed more especially of the Zalophus lobatus, but doubtless the young of all the hair seals have a softer coat than the adult.

In respect to the form of the skull, the young greatly differ from the adult, as is sufficiently indicated by the figures of the young and adult skulls of Callorhinus ursinus given in Plates II and III, and described in detail in the account of that species, and as is also shown in the figures of young and adult skulls of Zalophus Gillespii given in the Fanna Japonica (Mamm., Plate XXII). It appears that the brain-case early reaches its full size, and changes later mainly through the thickening of its walls. The facial portion is more slowly developed, so that the proportions of the very young and the mature skull are widely different. As regards the general skeleton, my material does not allow me to speak.

Individual Variation. — In order to determine what characters may be most useful in distinguishing genera and species, it is necessary to take into account the individual variation to which the different parts are subject, as well as the differences resulting from sex and age. Formerly, when but few specimens of any species of the Otariadae were known, it was natural to suppose that any characters based on the adult form of the skull or of its different bones might be regarded as affording reliable specific and generic characters. As more material was acquired, it became evident that these parts in the present group were unusually variable, and hence to a great degree unreliable as the foundation for specific or even generic diagnoses. The general form of the skull, the depression of the bony palate, the posterior extension of the palatines and their posterior outline, and also the situation of the last molar relative to the anterior edge of the zygomatic foramen, and the number and form of the molars, have been generally taken as the basis

of generic divisions. All these parts, however, have recently been found to vary greatly, not only with age and sex, but in specimens of the same age and sex. The form of the hinder edge of the palatines, as to whether it be convex, truncate, or emarginate, has been especially relied on for the distinction of both species and genera, yet the specimens before me show that in the same species, in skulls of equal age and of the same sex, the posterior border of the palatines may be either truncate or deeply emarginate.

The situation and form of the molars also vary in a similar way, as does also the depression of the palate. The general form of the skull varies greatly in adults of the same sex, as shown by specimens of adult males of each of the three North Pacific species now before me; so much so, indeed, as to materially alter the relative proportions of the different regions. The form of the frontal region, or third segment of the skull, is especially liable to great variation, as indicated by the two male skulls of Callorhinus ursinus figured in Plate II (Figs. 1 and 2). Two skulls of the Zalophus Gillespii, received too late for illustration, show much greater differences in this respect than these do. They closely resemble in relative size and form the two adult male skulls of the same species figured in the Fauna Japonica (Mamm., Pl. XXII, Figs. 1-4). In the figures of these skulls, as seen from above (Fig. 2 and 3, 1. c., Fauna Japon.), these differences are very strikingly shown. Through the deep and abrupt postorbital constriction of the skull, the latero-anterior angles of the brain-case are sometimes well developed, whilst in other specimens of the same species, age, and sex, through the less abruptness of this constriction, they are either but slightly prominent or obsolete. These differences give in one instance a quadrate form to the brain-case, and in the other a triangular form. The length of the postorbital cylinder of the skull is also an exceedingly variable element, the difference amounting in some cases to nearly thirty per cent, and hence greatly changes the general form of the skull.

The great degree of asymmetry exhibited by these animals may be also cited as evidence of an unusually great tendency to variation.\* Further evidence of the same tendency is seen in the somewhat frequent occurrence of supernumerary molars in the upper jaw, — instances of which will be presently cited.

<sup>\*</sup> See remarks on this point beyond, under Eumetopias Stelleri.

The form and position of the molars in the same species is also far too variable to be of much taxonomic value, even in respect to genera,\* although they form one of the principal elements on which has been based one of the latest generic revisions of the group.†

The roots of the molars often vary considerably in the two sides of the jaw in the same specimen, and most markedly in different cospecific specimens of the same sex and age. In one of the males of C.

\* The details of the individual variation shown in numerous points by my specimens of the North Pacific species will be more fully given later.

† In October, 1869, Dr. J. E. Gray published the following classification of the Otariadæ, based, as will be seen, on a few eminently variable characters of the skull and teeth. That it should have been otherwise than palpably unnatural and arbitrary could hardly be expected. The alleged differences between the genera are very slight, and in some cases almost inappreciable, as for instance between Zalophus and Neophoca; the really important differences which sometimes exist between the different groups being unmentioned.

"Section 1. Palate produced behind to a line even with the condyles of the jaws. Grinders & \_\_ & . Sea Lions.

Tribe 1. OTARIINA.

1. Otaria. East and west coast of South America.

Section II. Palate only extended behind to a line even with the middle part of the zygomatic arch. Sea Bears.

- Tribe 2. Calloruinina. Grinders  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$ ; skull oblong; face broad, shorter than the orbit; forehead arched.
  - 2. Callorhinus. Northwest coast of America.
- Tribe 3. Arctocephalina. Grinders  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$ ; face of the skull shelving in front; the fifth and sixth grinders behind the front of the zygomatic arch.
  - Phocarctos. Grinders large, lobed, the six upper with two notches on their hinder edge. South America.
  - 4. Arctocephalus. Grinders thick; crown conical. Africa.
  - Euotaria. Grinders large, subeylindrical; crown conical; face broad. South America.
  - Gypsophoca. Grinders moderate-sized, compressed, with a small, more or less distinct lobe on the front edge of the eingulum; face narrow, compressed. Australia.
- Tribe 4. ZALOPHINA. Grinders  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5}$ , large, thick, in a close, continuous series: the fifth upper in front of the back edge of the zygomatic arch.
  - Zaluphus. Grinders large and thick, in a close uniform series. South America. [!]
  - Neophoca. Grinders large, thick, all equal, in a continuous uniform series.
     Australia.
- Tribe 5. EUMETOPINA. Grinders  $\frac{5}{6} = \frac{5}{6}$ , more or less far apart; the hinder upper behind the hinder edge of the zygomatic arch, and separated from the other grinders by a concave space.
  - 9. Eumetopias. West coast of America.
  - 10. Arctophoca. West coast of South America."

ursinus already mentioned, the fangs of several of the molars have a deep longitudinal groove on the outside, the fangs appearing to be formed of two connate roots, but in the corresponding molars of the other specimen there are no grooves, the fangs being wholly simple.

Great variations in the form of the teeth and the bones of the skull have also been pointed out as existing in several species of the *Phocidæ.\**Naturalists are fast becoming aware of the fact that the bones of animals generally are not so invariable in form and proportions as formerly supposed, and hence afford less reliable characters for the discrimination of species than has been generally believed.† Such facts evidently show that too high a value has been placed upon certain relatively slight differences in the form of the teeth and certain parts of the skull.

Color is one of the features commonly much relied on for the distinction of species among the higher vertebrates. In the case of the Otariadæ, as also happens in other groups, this feature proves to be in no small degree unreliable. In respect to the hair seals, the three or four best known species (Eumetopias Stelleri, Zalophus Gillespii, Z. lobatus, and Otaria jubata) so closely resemble each other in color, and different individuals of the same species at the same time vary so much in this regard, that a description of the color of either of the species is almost equally applicable to all. This is equally the case in the fur seals, where sometimes specimens of such really widely distinct species as the Callorhinus ursinus and the Arctocephalus falklandicus seem hardly distinguishable in color.‡

#### HABITS.

In respect to general habits the eared seals seem to have much in common that distinguishes them from the *Phocidæ*, at least so far as the habits of the latter are known. All the species appear to assemble in

- \* See especially an important paper by Dr. J. E. Gray, entitled "On the Variations in the Teeth of the Crested Seal, Cystophora cristata," etc., Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1849, pp. 90-93. Also, by the same author, another entitled "Notes on Seals (Phocidæ) and the Changes in the Form of their Lower Jaw during Growth," Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 4th Series, Vol. IV, pp. 342-346, November, 1869.
- † See "Manimalia of Massachusetts," Bulletin Mus. Comp. Zoöl., Vol. I, pp. 143-252, October, 1869.
- ‡ In respect to a skin of *C. ursinus* from California, Dr. Gray has remarked: "The skin is so like that of *Arctocephalus nigrescens* [= falklandicus] that we were induced to regard it as a second specimen of that species before we received the skull." (Catalogue of Seals and Whales, p. 52.)

vast numbers at certain favorite places of resort,—usually isolated rocky islands,—for the purpose of reproduction, where they spend several weeks or months, when undisturbed, almost entirely on land. They being eminently polygamous, the old males select their stations and assemble around them a numerous harem, which they guard with the utmost jealousy. Numerous bloody combats ensue between the rival males for the possession of the females, or for favorite stations, and the roaring of the males it is said can be heard for many miles. One young, or at most two, are annually brought forth by each mature female, the period of gestation being about twelve months. Captain Bryant's account \* of the habits of the northern fur seal renders unnecessary a detailed account of the habits of any of the species here, especially since the notes added to Captain Bryant's paper sufficiently indicate the similarity of habits which all the species seem to share during the important season of reproduction.

One of the most striking features in their history is that at this period both sexes pass weeks, and even months, without food or without often visiting the water. Arriving at the breeding-grounds exceedingly fat and unwieldy, they seem to be sustained by the fat of their bodies, they finally leaving at the end of the breeding-season greatly emaciated.

A similar fact has been long known in respect to the walrus, whose period of fasting, however, seems to be shorter than that of the eared scals.

In respect to breeding habits, the sea elephant (Macrorhinus elephantinus) is the sole species of the earless seals which seems to quite closely resemble the Otariadæ. They assemble in a similar manner at their breeding-grounds, and pass much of their time during the reproductive period on the land, and probably without taking food; but the accounts of travellers are on this point somewhat contradictory. It does not appear, however, that they are to so great a degree polygamous. And they move on the land with great difficulty, and go but a short distance from the water.

#### OF THE GENERA AND SPECIES.

Of the Genera. — The genus Otaria was, as previously stated, proposed to embrace all the cared seals as a group distinct from the earless seals, for which the name *Phoca* was retained. But naturalists have found it necessary, as our knowledge of these animals has increased, to

<sup>\*</sup> See Part II, beyond.

greatly subdivide each of these groups. Otaria is now restricted to a single species; while the original Otaria (=Otariadæ), as defined by Péron, has been separated into ten groups to which generic rank has been accorded; none of them containing more than a single species.

The first division of the Otariæ was made by F. Cuvier\* in 1825, who separated them into two genera, Platyrhynchus and Arctocephalus, with the O. jubata of recent systematists as the type of the former, and Arctocephalus Delalandii (antarcticus) as the type of the latter. Dr. Gray,† in 1859, separated generically the Northern fur seal from Arctocephalus, under the name of Callorhinus.

The next subdivision of the group was made by Dr. Gill, ‡ in 1866, who in his "Prodrome of a Monograph of the Pinnipedes," separated them into five genera.§ These appear to be natural groups, of true generic rank, and properly restricted; and, after a careful examination of the subject, and specimens of four of these five types, they appear to me to include all the natural genera of the family. As has been previously pointed out by Gray and Peters, || Dr. Gill, as he himself now freely admits, wrongly retained the name Arctocephalus for Gray's genus Callorhinus, and consequently substituted Halarctus for what had previously been regarded as Arctocephalus. Two of these genera (Eumetopias and Callorhinus) include but a single known species each; Otaria has possibly two, Zalophus two, and Arctocephalus, according to the views of different writers, three or four.

Professor Peters, ¶ in 1866, divided Otaria into seven sections or subgenera, he adding two (Phocarctos, type Otaria Hookeri, and Arctophoca, type Otaria Philippii, a nominal species, = Arctocephalus falklandicus) to the number of divisions recognized by Gill. The principal character on which the latter (Arctophoca) was first founded proved to be an invalid one,\*\* yet it was subsequently transferred by Peters, with a slight modification of its diagnosis, to the Arctocephalus falklandicus.

- \* Mém. du Mus., Vol. XI, p. 205. † Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, p. 359.
- ‡ Proc. Essex Institute, Vol. V, p. 7.
- § Otaria, type Phoca jubata Schreber; Arctocephalus, type Phoca ursina Linné; Eumetopias, type Otaria californiana Lesson, = Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray; Zabphus, type Otaria Gillespii McBain; Halarctus, type Arctocephalus Delalandi Gray.
  - See above, p. 7 of the "Résumé." Monatsb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, pp. 261, 665.
- \*\* The number of molars of A. Philippii was supposed to be  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{6}$  instead of  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$ , as in the other fur seals, but the skull figured and described by Peters as that of this species had evidently lost the fifth (last but one) pair of molars, as shown by his figure of the skull. Peters himself afterwards referred his A. Philippii to the A. falklandicus.

Dr. Gray, in his various papers published since the appearance of Professor Peters's papers, has not only recognized as genera all the genera and subgenera previously proposed by Gill and Peters, including Arctophoca, with essentially Professor Peters's first diagnosis of it (including the dental formula!), but has added three others (Euotaria, Gypsophoca, and Neophoca). Taking into account the nature of the diagnostic characters of his pseudo-genera given in his last synopsis of the family,\* his classification is too palpably arbitrary to require a detailed review.

Of the Species. - For a long period the northern sea lions were by most writers regarded as specifically identical with the southern sea lions, and the northern sea bears with the southern sea bears. Peron in 1816 first called attention to the fact that the northern and southern sea lions and sea bears were distinct species. During the following twenty-five years many naturalists of high authority still regarded them as identical, whilst others considered them as distinct. In 1840 they were for the last time seriously confounded; but until within the last four years the two species of Zalophus, the one northern and the other southern, have been regarded as one. It is now generally believed, however, that in no case is the same species found on both sides of the equator.† In Péron's time there were commonly believed to be but a single species of sea lion and a single species of sea bear. He however affirmed that as many as twenty species of sea bears alone were confounded under that name. Since that time many nominal species have been described, -- doubtless partly in consequence of Peron's remark, - until the number of distinct names applied to the different sea lions and sea bears exceeds fifty, while probably the number of veritable species is not more than ten. This, in fact, is the number now most commonly recognized. In consequence of the early confounding of the northern with the southern species, an extraordinary complication of synonymy has resulted, several of the earlier names having been applied by different writers to several different species. The synonomy of some of these species hence embraces a list of ten to fifteen different and variously applied names.

Of the hair seals, four apparently unquestionable species are now well

<sup>\*</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Ilist., 4th Series, Vol. IV, p. 269. This synopsis has already been quoted in full on p. 35.

<sup>†</sup> See further remarks on this point below, under the head of "Geographical Distribution."

known, two of which (Eumetopias Stelleri and Zalophus Gillespii) are northern, and two (Otaria jubata and Zalophus lobatus\*) are southern. A fifth species (Otaria Hookeri), also southern, is likewise commonly recognized. But it appears to be known only from specimens in the British Museum,† collected many years since at the Falkland Islands, and does not seem to have been met with by recent collectors, either at the Falklands or elsewhere. It differs from the O. jubata, judging from the figures and the not wholly satisfactory descriptions we have of it, mainly in having the palatal bones less produced posteriorly; at least this is the difference that has been chiefly dwelt on as distinguishing the two, although certain differences in the color of the under-side of the body have also been mentioned. The skull figured by Gray is evidently that of a middle-aged or rather young animal. The form of the bony palate corresponds also with what is seen in middle-aged and young specimens of other hair seals. Having seen apparently as great differences in specimens of the northern species, unquestionably specifically identical, as exists between O. jubata and O. Hookeri, I am led to question whether the specimens described as Otaria [Phocarctos] Hookeri may not be an unusual state of Otaria jubata, the only hair seal now known to exist in the Falkland Islands; the difference resulting partly from age and partly from abnormal development. Not having seen specimens of the O. Hookeri, I do not presume to assume it to be referable to O. jubata; my design by this reference is mainly to call attention to its somewhat doubtful character.

Two genera of fur seals are also commonly recognized. One of these genera consists of the *Callorhinus ursinus*, or the fur seal of the North. The other genus embraces numerous nominal species, all but one of which have been referred by Peters, and also by Gray in his later papers, to three species, all of which have a southern distribution.

<sup>\*</sup> Péron, under the name Otaria cinerea (Voy. aux Terr. austr., Tome II, pp. 54, 77), undoubtedly referred to the so-called Zalophus lobatus of recent writers. Although his description is rather meagre, the size given, as well as the character of the hair, and especially the context (at p. 77), render it clear that he must have intended to indicate by this name the species more fully described later by other writers. Péron's name was at first used by Gray to designate what he has since called lobatus. Although there is little reason to doubt that Péron's earlier name of cinerea refers to this species, it is perhaps not advisable to substitute for a well-established name one of possibly doubtful application.

<sup>†</sup> See Catalogues of the British Museum (Seals, 1850, p. 45; Seals and Whales, 1866, p. 51; Bones of Mammalia, p. 146, etc.).

These are, Arctocephalus falklandicus, — one of the earliest described species of the family, -A cinereus and A antarcticus (= A Delalandi). A. falklandicus inhabits the shores and islands of Southern South America; A. cinereus, the Australasian Seas; and A. antarcticus, the southern coasts of Africa. These species hence have quite widely separated habitats, yet the alleged differences between them are slight, while in size, color, character of the pelage, and general conformation, they possess many features in common. Their distinctness has at times been doubted, and it seems still to remain an open question whether they form a single species or three. That the A. falklandicus and A. antarcticus hold a close relationship is generally admitted. The A. cinereus, or the Australian species, was believed through certain differences in the fangs of the hinder molars, and the supposed less abundance of the under-fur, to be quite distinct from the others. Professor Peters, in his second paper, placed the A. cinereus and A. antarcticus in different subsections of his section Arctocephalus, characterizing them as follows: "a. mit sehr sparsamer Unterwolle" (referring to A. antarcticus = Otaria pusilla Peters), and "\beta. mit reichlicherer Unterwolle" (referring to A. cinereus). It is found, however, that the fur of the latter is equally rich with that of the other species.\*

The distribution of these alleged species presents nothing incompatible with the supposition of their identity. They inhabit islands one third as distant from the shores of the South American, African, and Australian continents as these islands are from each other. Other Pinnipedes, as the sea elephant, range over nearly the same area. Moreover, the distance is one of longitude merely, and the physical conditions of this wide area are hence nearly uniform. Until favored with the opportunity of comparing specimens from these several distant points, my opinion as to the identity or diversity of these species must remain unsettled.

In respect to the synonomy of the eared seals, that of the northern species will be presently given in full, in connection with the descriptions of these species. To that of *Otaria jubata*, given so fully by Dr. Gray in his first memoir on these animals, may be added, as clearly shown already by other writers, † the following recently recognized names:

<sup>\*</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, Vol. XVHI, p. 257, 1866.

 $<sup>\</sup>dagger$  For references to the papers wherein the following-named synonymes occur, see the "Résumé of the recent Contributions to the Natural History of the *Otariudæ*," antea, pp. 4–19.

Otaria Byronia, O. leonina, O. Godeffroyi and O. Ulloæ of Peters, to which should be added the "O. Ulloæ?" McBain (= O. Graii Günther), the O. leonina Maack, and probably also the O. Hookeri of Gray.

To the synonomy of Arctocephalus falklandicus, given by Professor Peters, the O. [Arctophoca] Philippii Peters and Gray.

To that of the A. antarcticus — ( $\equiv$  Otaria pusilla Peters,  $\equiv$  Arctocephalus Delalandi Gray) — given by Professor Peters and in Dr. Gray's above-cited catalogues, A. nivosus and A. schisthyperoës Turner ( $\equiv$  A. schistuperus Günther).

To the synonymes of A. australis may doubtless be added the A. Forsteri Gray.

Geographical Distribution.—As long since announced by Péron, the Pinnipedes have their habitats as definitely circumscribed as do the land mammalia. Previously, as already stated, the northern sea lions and sea bears were popularly regarded as specifically identical with the southern sea lions and sea bears; and even as late as 1840 Nilsson entertained the error regarding their identity so universally made by the early writers. It has been found, however, that in only one instance can the species living north and south of the equator be regarded as referable to even the same genus. In this case the species living north of the equator (Zalophus Gillespii) ranges the furthest to the southward of the northern species, while its congener living south of the equator ranges furthest to the north of any of the southern species. The habitat of no species, so far as certainly known, quite reaches the tropics.\*\*

The eared seals hence occupy two distinct areas, separated by the broad expanse of the tropical waters. Furthermore, and what is most singular in their distribution, none, as is well known, exist on the shores of the North Atlantic. South of the equator they occupy a broad circumpolar belt, extending from near the tropics to the region of antarctic ice. Here also they reach their greatest numerical development in respect to the number of species; for while three species only are known from the northern waters, at least seven are commonly reckoned as inhabiting the southern waters. As previously remarked, however, this number is probably much too large.

<sup>\*</sup> There is a skull of Otaria jubata in the Anatomical Museum of Harvard University, labelled as having come from "Arica, Peru," but I think it doubtful if it was collected at that point.

In respect to genera, the number existing in the northern and southern waters is equal; there being two of hair seals and one of fur seals at the north, and the same number at the south. One genus, Zalophus, is found both at the North and South. Eumetopias of the North may be regarded as represented at the South by Otaria; and Callorhinus of the North by Arctocephalus at the South. Callorhinus and Arctocephalus are undoubtedly representative groups; but if we regard the latter as composed of three intimately related species instead of one, we shall have three species of fur seals at the South against one at the North. Zalophus is the most southern genus, its single species on each side of the equator nearly reaching the tropics, if not actually existing within them at Moluccas, as represented by Mr. Murray \* in his map of the distribution of these animals. Another interesting fact is that on the coast of Asia the northern species of Zalophus (Z. Gillespii) is well known to inhabit Japan, whilst the home of the southern species (Z. lobatus) includes the shores of Australia and the neighboring islands; so that the only two congeneric species of the eared seals distributed on opposite sides of the equator are those whose habitats most nearly approach each other. The distribution of the species is further indicated in the following conspectus, which is designed to give a concise view of the different groups of the eared seals, with their principal distinctive characters, affinities, and the geographical distribution of the species.†

- \* Geographical Distribution of Mammals, Map XXVIII, 1866.
- † The following observations respecting the distribution of the cared seals of the eastern coast of South America have been kindly communicated to me by Dr. G. A. Maack, who in November and December, 1867, visited the coast of Buenos Ayres for the purpose of obtaining specimens of these animals:—
- "The eared seals, of the eastern coast of South America, exist especially between the 34th and 40th degrees of south latitude. North of the Rio de la Plata they occur at the Islas de los Lobos, near Maldonado. South of this river they occur in great numbers at the Cabo Corrientes, where they frequent the rocks at the base of the vertical and even overhanging cliffs (160 to 170 feet high) of these shores. I visited the latter locality during the months of November and December, 1867, where I had the opportunity of observing these animals alive. But as Professor Burmeister and myself have already published the scientific results of this excursions [see above pp. 13 and 18], but little requires to be added here.
- "As stated in my paper in 'Der Zoologische Garten' (Jan., 1870), only two species of these animals exist on the eastern coast of South America: one, the Otaria jubata, from its having but a single kind of hair, is known to the natives as the Lobo marino con uno pelo; and the other, Arctocephalus falklandicus, from having both external hair and under-fur, is called the Lobo marino con dos pelos. Of both I obtained specimens. The

### CONSPECTUS OF THE GENERA AND SPECIES.

#### Subfamily I. — TRICHOPHOCINÆ.

Without under-fur. Size large and form robust. Ears short and broad. Molars either  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5} = \frac{12}{10}$  or  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5} = \frac{10}{10}$ .

#### I. Genus Otaria Gill ex Péron.

Palatines usually extending nearly to the pterygoid processes (sometimes reaching them and sometimes terminating considerably anterior to them); their posterior margin generally nearly straight. Molars  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5} = \frac{12}{5}$ .

1. Otaria jubata Blainv.\* Habitat: Coasts and islands of South America, from Chili, (Arica, Peru?) on the west, and the Rio de la Plata southward to the Antaretic Islands.

#### II. Genus Eumetopias Gill.

Palatines much less produced posteriorly than in *Otaria*. Molars  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5} = \frac{10}{10}$ .

2. Eumetopias Stelleri Peters. Habitat: Coasts and islands of the North Pacific, from California and Southern Kamtchatka northward.

## III. Genus Zalophus Gill.

- 3. Zalophus Gillespii Gill. Habitat: Coasts and islands of the North Pacific, from Lower California and Southern Japan northward.
- 4. Zalophus lobatus Peters. Habitat: Australasian Seas, especially the shores of Australia and New Holland.

### Subfamily II. — OULOPHOCINÆ.

With thick under-fur. Size smaller; form more slender, and the ears, and the toe-flaps of the hinder limbs, much longer than in *Trichophocinue*. Molars  $\frac{6}{5} \equiv \frac{6}{5} = \frac{1}{10}$ .

## IV. Genus Calloriinus Gray.

5. Callorhinus ursinus Gray. Habitat: The continental coasts and islands of the North Pacific, from California and Southern (?) Kamtehatka northward.

males and females of Oturia jubata are both abundant at the Cabo Corrientes, where in the month of December they bring forth their young; but of the Arctocephalus I observed only males. The females of the latter are entirely unknown at this point, this species probably repairing to other localities to breed. One of the native gauchos informed me that, during the fifteen years he had been accustomed to kill them here, he had never met with a female."

\* Including Otaria Hookeri Gray et auct.

#### V. Genus Arctocephalus F. Cuvier.

- 6. Arctocephalus falklandicus Gray. Habitat: Coasts and islands of South America, from Chili on the west and the Rio de la Plata southward to the Antaretic Islands.
- ? 7. Arctocephulus cinereus \* Gray. Habitat: Southern shores of Australia and New Zealand and the islands to the southward.
- ? 8. Arctocephalus antarcticus \* Gray. Habitat: Southern coast of Africa and the adjoining islands.

## 3. On the North Pacific Species of Otariada.

#### Subfamily I. - TRICHOPHOCINÆ.

Without under-fur. Size large and form robust. Ears short. Molars either  $\frac{6}{5} = \frac{6}{5} = \frac{1}{10}$ , or  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5} = \frac{1}{10}$ .

## Genus Eumetopias Gill.

Eumetopias G1LL, Proc. Essex Institute, V, 7, 11. July, 1866. Type "Otaria californiana Lesson, = Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray."

Molars  $\frac{5}{5} = \frac{5}{5} = \frac{10}{10}$ ; the upper hinder pair separated from the others by a considerable interval; the last only double rooted. Postorbital processes quadrate. Palatine surface of the intermaxillaries flat, only slightly depressed, and greatly contracted posteriorly; the palatals moderately produced, extending about three fourths of the distance from the anterior end of the zygomatic arch to the pterygoid process; their posterior margin straight, or slightly or deeply emarginate; rarely deeply so in old age.

Eumetopias hence differs from Otaria, as restricted by Gill, in having one pair less of upper molars,† a much less posterior extension of the palatine bones, and in having the posterior portion of the surface of the intermaxillaries less than one third, instead of more than one half, the width of the anterior portion, and but slightly instead of deeply depressed; also in the form of the postorbital processes, which in Eumetopias are quadrate, while in Otaria they form an obtuse, nearly equilateral triangle, the apex of which points outward. In Otaria they are also more produced. In the general character of the pelage, in color, in proportions and size, there seems to be a close resemblance

<sup>\*</sup> Perhaps the A. cinereus and the A. antarcticus are to be referred to the A. falklandicus, in which case the habitat of this species is the southern seas generally.

<sup>†</sup> See the characters of Otaria given in the preceding "Conspectus," p. 43.

between the single known species of *Eumetopias* (E. Stelleri) and the single known species of *Otaria* (O. jubata).

Eumetopias differs from Zalophus through the presence of a wide space between the fourth and fifth pairs of upper molars, the less emargination of the posterior border of the palatine bones, the quadrate instead of the triangular and posteriorly pointed form of the postorbital processes, the less relative breadth of the posterior nares, and the larger size of the facial angle; also through its much broader muzzle, the less degree of the postorbital constriction of the skull, and its much less developed sagittal crest. It differs from Neophoca Gray, as nearly as can be determined from the published figures and defective descriptions, in nearly the same manner.

## Eumetopias Stelleri Peters. Steller's Sea Lion.

Leo marinus Steller, Nov. Comm. Petrop., XI, 360, 1751.

"Phoca jubata Schreber, Saugeth., 300, lxxxiii, 1775 (in part only; not P. jubata Forster)."

Phoca jubata Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 63, 1788 (in part).

" PANDER and D'ALTON, Skelete der Robben und Lamant., Pl. III, Figs. d, e, f, 1826.

Otaria jubata Péron, Voyage Terr. austr., II, 40, 1816.

" NILSSON, Arch. f. Naturgesch., 1841, 329 (in part only).

Otaria Stelleri LESSON, Dict. Class. Hist. Nat., XIII, 420, 1828.

Phoca Stelleri Fischer, Synop. Mam., 231, 1829.

"

Otaria Stelleri J. MULLER, Arch. f. Naturgesch., 1841, 330, 333.

- " GRAY, Cat. Seals in Brit. Mus., 47, 1850.
  - " Sclater, Proc. Zool. Soc., 1868, 190.
- " GRAY, Cat. Seals and Whales in Brit. Mus., 60, 1866.

Otaria (Eumetopias) Stelleri Peters, Monatasb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, 274, 671.

Eumetopias Stelleri Gray, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Ser., XVIII, 233.

Otaria californiana Lesson, Diet. Class. Hist. Nat., XIII, 420, 1828.

Phoca californiana Fischer, Synop. Mam., 231, 1829.

Eumetopias californianus GILL, Proc. Essex Inst., V, 13, July, 1866.

Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray, Proc. Zool. Soc., 1859, 360, Pl. lxxii (in part).\*

Le Lion marin Buffon, Hist. Nat., Suppl., VI, 337, 1782 (in part).

Leonine Seal Pennant, Arctic Zoölogy, I, 200 (in part).

Color. — General color of the upper side of the body varying from pale yellowish brown to reddish brown; much darker towards the tail, and not

<sup>\*</sup> Excluding the skin (and young skull?), here doubtfully referred to A. monteriensis, and afterwards described by the same author as A. californianus, in Cat. Seals and Whales, p. 51 (1866).

unfrequently marked on the back and sides with irregular-shaped dark brown patches. The sides below the median line are reddish, shading above into the lighter color of the back, and below into the darker color of the lower surface. Lower side of the body dusky reddish-brown, darkest on the hinder portion of the abdomen. Limbs dark reddish-brown, approaching black, especially externally.

While the general aspect of the color is as above indicated, the hairs individually greatly vary in color. While some are entirely pale yellowish, others are yellowish only at the tip, and dark below, and others are dark reddish-brown or nearly black throughout. The mixture of these two colors gives a brindled appearance on some parts of the body, and to a much greater extent in some specimens than in others. The relative proportion of the light and dark hairs determine the general color of the different regions of the body.

The color appears to vary much in different individuals, not only with age and sex, but irrespective of sex and age.

Hair. — The hair is of two kinds, the outer of which is straight, coarse, stiff, and flattened. Beneath this is an exceedingly sparse, very short, finer under-coat, so short and in such small quantity as to be detected only with difficulty. The hair is longest on the anterior half of the body, where it has an average length of 40 mm.; it decreases in length posteriorly, and towards the tail has an average length of only 15 mm. It is still shorter on the abdomen, whilst on the limbs it is much more reduced, and disappears entirely towards the ends of the digits. The end of the nose, the soles and palms, the anal region, and the extra-digital cartīlaginous flaps are naked and black. The whiskers are long, slender, and cylindrical, white or brownish-white, and set in four or five rather indistinct rows. Some of the longest sometimes reach a length of 50 cent., or about twenty inches, with a maximum thickness of 2 mm.

Size. — The length of full-grown males is about twelve or thirteen feet. According to Captain Bryant they frequently reach the latter size, and a weight of from fifteen to eighteen hundred pounds. The females, he observes, are much more slender than the males, and do not attain to more than one fourth the weight of the latter.

Ears. — The ears (Fig. 8, Pl. I) are short and pointed, but much broader than those of the Northern fur seal (Fig. 13, Pl. II), though of only half their length.

Hind Limbs. — The hind feet (Fig. 7, Pl. I,  $\frac{1}{20}$  nat. size) are broad and, gradually widening from the tarsus, reach their greatest breadth at the end of the toes. Their length is short as compared to their breadth, the distance between the ends of the outer toes when spread nearly equalling the whole length of the foot. The toes are terminated with strong

cartilaginous flaps, covered with a thick leathery naked membrane, which is deeply indented opposite the intervals between the toes, and serves to connect the rather diverging digits. The three middle toes are provided with long, well-developed nails; the outer toes are without true nails, but in place of them are thickened, horny disks, which may be regarded as rudimentary nails, which an examination of the skeleton shows them to be. The outer toes are slightly shorter than the three middle ones, which are sub-equal.

Fore Limbs. — The fore feet (Fig. 6, Pl. I,  $\frac{1}{20}$  nat. size) are large, triangular, and situated but a little in front of the middle of the body. They terminate in a thick, hard, membranous flap, which is slightly and somewhat irregularly indented on the inner side. The terminations of the digits are indicated by small circular horny disks or rudimentary nails.

Measurements. — The following table of external measurements of two males, one very aged and the other mature, indicates the general proportions of the body. A part were taken from the moist skins before stuffing, and the others from the same skins mounted.

Measurements of Two Skins of Eumetopias Stelleri.

		920. ars old.	No. 2921. J 15 years old		
	Unmounted.	Mounted.	Unmounted.	Mounted	
Length of body	2,750 100	2,790 100	2,896	3,010	
" 'tail		100		110	
Length of hand	575	560	635	620	
Breadth " "	337	335		360	
Length " foot	559	540		610	
Breadth " " at tarsns	216	210		230	
" " ends of the toe-flaps	483	445		440	
Length of flans of outer toe	200	200		220	
" " " 2d toe	179	156		210	
" " " 3d toe	152	147		190	
" " " 4th foe	164	150		190	
" " " inner toe	164	150		165	
Distance from end of nose to eye .	215	190		170	
" " ear	368	365		380	
" between the eyes	190	195		210	
" " ears	372	370		420	
Length of the ear	37	35		35	
" " longest barbule	342	342			
Dist between points of longest barbules	800	800		0 (1)(1)	
Circumference of the body at fore limbs		2,250		2,600 1.020	
		1,000		1,020	
" head at the ears					
Length of body to end of hind limbs		3,450		3,790	

Skull. - The skull (Figs. 3 and 4, woodcuts, pp. 57-58, and Figs. 1-4, Pl. I) varies greatly in different individuals, not only in its general form, but in the shape of its different bones. The occipital and median crests are doubtless not much developed before the fifth or sixth year. The bones thicken greatly after the animal attains maturity, and the palate becomes more flattened. In the adult male the brain-box may be described as subquadrate, narrower anteriorly, where the skull is abruptly contracted. The greatest diameter of the skull is at the posterior end of the zygoma, and is equal to three fifths of its length. The post-orbital processes are strongly developed and quadrate; the forchead is flat, and the facial profile is either abruptly or gradually declined; the muzzle is broad, equal in breadth in front to the distance between the orbits. The palatal surface of the intermaxillaries is flat, or slightly depressed anteriorly, and very slightly contracted posteriorly. Laterally the intermaxillaries reach nearly to the end of the palatals. The latter are much contracted posteriorly, and terminate quite far in front of the hamuli pterygoidii. Both the anterior and posterior nares are a little narrower than high. The nasals are widest anteriorly. The last (fifth) pair of upper molars is placed far behind the fourth pair, the space between them being about equal to that occupied by two molars. The males in old age have exceedingly high occipital and sagittal crests, most developed posteriorly; an teriorly they diverge and terminate in the hinder edge of the postorbital processes.

The lower jaw is massive and strong. Its coronoid processes are greatly developed, as are the tuberosities at the angles of the rami, and a second tuberosity on the lower inner edge of each ramus (see Figs. 9-11, Pl. III).

It should be added that the above description of the skull refers exclusively to the male. Having no skulls of the female, I am unable to state definitely how the sexes differ in respect to the form of the skull. Judging, however, from the sexual variations seen in Callorhinus ursinus, Otaria jubata, and other species of the Otariadæ, the skull of the female would be not only very much smaller, but it would lack almost totally the high occipital and sagittal crests exhibited by the male, and have all the processes for the attachment of muscles less developed. The teeth, especially the canines, are relatively much smaller, as is also the lower jaw. In other words, the female skull would doubtless closely resemble the skull of a yearling male. The annexed table of measurements indicates still further the general form of the male skull and the relative proportions of its different regions.

# Measurements of the Skull.

	No. 2920. Middle aged.	Very old
	8	8
Length	374	385
Breadth	220	246
Breadth .  Dist. from ant. edge of intermaxillary to hamuli pterygoidii  """ to last molar (left side)  """ (right side)  """ to ant. edge of zygm. arch  """ to auditory orifice .  Length of left polatine hope (inner edge)	243	247
" to last molar (left side)	160	160
" " " (right side)	160	150
" to ant. edge of zygm. arch	140	140
" ", " post. " "	246	250
" to auditory orifice .	290	300
Length of left palatine bone (inner edge) """" (outer edge) """ (inner edge)	50	64
" " " (onter edge)	55	68
" " right " " (onter edge)	45	63
" " " (outer edge)	49	63
Breadth of right palatine anteriorly	16	19
" left " "	19	21
" left " "	12	16
" left " "	13	18
" left " ". Distance from edge of palatals to ptyg. process	48	46
" " last molar to post. edge of palatals		-
(left side)	32	42
(left side)	19	17
" " " " 2d and 3d molars	41	38
" " 2d and 3d molars . " " 4th molar	18	20
Length of the nasals (outer edge)	60	64
u u u u u u u 1 - 1	47	48
Proodth of pacels (enteriorly)	32	38
" " (nesteriorly)	45	44
(posteriorly)	95	110
" " postorbital processor	120	130
Breadth of nasals (anteriorly).  " " (posteriorly).  " of the skull at the canines  " " postorbital processes  " " postorbital processes	200	235
paroccipital	54	54
anterior nates (vertical)	48	55
(thirsverse)	32	42
posterior nares (vertical)	30	36
Y an ath of autocomptic foremen	116	120
Denoteb " "	80	80
" " postorbital processes	30	33
" " (antero-posterior)	33	36
(4111610 1)03601101	145	165
Greatest height of skull (paroc. proc. to top of occip. crest)	132	140
Distance from lower edge of condyles " " "	150	160
Height of skull from hamuli pteryg, to top of sagittal crest	80	180
Height of sagittal crest Length of sagittal crest Greatest height of skull Length of lower jaw Breadth of the lower jaw at the condyles """ "last molar """ condyle Leight of lower jaw at the corporate process	38	35
Lough of lower jour	270	280
Dength of the lower jaw at the conducts	185	210
breath of the lower jaw at the conductes	100	110
ast molar	65	65
in iront	60	60
Condyle	85	95
Height of lower jaw at the coronoid process	65	75
at symphysis	0.0	10

Teeth. — Last upper molar is double-rooted, and its erown directed backwards. All the other molars are single-rooted, with a slight median longitudinal groove on the outside. Their crowns are irregularly conical, pointed, and jut out over their contracted necks; inner side of the crowns Surface of the crowns roughened with minute, longitudinal grooves and ridges. The upper molars have no trace of the supplemental points to the crowns seen in many species of this family. The lower molars, particularly the third and fourth, have very slight accessory eusps. Necks of the molars uniform in size with the upper part of the fangs. Fangs of the molars gradually tapering, those of the first and second upper much curved inwards; that of the third less so; that of the fourth straight; the two fangs of the fifth are directed abruptly forward, the posterior one much the smaller. Canines of both jaws very large, the upper, however, much the larger; the lower more curved. Of the six incisors of the upper jaw, those of the outer pair are much larger than the middle ones, two thirds as long as the canines, and much like them in form. The middle ones have their antero-posterior diameter nearly twice their lateral diameter, and their crowns are divided transversely. The fangs of the inner pair are slightly bifid. Of the four lower incisors the outer are much the longer. Figures 5-5 e (one half natural size), Plate I, shows the form of the teeth, and the subjoined table their size.\*

# Measurements of the Teeth.

#### A. - TEETH OF THE UPPER JAW.

	Molars.							Incisors	5.
4	5th.	4th.	3d.	2d.	1st.	Can	Outer.	Middle.	Inner.
Total length	27 9	33 13	36 13	37 13	40	84 34	63 23	29	25
Length of the crown . " neck † .	6	6	6	6	6 23	6	7	5 7	7
" root ‡ . Antero posterior diameter § Lateral diameter § .	11.5	13	13	13 10	11.5	24 20	15 12	7 5	6

<sup>\*</sup> These figures and dimensions (the latter given in millimetres) are taken from the younger or middle-aged specimen, in which the dentition was perfect and normal. In old age many of the teeth are usually broken, and a portion of them often entirely wanting, through loss from accident. As the lower canines could not be removed without removing a portion of the jaw, they have not been figured nor fully measured.

<sup>†</sup> The distance from the crown to the alveolus.

<sup>†</sup> The portion of the tooth inserted in the jaw.

<sup>§</sup> At the base of the crown.

Lateral diameter t

		1	Molar	ines.	Inci	sors.		
	5th.	4th.	3d.	2d.	1st.	Can	Outer.	Inner.
Total length	28	42	42	39	30		31	25
Length of the erown	10	12	14 5	12 5	10	35 7	8	5 4
" " root †	13	25 13	23 15	$\frac{22}{12.5}$	15	26	19 7	16 6

B - TEETH OF THE LOWER JAW.

Skeleton. — Vertebral formula: Cervical vertebræ, 7; dorsal, 15; lumbar, 5; eaudal (including the four sacral), variable; probable average, 16.

10

8.5

Ten of the fifteen ribs articulate with the sternum; their sternal portions are entirely eartilaginous. Their osseous portions evidently increase much in length after middle age. The apophyses of the vertebræ are well developed. Of the neural spines of the dorsal vertebræ, the first, second, and third are sub-equal, 130 mm. long; they gradually shorten posteriorly, the last having a length of only 75 mm.

The sternum is normally composed of nine osseous thick and broad segments, the first and last very long, the eighth shortest. Between the eighth and ninth a shorter cartilaginous one is sometimes intercalated (as in specimen No. 2920).

The pelvis (already fully described on pages 27–29) is well developed. The ilia are very long and narrow antero-posteriorly. The pubic bones are unanchylosed, they being merely approximate at their posterior extremities. Probably in the females (as in *Callorhinus ursinus*), they are widely separated, and the whole pelvis much smaller than in the males and differently shaped.

The humeri, as in the other Pinnipedes, are short and thick, with the greater tuberosity enormously developed. The bones of the fore-arm are also very large and strong, with all their processes greatly developed; in length they but slightly exceed the humerus. The length of neither of the segments of the arm quite equals the length of the bones of the first digit (including its metacarpal bone) of the hand. The first digit of the hand is the longest, twice as long as the fifth, and very thick and strong.

The bones of the hinder limbs are also short and thick, especially the femur, which is searcely more than one third as long as the tibia. The latter in length about equals the foot. The relative length of the digits

<sup>\*</sup> The distance from the crown to the alveolus.

<sup>†</sup> The portion inserted in the jaw.

t At the base of the crown.

is as follows, the longest being mentioned first: 5th, 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th. The third and fourth are of equal length, and but little shorter than the second. In respect to size, the tarsal and phalangeal bones of the fifth digit are nearly twice as large as those of the first, whilst those of the first are about twice the size of those of either of the other three. As previously noticed, the three middle digits of the foot are supplied with long narrow nails; the first and fifth with rudimentary ones, scarcely visible in the skin but quite distinct in the skeleton.

# Measurements of the Bones of the Hand (metacarpal and phalangeal).

	Middle-a	v	ery o	ıd Sp	eeime	n.		
	1st 2d digit. digit.	3d 4th digit.	5th digit.	1st digit.	2d digit.	3d digit.	4th digit.	5th digit.
Length of metacarpal and phalanges Length of metacarpal bone " " 1st phalanx . " " 2d " . " " 3d "	352 310 152 110 140 95 60 80 25	240 200 85 80 70 55 60 45 25 20	177 80 65 20 12	357 160 140 57	320 110 95 80 35	250 90 70 65 25	205 80 60 45 20	185 85 65 18 17

# Measurements of the Bones of the Foot (metatarsal and phalangeal).

	Middle-aged Specimen.					Very old Speeimen.					
	1st digit.	2d digit.	3d digit.	4th digit.	5th digit.	1st digit.	2d digit.	3d digit.	4th digit.	5th digit.	
Length of metatarsal and											
phalanges	310 120	290 95	290 95	305 110	328 130	320 145	317 110	327 110	350 120	350 130	
" " Ist phalanx .	140	90	90	90	93	130	100	105	105	110	
" " 2d " " .	50	75	75	80	70	45	80	85	95	75	
" "3d " .		30	30	25	35		27	27	30	35	
" "nail		40	40	37			50	55	50	—	

The hyoid bone is greatly developed. Each ramus consists of five segments, its two rami being connected together by a transverse segment articulating with the juncture of the fourth and fifth segments. All the parts of the hyoid bone are very thick, especially the transverse and anterior segments; relatively much more so than in *Callorhinus*. In the common *Phoca* the hyoid bone is reduced almost to a bony filament. The length of the hyoid bone in the present species is 270 mm.; of the transverse segment, 65 mm.; circumference of the transverse segment, 45 mm.; of the segment at the thickest part, 95.

# Measurements of the Skeleton.

		No. 2920. 10 y'rs old.	2921.
		0. S	No. 2 15 y
		Z	Z
		100	50
	length of skeleton (including skull)	2,750	2,935
Length	h of skull	374	385
"	" cervical vertebræ	500	540 1,090
66	"Iumbar "	1,050	1,090
4.4	"caudal "	440	520
66	" first rib	260	224
66	" " osseous portion	130	140
6.6	" cartilaginous portion	130	100
6.6	" second rib	345	295
6.6	" osseous portion	175	185
44	" cartilaginous portion	170	120
**	"third rib	410	410
46	" osseous portion	230	270
"	carmaginous portion	180	140
"	TOUTIN TID	470 280	470 330
66	osseous portion	190	140
4.6	" " cartilaginous portion	535	530
4.6	" " osseous portion	320	370
6.6	" cartilaginous portion	215	160
6.6	" sixth rib	580	590
6.6	" osseous portion	360	420
"	" cartilaginous portion	220	170
44	" seventh rib	640	620
4.6	" " osseous portion	400	440
"	" cartilaginous portion	240	180
"	eighth tio	676	670
44	osseous portion	420 250	480 190
4.6	" " cartilaginous portion	710	685
	" " osseous portion	420	485
4.6	" cartilaginous portion	290	200
6.6	"tenth rib	750	745
6.6	" osseous portion	420	485
6.6	" cartilaginous portion	330	260
16	" eleventh rib, osseous portion only	430	510
6.6	" twelfth rib " " "	490	500
"	"thirteenth rib " "	450	470
46	"fourteenth rib" ""	410	460
"	mteenth no	340	350
	sternum (ossined portion)	700 130	840 180
	" " 1st segment	70	90
66	" " 3d "	70	85
4.6	" " 4th "	65	80
- 66	" " 5th "	63	85
46	" 6th "	60	75
"	" " 7th "	60	73
6.6	" " 8th "	55	65
6.6	" " 9th "	70	77
4.6	" supernum, eartilag, seg. (bet. 8th and 9th	) 30	

	No. 2920. & 10 y'rs old	No. 2921. \$ 15 y'rs old.
Tonoth of seconds	830	370
Length of scapula	350	380
Greatest height of its spine	45	52
Length of humerus	300	285
Circumference of its head	300	290
Least circumference of the humerus	170	180
Length of radius	260	260
" "ulna	510	310
Longest diameter of upper end of ulna	100	130
Length of carpus	80	80
" " metacarpus and 1st digit	350	360
" " " 2d "	310	320
" " " 3d "	240	250
" " " 4th "	200	2,050
" " " 5th "	170	1,850
" " femur	170	220
Circumference of neck	125	120
Length of tibia	320	340
" " fibula	310	330
" " tarsus	140	160
metatarsus and 1st digit	310	270
20	290	290
30	290	270
" " " 4th "	305	285
" "innominate bone	227	310
innominate bone	320	360 160
Greatest width of the pelvis anteriorly	140	
Length of ilium	140 140	160 200
ischio-puote boiles	140	200
44 44 **	170	170
Width of hand at base of digits	160	170
" " foot " "	130	140
	100	140

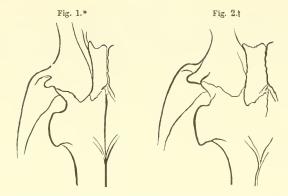
The os penis (Fig. 13, Plate III) is 170 mm. long, slightly arched, somewhat flattened above, especially posteriorly, sharply convex below, and abruptly expanded and squarely truncate at the end. Its circumference at the base is 72 mm.; just behind the terminal expansion, 32 mm.; and the terminal expansion itself, 65 mm.

The above table gives the principal measurements of the bones of the skeleton. Measurements of both specimens are given, as in previous tables, for the purpose of illustrating the variations that occur in the relative size of different parts after maturity is attained, and also for the purpose of illustrating individual variation, which in some particulars these specimens exhibit in a marked degree. The ribs, it will be observed, differ but slightly in total length in the two; not nearly so much as would be expected from the much greater bulk of the body of the older specimen. It will be noticed that the principal differences in the ribs consist in the

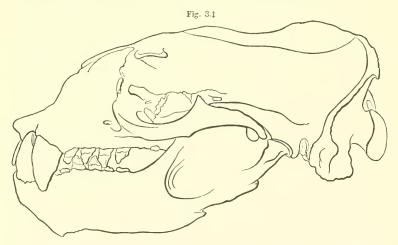
relative length of the bony to the cartilaginous portions, in the older the ossified portion being much longer and the cartilaginous much shorter than in the other. An irregularity will be also observed in respect to the sternal segments, the younger specimen having a supernumerary cartilaginous one between the 8th and 9th normal ones.

Age and Sexual Variations. — In regard to the present species my material does not furnish many facts in respect to these points, since the two males contained in Captain Bryant's collection constitute at present my only resources. These examples, he writes me, were selected "as average specimens of full-grown males, but in the selection," he says, "we were governed somewhat by the desire to have skins perfectly haired, many of the animals being chafed by the rocks, even to having sores." "I should estimate," he further adds, "the age of one of them to be nine or ten years, that of the other fifteen." These specimens, however, differ considerably from each other in color, size, and proportions. Some of these differences are clearly due to age, but others equally great cannot be thus explained. These specimens show that the body increases greatly in bulk, and the bones in size and density, after the animal has reached its adult length. The crests of the skull are almost wholly developed after this period, and in great measure also the spines or ridges of the scapulæ. The processes for the attachment of the muscles also increase, as do the vertebral or osseous portions of the ribs. The teeth also change greatly in size and form after maturity is attained. They not only increase in size, especially the canines, but become much worn and misshapen by long use. In old specimens a greater or less proportion of the teeth are said to be either entirely wanting or broken, as is the case in the older of the two specimens before me.\* Respecting the younger stages I am without data, as well as in respect to sexual variation. In these points the present species does not probably differ much from Callorhinus ursinus, adult females and the young of which are described further on. It is well known, however, that the females are much smaller than the males; as already suggested, they doubtless also lack the greatly developed sagittal and occipital crests of the males, as do the females of C. ursinus and Otaria jubata.

Individual Variation.—The present specimens, though only two in number and of different ages, indicate that the species under consideration is subject to a great amount of individual variation. This variation is strikingly shown in the skull, as seen in the following woodcuts (pp. 57–58). After allowing for the differences age would make, as in the smaller size of the sagittal crest, the rounded outline of the front edges of the intermaxillaries, the smaller size of the postorbital processes, the greater distinctness of the sutures, and perhaps the more sloping outline of the fore-



head in the younger (Figs. 1 and 4), there is left a radical difference in the general form of the two skulls, which must have increased as the younger animal advanced in years. In length the two skulls vary only about a tenth of an inch; the younger, however, is considerably the narrower and much deeper, especially posteriorly, while its facial angle is much less. The direction of the latero-occipital crests, the form and projection of the occipital condyles, and especially their situation relative to the paroccipital processes, are exceedingly different in the two skulls, as clearly shown in Figs. 3 and 4,—as different as might be expected to occur in

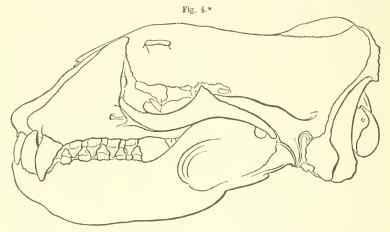


\* Fig. 1, anterior portion of the skull of No. 2920 (left side), showing the form of the masals, the zygomatic and postorbital processes, and the posterior outline of the intermaxillaries, seen from above.

<sup>†</sup> Fig. 2, same of No. 2921.

<sup>‡</sup> Fig. 3, skull of No. 2921, seen in profile.

quite distinct species. In the anterior portion of the skull the differences are nearly as great as in the posterior portion. In the older skull the ratio of the height of the skull at the base of the second molar to its height at the base of the fourth is as 81 to 100; the corresponding ratio



in the younger skull is as 74 to 100. It may be added that the same ratio in Dr. Gray's figure of the skull of Zalophus Gillespii† is as 70 to 100, showing that the younger skull in this character more resembles the Z. Gillespii, — which different writers have spoken of as remarkable for the great declination of the face, — than it does the older skull of the same species. There are also great differences in the relative length and shape of the masal bones, and in the form of the posterior outline of the intermaxillaries (Figs. 1 and 2). In the younger specimen they extend further back than in the older, further even than the end of the masals, while in the older the masals extend beyond the intermaxillaries.

In respect to the posterior aspect of the skull (Figs. 2 and 4, Plate I), the differences are no less great. The height of the occipital bone is about fifteen per cent greater in the young skull (Fig. 2, Pl. I), which would be much increased by age through the further development of the supraoecipital crest. The breadth of the occiput above is equal in the two; below it is fifteen per cent greater in the older (Fig. 4, Pl. I).

In the lower surface of the skull (Figs. 1 and 3, Plate I) other considerable differences are observable, and of such a nature that they cannot be regarded as resulting from age. In the older skull, as previously remarked, the bones are in general much thicker than in the younger; but in re-

<sup>\*</sup> Fig. 4, skull of No. 2920, same view.

<sup>†</sup> Proc. London Zool. Society, 1859, Pl. LXX.

spect to the hamuli pterygoidei, the younger skull has these processes longer and stouter than they are in the older. The posterior nares are narrower and higher in the younger,— a difference correlating with the general differences in form of the skull in the two specimens, the nares in the younger being relatively narrow and high as compared with those of the other. The comparative measurements of these skulls already given (p. 49) show definitely the amount of these differences. The palatine surface of the intermaxillaries is less depressed in the older skull.

In respect to other portions of the skeleton, considerable differences other than those obviously resulting from age are met with. The smaller and younger specimen, which has a girth in the mounted skin (as it doubtless had in life) one fourth greater than the other, has ribs as long as the other. The number of segments in the sternum varies in the two, through the intercalation in the younger specimen of a short cartilaginous one between the eighth and ninth, to which the ninth pair of ribs is attached, instead of both the eighth and ninth pairs being attached to the eighth segment, as is usually the case.

In color, contrary to what would result from age, the younger specimen is much the lighter.

Asymmetry. — A small amount of asymmetry has now come to be recognized as normally occurring in many groups of mammals, from which even the highest are not free. It is most marked, however, in the lower types, and especially in the cetaceans, where it is usually too great to escape the notice of the most cursory observer. The eared seals also exhibit an unusually great degree of asymmetry. This absence of symmetry doubtless indicates a tendency to a greater than the ordinary degree of individual variation. In the skull of the older specimen of Eumetopias now before me, the asymmetry is very striking, the preponderance of size being on the left side of the skull, which is not only broader, but appreciably longer. Besides the asymmetry of size, there is an asymmetry in the position of the different parts, those on one side being in advance of their homologues on the other side.\* The following measurements indicate the extent of the asymmetry in size, the measurements being taken from the (homologically) median line outwards at four different points:—

Dialet aide	4.0	5.7	9 (	3.11
Right side,	40	07	0.4	111
	F 0	20	0.0	330
Left side	53	63	39	113 1
23016 1.100,	45.5	0.7	0.0	

<sup>\*</sup> This one-sidedness is still more strikingly seen in the above-mentioned female skull of *Otaria jubata*, especially in regard to the size and position of the postorbital processes. Dr. G. A. Maack informs me that in the specimens of the *O. jubata* collected by him on the coast of Buenos Ayres the asymmetry was astonishingly great. On the contrary,

he found no asymmetry in the skull of the Arctocephalus falklandicus.

The palatine bones seem to be particularly liable to vary in length and form on the two sides of the same skull, as does also the position of the last molar tooth. On the left side the distance between the fourth and fifth molars in the older skull is 35 mm., on the right side 26 mm.

In the younger skull the left side is also just appreciably more developed than the right. In the older individual the asymmetry is readily traceable throughout the skeleton, in the hind feet especially, the one being much larger than the other.

General Remarks. — The northern sea lion was first described by Steller in 1751, who, under the name of Leo marinus, gave a somewhat detailed account of its habits and its geographical range, so far as known to him. His description of the animal, however, is quite unsatisfactory. Steller's Leo marinus, in size, general form and color, closely resembles the southern sea lion (Otaria jubata), with which Steller's animal was confounded by Pennant, Buffon and nearly all subsequent writers for nearly a century. Péron, in 1816, first distinctly affirmed the northern and southern sea lions to be specifically distinct. Lesson, in 1828, gave it the specific name it now bears, in honor of Steller, its first describer. The following year Fischer, on the authority of Lesson, also recognized its distinctness from the southern species. Nilsson, in 1840, in his celebrated monograph of the seals, reunited them. Müller, however, in an appendix to Dr. W. Peters's translation of Nilsson's essay, published in the Archiv für Naturgeschichte for 1841, separated it again, and pointed out some of the differences in the skulls that serve to distinguish the two species. Gray, in his Catalogue of the Seals published in 1850, also regarded it as distinct. But one is led to infer that he had not yet seen specimens of it, and that he rested his belief in the existence of such a species mainly on Steller's account of it, as he himself expressly states in his later papers. The skull received subsequently at the British Museum from Monterey, California, and figured and described by Gray as a new species, under the name of Arctocephalus monteriensis, proved, however, to be of this species, as first affirmed by Dr. Gill, and later by Professor Peters and Gray himself. With the exception of the figures of an imperfect skull of Steller's sea lion from Kamtchatka, given by Pander and D'Alton in 1826, Dr. Gray's excellent figure (a view in profile) is the only one of its skull hitherto published. The only specimens of the animal extant, up to a recent date, in the European museums, seem to have consisted of the two skulls and a stuffed skin in

the Berlin Museum mentioned by Peters, and the skull in the British Museum figured and described by Gray.

With the Monterey skull above mentioned, Dr. Gray received another very young skull, and the skin of a fur seal, both of which were said to have belonged to one animal, and which he hesitatingly referred to his Arctocephalus monteriensis.\* Later, however, he regarded them as representing a new species,† which he called Arctocephalus californianus. Still later he again seems to refer them to his Eumetopias Stelleri ‡ (= Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray, of earlier date). Concerning this skin he remarked at one time as follows: "If the skin sent last year by Mr. Taylor to Mr. Gurney, and by that gentleman presented to the Museum, is the young of this species [A. monteriensis], the young animal is blackish, silvered by the short white tips to the short black hairs; those on the nape and hinder parts of the body with longer white tips, making those parts whiter and more silvery. The under-fur is very abundant, reaching nearly to the end of the hair. The end of the nose and sides of the face are whitish. The whiskers are elongated, rigid, smooth, and white. The hind feet are elongate, with rather long flaps to the toes. The skull is small for the size of the skin, and I should have doubted its belonging to the skin if it were not accompanied by the following label: 'Skull of the fur seal I sent last year. It is very imperfect, from my forgetting where I had put it; but it must do until accident throws another in the way; the other bones were lost. — A. S. T.' " §

As Dr. Gray seems to have finally become settled in his opinion that this skin is identical with his A. monteriensis, afterwards called by him Eumetopias Stelleri, this may account for the statement (already referred to in my "Résumé,") recently made by him || and subsequently reiterated, that the Eumetopias Stelleri is a species in which "the fur is very dense, standing nearly ereet from the skin, forming a very soft, elastic coat, as in O. fulllandica and O. Stelleri, which," he erroneously says, "are the only seals that have a close, soft, elastic fur." From his description of this young skull it is apparently refer-

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, p. 358.

<sup>†</sup> Cat. Seals and Whales, 1866, p. 49.

<sup>†</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, 1866, Vol. XVIII, p. 233.

<sup>§</sup> Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, p. 358.

<sup>|</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 4th Series, 1866, Vol. I, p. 101.

<sup>¶</sup> Ibid., p. 215.

able to *E. Stelleri*; but the skin is unquestionably that of the *Callorhinus ursinus*. Nothing can be more sure than that it cannot belong to the *E. Stelleri*, which is completely destitute of soft fur, as proved by the specimens before me, and the description given by Professor Peters of the one in the Berlin Museum.

Lesson gave the name Otaria californiana to a supposed species of eared seal based solely on the "Jeune lion marin de la Californie" of Choris.\* The figure given by Choris is too poorly drawn to be recognizable as that of one species of eared seal rather than of another. The following is the only allusion Choris makes to this animal in his text: "Les rochers, dans le voisinage de la baie San-Francisco sont ordinairement couverts de lions marins. Pl. XI." From the locality, which is the only possible guide, it was doubtless the E. Stelleri, but it may have been the Zalophus Gillespii. Dr. Gill in his "Prodrome," adopted provisionally Lesson's name (californiana) for the present species, but at the same time suggested its probable identity with the socalled Otaria Stelleri of Müller. Peters, a few months later, confirmed Gill's suggestion, since which time the name Stelleri has been universally adopted for the larger northern hair seal. The Otaria Stelleri of Schlegel, † formerly supposed by Gray ‡ and also by Peters § to include both the Australian eared seals (viz. Arctocephalus cinereus and Zalophus lobatus), has finally been referred by the latter, after an examination of the original specimens in the Leyden Museum, to the Zalophus Gillespii. I am now convinced of the correctness of this determination, though for a time I suspected the skull of the young female figured in Fauna Japonica (Pl. XXII, Figs. 5 and 6) to belong to some species of fur seal. It certainly differs greatly in proportions, as well as in dentition, from the other skulls figured in this work (same plate), and called O. Stelleri.

The northern sea lion having become generally recognized as specifically distinct from the sea lion of the southern seas, Dr. Gill, in 1866, separated the two generically. This had indeed already been done practically by Dr. Gray, inasmuch as he placed his A. monteriensis (=0.

<sup>\*</sup> Voyage Pittoresque, Pl. XI, of the chapter entitled "Port San-Francisco et ses habitants." (The date of this work is 1822.)

<sup>†</sup> Fauna Japonica, Mam. marine, p. 10.

<sup>‡</sup> Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, 1866, Vol. XVIII, p. 229.

<sup>§</sup> Monatsberichte Akad. Berlin, 1866, pp. 272, 276.

<sup>|</sup> Ibid., p. 669.

Stelleri auct.) in the genus Arctocephalus, and the southern sea lion in Otaria, with which he nominally associated the O. Stelleri. He failed, however, to recognize the identity of his A. monteriensis with the O. Stelleri, and hence the entire generic diversity of the northern and southern sea lions seems to have escaped his observation. The latter fact was first pointed out by Dr. Gill in his "Prodrome," as above stated.

Comparison with Otaria Jubata. — Having only male specimens of the Eumetopias Stelleri, and only skulls of the female of Otaria jubata, I am unable to make a detailed comparison of these two strictly geographically representative species. The following measurements of a female O. jubata, taken from the animal itself (at Cabo Corrientes, Buenos Ayres), by Dr. G. A. Maack, are here introduced for future reference, since they are more detailed than any hitherto published:—

# "Measurements of Otaria Jubata (adult).

" Total length	to end of tail						1,750	mm.
66 66	" " outst	retched	hind lii	nbs.			2,070	46
Greatest circu	umference of the	he body					1,050	44
Circumferenc	e of the body i	in front	of fore	limbs			970	66
66	46	6.6	hind	limbs			860	66
46	of the neck						620	66
Length of left	fore fin .						700	46
66 66	palm						500	46
44 44	hind fin (sole						430	66
"The general co	olor is brown;	iris, cof	fee-brov	vn; b	arbu	les,	dark y	ellow."

Of the large collection of skins and skeletons of the Otaria jubata received by the London Zoölogical Society in 1868, we as yet have no very detailed account. The measurements of one of the adult females given by Dr. Murie \* are as follows: "Greatest length of skin, including hind extremities, 80½ inches [2,045 mm.]; from muzzle to end of tail, 66½ inches [1,702 mm.]; tip to tip of fore limbs outspread, 58 inches [1,473 mm.]" It hence agrees very nearly in size with that measured by Dr. Maack.

The measurements of a male specimen of O. jubata — belonging to the same collection as the female — given by Dr. Murie, indicate that it was not nearly full grown. The few reliable facts we have in

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Zool. Soc. 1869, p. 102.

respect to the size of the male are sufficient to show that in this respect, as well as in general external features, the *O. jubata* differs markedly in no way from the *Eumetopias Stelleri*, although they differ widely in the form of the skull and in dentition.

Geographical Distribution.—According to Steller, this species existed in his time along nearly the whole eastern coast of Kamtchatka and southwards to the Kurile Islands. He also met with it on Behring's Island and on the American coast. Both Captain Bryant and Mr. Dall report it as abundant at the Pribyloff Islands, and it has been received by Dr. Gray, and also, as Dr. Gill informs me, at the Smithsonian Institution, from California. The sea lions of the Farallone Islands and other parts of the California coast, especially those that have of late attracted so much attention in the harbor of San Francisco, are probably the present species. The E. Stelleri hence doubtless ranges along the American coast, in greater or less abundance, from California to Behring's Strait, and down the Asiatic coast to the Kurile Islands.

Habits.—The habits of this species have not yet been minutely described. Steller gave a very full account of those of the sea bear (Callorhinus ursinus), and remarked that, with some few exceptions (which he specifies), those of the sea lion closely resemble those of that animal. Captain Bryant has also been far more minute in his account of the sea bear; but in the subjoined notes respecting the sea lion he presents interesting information regarding the latter species. The Plates of Choris (Nos. XIV and XV of the chapter on the Aleutian Islands) doubtless give a very good idea of the appearance of these animals and the sea bears when assembled on the land. He has also contributed a few interesting facts concerning their habits. The following are the remarks of Captain Bryant:—

"The sea lion visits St. Paul's Island in considerable numbers to rear its young. It is one of the largest of the seal family, the male frequently measuring thirteen feet in length, and weighing from fifteen to eighteen hundred pounds. Its habits are the same as those of the fur seal. When roused to anger it has a very-marked resemblance, through the form of its head and neck, to the animal from which it is named, and its voice, when rouring, can be heard to a great distance. Its body is thickly covered with fine, short, dark [?] brown hair, without any fur. Its skin is of considerable value as an article of commerce in the territory, it being used in making all kinds of boats, from a one-man

canoe to a lighter of twenty tous' burden. The natives of all the Alcutian Islands and of the coast as far east as Sitka, beside those of many ports on the mainland to the north, rely on this island for a supply of the skins of this animal. The rookery is on the northeast end of the island, and the animals have to be driven ten or eleven miles to the village to bring their skins to the drying-frames. It sometimes requires five days to make the journey, as at frequent intervals they have to be allowed to rest. It is a somewhat dangerous animal, and the men frequently get seriously hurt by it in driving and killing it. They are driven together in the same manner as the fur seals are; and while impeding each other by treading upon each other's flippers the small ones are killed with lances, but the larger ones have to be shot.

"This animal is the most completely consumed of any on the island. Their flesh is preferred to that of the seal for drying for winter use. After the skins are taken off (two thousand of which are required annually to supply the trading-posts of the territory), they are spread in piles of twenty-five each, with the flesh side down, and left to heat until the hair is loo-ened; it is then scraped off, and the skins are stretched on frames to dry. The blubber is removed from the careass for fuel or oil, and the flesh is cut in strips and dried for winter use. The linings of their throats are saved and tanned for making the legs of boots and shoes, and the skin of the flippers is used for the soles. Their stomachs are turned, cleaned, and dried, and are used to put the oil in when boiled out. The intestines are dressed and sewed together into water-proof frocks, which are worn while hunting and fishing in the boats. The sinews of the back are dried and stripped to make the thread with which to sew together the intestines, and to fasten the skins to the canoe-frames. The natives receive thirty-five cents apiece for the skins when ready for shipment. But these skins are not so much valued by the trader for the profit he makes on their sale, as for the advantage it gives him in bargaining with the hunters, since by buying these they are able to secure a right to the purchase of the hunter's fors on his return, the natives always considering such contracts binding."

Choris, in his description of the "Iles S.-Georges et S.-Paul's," thus speaks of the sea hons that he met with on these islands fifty years ago:—

"Le rivage etait couvert de troupes innombrables de lions marins, vol. 11. 5

L'odeur qu'ils répandent est insupportable. Ces animaux étaient alors dans le temps du rut. L'on voyait de tous côtés les mâles se battre entre eux pour s'enlever les uns aux autres les femelles. Chaque mâle en rassemble de dix à vingt, se montre jaloux, ne souffre aucun autre mâle, et attaque ceux qui tentent de s'approcher; il les tue par ses morsures ou s'en fait tuer. Dans le premier cas, il s'empare des femelles du vaincu. Nous avons trouvé plusieurs mâles étendus morts sur la plage, des seules blessures qu'ils avaient reçues dans les combats. Quelques femelles avaient déja des petits. Les Aléoutes en prirent plusieurs douzaines pour nous. L'animal n'est pas dangereux; il fuit à l'approche de l'homme, excepté depuis la mi-mai jusqu'à la mi-juin, qui est le plus fort temps du rut, et où les femelles mettent bas leur petits; alors il ne se laisse pas approcher et il attaque même."

"Ces animaux sont aussi très-communs au port de San-Francisco, sur la côte de Californie, où on les voit en nombre prodigieux sur les rochers de la baie. Cette espèce m'a para se distinguer de ceux qui fréquentent les îles Aléoutiennes; elle a le corps plus fluet et plus allongé, et la tête plus fine: quant à la couleur, elle passe fortement au brun, tandis que ceux des îles Aléoutiennes sont d'une couleur plus grise, ont le corps plus rond, les mouvements plus difficiles, la tête plus grosse et plus épaisse; la couleur du poil des monstaches plus noirâtre que celui des îles Aléoutiennes.

"On trouve les lions marins depuis le 30<sup>ème</sup> jusqu'au 60<sup>ème</sup> parallèle nord, dans les îles et sur le continent d'Amérique."

"On y [l'île Saint-Georges] tue une grande quantité de lions marins; mais seulement des mâles, à cause de leur grandeur; on se sert de leur peau pour recouvrir les canots, et des intestins pour faire le kamleyki, espèces de blouses que l'on endosse par dessus les autrs vêtements lorsqu'il pleut pour ne pas se mouiller. La chair, que l'on fait sécher, est dure; e'est une bonne nourriture pour l'hiver. . . . Les jeunes sont très-tendres et ont le goût de poisson." \*

The following careful description of their movements on land has been communicated to me by Mr. Theodore Lyman, who has recently observed the sea lions on the "Seal Rocks" near San Francisco:—

"These rocks," he says, "are beset with hundreds of these animals, — some still, some moving, some on the land, and some in the water. As

<sup>\*</sup> Voyage Pittoresque autour du Monde, Chapter "Hes Aléoutiennes," p. 12 - 14.

they approach to effect a landing, the head only appears decidedly above water. This is their familiar element, and they swim with great speed and ease, quite unmindful of the heavy surf and of the breakers on the ledges. In landing, they are apt to take advantage of a heavy wave, which helps them to get the forward flippers on terra firma. As the wave retreats, they begin to struggle up the steep rocks, twisting the body from side to side, with a clumsy worm-like motion, and thus alternately work their flippers into positions where they may force the body a little onward. At such times they have a general appearance of sprawling over the ground. It is quite astonishing to see how they will go up surfaces having even a greater inclination than 45°, and where a man would have to creep with much exertion. When the surface is nearly horizontal, they go faster, and often proceed by gathering their hind-quarters under them, raising themselves on the edges of their fore-limbs and then giving a push, whereby they make a sort of tumble forwards. In their onward path they are accompanied by the loud barking of all the seals they pass; and these cries may be heard a great distance. Having arrived at a good baskag-place, they stretch themselves out in various attitudes, - often on the side, sometimes nearly on the back, but commonly on the belly, with the flippers somewhat extended. They seem much oppressed with their own weight (which is usually supported by the water), and it seemed an exertion for them even to raise the head, though it is often kept up for a long time. They play among themselves continually by rolling on each other and feigning to bite. Often, too, they will amuse themselves by pushing off those that are trying to land. All this is done in a very cumbrous manner, and is accompanied by incessant barking. As they issue from the water, their fur is dark and shining; but, as it dries, it becomes of a yellowish brown. Then they appear to feel either too dry or too hot, for they move to the nearest point from which they may tumble into the sea. I saw many roll off a ledge at least twenty feet high, and fall, like so many huge brown sacks, into the water, dashing up showers of spray."

From the accounts given by various observers, the sea lions evidently move with much less facility on land than do the fur seals. Captain Bryant states that the fur seals may be driven at the rate of a mile and a half per hour, while he asserts that the sea lions can be driven with safety only about two miles a day.

### GENUS ZALOPHUS Gill.

Zalophus Gill, Proc. Essex Institute, 1866, V, 7, 11. Type Otaria Gillespii McBain.

Zalophus Peters, Monatsb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, 275, 671.

Neophoca Gray, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, 1866, XVIII, 231.

Type Arctocephalus lobatus Gray.

Size medium. Molars approximated, last under the hinder edge of the zygomatic process. Muzzle narrow. Superior profile, from the postorbital process anteriorly, gently declined. Bony palate moderately contracted posteriorly, and but slightly depressed. Hinder edge of the palatals deeply coneave. Pterygoid hooks slender. Posterior nares broader than high; anterior higher than broad. Postorbital cylinder narrow and clongate. The postorbital constriction of the skull is deep and abrupt, giving a quadrate or subquadrate form to the brain-box, which varies to triangular through the varying degree of prominence of its lateroanterior angles. The postorbital processes are triangular, developed latero-posteriorly into a rather slender point. The sagittal crest forms a remarkably high, thin bony plate, unparalleled in its great development in any other genus of the family. The general form of the skull is rather narrow, much more so than in Eumetopias, and nearly as much so as in Arctocephalus; the breadth to length being as 60 to 100.

Zalophus, so far as the skull is concerned, is the most distinct generic form of the family Otariadæ, it being thoroughly distinct from all the others. It differs from Otaria in having one less pair of upper molars, in the less depression of the bony palate, the less extension posteriorly of the palatines, the much narrower muzzle, the much less abrupt declination of the facial profile, its much higher sagittal crest, and in its narrower and more elongated form.

Zalophus differs from Eumetopias, as already pointed out, in having all the upper molars closely approximated, in the concave outline of the posterior border of the palatines, and otherwise much as it differs from Otaria.

Zalophus differs from Callorhinus in its less number of upper molars, its high sagittal crest, and in the more declined profile of the face. It differs in a nearly similar manner from Arctocephalus, but more resembles this genus in the general form and proportions of the skull than any other. But in the nature of its pelage, and in other external features, it is radically distinct from the whole group of fur seals, as it is also in its high sagittal crest.

# Zalophus Gillespii Gill. Gillespie's Hair Seal.

Otaria Gillespii McBain, Proc. Edinb. Roy. Phys. Soc., I, 422, 1858.

Arctocephalus Gillespii Gray, Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1859, 110, 360, Pl.

LXX; Cat. Scals and Whales, 1866, p. 55.

Zalophus Gillespii Gill, Proc. Essex Inst., V, 13, 1866.

Otaria (Zalophus) Gillespii Peters, Monatsb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, 275, 671. Zalophus Gillespii Gray, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Series, 1866, XVIII, 231.

Otaria Stelleri Schlegel, Fanna Japonica, Mam. marin, 10, Pl. xxi, (animal), Pl. xxii, Figs. 1-4, and 5-6 (skulls), Pl. xxiii, Figs. 1-9 (skeleton and teeth), 1842.

" Otaria japonica Schlegel, MS." Peters.

Color. — In color, as well as in general form, this species is similar to E. Stelleri, but in size it is much smaller. Being without skins of this species, I borrow the following from Schlegel's description in the Fauna Japonica. In describing Japan specimens (under the name Otaria Stelleri) he says the tints of the upper parts are "d'un gris jaunâtre, un peu nuancé de noir sur le dos et sur la tête. Sur les parties inférieures et sur les extrémités, la teinte générale dont nous parlons, passe insensiblement au brun-roux; mais cette couleur est très-peu marquée sur le dessous du cou, tandis qu'elle devient très-foncée vers l'extrémité des pieds, qui sont d'un brun-roux noir assez profond." "Les poils," he adds, "sont en général courts, puisqu'ils ne portent guère que trois à quatre lignes en longueur sur le con ou sur le dos, un peu raides et assez touffus. Ils sont, sur les parties supérieures, bruns à la base et noirs au milieu, mais leur pointe offre toujours des couleurs plus claires, qui forment les teintes générales de l'animal." The specimen above described he states is a female, and remarks that another female he possessed differs from it in color only in being generally darker or more deeply colored.

Size. — The mounted skin of an adult male preserved in the Museum of the Pays-Bas, he says, is "six pieds et deux pouces en longueur totale, mesuré depuis le nez jusqu'à l'extrémité de la queue." It differs from a female specimen, he says, only in being larger and darker colored and in having the hairs longer.

The only specimens of this species I have been ab'e to examine are two skulls, one of which was kindly loaned me by the Chicago Academy of Sciences, and the other by the Smithsonian Institution. The former belongs to a mounted skeleton, collected, as Dr. Stimpson informs me, by Professor W. P. Trowbridge, formerly Lieutenant of United States Engineers somewhere between Puget Sound and San Francisco. The skeleton, without the atlas and skull, Dr. Stimpson writes me, measures six feet; adding the length of the latter gives a little less than seven feet as the whole length of

the skeleton. The sex of neither of these specimens was recorded, but there seems to be little doubt of their being both males. Both are very old individuals. They differ considerably in size, however, as will be seen by the accompanying table of measurements, the Chicago Academy specimen being the larger.

Measurements of the Skull.

	8*	3†
Length	330	290
Breadth  Dist. from ant. edge of intermaxillaries to hamnli pterygoidei  """ last molar  """ front edge of orbit  """ post. ""  """ auditory orifice	180	170
Dist. from ant. edge of intermaxillaries to hamuli pterygoidei	190	180
" 'ast molar .	100	97
" " front edge of orbit	95	90
" " post. " "	160	150
" " auditory orifice .	245	220
	35	34
" "right " " (anteriorly)		36
Breadth of left " (anteriorly)	21	19 18
" right "	55	18
Dist. from post, edge of palatals to end of hamuli pteryg.	90 90	80
" " last molar to end of hamuli pteryg	10	07
Depression of palate below alveoli of canines	09	08
((		10
Length of the nasals (onter edge)  """ (inner edge)  Breadth of both nasals together (anteriorly)  """ (posteriorly)  """ (posteriorly)	61	56
" " (inperedge)	49	38
Rreadth of both needs together (anteriorly)	30	27
" " (nosteriorly)	28	20
" of the skull at the engines	70	60
" " " postorbital process	83	66
" " " middle of the orbits	145	130
" " " maxillary condyles	190	170
" " " paroccipital process	165	163
Diameter " anterior nares (vertical)	32	30
" " (transverse)	34	29
" posterior nares (vertical)	30	23
" " (transverse)	28	26
Length of the zygomatic foramen	117	82
Breadth " "	65	55
Diameter of foramen magnum (antero-posterior)	24	25
" " (laterally) .	25	23
Height of the skull (end of parac. proc. to top of occip. erest)	150	120
" " (occip, condyle to top of occip, crest)	130	97
" (end of ham. pteryg. to top of sag. crest)	140	125
Length of sagittal crest	157	145
Greatest height of crest	38	29 200
Length of the lower jaw	240 170	155
Length of the lower jaw Breadth posteriorly  at last molar  posterior edge of symphysis  of each condyle Height of lower jaw at coronoid process	170 75	155 75
at last molar	53	64
posterior edge of symphysis	55	47
of each condyle	90	75
Height of lower law at coronoid process	45	37
" " symphysis	4:7	01

<sup>\*</sup> Received from the Chicago Academy of Sciences.

<sup>†</sup> Received from the Smithsonian Institution (S. I. No. 261).

According to Peters, the length of the skull of O. Gillespii is 295 mm.; of one of the skulls of O. Japonica (Schlegel MS.  $\Longrightarrow O$ . Stelleri of the Fauna Japonica) is 270 mm. and of the other 310 mm., which would indicate an animal f about three fourths the size of E. Stelleri.

If we can assume that the California "lion marin" of Choris\* is this species, which we can hardly do with certainty, it differs from the E. Stelleri in being browner and smaller, with a more delicately shaped head and darker mustaches. The latter, however, are variable in color, in other species, in specimens specifically the same.

Individual Variation. — The two male skulls of Zalophus Gillespii before me differ from each other very remarkably in various points. Besides the general difference in size indicated in the above table of measurements, there are other and more radical differences in proportions and form. In the specimen received from the Chicago Academy, the general form is much more elongated than in the other, especially the facial portion of the skull and the postorbital cylinder. The nasals are especially longer, and the expanded interorbital space shorter, with the postorbital processes much more heavily developed. The brain-box, seen from above, through the gradually sloping postorbital constriction, is triangular, whilst in the other, through the abruptness of the postorbital constriction, it is quadrate. Hence in the latter the brain-box has distinct latero-anterior angles, whilst in the other the lateral walls of the brain-box gradually and regularly converge anteriorly. The differences in these respects are far greater than exist between the two male skulls of Callorhinus ursinus represented in Plate II. The following proportions indicate the extent of the differences seen in the form of the postorbital cylinder.

The diameter of this part, at its point of greatest constriction, in the specimen received from the Smithsonian Institution is 23 mm.; do. of the specimen received from the Chicago Academy of Sciences, 35 mm. The length of the postorbital cylinder in the first is 43 mm.; in the latter, 69 mm., or nearly one and a half times longer than in the other; whilst the difference in the whole length of the skull in the two specimens is less than one seventh of the length of the smaller specimen. Species, and even genera, have been based on differences of less importance than these.

General Remarks. — Schlegel, in the work above cited, gave the first and thus far the fullest account we possess of this species. He also gave figures of several skulls, of a skeleton, and of a middle-aged female. He failed, however, to distinguish this species from the Z. lobatus and the Eumetopias Stelleri, but confounded the three under the name Otaria

<sup>\*</sup> Voyage Pittoresque (Iles Aléoutiennes, p. 13).

Stelleri. He also omitted to state distinctly the localities at which the specimens figured were obtained, though they were doubtless from Japan.

As already remarked under Eumetopias Stelleri, naturalists for a long time referred the specimens figured by Schlegel under the name Otaria Stelleri to two widely distinct species, namely, O. lobata (Zalophus lobatus) and O. cinerea (Arctocephalus cinereus). It was only four years since that Professor Peters, after examining the specimens figured in the Fauna Japonica, was able to determine the real character of Schlegel's O. Stelleri, which he found referable to the O. Gillespii McBain. As previously stated, I see no reason to question the correctness of this identification. The skull represented in Figures 5 and 6, Plate XXII, is said to be that of a young female; the great proportional differences apparent between this and the other specimens figured are only such as might result from age.

The references to this species are very few. The first, aside from Schlegel's above-cited work, is the description of a skull from California by McBain, in which the animal in question was first indidicated as a distinct species. This skull was described in 1858, and was the basis of McBain's species O. Gillespii. In the following year Dr. Gray published a figure of a cast of this skull, and re-described the species from the cast, under the generic name of Arctocephalus. Dr. Gill having seen other skulls, and noticing the striking differences existing between this and the other forms, in his "Prodrome" he proposed for this species the generic name of Zalophus.

The only species with which Zalophus Gillespii seems to be at all closely related is its congener the Z. lobatus, with which, as stated above, it was supposed by Schlegel to be identical, and to which it was in part or wholly referred by later writers. The two are of nearly the same size, and seem to have, in general, similar external features. According to Peters and Gray they differ, however, in the form of the teeth and in respect to some of the features of the skull.

Distribution and Habits.—The only localities from which this species is at present certainly known, are California and Japan, but it doubtless inhabits the intermediate shores of the Pacific. Mr. W. H. Dall informs me, however, that he is confident that there is only one species of "eared sea lion in Behring's Sea." He affirms most positively that "there is no Zalophus there, or at San Francisco," the species frequenting the rocks in the harbor of that name being the Eu-

metopias Stelleri. Captain Bryant writes me that he feels quite sure two species of sea lions inhabit the coast of California and the other Pacific States, but he has not yet had an opportunity of carefully examining them. The three specimens from the west coast of the United States already in collections, — that described by Dr. McBain, the one in the Museum of the Smithsonian Institution, and that in the Museum of the Chicago Academy, — sufficiently establish its occurrence on the California coast. There seems to be nothing known, or at least on record, concerning its habits.

### SUBFAMILY II. - OULOPHOCINÆ.

With thick under-fur; size smaller, form slenderer, and the ears relatively much longer than in *Trichophocina*. Digital swimming flaps of the hind feet very long. Molars  $\frac{e}{5} \equiv \frac{e}{5} = \frac{1}{10}.*$ 

# Genus Callorhinus Gray.

Callorhinus Gray, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, 359. Type "Arctocephalus ursinus Gray," = Phoca ursina Linné.

Arctocephalus Gill, Proc. Essex Inst., V, 7, 1866. Same type; not Arctocephalus F. Cuvier.

Facial portion of the skull broad and greatly produced. Otherwise essentially the same as in Arctocephalus.

Callorhinus and Arctocephalus are sufficiently distinguished from the hair seals by the character of the pelage, as well as by the other characters given above in the diagnoses of the two groups of hair and fur seals. Callorhinus differs apparently from Arctocephalus mainly, if not almost solely, in the greater prominence of the facial portion of the skull. Between these two groups there are not such radical differences in the form of the skull as are met with in the several genera of the hair seals, by means of which Otaria, Eumetopias, and Zalophus are so trenchantly separated from each other. Callorhinus and Arctocephalus, though closely allied forms, are probably generically separable.

### Callorhinus ursinus Gray. Northern Sea Bear.

Ursus marinus Steller, Nov. Comm. Academ. Petrop., II, 331, Pl. XV, 1751. Phoca ursina Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 37, 1758. (From Steller.)

"Phoca ursina Schreber, Saugeth., III, 289, 1758. (From Steller.)"

Phoca ursina Shaw, Gen. Zool., I, 265, Pl. LXII, 1800.

- " FISCHER, Synop. Mam., 231, 1829.
- " Pallas, Zoog. Rosso-Asiat., I, 102, 1831.

<sup>\*</sup> For a more extended comparison of Oulophocinæ with Trichophocinæ, see above, pp. 21-23.

Phoca nigra Pallas, Zoog. Rosso-Asiat., I, 107. (Young.)

Otaria ursina Péron, Voy. Terr. Austr., II, 41, 1816.

- " Desmarest, Nouv. Dict. Hist. Nat., XXV, 595, 1817.
- " DESMAREST, Mann., I, 249, 1820.
- " GRAY, Griffith's An. Kingd., V, 182, 1827.
- " NILSSON, Archiv f. Naturgesch. 1841 (in part).
- " J. MÜLLER, Ibid., 333.
- " A. WAGNER, Ibid, 1849, 39.

Otaria Kraschenninikowii Lesson, Diet. Class. Hist. Nat., XIII, 419, 1826.

Otaria Fabricii Lesson, Ibid , 420.

Otaria (Callochinus) ursinus Peters, Monatsb. Akad. Berlin, 1866, 373, 672.

Arctocephalus ursinus Gray, Cat. Phocidæ, 41, 1850; not A. ursinus F. Cuv., or only in part.

- " Gray, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, 103, 107, Pl. LXXIII, skull.
- " GILL, Proc. Essex Inst., V, 13, 1866.

Callorhinus ursinus GRAY, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1859, 359.

- " GRAY, Cat. Seals and Whales, 44, 1866.
- " GRAY, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Ser., XVIII, 234, 1866.

Arctocephalus monteriensis Gray, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc, 1857, 360 (in part).

Arctocephalus californianus Gray, Cat. Seals and Whales, 51, 1866 (in part).

Sea Cat, Kraschenninkow, Hist. Kamt., 306, 1764.

Ours Marin, Buffon, Hist. Nat., Suppl., VI, 336, Pl. xlvii, 1782 (in part). Ursine Seal, Pennant, Hist. Quad., I, 526, 531, 1792 (in part).

Color — (Male.) General color above, except over the shoulder nearly black, varying in different individuals of equal age from nearly pure black to rufo-grayish black. Over the shoulders the color is quite gray. The sides of the nose and the lips are brownish, as is a considerable space behind the angle of the mouth, and a small spot behind the car. The neck in front is more or less gray. The breast and the axillæ are brownish-orange. The limbs are reddish-brown, especially near their junction with the body, as is also the abdomen. The hairs individually vary considerably in color, some being entirely black nearly to their base, and others entirely light yellowish-brown; others are dark in the middle and lighter at each end. The naked skin of the hind limbs, the nose, and the anal region is black.

(Femule.) The general color of the female is much lighter than that of the male. Above it is nearly uniformly gray, varying to darker or lighter in different individuals and with age. The color about the mouth is brownish, varying to rufous, of which color are the axillar, the breast, and the abdomen. The sides are brownish-gray. At the base all the hairs are usually brownish, like the under-fur, with a broad subter-

minal bar of black, and tipped for a greater or less distance with gray. The variation in different individuals in the general color results from the varying extent of the gray at the ends of the hairs.

(Young.) The general color of the upper surface of the body in the young, previous to the first moult, is uniformly glossy black. The region around the mouth is yellowish-brown. The neck in front is grayish-black. The axillæ are pale yellowish-brown; a somewhat darker shade of the same color extends posteriorly and inward towards the median line of the belly, uniting on the anterior portion of the abdomen. The greater part of the lower surface, however, is dusky brownish-gray, the rest being black, but less intensely so than the back. Specimens of equal age vary much in color, one of the young specimens corresponding nearly with the above description, while the other is much darker.

On the head and sides of the neck a portion of the hairs are found, on close inspection, to be obscurely tipped with gray. After the first moult the pelage becomes gradually lighter, through the extension of the gray at the tips of the hairs, especially in the females, the two sexes being at first alike. Contrary to what has been asserted, the young are provided from birth with a long thick coat of silky under-fur, of a lighter color than the under-fur of the adults

The Hair. - The double pelage consists of an outer covering of long, flattened, moderately coarse hair, beneath which is a dense coat of long fine silky fur, which reaches on most parts of the body nearly to the ends of the hairs. The hairs are thicker towards the ends than at the base, but their clavate form is most distinctly seen in the first pelage of the young. In length the hair varies greatly on the different parts of the body. It is longest on the top of the head, especially in the males, which have a well-marked crest. The hair is much longer on the anterior half of the body than on the posterior half, it being longest on the hinder part of the neck, where in the males it is very coarse. On the crown the hair has a length of 42 mm.; on the hinder part of the neck it reaches a length of 50 to 60 mm. From this point posteriorly it gradually shortens, and near the tail has a length of only 20 mm. It is still shorter on the limbs, the upper side of the digits of the hind limbs being but slightly eovered, while the anterior limbs are quite naked as far as the carpus. The males have much longer hair than the females, in which it is much longer than in Eumetopias Stelleri.\*

\* From the descriptions of most writers it would seem that the *Otaria jubata* is provided with a conspicuous mane, but in the few accurate descriptions in which the length of the longest hairs is given, the so-called "flowing mane,"—which refers only to the greater length of the hairs on the neck and shoulders as compared with the other regions of the body,—does not appear to be any more truly a mane than in *Eumeto*-

The whiskers are cylindrical, long, slender, and tapering, and vary with age in length and color. In the young they are black; later they are light colored at the base, and dusky at the ends. In mature specimens they are either entirely white, or white at the base and brownish-white towards the tips.

Size. — The length of a full-grown male, according to the present specimens (see the table of measurements on page 77), is between seven and eight feet; and of a full-grown female, about four feet. Captain Bryant states\* that the males attain mature size at about the sixth year, when their total length is from seven to eight feet, their girth six to seven feet, and their weight, when in full flesh, from five to seven hundred pounds. The females, he says, are full grown at four years old, when they measure four feet in length, two and a half in girth, and weigh eighty to one hundred pounds. The yearlings, he says, weigh from thirty to forty pounds.

Ears. — The ears (Fig. 12, Pl. II, one half nat. size) are long, narrow, and pointed,† being absolutely longer than those of the *E. Stelleri*, though the latter animal is two or three times the larger.

Fore Limbs. — The hands (Fig. 11, Pl. II,  $\frac{1}{2}$  th nat. size) are long and narrow, with a broad cartilaginous flap extending beyond the digits, which has a nearly even border. Both surfaces are naked the whole length; not covered above with short hair, as in Eumetopias and Otaria. The nails are rudimentary, their position being indicated by small circular horny disks, as in all the other eared scals.

Hind Limbs. — The feet (Fig. 12, Pl. II,  $\frac{1}{20}$ th nat, size) are very long, nearly half their length being formed by the cartilaginous flaps that project beyond the ends of the toes. They widen much less from the tarsus to the ends of the toes than these parts do in E. Stelleri, and the length of the toe-flaps is relatively many times greater than in the latter species. The toes of the posterior extremities are of nearly equal length. The outer are slightly shorter than the three middle ones. The nails of the outer toes are rudimentary and scarcely visible; — those of the middle toes are strong and well-developed.

pias Stelleri, Callorhinus ursinus, Arctocephalus cinereus, or A. falklandicus. All the sea bears and sea lions, according to authors, have the hair much longer on the anterior than on the posterior half of the body; and in the hair seals it is not longer than in the fur seals. The resemblance to the mane of the lion, with which in several species this longer hair has been compared, is doubtless partly imaginary and partly due to the loose skin on the neck and shoulders being thrown into thick folds when these animals erect the head. I have not, however, seen the distinct crest formed by the long hairs on the crown of the male of Cursinus mentioned as occurring in the other species, unless it is alluded to in the specific name coronata, given by Blainville to a South American specimen of fur seal. It is certainly not possessed by the E. Stelleri.

- \* See beyond, p. 95.
- † They are accidentally represented too broad in the figure.

# External Measurements.

" head at the cars	" " hind limbs	Circumference of body in front of fore limbs		outstretched	" " longest barbule	Length of the car	" " cars	" between the eyes	" " ear	Distance from end of nose to eye	Length of toe-flaps of hind feet (average)	" " ends of toes	Breadth of foot at larsus	Length of hind limb				" from nose to end of outstretched	" "tail	Length of body	Un	
1	1	1	2,083		180	50	240	127	254	96	1	1	1	1	229	452	2,472		1	2,311	mounted.	No. 2922, Adult &
770	680	1,720	1		180	i i	360	137	255	95	225	250	145	515	225	470	2,740		53	2,390	Mounted.	
820	670	1,650			185	50	315	105	260	85	200	210	135	500	220	460	2,860		, <u>i.</u>	2,470	Mounted.	No. 2923, No. 2924, Adult & Adult \$
490	410	930	1		175	35	225	78	180	- 1	190	150	~1	400	140	320	1,790		54	1,350	Mounted.	No. 2924, Adult \$
1	1		1,321		1		i	1	1	1	1		1	432	1	317	1			1,118	Unmounted. Mounted. Mounted. Mounted. Unmounted. Mounted. Mounted. Mounted.	No 2925, Adult ¥
550	460	900	1		140	33	205	75	190	70	160	130	80	390	130	315	1,750		50	1,160	Mounted.	
315	260	555	[		65	34	150	53	120	50	80	110	55	175	75	0.21	1,015		15	840	Mounted.	No. 2926, Young 7 (35 days old).
330	260	500			65	33	156	55	130	52	75	120	573	200	85	190	1,020		18	860	Mounted.	No. 2926, No. 2927, Young '\tau Young \tau (35 days (35 days old).
1	357	914	1		-	38	152		178	76	1	127	75	406	135	357	1		26	1,270	Animal.	Young
1	21.6	-1	1		-	38	? 152	-	152	62	1	101	76	357	101	357	1		50	1,032	Animal	Adult 9 ("6 y rs old").
1	l	970				1	1	1	1		1	1	I	450		550	{		1	1,180	Animal	Arcto- cephalus falklan- dicus.

Measurements. — The preceding table of external measurements indicates the general size of the adult males and females, and the young at thirty-five days old. In some respects the dimensions are only approximately correct, being taken from mounted specimens; in the main, however, they are sufficiently accurate. A few measurements taken from the soft skin are also given; the making of a complete series of measurements of the skins before very were mounted was accidentally omitted. In addition to the six specimens of Captain Bryant's collection, I am indebted to Mr. W. II. Dall for measurements of a male and a female, taken by him \* from the animals immediately after they were killed. The female (said by Mr. Dall to be six years old) is evidently adult, but the male, from its but little larger size, seems not to have been fully grown. In the last column of the table a few measurements are given of a male specimen of the Arctocephalus falklandicus, taken by Dr. G. A. Maack, from a fresh specimen collected by him at Cabo Corrientes, Buenos Ayres. This specimen appears also to have not been fully grown.

Skull.† — In adult specimens the breadth of the skull is a little more than half its length, the point of greatest breadth being at the posterior end of the zygomatic arch. The muzzle or facial portion is broad and high, or greatly produced, much more so even than in Eumetopias. The postorbital processes vary from sub-quadrate to sub-triangular, sometimes produced posteriorly into a latero-posteriorly diverging point, as in Zalophus. The postorbital cylinder is broad and moderately clongated. The postorbital constriction is well marked, giving a prominently quadrate form to the brain-case, the latero-anterior angles of which vary somewhat in their sharpness in different specimens. The sagittal and occipital erests are well developed in the old males, nearly as much as in Eumetopias, as are also the mastoid processes. The palatine bones terminate midway between the last molar teeth and the pterygoid hamuli; their posterior outline is either slightly concave, or deeply and abruptly so. The palatal surface is flat, but slightly depressed posteriorly, and but moderately so anteriorly. The zygomatic foramens are broad, nearly triangular, and truncate posteriorly. The posterior and anterior nares are of nearly equal size in the males, with their transverse and vertical diameters equal; in the females the posterior nares are depressed, their transverse diameter being greater than the vertical. The nasal bones are much broader in front than behind.

The lower jaw is strongly developed, but relatively less massive than

<sup>\*</sup> At St. George's Island, Alaska, August, 1868.

<sup>†</sup> See Figs. 1-4, Pl. II (males); Figs. 1-4, Pl. III (females); and Figs. 5, 6, 7, Pl. II, and Fig. 9, Pl. III (young).

in Eumetopias. The coronoid processes are high and pointed, but much more developed in the males than in the females. The ramial tuberosities are greatly produced, especially the hinder one (see Figs. 8-10, Pl. II).

Measurements of the Skull.

	Adult & No. 2922.	Adult & No. 2923.	Adult Q No. 2924.	Adult Q No 2925.	Young Q No. 2926.	Young Q No. 2927.
Length Breadth Dist. from ant. edge of intermax. to end of ham. pteryg.  """ auditory opening edge of max. condyle  """ palato-max suture to end of ham. pteryg.  Length of left palatine bone Breadth of left palatine bone opposite last molar Length of left nasal bone (anteriorly)  """ (posteriorly) Breadth of skull at canines  """ postorbital processes  """ postorbital processes  """ posterior nares (vertical)  """ (transverse)  """ (transverse)  Length of zygomatic foramen Breadth of "" Greatest height of skull (mast. proc. to top of occip. crest) Height of skull at hamulus pterygoideus  Length of postorbital cylinder  "brain-case  "the lower jaw Breadth of lower jaw at its condyles  """ symphysis Height "" coronoid process	245 145 140 88 180	2755 1655 977 2055 1657 37 13 466 20 11 1566 677 148 24 24 24 24 38 88 44 52 115 108 108 116 116 116 116 116 116 116 116 116 11	185 115 120 63	2000 1177 1244 755 1355 588 255 100 333 111 633 40 95 13 21 23 23 688 41 766 755 300 766 126	-	137 92 83 
" " symphysis	34	40	23	21	-	12

Teeth. — The molars are closely set in a continuous row. The canines (Fig. 7c and 7c', Pl. II, upper canines) are large and sharply pointed, the lower slightly curved. The outer upper incisors (Figs. 6a and 7a, Pl. II) are much larger than the others, but relatively smaller than in Eumetopias. The middle incisors are flattened antero-posteriorly, and in youth and middle age have their crowns transversely divided (Figs. 6a and 7a, Pl II, upper incisors seen from the side). The lower incisors (Fig. 6d, Pl. II) are similarly divided and are quite small. The crowns of the mo-

lars are sharply conical, with no accessory cusp, or occasionally exceedingly slight ones. All the molars are simple rooted in the specimens I have been able to examine. Some of them have deep median grooves either on the inside or outside of the fangs, or on both sides, which seem to indicate that the fangs are made up of two connate roots. The distinctness of these grooves varies in different specimens (compare Figs. 6 b with 7 c, Pl. II) and in the corresponding teeth of the two sides of the mouth in the same specimen. Hence it is not improbable that specimens may be found in which the grooves of the fangs may be entirely obsolete, or so deep as to nearly or quite divide the fang into two distinct roots. The roots of the molars are very short, and but partially fill their alveoli; hence when the periosteum is removed they fit so loosely that they require to be cemented in with wax or other substance to prevent their constantly falling out whenever the skull is handled. The canines and the incisors have much longer roots, which more nearly fill their sockets. The roots of the molars are comparatively much shorter and thicker than in Eumetopias, and club-shaped, whereas in the latter they are slender and tapering. They are a little shorter than in Zalophus Gillespii, which has also short-rooted, loosely fitting teeth.\*

Skeleton. — Vertebral formula: Cervical vertebræ, 7; dorsal, 15; lumbar, 5; caudal (including the 4 sacral), 13 to 14 in the males, and 14 to 15 in the females.

The skeleton in its general features resembles that of Eumetopias Stelleri, already described. The bones of C. ursinus are, however, all slenderer, or smaller in proportion to their length, than in that species, the general form of the body being more elongated. The scapulæ are shorter and broader than in E. Stelleri, the proportion of breadth to length being in the one as 11 to 10 and in the other as 13 to 10. The pelvis is more contracted opposite the acetabula in C. ursinus that in E. Stelleri, and the last segment of the sternum is also longer and narrower. The differences in the skull of the two forms have already been pointed out in the generic comparisons. In proportions, the principal difference, aside from that already mentioned as existing in the form of the scapula, consists in the longer neck and longer hind feet in the C. ursinus; the ratio of the length of the cervical vertebræ to the whole length of the skeleton being as 15 to 100 in E. Stelleri, and as 23 to 100 in C. ursinus; and the ratio of the length of the foot to the tibia being in the former as 13 to 10, and in the other as 16 to 10. The following measurements indicate the length of the principal bones, and of the different vertebral regions.

<sup>\*</sup> Figures of the teeth of this species are given in the Fauna Japonica, Mammals, Pl. XXIII, Figs. 4-9.

# Measurements of the Skeleton.

	Adult &	7	_	
	No. 2922.	No. 2923.	Adult Q No. 2925	Adult Q No. 2924
Whole length of skeleton (including skull) .	2,040	1,840	1,370	1,215
Length of skull	275	245	200	185
" cervical vertebræ	430	360	200	172
" " dorsal "	770	680	520	470
" "lumbar "	270	245	185	173
" saeral "	160	145	105	95
" caudal "	140	145	160	120
" " first rib	212	178	120	110
" " osseous portion	112	105	55	55
" " cartilaginous portion .	100	73	6.5	55
" "third rib	395	370	205	175
" " osseous portion	265	210	140	115
" " cartilaginous portion .	130	90	65	60
" " sixth rib	465	400	323	265
" " osseous portion	350	295	230	190
" " cartilaginous portion .	115	105	93	75
" " tenth rib	590	103	405	335
" " osseous portion	360	340	265	215
	230		140	120
Cartinag month portroit	345	320	210	200
" " twelfth rib, osseous portion only " " fifteenth rib " " "	210	205	150	
			385	130
Sternum	640	590		370
ist segment	135	127	76	73
	68	54	37	34
od	65	57	39	36
4111	65	55	40	36
- · ·	60	57	40	37
0111	58	55	40	36
, tu	63	57	43	40
" " " 8th "	115	110	70	70
" " scapula	250	217	140	120
Breadth of "	295	285	170	160
Greatest height of its spine	35	27	14	12
Length of humerus	220	220	130	130
" radius	205	195	128	128
" " ulna	243	223	160	157
" " carpus	55	55	35	35
Breadth" "	100	80	60	55
Length of 1st digit * and its metacarpal bone	250	250	180	177
" " 2d " " " " "	245	235	178	_
" • 3d " " " "	215	195	155	_
" "4th " " " "	170	150	125	_
" "5th " " " "	127	115	100	-
" "femur	150	135	82	85
" "tibia	250	225	167	157
" "fibula	230	210	145	150
" "tarsus	87	84	57	60
Breadth " "	67	65	40	37
Length of 1st digit † and its metatarsal bone	270	260	200	-
" " 2d " " " "	265	260	200	
" " 3d " " " " "	265	260		
"4th " " "	264	255	_	
"5th " " " "	290	280		
5111	290	200	_	_

<sup>\*</sup> Fore limb.

	Adult &	Adult of	Adult Q	Adult Q
	No. 2922.	No. 2923	No. 2925.	No. 2924.
Length of innominate bone Greatest (external) width of pelvis anteriorly Width of posterior end of pubic bones Length of ilium ""ischio pubic bones ""thyroid foramen Breadth"""	234 115 17 100 134 67 34	210 110 14 95 110 63 25	145 70 30 60 75 45 20	140 75 25 60 73 45

Sexual Differences.— The sexes differ in color, as already stated, in the females being much lighter than the males, or grayer. In respect to the skeleton they differ extraordinarily in the form of the pelvis, as already described,\* all the parts of which in the female are greatly reduced in size, and instead of the pubic bones meeting each other posteriorly, as they do in the males, they are widely separated. The innominate bones are also much further apart in the females, and the bones forming the front edge of the pelvis are less developed, so that the pelvis in the female is entirely open in front. In consequence of the remarkable narrowness of the pelvis in the male, the form of this portion of the skeleton is necessarily varied in the female, to permit of the passage of the fætus in parturition. As already remarked, no such sexual differences are seen in the *Phocidæ*.

In respect to other parts of the skeleton, the absence of the great development of the sagittal and occipital crests seen in the males has already been noticed. The bones of all parts of the skull are much smaller and weaker, especially the lower jaw and the teeth. The attachments for the muscles are correspondingly less developed throughout the skeleton. The most striking sexual difference, however, is that of size; the weight of the full-grown females, according to Captain Bryant, being less than one sixth that of the full-grown males.

Differences resulting from Age.— The differences in color between the young and the adult consist, as already stated, in the young of both sexes during the first three or four months of their lives being glossy black, and gradually afterwards acquiring the color characteristic respectively of the adult males and females. In respect to the differences in the skeleton that distinguish the young, I can only speak of the skull. In regard to this a most striking difference is seen in the relative development of its different regions, as compared with the adult of either sex. The two young skulls before me, said to be from specimens thirty-five days

<sup>\*</sup> In the comparison of the skeleton of the eared seals with that of *Phoca vitulina* (above, p. 25 et seq.).

old, are both females, but at this age the sexes probably differ but little in osteological features, especially in those of the skull. In these specimens the anterior or facial portion of the skull is but little developed in comparison with the size of the brain-case. The muzzle is not only excessively short (see Figs. 5-7, Pl. II), but the orbital space is small, and the postorbital cylinder is reduced almost to zero, the postorbital processes being close to the brain-ease. The zygomatic arch is hence very short; the zygomatic foramen is as broad as long, instead of being nearly twice as long as broad, as in the adult. On the other hand, the brain-case is exceedingly large, the greatest breadth of the skull being at the middle of the brain-case instead of at the posterior end of the zygomatic arch. As will be seen by the table of measurements of the skull already given, the brain-case is nearly as large as in the adults, and the bones being thinner, it must have a capacity about as great as that of the skulls of the adult males and females, there being, in respect to this point, but slight difference in the sexes. As the young advance in age, the anterior portion of the skull, or that part in advance of the brain-ease, greatly elongates, especially the postorbital cylinder, and increases also in breadth, the skull in a great measure losing the triangular form and the narrow peaked muzzle characteristic of the young. The postorbital processes also greatly change their form as they further develop, as shown in the figures of Plate II.

The limbs are also relatively much larger than in the adult, as mentioned by Quoy and Gaimard in respect to the *Arctocephalus cinereus* of Australia,\* which enables them to move on land with greater facility than the adult, as the above-mentioned authors have stated to be the case in the Australian species.

It is not true, however, that the young of *C. ursinus* are devoid of underfur, as has been by some writers incorrectly stated.†

Individual Variation. — The two males were both not only full-grown, but quite advanced in age, though in all probability the crests of even the older skull (No. 2922) would have been still further developed. The other male (No. 2923) was somewhat younger, but already had the sagittal crest

<sup>\*</sup> Voyage de l'Astrolabe, Zoologie, Tom. I, p. 89.

<sup>†</sup> It may be added that the young specimens above described had not fully shed their milk teeth. The incisors appear to have been renewed, but both the first and second sets of canines were still present (as shown in Fig. 5, Pl. III, natural size), the permanent ones being in front of the others. The three pre-molars of the first set have been replaced by the permanent ones, the first and second of which are already quite large. The hinder or true molars are in one of the specimens but just in sight, and doubtless had not cut through the gum. In the other specimen they are a little more advanced. The middle one is quite prominent; the first is much smaller, while the last or third true molar is far behind either of the others in development.

considerably produced; the teeth, however, were but moderately worn, the incisors still retaining the groove dividing the surface of the crowns. In the younger male skull the posterior outline of the palatines is but slightly concave, whereas in the other it is deeply and abruptly emarginate in the middle, - as deeply so as in the young (one month old) skulls; - showing that differences in this respect do not necessarily depend upon differences in age. They also differ in the form of the postorbital processes, in the younger they having nearly the same form as in Eumetopias, whereas in the older nearly that seen in Zalophus. The postorbital cylinder is also much shorter in the younger, though these two skulls do not present nearly the great difference in this respect exhibited by the two very old male skulls of Zalophus already described. Another difference is seen in the parieto-maxillary suture. In the younger specimen it is nearly straight and directed forwards, the nasals extending considerably beyond it. In the other it curves at first moderately backwards, and then abruptly in the same direction; the maxillaries extending in this case slightly beyond the nasals, instead of ending considerably in front of the end of the latter. The nasals themselves are much narrower in the younger specimen, especially anteriorly, and hence have very different forms in the two specimens.

In respect to the teeth, it may be added that the older skull has seven upper molars on one side and six on the other, the normal number being six on each side. The form of the molar teeth, especially of the fangs, differ markedly in the two skulls; those of the younger having the longitudinal grooves of the fangs of nearly all the teeth almost wholly obsolete, while in the other specimen the roots of nearly all the molars are more or less strongly grooved.

Of the two female skulls one is very aged,\* as shown by the closed sutures and the greatly worn and defective teeth. The younger, however, is also quite advanced in years. Differences of a similar character to those seen in the males also occur between these, but they are less marked.

There are also considerable variations in color. Not only is one of the young females much darker below and about the face than the other, but one

<sup>\*</sup> Respecting the age of these specimens of fur seals, Captain Bryant has responded to my inquiries as follows: "The grown females (the mothers of the pups) were average specimens. The only means I had of determining their age was by the evidences afforded by dissection. These were that the older female had given birth to seven young, and the other to five, which would make their ages respectively ten and eight years. The two grown males were also selected as average specimens in size and color. Judging from their general appearance and color, I estimated them to be ten years old. The two pups were thirty-five days old, and in that time had doubled their size from birth. They were both females."

of the old females is much darker than the other, while similar variations are seen in the males.

General Remarks. — The northern sea bear (Callorhinus ursinus) was first made known by Steller in 1751, under the name of Ursus marinus. On his visit to Kamtchatka and its neighboring islands, in 1742, he met with these animals in great numbers at Behring's Island, where he spent several weeks among them, and carefully studied their habits and anatomy. On his return to St. Petersburg he published a detailed and accurate description of them in his valuable essay entitled De Bestiis Marinis, in the Transactions of the St. Petersburg Academy for the year 1749.\* This valuable memoir has furnished nearly all the information concerning the northern sea bears we have hitherto had. Steller's account, occupying twenty-eight quarto pages, gave not only a detailed description of its anatomy, with an extensive table of measurements, but also of its remarkable habits, and figures of the animals. His description of its habits has been largely quoted by Buffon and Pennant, and by Hamilton, in his history of the "Marine Amphibia." † Kraschenninikow, in his History of Kamtchatka, I under the name of the "sea cat," also gave a lengthy account of its habits, apparently mainly from Steller's notes; but it embraces a few particulars not given in the De Bestiis Marinis. Buffon, followed by Pennant, and most general writers for half a century, confounded the northern sea bear with the southern sea bear, they combining the history of the two as that of one species. When specimens of both the northern and southern fur seals had been compared in Europe, their specific distinctness became fully recognized, and in 1859 they were even generically separated by Dr. J. E. Gray, since which time they have been generally recognized as belonging to different genera. In color, size, and the character of the pelage they are undoubtedly closely related, as they seem to be also in habits, but they differ greatly in the form of the facial portion of the skull, and hence in physiognomy, through the much greater breadth of the muzzle in the northern species, and its abruptly rising and convex nose.

<sup>\*</sup> Novi Commentariæ Academiæ Petropolitanæ, Vol. XI, pp 331-359, pl. xv. 1751.

<sup>†</sup> Naturalist's Library, Mammalia, Vol. VIII, 1839.

 $<sup>\</sup>ddag$  History of Kauntchatka (English edition), translated from the Russian by James Grieve, M. D., pp. 125 – 130, 1764.

Steller's figures were the only original ones of this species that had been published up to a recent date, which, with modifications, have been frequently copied. Those given by Hamilton (Plate XXI of his work above cited) are among the best, and are quite accurate in general form, but erroneous in details, especially in respect to the feet. Choris, in 1822, gave a plate purporting to represent a group of sea bears, as they appear when assembled on the rocks at their breeding-places. Though doubtless giving a good idea of their attitudes at such times, as the other plate in his chapter on the Aleutian Islands, purporting to represent the sea lions, does of those animals; but they are not sufficiently detailed to be of further value. Mr. Dall, in his book on "Alaska and its Resources" (previously cited), has published a figure from nature of this species, which, while doubtless generally correct, gives a somewhat erroneous impression in regard to the character of the hind feet, since the upper surface is represented as being strongly ridged and furrowed, the ridges extending to the ends of the flaps, which are really flat.\*

The first and only specimen of the *skull* hitherto figured is that of a male, represented in profile, published by Dr. Gray in the Proceedings of the Zoölogical Society for 1859 (Plate LXVIII).

As already remarked, the sea bears of the North were for a long time confounded with the southern sea bears, they collectively bearing the name of either *Phoca* or *Otaria vrsina*. This name was originally, however, applied by Schreber and Linné to the *Ursus marinus* of Steller, to which animal the name *ursina* is hence exclusively applicable.

Forster and Cook, and other voyagers, subsequently described the southern sea bears, so far as respects their general habits, size, and abundance. Most of these writers seem to have regarded these animals as the same as the northern sea bear, and, as already stated,

<sup>\*</sup> It is remarkable how few correct figures have been published of the eared seals, even those in scientific works being palpably erroneous, and contradictory of the characters given in the descriptions accompanying them. In nearly all cases the feet are represented as covered with hair, as in the common seals, and similarly provided with well-developed nails on both the fore and hind limbs. In this respect even the figures given by Quoy and Gaimard, in the Zoölogy of the Voyage de l'Astrolabe, are faulty, not corresponding at all in this regard with the accompanying descriptions of the animals. The figures of the Otaria jubata, published in the Proceedings of the London Zoological Society (1866, p. 80, woodcut; 1869, Pl. VII) seem to be those most nearly approaching accuracy.

naturalists for a long time generally confounded them. Péron, in 1816, first claimed that they were distinct, but no specimens seem to have reached European museums till some years later. Dr. Gray, writing in 1859, remarks as follows: "I had not been able to see a specimen of this species in any of the museums which I examined on the Continent or in England, or to find a skull of the genus [Arctocephalus] from the North Pacific Ocean, yet I felt so assured, from Steller's description and the geographical position, that it must be distinct from the eared fur seals from the Antarctic Ocean and Australia, with which it had usually been confounded, that in my 'Catalogue of Seals in the Collection of the British Museum' [1850] I regarded it as a distinct species, under the name of Arctocephalus ursinus, giving an abridgment of Steller's description as its specific character." "The British Museum," he adds, "has just received, under the name Otaria leonina, from Amsterdam, a specimen [skull and skin] of the sea bear from Behring's Straits, which was obtained from St. Petersburg"\*; which is the specimen already spoken of as figured by Dr. Gray. From the great differences existing between this skull and those of the southern sea bears, Dr. Gray separated the northern species from the genus Arctocephalus, under the name Callorhinus. †

Although there were two skulls of Steller's sea bear in the Berlin Museum as early as 1841,‡ and three skeletons of the same species in the Museum of Munich in 1849,§ Dr. Gray seems to have been the first naturalist who was able to compare this animal with its southern relatives, and hence to positively decide its affinities.

Misled by a label accompanying specimens of eared seals received at the British Museum from California, a skin of the Callorhinus ursinus was doubtfully described by this author, in the paper in which the name Callorhinus was proposed, as that of his Arctocephalus monteriensis, which is a hair seal. This skin was accompanied by a young skull, purporting, by the label it bore, to belong to it, but Dr. Gray observes that otherwise he should have thought it too small to have belonged to the same animal. Seven years later, || however, he described the

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. London Zool. Soc., 1859, p. 102.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., p. 359.

<sup>‡</sup> Archiv für Naturgeschichte, etc., 1841, p. 334.

<sup>§</sup> Ibid., 1849, p. 39.

<sup>|</sup> Cat. Seals and Whales, 1866, p. 51.

skull as that of a new species (Arctocephalus californianus), still associating with it, however, the skin of the Callorhinus ursinus. The skull he subsequently considered as that of a young A. monteriensis (= Eumetopias Stelleri); and referring his A. californianus to that species, he was consequently led into the double error of regarding the Eumetopias Stelleri as a fur seal (as already explained under that species and elsewhere in the present paper), and of excluding the Callorhinus ursinus from the list of fur seals.

Geographical Distribution. — The northern fur seal seems to be nowhere so numerous at present as at the St. Paul's and St. George's Islands, off the coast of Alaska. They seem to still occur, however, in considerable numbers at a few of the islands to the northward and westward, especially at St. Matthew's and Behring's Islands. They appear never to have landed on the Asiatic shores to any great extent, and I have found no report of their occurrence to the southward of the Kuriles on that coast. On the American side they were formerly numerous from Sitka to the southern coast of California. At Point Conception, Captain Bryant informs me, large numbers were formerly taken, but that they are now rare on the California coast, and are only seen there in the winter season. "The present year," he writes me,\* "unusually large numbers have been seen off the coasts of Oregon, Washington Territory, and British Columbia, and many skins have been taken and brought to San Francisco. They were mostly of very young seals, none appearing to be over a year old. Formerly in March and April the natives of Puget Sound took large numbers of pregnant females, but no places where they have resorted to breed seem to be known off this coast. Neither can I ascertain that any rookeries of the hair seals, or sea lions, are known to exist here; but I think it probable that both species occupy the rocky ledges off the shore, which are rarely visited by boats."

The northern fur seals seem to require a moderately cool and humid climate, since they do not readily bear the heat of the sun. These conditions apparently existing in an eminent degree at the Pribyloff Islands, these islands, as Captain Bryant remarks beyond, are eminently suited to the wants of these animals, which, according to his computation, resort there in summer to the number of more than a million.

<sup>\*</sup> Under date of June 14, 1870, from the United States revenue cutter "Lincoln," en route for the Seal Islands of Alaska.

At Behring's and the Pribyloff Islands the fur seals are reported to make their appearance from the southward late in spring, and that they only resort to these islands for the purposes of reproduction, and leave them early in the autumn. Their haunts at other seasons seem not to be well known, but it is evident that their winter quarters must be to the southward of these islands. That there is a southward migration of these animals in winter is evident from their reported greater frequency at that season on the Pacific coast of the United States.

Habits.—The very full account of the habits of this species, contained in the following communication of Captain Bryant, together with the accompanying notes, require nothing to be added on this point in the present connection.

### II.

On the Habits of the Northern Fur Seal (Callorhinus ursinus Gray), with a Description of the Pribyloff Group of Islands. By Captain Charles Bryant, with Notes by J. A. Allen.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRIBYLOFF GROUP OF ISLANDS.

Discovery.— The group of several small islands, known as the Pribyloff Group, were discovered under the following circumstances. Captain Pribyloff, who in 1781 took charge of the Russian trading factory at Ounalaska, observed during his voyages among the islands to the westward of Ounalaska numbers of fur seals going north in spring and returning in autumn. Believing that there must be unknown land to the northward to which these animals resorted, he fitted out an expedition for the purpose of discovering it, and in June, 1785, while cruising for that purpose, discovered an island. He took possession of this island, colonized it, and called it St. George's, from the vessel in which the discovery was made. On a clear day, during the following year, these colonists saw another island to the northward of the first, and visiting it in their canoes, proceeded to occupy it. The island was called St. Paul's, from its discovery being made on St. Paul's day.

St. Paul's Island. — St. Paul's Island, of which I append an outline sketch (Fig. 5) is nearly triangular, and sixteen miles in length. Its northern side is a little concave. Its greatest breadth is four miles, at



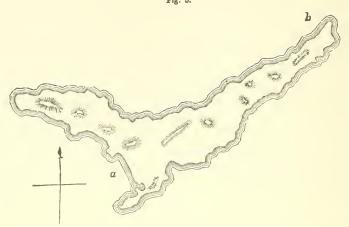


Diagram of St. Paul's Island: a, harbor and native village; b, sea-lion rookery

a point one third its length from the west end. From this point a narrow peninsula, half a mile wide and two and a half miles long, extends in a southwest direction from the main island. The island is of volcanic origin, and consists of a cluster of flattened cones. The central cones of the island have an elevation of from two to three hundred feet, and a diameter of from half a mile to one mile and a half. Those on the outside, which form the shore line, are much smaller, they being only from one eighth to half a mile in diameter, and from fifty to sixty feet in height. Their bases touch those of the central higher cones. Between the chains of cones are narrow valleys, raised but little above the sea level. The border cones are composed entirely of clinkstone, and their surfaces appear to have undergone no change other than that resulting from the original fissuring, and the subsequent action of frost. Where these cones extend into the water they form rounded points with gently sloping shores. There is a belt of loose rocks, varying from five to forty rods in width, between the base of the outer cones and the water. The coves formed between these points have shores of loose lava sand.

The peninsula is formed by two of these cones, one of which is one half and the other two and a half miles distant from the main island, with which they have been recently connected by the deposition of loose sand thrown up by the action of the waves. The connecting

necks of land thus formed have a height of only six or eight feet above the tide level.

The cones of the peninsula differ from those of the main island in being elongated instead of circular, and in having their surfaces covered with a layer of pitchstones, several inches in thickness, above the clinkstones.

On the cone in the centre of the peninsula there is a bed of volcanic ashes and cinders, which shows by its loose mixed condition that it fell there after the elevation and cooling of the rock above water. Opposite the junction of the peninsula with the main island is a cliff, facing the southeast, sixty feet high. Its composition of alternate layers of cinders and ashes indicates that it was deposited under water, and subsequently elevated to its present position. This cliff has been worn into by the waves, and portions of it continually falling down furnish material for the increase of the sand belt, along the southeast shore of the island. A seam or stratum two feet in thickness, composed mainly of volcanic ashes, and containing lumps of calcined sea mud and petrified shells, extends the whole length of the cliff, parallel with its surface curves, and situated at about midway its height. These shells differ from any now found on the island.

The distance from the point where the peninsula joins the island to the west end of the island is about eight miles, and the general trend of the shore is northwest. The peninsula itself extends two miles and a half in a southwesterly direction, with a reef continuing to the westward a mile farther. Within the angle formed by these two shores is an open harbor, with anchorage of from nine to thirteen fathoms of water, half a mile to three miles off shore.

A vessel lying here is sheltered from winds blowing from any northerly point between northwest and east; with the wind more to the southward, a heavy swell rolls over the reef, making it very rough. At the head of the cove is located the trading-post of the former Russian company and the native village. This portion of the island is undergoing great changes, from the filling in of sand from deep water. At no very remote period there existed a spacious harbor within the rove now filled with sand; and there are people living on the island who remember when the peninsula itself was an island. In this cove last year a vessel drawing six feet of water lay and swung at her anchor where it is now dry at low tide. The sand is brought up by the action of

the tides from deep water, and being thrown on the shores soon becomes dry and light, and is blown by the high winds into the valleys and over the slopes of the hills, filling up the cracks in the rocks. The climate being moist, the soil thus thrown up is rapidly overspread with a luxuriant growth of grass, conspicuous among which is the redtop and other common grasses of the New England States; at a lower level on the made land a grass grows which, when young, resembles oats, but later it heads out like rye, and bears a small black seed which resembles the latter grain when shrunken in ripening. These grass-heads in winter furnish rich forage for the cattle and other stock living on the island. Among the profusion of wild flowers are the dandelion, buttercup, wild pea and bean, yarrow, wormwood, and other weeds; also the cow-parsnip or wild celery. The latter the natives consider a great luxury, they eating the seed stalks when green and tender with great relish.

The northeast point of the island is formed by a cone two miles in diameter and a hundred feet in height. It was once two and a half miles distant from the main island, but is now connected with it. The action of the tide ebbing and flowing has formed bars of sand on the two outer sides; they thus have extended until they have united the two islands, enclosing between them a long narrow lake. This lake is now rapidly filling with sand, and being only a mile long it has become quite fresh by the annual melting of snow in it.

The southeast shore of the island has also a belt of sand, which is in many places half a mile wide, and is constantly increasing. In many places the sand is drifted to the height of fifty feet, which shows that at some period of the year the island is subject to very high winds.

On one of the largest cones near the centre of the island is the rim of an extinct volcano, with a crater thirty rods in diameter. This rises to a height of two hundred feet above the surrounding plain of clinkstones. Its walls are of red tufa, much crumbled and broken, the débris of which fills the opening in the centre.

Around its base are several fissures communicating with dark caves. Three fourths of a mile west is a still larger crater, but of less elevation. The surface of this portion of the i-land is covered with broken clink-tones, and is either entirely bare of vegetation or only covered with moss.

Otter Island. — Four miles southwest, and in line with the peninsula, is a small rocky island, half a mile in its longest diameter, one fourth of

a mile wide, and about forty feet high, with a sloping shore on one side. It is a part of a cone which has been broken off on three sides, and the other part submerged. This is called Otter Island, and has on it a small fur seal rookery, yielding three thousand skins annually.

Mosrovia, or Walrus Island. — East-southeast from the east end of St. Paul's Island, eight miles distant, is a rock rising on all sides to a height of thirty-five feet, half a mile long by one eighth wide. It has around its base at the water line several ledges or shelves, on which the walruses come to lie after feeding on the banks east of the island. These animals frequent the island during the summer in large numbers, and are killed by the natives for their ivory. On the island is also a small sea lion rookery. It is also the breeding-place of immense flocks of sea-fowl, and the natives of St. Paul hence visit it in the laying season for the purpose of obtaining eggs.

St. George's Island. — This island lies forty miles to the southeast of St. Paul's, and is nearly triangular in form (Fig. 6); its greatest

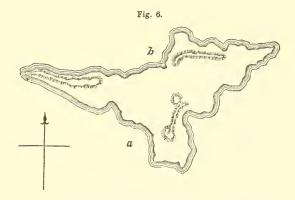


Diagram of St. George's Island: a, principal seal rookery; b, harbor and settlement.

length is twelve miles in an east and west direction. The greatest width of the island, which is near its centre, is four miles. Its northern shore has an indentation near its centre of three fourths of a mile in depth, with a bank in front. Within this cove vessels may anchor in ten fathoms of water, one half a mile off shore. It is at this point that the settlement is situated. The southeast and southwest sides are very irregular, with indentations on each side where vessels may anchor in from ten to sixteen fathoms, one fourth of a mile from

shore, but with poor holding-ground, and no shelter except when the wind is from the land.

This island is of similar origin to St. Paul's, but differs from it in outline. A mountain ridge nearly one thousand feet high traverses the southeast part of the island parallel to the shore, and forms a perpendicular sea front, from two to six hundred feet high. West of the ridge the island is intersected by a valley three miles wide, descending gradually on either side to the shores, where it terminates in low broken cliffs. To the westward of the valley the surface rises again rapidly, and ends in a narrow perpendicular headland six or seven hundred feet high.

The whole appearance of the island indicates that it was originally much larger than it is at present, and that the outer portion has been broken off and submerged, leaving the sides perpendicular. It is only on the sloping shores near the middle of the island that the seals can obtain a footing. On all the other sides the surf breaks against the base of the cliffs. Broken clinkstones cover most of the surface of the island, upon the lower parts of which a thin soil of decayed vegetable matter has accumulated. Owing to the springy, oozy nature of the ground, the houses are all built above-ground, and not partially below the surface as on St. Paul's. The island has one hundred and sixty Aleutian inhabitants, similar to those of St. Paul's.

The island of St. George is estimated to yield one half as many seals as St. Paul's, but owing to the poor anchorage and the difficulty of loading the vessels with the skins, the seals have been less disturbed.

The Climate.—No record of the temperature at these islands had been kept previous to my arrival. My observations at St. Paul's give the mean temperature of June as 48° F.; of July, 51°; a part of August, 60° These are the three warmest months of the year. I was told that the mercury froze twice during the previous winter.

Snow falls on these islands from October to April, but except in sheltered spots it does not attain any great depth, blowing off as fast as it falls.

From the middle of March to the latter part of May the great body of floating ice comes down from the north, and passes by the east end of the island to the southwest. At this time the weather is very severe, this being the most stormy period of the year. This body of ice seldom extends as far south as St. George's, forty miles distant. During my

residence at St. Paul's there was very little fog on the island, though it could be seen resting on the water ten or fifteen miles off shore, forming clouds which obscured the sun during the greater part of the time. The climate is not favorable to agriculture, but there is at least a thousand acres of first-class grazing land along the southeast shore and in the vicinity of the village.

Last year a horse and four neat cattle were brought to the island. Directions had been given to prepare hay for them, but owing to the dampness of the atmosphere it was not done, so that when the cattle were landed there were only such supplies of food for them as the island naturally afforded. They therefore had to subsist on the dry grass of the flats, on which they wintered in good condition, the cows giving a good supply of milk. The wild rye-heads proved nutritious food, of which the supply was abundant. The horse also came through in excellent condition, though having no grain. Goats and sheep have been added to the stock on the island during the past season. They have all bred and are doing well. I have been thus minute in these details, because I have often heard it asserted that these islands are barren rocks, without vegetation.

# THE HABITS OF THE FUR SEAL.

The fur seals resort to the Pribyloff Islands during the summer months for the sole purpose of reproduction. Those sharing in these duties necessarily remain on or near the shore until the young are able to take to the water. During this considerable period the old seals are not known to take any food. In order to speak intelligibly of the duties of the several classes of seals at this important season, it is necessary at this point to describe the animals.

The male fur seal does not attain mature size until about the sixth year. He then measures in total length from seven to eight feet, and six to seven in girth. His color is then dark brown, with gray overhair on the neck and shoulders. When in full flesh his weight varies from five to seven hundred pounds. These and no others occupy the rookeries (or breeding-grounds) with the females.

A full-grown female measures four feet in length and two and a half around the body, and differs from the male in form by having a somewhat longer head, shorter neck, and a greater fulness of body posteriorly. She usually weighs from eighty to a hundred pounds. Her

color when she first leaves the water is a dark steel-mixed on the back, the sides and breast being white; but she gradually changes somewhat, and in eight or ten days after landing becomes dark brown on the back, and bright orange on the breast, sides, and throat. Hence it is easy to distinguish those that have just arrived from those that have been several days on the shore. The female breeds the third year, and is full-grown at four years.

The yearlings weigh from forty to fifty pounds, and are dark brown with a lighter shade on the throat and breast. The ages of those between one and six years old are easily distinguished by the differences in size and state of development of the animals. The reproductive organs of the male are fully developed the fourth year, and it is mainly by males of this age that the fertilization of the females is effected. Copulation, described more fully later, usually takes place in the water.

The breeding-rookeries, which are frequented exclusively by the old males and females with their pups, occupy the belt of loose rocks along the shores between the high-water line and the base of the cliffs or uplands, and vary in width from five to forty rods. The sand beaches are used only as temporary resting-places, and for play-grounds by the younger seals; these beaches being neutral ground, where the old and infirm or the wounded may lay undisturbed.

The old male appears to return each year to the same rock so long as he is able to maintain his position. The native chiefs affirm that one seal, known by his having lost one of his flippers, came seventeen successive years to the same rock.\*

Those under six years are never allowed by the old ones on these places. They usually swim in the water along shore all day, and at night go on the upland above the rookeries and spread themselves out, like flocks of sheep, to rest.

\* Dr. Newberry states (United States Pacific Railroad Surveys and Explorations, Vol. VI, Zoology, p. 50, 1857) that Dr. William O. Ayres of San Francisco presented a skull of a "sea lion" to the California Academy of Science, obtained by him during a visit to the Farallone Islands in June, 1855, concerning which he made the following remarks, which tend to corroborate Captain Bryant's opinion that the seals return year after year to the same breeding-grounds. Dr. Ayres observes: "The specimen is of interest as illustrating, in one particular, the habits of these animals. The left zygomatic arch has been perforated by a bullet, and the lower part of the left inferior maxillary bone by another; both these injuries having been received so long since that the action

Wherever a long continuous shore line is occupied as a breeding-rookery, neutral passages are set apart at convenient distances through which the younger seals may pass from the water to the upland and return unmolested. Often a continuous line moving in single file may be seen for hours together going from the water to the upland, or the reverse, as the case may be. When suddenly disturbed while sleeping on the upland by an attempt of an animal to cross the rookery at any other place, a general engagement ensues, which often results in the death or serious crippling of the combatants. After the females have arrived at the rookeries, many of them, as well as their pups, are trampled to death in these struggles.

Constant care is also necessary lest thoughtless persons incautiously approach the breeding-grounds, as the stampede of the seals that would result therefrom always destroys many of the young.

The old males are denominated by the natives Seacutch (married seals). These welcome the females on their arrival, and watch over and protect them and their young until the latter are large enough to be left to the care of their mothers and the younger males.

Those under six years old are not able to maintain a place on the rookery, or to keep a harem, and these are denominated *Hollnschuck* (bachelors). These two classes of males, with the full-grown females, termed *Motku* (mothers), form the three classes that participate in the duties of reproduction.

By the first to the middle of April the snow has melted from the shore and the drift ice from the north has all passed. Soon after this period, a few old veteran male seals make their appearance in the water near the island, and after two or three days' reconnoissance venture on to the shore and examine the rookeries, carefully smelling them. If the examination is satisfactory, after a day or two a few climb the slopes and lay with their heads erect listening. At this time, if the wind blows from the village towards the rookeries, all fires are extinguished and

of the absorbents has almost smoothed the splintered edges of the bones. Inside of the wound of the zygoma was found the piece of lead which had caused it, and which was at once recognized, from certain peculiarities of form, as one which had been fired, without fatal effect, at a sea lion, on the same rocks, in the summer of 1854. We have thus a demonstration," Dr Ayres continues, "that these huge seals return, in some instances at least, year after year, to the same localities. They leave the Farallones in November and return in May, being absent about six months. How far they migrate during that interval we have at present no means of determining." — J. A. A.

7

all unnecessary noises avoided. These scouts then depart and in a few days after small numbers of male seals of all ages begin to arrive. The old patriarchs soon take their places on the rookeries and prevent the younger males from landing. They thus compel them to either stay in the water or go to the upland above.

In locating, each old male reserves a little more than a square rod of space to himself. For this proceeding they evidently have two reasons. First, from the constant liability to surprise from their rear, which is their weakest point, they require room enough to make one leap in turning before being able to defend themselves or to attack their enemies. Their eyes being adapted to seeing in the water, their vision is feeble when they are out of that element. Consequently they have to rely mainly on the senses of hearing and smell for warning of danger; hence while dozing on the rocks every movement or sound in their vicinity keeps them constantly turning towards the direction from which it proceeds. A second reason is that each requires that amount of space for the reception of his ten or fifteen wives.\*

Male seals continue to arrive in small numbers daily, a few of which are yearlings; those two, three, four, and five years old arrive in about equal proportions. Those older than this are more numerous than the younger, each one of which fights his way to his old place on the rookery,† or, taking a new one, prepares to contend for it in case the owner comes to take it. As they acknowledge no right but that of might, the later comer has to select again. The growling and fighting are constant, so that day and night the aggregated sound is like that of an approaching railway train.

About the 15th of June the males have all assembled, the ground being then fully occupied by them, as they lay waiting for the females to come. These appear in small numbers at first, but increase as the season advances till the middle of July, when the rookeries are all full, the females often overlapping each other.

- \* Steller gives the number of females to each male as eight to fifteen or even fifty. ("Mares polygami sunt, unus sæpi 8, 15, ad 50 fæmellas habet, quas anxie æmulabundus custodit, et vel alio tantillium appropinquante, in furorem agitur.") Several of the earless seals, as well as all the species of eared seals, are well known to be polygamous. The seraglios of the male sea elephant, whose habits are better known than those of any other of the group, are said to embrace frequently from fifteen to twenty females. J. A. A.
- † Steller remarks that the males sometimes become so attached to their stations that they prefer death to the loss of them. J. A. A.

Many of the females on their arrival appear desirous of returning to some particular male, and frequently climb the outlying rocks to overlook the rookeries, calling out and listening as if for a familiar voice. Then changing to another place they do the same again, until some "bachelor" seal swimming in the water approaches and drives her on shore, often compelling her to land against her will. Here comes in the duty of the "bachelor" seals. They swim all day along the shore escorting and driving the females on to the rocks as fast as they arrive. As soon as a female reaches the shore, the nearest male goes down to meet her, making meanwhile a noise like the clucking of a hen to her chickens. He bows to her and coaxes her until he gets between her and the water so that she cannot escape him. Then his manner changes, and with a harsh growl he drives her to a place in his harem. continues until the lower row of harems is nearly full. Then the males higher up select the time when their more fortunate neighbors are off their guard to steal their wives. This they do by taking them in their mouths and lifting them over the heads of the other females, and carefully placing them in their own harem, carrying them as eats do their kittens. Those still higher up pursue the same method until the whole space is occupied. Frequently a struggle ensues between two males for possession of the same female, and both seizing her at once pull her in two or terribly lacerate her with their teeth. When the space is all filled, the old male walks around complaisantly reviewing his family, scolding those who crowd or disturb the others, and fiercely driving off all intruders. This surveillance always keeps him actively occupied.

In two or three days after landing, the females give birth to one pup each,\* weighing about six pounds. It is entirely black, and remains of this color the whole season. The young are quite vigorous, even at birth, nursing very soon after they are born. The mother manifests a strong attachment for her own young, and distinguishes its cry among thousands. The voice of the female is like the bleating of a sheep, and the cry of the pup resembles that of a lamb.†

<sup>\*</sup> A single young at a birth seems to be the general rule in this family; cases where two are produced seeming to be, so far as known, exceptional. The period of gestation is stated by different authors as being nine to twelve months, varying in the differing species, from twelve in the fur seals to nine or ten in the hair seals. — J. A. A.

<sup>†</sup> By several different writers the voice of the male is compared to the roaring of the lion; that of the female to the bleating of a sheep; and that of the young to the cry of a lamb, not only in the case of the present species, but also of their southern allies.

In a few days after the birth of the young the female is ready for intercourse with the male. She now becomes solicitous of his attentions, and extends herself on the rocks before him. Owing to the position of the genital organs, however, coition on land seems to be not the natural method, and only rarely, perhaps in three cases out of ten, is the attempt to copulate under such circumstances effectual. In the mean time the four and five year old males are in attendance along the shore. When their jealous lord is off his guard, or engaged in driving away a rival, the females slip into the water, when an attentive "bachelor" scal follows her to a distance from shore. Then, breast to breast, they embrace each other, turning alternately for each other to breathe, the act of copulation sometimes continuing from five to eight minutes.\*

When the female again returns to the shore she is treated with in-

Kraschennimkow, apparently quoting from Steller, thus quaintly describes their voice as heard under different circumstances. "When this animal lies upon the shore and diverts himself, his lowing is like that of a cow; when he fights he growls like a bear; when he has conquered his enemy he chirps like a cricket."—Hist. of Kamtsch., p. 228. Mr. Dall observes that they have "a kind of piping whistle which they use when tired or hot."—J. A. A.

\* Other accounts somewhat vary from this. Steller's remarks on this point are as follows: "Concubitum exercent more hominum ita ut mas incubus feemella succuba sit, practipue autem circa vesperam veneris exercitiis inhiant: horam antea tam mas quam fæmella in mare se recipiunt, una placide natant, dein una renertunter, fæmella supina in dorso jacet, mas vero e mari superneuit, anterioribus pedibus innixus, maximo fernore libidinem exercet, et sub hoc lusu fæmellam ita premit et pondere suo in arenam denergit, ut nihil nisi caput emineat, ipse vero pedibus anterioribus adeo in arenam descendit, ut tandem toto ventre fæmellam premat et contingat. Locum eligunt ipsum litus arenosum, qua undis hancdum alluitur, adeo intenti et obliuiosi sui ipsius sunt, ut plusquam per quadrantem horæ scortanti abstarem, antequam me observaret, nec observasset, nisi manu colapham impegissem, ex quo adeo iratus maximo fremitu me lacessinit, ut ægre me surriperem, ille vero nihilominus me eminus vidente, quod cæperat, absoluit opus per integrin quadrantem horæ."

Mr. W. II. Dall, in August, 1868, spent some time at St. George's Island, and in some valuable notes on the natural history of this island, which he has kindly placed at my disposal, I find the following remarks, which, it will be seen, are quite confirmatory of Steller's account: "They [the females] sleep in the water, lying on their sides, with the two flippers [of the upper side] out of the water, and receive the male in the same position. They sometimes remain in copula for upwards of an hour." While these statements are doubtless quite true, at least in numerous instances, the more favorable opportunities for observation Captain Bryant has had, leave little reason to suppose he has, through any inattention, been deceived in the matter.

I have been thus lengthy in these comments from the fact that this mode of coitus has not been supposed to occur among the lower manimalia. + J. A. A.

difference by all the males. She now roams at will about the rookery, whereas before she was not allowed to go to the relief of her young when in distress and crying for her. By the middle of August the young are all born, and the females are again pregnant. The old males having occupied their stations constantly for four months, without food, now resign their charge to the younger males, and go to some distance from shore to feed.

The fact of their remaining without food seems so contrary to nature, that it seems to me proper to state some of the evidences of it. Having been assured by the natives that such was the fact, I deemed it of sufficient importance to test it by all the means available. Accordingly I took special pains to examine daily a large extent of the rookery and note carefully the results of my observations. The rocks on the rookery are worn smooth and washed clean by the spring tides, and any discharge of excrement could not fail to be detected. I found, in a few instances, where newly arrived seals had made a single discharge of red-colored excrement, but nothing was seen afterwards to show that such discharges were continued, or any evidence that the animals had partaken of food. They never left the rocks, except when compelled by the heat of the sun to seek the water to cool themselves. They are then absent from the land for but a short time. I also examined the stomachs of several hundred young ones, killed by the natives for eating, and always without finding any traces of food in them. The same was true of the few nursing females killed for dissection.\* On their arrival in the

\* Steller states that, in the numerous specimens he dissected, he always found the stomachs empty, and remarks that they take no food during the several weeks they remain on land. Mr. Dall confirms the same statement in respect to the present species, and Captains Cook, Weddel, and others, who have had opportunities of observing the different southern species, affirm the same fact in respect to the latter. Lord Shuldham long since stated that the walrus had the same habit, though its annual fast seems somewhat shorter than those of the cared seals. In the London Philosophical Transactions for the year 1775 (p. 249), in briefly describing the droves of walruses that at that time frequented the Magdalen and other islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, he says that they crawl upon the land in great numbers, at convenient landing-places, "and sometimes remain for fourteen days together without food, when the weather is fair; but on the approach of rain they immediately retreat to the water with great precipitation."

This singular phenomenon of a protracted annual fast during the period of parturition and the nursing of the young—the season when most mammals require the most ample sustenance—seems not wholly confined to the walruses and the eared seals. So far as known, however, it is limited to the Pinnipedes; and, excepting in the case of a single

spring they are very fat and unwieldy, but when they leave, after their four months' fast, they are very thin, being reduced to one half their former weight.

The female has four teats, two on each side, equidistant, and in line between the fore and hind flippers. Their milk is of a yellowish color, composed of water and easeine, very insipid, and containing no sugar. The pups nurse but seldom, and when separated from the mother for thirty-six hours and returned to her again, they seem in no haste to do so, and in some cases did not for several hours afterwards.

About the 20th of July the great body of the previous year's pups arrive and occupy the slopes with the younger class of males, and they continue to be mixed together during the remainder of the season. The two-years-old females, which pair with the young males in the water near the island, also now associate with the other females.

The pups are five weeks old when the old females go off to feed; they go with the mothers to the upland, but keep by themselves. The pups born on the lower edge of the rookery, where the surf breaks over them occasionally, learn to swim early, but the larger portion of them do not take to the water until later, and many have to be forced in by the parent.\* Once in, however, they soon love to sport in it. The young are taught to swim by the old males on their return from feeding.

By the last of October the seals begin to leave the islands in small companies, the males going last and by themselves. In November the

member, the sea elephant (Macrorhinus elephantinus), to the two above-named families. By some of the old writers the sea elephant was said to feed sparingly, at this time, on the grasses and sea-weeds that grew in the vicinity of its breeding-places, but the weight of the evidence in respect to this point seems to indicate that this species fasts similarly to the cared seals and walruses, during the period it resorts to the land to bring forth its young. Regarding the period of abstinence of the sea elephants and its effect upon the animals, Weddel observes as follows: "The circumstance of these animals living on shore for a period not less than two months, apparently without taking food of any description, may certainly be considered a remarkable phenomenon in natural economy. That they live by absorption is evident; that is, by consuming the substance of their own bodies; because, when they come first on shore they are excessively fat, and when they return to the sea they are very lean" (Voyage towards the South Pole, p. 136).

It may be that other species of the earless seals undergo similar fasts, but if so I have as yet seen no record of the fact. — J. A. A.

\* A dislike or fear of the water on the part of the young of other species of fur and hair seals has been reported by other observers. -J. A. A.

young seals (as I was informed by the natives, my own observations ending in August) stop to rest a few days on the Aleutian Islands, and at Ounalaska the natives obtain several hundred skins annually.\*

\* The following remarks, quoted from Captain Weddel's "Voyage towards the South Pole" (p. 137, August, 1827), show how closely the southern fur scal (Arctocephalus falklandicus) resembles the northern fur scal in habits and general economy:—

"Nothing in this class of animals [the seals], and more particularly in the fur seal of Shetland, is more astonishing than the disproportion in the size of the male and female. A large grown male, from the tip of the nose to the extremity of the tail, is six feet nine inches, whilst the female is not more than three feet and a half. This class of males is not, however, the most numerous; but being physically the most powerful, they keep possession of the females, to the exclusion of the younger branches; hence, at the time of parturition, the males may be computed to be as one to twenty [females], which shows this to be, perhaps, the most polygamous of large animals.

"They are in their nature completely gregarious; but they flock together and assemble on the coast at different periods and in distinct classes. The males of the largest size go on shore about the middle of November to wait the arrival of the females, which of necessity must soon follow, for the purpose of bringing forth their young. These, in the early part of December, begin to land; and they are no sooner out of the water than they are taken possession of by the males, who have many serious battles with each other in procuring their respective seraglios; and by a peculiar instinct they carefully protect the females under their charge during the whole period of gestation.

"By the end of December, all the female seals have accomplished the purpose of their landing. The time of gestation may be considered twelve months, and they seldom have more than one at a time, which they suckle and rear apparently with great affection. By the middle of February the young are able to take to the water; and after being taught to swim by the mother, they abandon them on shore, where they remain till their coats of fur and hair are completed. During the latter end of February, what are called the dog-seals go on shore: these are the young seals of the two preceding years, and such males as, from their want of age and strength, are not allowed to attend the pregnant females. These young seals come on shore for the purpose of renewing their annual coats, which being done by the end of April, they take to the water, and scarcely any are seen on shore again till the end of June, when some young males come up and go off alternately. They continue to do this for six or seven weeks, and the shores are then abandoned till the end of August, when a herd of small, young seals of both sexes come on shore for about five or six weeks; soon after they retire to the water. The large male seals take up their places on shore, as has been before described, which completes the intercourse all classes have with the shore during the whole year.

"The young are at first black; in a few weeks they become gray, and soon after obtain their coat of hair and fur. . . . . I have estimated the female seal to be, in general, at its full growth-within four years, but possibly the male seal is much longer, very likely five or six years; and some which I have contrasted with others of the same size could not, from their very old appearance, be less than thirty years."

[For further information in respect to the habits of the Pinnipedes in general, the reader is referred to Dr. Robert Hamilton's "Natural History of the Amphibious Carnivora," etc. (1839), which forms the eighth volume of the Mammalia of Jardine's "Nat-

Manner of Killing the Seals. — It will be recollected that I have described the younger seals as spreading out on the slopes above the rookeries to rest at night. A party of men approach these places armed with clubs of hard wood, and quietly creep between the seals and the shore. When ready the men start up with a shout at a given signal, and drive the seals inland in a body. When at a sufficient distance from the rookery, they halt to screen the flock of as many as possible that are too old for killing, only those that are two and three years old yielding prime skins; the fur of those older is too coarse to be marketable. The screening is done by driving the seals slowly forward in a curve; the older, sullenly holding back, force the more timid forward, when the men opening their ranks let them pass through and return to the shore. The remainder of the flock is then driven to the killing-ground, though still containing many too old to be of value.

It is necessary to drive the flock some distance from the breedingground, as the smell of the blood and the carcasses disturbs the seals. Another object is to make the seal carry his own skin to the salt-house, and it is hence sometimes necessary to drive them six or seven miles. The driving has to be conducted with great care, as the violent exertion causes the seals to heat rapidly, and if heated beyond a certain degree the fur is loosened and the skin becomes valueless. In a cool day they may be driven one mile and a half per hour with safety. They travel by lifting themselves from the ground on their fore legs, and hitching their body after them with a kind of sideways, loping gallop. When arrived at the killing-ground a few boys are employed to keep them from straggling, and they are thus left to rest and cool. Then a small number, from seventy to one hundred, are separated from the flock, surrounded and driven on each other, so that they confine themselves by treading on each other's flippers. Those desired for killing are then easily selected and quickly killed by a light blow on the nose from a hard wooden club. When these are killed, those left as unfit are allowed to go to the nearest water, whence they immediately return to the place from which they were driven. This operation is repeated until the whole flock is disposed of, providing there is time to skin and take care of them all before putrefaction

uralist's Library,"—an excellent compilation from previous authors. The more important of the recent papers treating of the habits and other characters of the eared seals have already been cited in the historical "Résume" of the present paper.—J. A. A.]

would begin. The work of skinning is performed by all the men on the island, and every one participating in it is allowed to share in the proceeds.

As the seals are not wholly at rest until the females arrive, great care is necessary in selecting the time and place from which to drive. These points are determined by a head man, who assumes the whole control of this part of the business. In the month of May only the small number required by the natives for food are driven. In June, when the seals are more numerous, they are driven and killed for their skins, although the percentage of prime skins is at this time very small, often not twenty per cent of the whole flock driven. About the middle of July the females go off into the water, and there is a period of general rest among all the seals, during which time the natives desist entirely from killing for from ten to fourteen days. At the close of this period the great body of yearling seals arrive. These, mixing with the younger class of males, spread over the uplands and greatly increase the proportion of prime skins, but also greatly increase the difficulty of killing properly. Up to this time, there having been no females with the seals driven up for killing, it was only necessary to distinguish ages; this the difference in size enables them to do very easily. Now, however, nearly one half are females, and the slight difference between these and the younger males renders it necessary for the head man to see every seal killed, and only a strong interest in the preservation of the stock can insure the proper care. September and October are considered the best months for taking the seals.

Besides the skin, each seal will yield one gallon and a half of oil, and the linings of all the throats are saved and salted as an article of trade to other ports in the Territory, these being used by the natives for making water-proof frocks to wear in their skin canoes when hunting the sea otter or fishing. These parts have no very great commercial value, though they are considered by the natives as indispensable to them.

It will be seen by the foregoing description of the habits of the fur seal, that the conditions necessary for their preservation and increase are very simple. The first is that they be not unnecessarily disturbed during the period of their arrival on the island. Second, that care be taken in killing to kill only males, and to reserve enough of these for breeding purposes. If these precautions are taken, they increase faster

than if left to themselves; for when the number of males is in excess, the continual fighting on the rookeries destroys many of both females and young, which get trampled to death.\*

Mode of Curing the Skins.—The skins are all taken to the salthouses and are salted in kenches or square bins, the skins being spread down flesh side up, and a quantity of loose salt profusely scattered over them. They remain thus packed for thirty or forty days, when they are taken from the bins; the loose salt is removed, and the skins are folded together, the flesh side in, and sprinkled as they are folded with a small quantity of clean salt. They are then ready for shipment, only requiring a small additional quantity of salt whenever removed.

Number of Seals frequenting the Island. — There are at least twelve miles of shore line on the island of St. Paul's occupied by the seals as breeding-grounds, with an average width of fifteen rods. There being about twenty seals to the square rod, gives one million one hundred and fifty-two thousand as the whole number of breeding males and females. Deducting one tenth for males leaves one million thirty-seven thousand and eight hundred breeding females. Allowing one half of the present year's pups to be females, this will add half a million of breeding females to the rookeries of 1872, in addition to those now there, while the young of last year and the year before are also to be added. This estimate does not include the males under six years of age, these not

\* The almost total extermination at some points of some of the various seals formerly extensively hunted for their skins or their oil on the islands and coast of Southern South America is well known. Weddel states (in his "Voyage," already cited) that the number of fur seals taken off the Shetland Islands, during the years 1821 and 1822, may be computed at 320,000. "This valuable animal," he adds, "might, by a law similar to that which restrains fishermen in the size of the mesh of their net, have been spared to render annually 100,000 furs for many years to come. This would have followed from not killing the mothers till the young were able to take to the water; and even then only those which appeared to be old, together with a proportion of the males, thereby diminishing their total number, but in slow progression. This system is [1839] practised at the river of Plata. The island of Lobes, in the mouth of that river, centains a quantity of seals, and is farmed by the Governor of Monte Video, under certain restrictions, that the hunters shall not take them but at stated periods, in order to prevent the animals from being exterminated. The system of extermination was practised, however, at Shetland; for whenever a seal reached the beach, of whatever denomination, he was immediately killed and his skin taken, and by this means, at the end of the second year the animals became nearly extinct; the young losing their mothers when only three or four days old, of course all died, which, at the lowest calculation, exceeded 100,000." J. A. A.

being allowed on the rookeries by the older males, nor the yearlings. If we now add those frequenting St. George's Island, which number half as many, and make a very liberal discount for those that may be destroyed before reaching maturity, the number is still enormous. It will also be seen that the great importance of the seal fishery is not to be calculated from the basis of its present yield, since each year adds to its extent, as with proper care the number can be increased until both islands are fully occupied by these valuable animals.\*

Peculiar situation of the Pribyloff Island. — These islands are situated immediately between the northern edge of the great warm oceanic current, — which, passing into Behring's Sea west of the Aleutian Islands and flowing east through Ounimak Straits, enters the Gulf of Alaska at that point, — and the edge of the rotary cold current which flows from the Gulf of Anadir east through Norton Sound, returning westward to this point again. These currents furnish the necessary climatic conditions of a cool uniform temperature and humid atmosphere necessary to these animals, while their position is just far enough south to escape being visited by the polar bears floating on the ice, as is not the case with the island of St. Matthew's, the nearest land on the north. There are no other islands possessing these advantages in an equal degree. Behring's and Copper Islands, further westward, in Russian waters, approach it nearest.

Prices paid for the Skins at the Islands, and their Value in Europe. — The Russian company allowed the natives the value of ten cents per skin. This was the pay they received for the labor of killing, curing the skins, and delivering them alongside the vessel ready for shipment, the company finding salt and magazines in which to salt them.

The parties who took advantage of the interval between the transfer of the Territory and the enacting and enforcement of the law of the 27th of July, 1868, to kill and purchase of the natives, paid twenty-seven cents per skin, and had they been allowed to trade the present

<sup>\*</sup> It may be added that the United States government has already taken measures to prevent an undue decrease of the fur seals of the Pribyloff Islands, in the amendment to the bill for the preservation of the fur-bearing animals of Alaska, which was passed by Congress early in July of the present year, and that private parties have interested themselves in the preservation of the sea lions that frequent portions of the California coast. — J. A. A.

year would have bidden forty cents apiece for them. To this is to be added the cost of salt, buildings, and the expense of the agency on shore. Their market value was at that time five dollars, so that, after a liberal allowance for incidental expenses, the profit must be very large.

Previous to 1866 these skins were worth only three dollars each, but owing to recent improvements in their manufacture they have become fashionable for ladies' wear, and soon after the transfer of the Territory to the United States the price rose to seven dollars. At this time the Russians had one hundred thousand on hand, which were forwarded to London, the only market for seal-skins in the raw state, and the only place where they are dressed. The different parties who sealed on the islands in the summer following the purchase took two hundred thousand, which so overstocked the market that they are now worth only three or four dollars.

The agents of the Russian Fur Company aimed to control this branch of the fur trade in Europe by regulating the supply. To do this they sent orders a year in advance to have such a number killed as in their judgment the market might need, always keeping at the same time one year's supply on hand. At the time of the sale of the Territory the annual yield was estimated at eighty thousand skins. The opinion of the men who have the special care of the seals is that it has reached one hundred thou-and, and that the killing yearly of this number will in no way check their increase. As I have elsewhere explained, to kill a proper number of males annually tends to a general increase in the whole number of seals.

Use of the Flesh by the Natives. — The flesh of the seal constitutes the principal food of the inhabitants, they killing from time to time such numbers as are necessary for that purpose. Before the seals leave in autumn a number are killed sufficient for their winter's supply. The carcasses are allowed to freeze, and in this state they keep them until the return of the seals in the spring. The flesh of the yearling seal is somewhat darker than beef; it is juicy and tender, but lacks the sweetness and flavor of beef, and is less firm and nutritious. In highly seasoned dishes it is relished by nearly all who partake of it. The soldiers on the island preferred it to salt rations. A five weeks' old pup roasted is esteemed a great luxury. The sea lion also constitutes a part of the natural food of the natives.

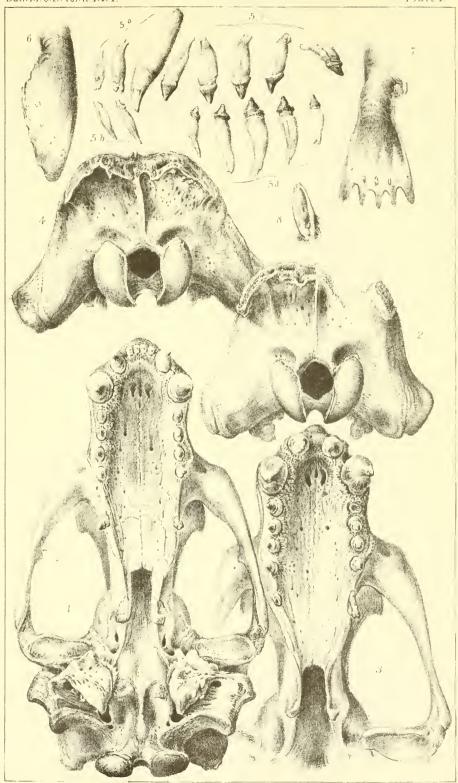
CAMBRIDGE, August, 1870.

### Plate I.

# EUMETOPIAS STELLERI Peters.

[The figures are all one third natural size, when not otherwise stated.]

- Fig. 1. Skull, seen from below, of a middle-aged & (spec. No. 2920).
  - " 2. Posterior view of the same skull.
  - " 3. Skull, seen from below, of a very old & (spec. No. 2921).
  - " 4. Posterior view of the same skull.
  - " 5. Teeth (one half nat. size) of the middle-aged skull; 5a, upper incisors seen from the side; 5b, lower incisors, same view; 5c, upper molars, seen from the side; 5d, same view of lower molars. (The canines are not figured.)
  - 6. View of upper surface of the right anterior extremity. (The more heavily shaded portion indicates the termination of the haircovered part. One twentieth natural size.)
  - " 7. View of the upper surface of one of the posterior extremities. (one twentieth natural size).
  - " 8. Ear (one half natural size).



I Locater, on stone from nature.

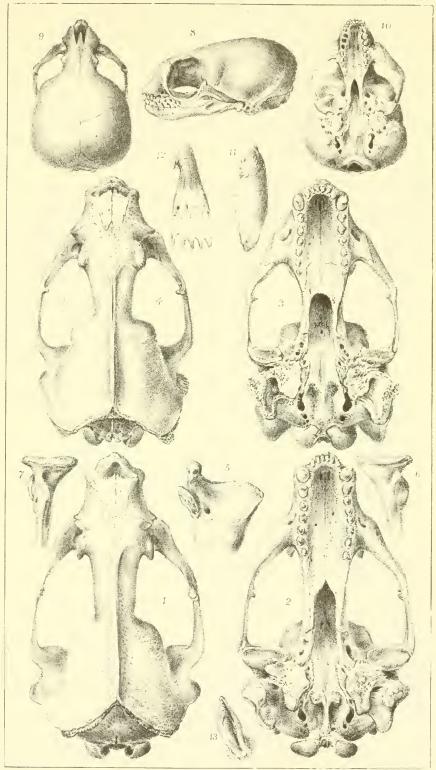
" Sug Inh in Boston

# Plate II.

# CALLORHINUS URSINUS Gray.

[The figures are all one third natural size, when not otherwise stated.]

- Fig. 1. Upper view of skull of an old & (spee. No. 2922).
  - " 2. Lower view of the same skull.
  - " 3. Upper view of another skull of an old & (spec. No. 2923).
  - " 4. Lower view of same skull.
  - " 5. Inside of the left ramus of the lower jaw.
  - " 6. View of the same from below.
  - " 7. View of the same from above.
  - 8. Skull of a young Q (thirty-five days old) seen in profile.
  - " 9. The same seen from above (nasals wanting).
  - " 10. The same seen from below.
  - " 11. Anterior extremity seen from above (one twentieth natural size).
  - " 12. Posterior extremity seen from above (one twentieth natural size).
  - " 13. Ear (one half natural length, but relatively too broad).



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#### Plate III.

# CALLORIHINUS URSINUS Gray.

[The figures are all one third natural size, when not otherwise stated.]

- Fig. 1. Skull of Q seen in profile (specimen No. 2924).
  - " 2. The same seen from above.
  - " 3. The same seen from below.
  - " 4. Underside, in part, of the skull of another Q (spec. No. 2925), showing the teeth and the posterior outline of the palatine bones (natural size).
  - " 5. Anterior part of the skull of young ♀ (thirty-five days old), showing the dentition (natural size).
  - "6. Teeth (one half nat. size) of an old  $\mathcal{F}$  (spec. No. 2926); 6a, upper incisors seen from the side; 6b, same teeth seen from the opposite side; 6c, upper molars seen from the outside; 6d, same seen from the inside; 6e, lower molars seen from the inside; 6f, same seen from the outside; 6g, lower incisors seen from the side.
  - " 7. Teeth (one half nat. size) of another old & (spec. No. 2922);

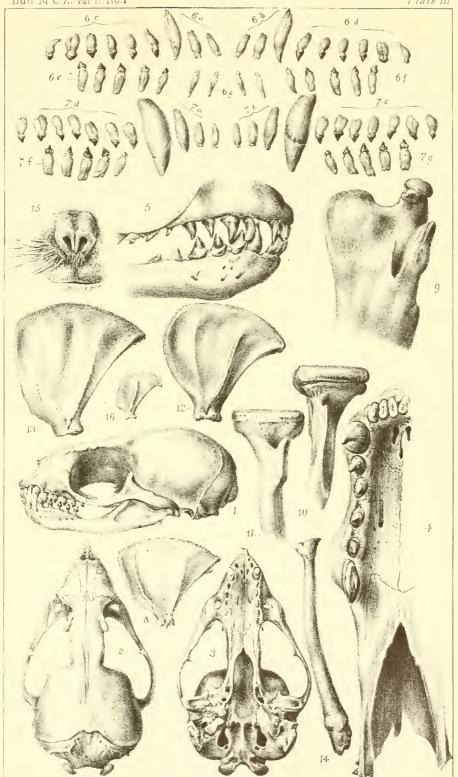
    7a, incisors seen from the side; 7b, same teeth seen from the opposite side; 7c and 7c', upper canines; 7d, upper molars seen from the outside; 7e, same teeth seen from the inside; 7f, lower molars, seen from the outside; 7g, same teeth seen from the outside.
  - " 8. Seapula of a male (spec. No. 2923).

#### EUMETOPIAS STELLERI Peters.

- Fig. 9. Inner side of the right ramus of the lower jaw.
  - " 10. Same seen from above.
  - " 11. Same seen from below.
  - " 12. Seapula of the middle-aged 3.
  - " 13. Scapula of the very old 3.
  - " 14. Os penis, seen from the side.
  - " 15. Muzzle of & (one tenth natural size).

PHOCA VITULINA Linn.

Fig. 16. Seapula.



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No. 2. — Preliminary Report on the Crustacea dredged in the Gulf Stream in the Straits of Florida, by L. F. de Pourtales, Assist. U. S. Coast Survey. Part I. Brachyura. Prepared by Dr. William Stimpson.

(Communicated by the Superintendent of the U. S. Coast Survey.)

The crustacea collected by M. Pourtales are very numerous in species, and among them there is an unusually large proportion of new forms; so that their investigation has occupied more time than was anticipated. To avoid delay in publishing a portion at least of the results, it is thought best to give at once that part of the work which has been done thus far, reserving the completion for a second part, in which the general considerations derived from the entire study will also be given.

To preserve accuracy in the statements of localities and depths, and to insure the correction of any errors which may have occurred, all the details on the labels of each species are given below, arranged in the order of depths of water.

#### MAIOIDEA.

### FAMILY MAHDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY LEPTOPINAE.

The group typified by the genus *Leptopus* Lamarck (*Egeria* Latr.) should be separated from the Inachinae of Dana on account of the broad and somewhat heart-shaped meros-joint of the external maxillipeds, which in *Inachus* is simply ovate and clongated, with the palpus articulated at the small extremity.

#### Pyromaia nov. gen.

Carapax somewhat pyriform, convex; rostrum simple, slender, of moderate length, acute; transorbital breadth small; præorbital spine short, almost erect; postorbital tooth rather large, pointing forwards. Merosjoint of the external maxillipeds short and broad, deeply and broadly notched for the reception of the palpus, and with the inner lobe strongly projecting and the outer lobe angular. Ambulatory feet long; those of the first pair three times as long as the post-frontal portion of the carapax

This genus approaches nearest to *Microrhynchus* Bell, but differs in its more elongated and pyriform carapax, larger rostrum, and prominent, angular external lobe of the meros-joint of the outer maxillipeds. From *Leptopus* it differs in its simple rostrum.

### Pyromaia cuspidata nov. sp.

Body and feet naked. Carapax granulated, with the regions well defined, tunnid, and armed with short spines. Rostrum trigonal, with the three edges (the superior and two lateral) armed with minute spines. Basal joint of external antennæ with a slender spine in front, and a smaller one beneath; the latter pointing directly downward. Chelipeds with the meros-joint spinous below and with a spine at the summit; carpus with one spine on the outer side at the articulation of the hand; hand inconspicuously spinulose, fingers longer than the palm, not gaping, serrated, and acuminate. Ambulatory feet with cylindrical joints; in the adult female smooth and naked; in the young male sparsely and inconspicuously hairy; dactyli two thirds as long as the penult joint, and flattened toward the extremities.

The dimensions of the largest specimen, a female, are as follows: Length of the carapax, 1.2 inch; greatest breadth, 0.94 inch; proportion of breadth to length, 1: 1.28. Length of ambulatory feet of the first pair, 3.05 inch.

This species lives in deep water, with a range of from 82 to 125 fathoms, as shown by the following table of localities, etc., taken from the notes of the expedition.

```
Off Sand Key,
                   May 11, 1868.
                                      Cast No. 5.
                                                    82 fathoms.
Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869.
                                      Cast No. 6.
                                                    88
Off the Samboes,
                   May 9, 1868.
                                      Cast No. 6.
                                                    93
Off the Samboes,
                   May 9, 1868.
                                      Cast No. 1.
                                                   121
S. W. of Sand Key, February 17, 1869. Cast No. 2.
                                                   125
```

#### SUBFAMILY PISINAE.

## Pisa antilocapra nov. sp.

Carapax subovate, rather narrow, pubescent, and spinous, with a strong, acute spine on the hepatic region, seven to ten smaller, subequal ones on the branchial, and four, forming a rhomb, on the intestinal region. A few sharp tubercles on the cardiac and gastric regions. Rostrum horizontal, equalling in length more than one third the post-frontal length of the carapax; horns diverging from the basal third, rather slender, acute, and straight, or slightly curved inward near the extremities. Præorbital spine slender, less than one third as long as the rostrum. On the superior margin of the orbit there are two spiniform teeth between the base of the præorbital spine and the external angle, which is also acute. Spine of the basal joint of the external antennæ much smaller than the præorbital spine. Feet pubescent, with the meros-joints sparsely spinose above. Dactyli of the ambulatory feet unarmed on the inferior edge.

Dimensions of a male: Total length of carapax, 1.22; breadth, excluding the spines, 0.65; length of ambulatory foot of the first pair, 1.30 inch.

It is a more elongated species than any of the three *Pisae* described by Desbonne and Schramm, which are the only ones as yet indicated as inhabiting the West Indian seas, if, indeed, these species truly belong to the genus.

The specimens occurred at the following localities and depths: -

Off Carysfort Reef, March 31, 1869. Cast No. 1. 52 fathoms.

Off Carysfort Reef, March 31, 1869. Cast No. 5. 60 "

Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869. Cast No. 10. 118 "

### Pisa praelonga nov. sp.

Carapax long and narrow, the width across the branchial regions being very little greater than that between the orbits. It is sparsely hairy, and armed with a few very small spines on the sides. Surface beneath the hairs smooth. Rostrum large, as long as one third the post-frontal length of the carapax; horns slender, acute, divergent. Præorbital spine slender, acute. Orbit large, with one sharp tooth on the upper margin, near the base of the post-orbital tooth. Basal joint of external antennæ with a spine in front (smaller than the præorb.tal spine), and another on the over side near the base.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, rostrum included, 0.39; length to the base of horns of rostrum, 0.30; breadth, 0.19 inch.

It differs from all species of the genus hitherto known in the narrowness of the carapax.

Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869. Cast No. 10. 118 fathoms. Off Tennessee Reef, May 7, 1869. Cast No. 7. 124 "

#### Milnia bicornuta STM.

Pisa bicornuta Latreille, Encyc. Meth., X, 141.

Pericera bicorna H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 337.

Pisa bicorna Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 170.

Pericera bicornis Saussure, Crust. Nouv. du Mexique et des Antilles, p. 12; pl. i, fig. 3.

Milnia bicornuta Stimpson, Notes on North American Crustacea, р. 52. Smith, Trans. Connecticut Acad. of Arts and Sciences, II, 1.

Found at low-water mark at the Tortugas, and dredged at Key West in 2 to 5 fathoms.

The generic name *Milnia* is preoccupied, having been used by Haime for an Echinoid, but it seems scarcely necessary to change it.

#### SUBFAMILY PERICERINAE.

Milne-Edwards, Dana, and authors generally, speak of the eyes of *Pericera* as being non-retractile, having probably studied the genus by means of dried specimens only. In fact, however, the eyes in this group are more perfectly retractile than in any other crustacea; so much so that they may be entirely concealed in their orbits, which form a capacious cavity with a small, round external orifice. In this cavity the peduncle of the eye, the inner half of which is not indurated, becomes bent to a right angle when retracted.

# Pericera trispinosa II. M. Tow.

Pisa trispinosa LATREILLE, Encyc. Meth., X, 142.

Pericera trispinosa H. M.-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 336 Guerin, Iconog. du Règne Anim., Crust., pl. viii, fig. 3. Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 172.

Dredged at Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms, and found at the Tortugas at low-water mark.

## Pericera camptocera nov. sp.

Allied to *P. trispinosa*, but differs as follows: The carapax is narrower and more sparsely pubescent. The four tubercles at the summit of the gastrie region are more prominent, forming erect spines. The posterior spine and the lateral spines are longer and more curved. The rostrum is longer, and its horns are regularly divergent from the base. The orbital tubes are more protuberant, and the præocular and postocular teeth longer. The movable part of the antennæ is both longer and stouter. Finally the carpal joint of the ambulatory feet is narrower and not tuberculated.

Measurements of a male: Total length of carapax, 0.92; length of rostrum, from base of orbital tubes, 0.25; breadth, between the tips of the lateral spines, 0.70; between the bases of these spines, 0.48 inch.

One male and one female specimen were taken near Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

# Pericera eutheca nov. sp.

Carapax subtrapezoidal, constricted anteriorly behind the orbits, and broadly rounded behind. Frontal and hepatic regions concave; gastric, cardiac, intestinal, and branchial regions moderately prominent and each bearing a slender spine. Rostrum very small, forming about one sixth the length of the carapax, nearly horizontal, and consisting of two slender, acute, parallel horns. Orbits very strongly prominent, projecting forward and outward far beyond the antero-lateral margins, forming sheaths longer than the rostrum, and each occupying nearly one third the interorbital

width of the carapax. The distance between their extremities equals four fifths of the greatest width of the carapax. The extremity of the orbital sheath is armed with two spines, one before and one behind the eye. The spine of the basal joint of the external antennæ is rather small and slender, and about one third as long as the rostrum. The ambulatory feet are very slender.

The measurements of a female specimen are: Total length of earapax, 0.90; breadth, excluding the spines, 0.65; length of first pair of ambula tory feet, 0.75 inch.

It may be distinguished from all the species hitherto known by the great size and prominence of the orbital sheaths.

Off French Reef, April 3, 1869. Cast No. 1. 15 fathoms. West of Tortugas, Jan. 16, 1869. Cast No. 9. 37 fathoms.

### Pericera septemspinosa nov. sp.

Carapax oblong, strongly convex, pubescent; antero-lateral and postero-lateral sides concave. Dorsal surface armed with seven prominent spines, one on the gastric, one on the cardiac, one on the intestinal, and two on each branchial region. Rostrum about one fourth as long as the post-frontal portion of the carapax, deflexed; horns subtriangular, acute, diverging, curved, pointing outward. Orbits projecting, with a prominent, acute præocular and postocular spine. On the suborbital and subhepatic region there are three spines, the posterior one of which is longest. There is a small, slender, acute spine on the basal joint of the antennæ. Feet unarmed. The pubescence of the body adheres strongly to rough objects brought in contact with it, and notably to that of other specimens of the same crab.

Measurements of a male: Length of carapax, 0.33; breadth, excluding the spines, 0.25 inch.

It differs from P, eutheca in its broader rostrum and less prominent orbital sheaths; also in the spines on the subhepatic region, etc.

West of Tortugas, January 16, 1869 Cast No. 4. 36 fathoms.

#### Pericera cornuta H. M.-Epw.

Cancer cornuta Herbst, Naturg. d. Krabben u. Krebse, pl. lix, fig. 6. Maia taurus Lamarck, Animaux sans Vert., V, 242.

Pericera cornuta H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des. Crust., I, 335; pl. xiv bis, fig. 5. Illust. Cav. Règne Anim., pl. xxx, fig. 1. Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci. 1850, p. 172. Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 55.

A young example, one inch long, of this well-known species, occurred in rather deep water. It had previously been found only about low-water vol. 11. 8

mark. In the young, the horns of the rostrum are more divergent than in the adult, and the anterior branchial spine is smaller. The feet are provided with a few long, thick hairs not found in the adult.

Off the Quicksands, January 23, 1869. Cast No. 1. 34 fathoms.

### Tiarinia setirostris nov. sp.

Carapax narrow, with perpendicular sides. The greatest breadth, which is at the posterior fourth of the post-frontal length, is only one fourth greater than the transorbital breadth. The upper surface is naked, and bears a few small tubercles, of which three, in a median line on the posterior half of the carapax, are larger than the others. The posterior tubercle, on the intestinal region, is spiniform and curved upward. Sides of the carapax somewhat setose. Rostrum half as long as the post-frontal part of the carapax, with the horns slightly gaping near the base, but contiguous for the remainder of their length, very slender, setiform, and setose. External antennæ as long as the rostrum; basal joint coneave, without any spine at the antero-external angle; flagellum long, hair-like. Chelipeds in the male large, longer than the carapax including the rostrum; hand somewhat compressed, granulated above; fingers very short, widely gaping. Ambulatory feet long, slender, and smooth; those of the first pair nearly as long as the chelipeds.

Dimensions of a male specimen: Length of earapax, 0.82; breadth, 0.35 inch.

This species differs much from the typical *Tiariniae* in the great length, slenderness, and smoothness of its ambulatory feet, and future investigations, on more abundant materials than those at present available, may prove it to be generically distinct; in which case I would propose for it the name *Leptopisa*.

The *Tiariniae* hitherto described all belong to the Indo-Pacific fauna, living chiefly in the southern part of the Japanese Archipelago, in the seas of Sulu and the Philippines, Nicobar, etc. Of these species our Florida form approaches nearest to *T. angusta* Dana, which it resembles in the narrowness of the carapax, but from which it is at once distinguished by the less tuberculated carapax and slender feet.

It was taken at the following points: -

Key West, 2 to 5 fathoms. Near the Tortugas, 9 fathoms. On the Fishing Banks, S. W. of Loggerhead Key.

#### SUBFAMILY NAXHNAE.

The characters of the orbital region in *Chorinus* are so different from those of *Naxia* and its allies as to forbid its being placed in the same sub-

family with the latter group, for which the name Naximae is here proposed. The deep noteh on the upper side of the orbit is here a constant character.

### Scyra umbonata nov. sp.

Carapax triangular, with six large flat-topped protuberances on the upper surface; one on the posterior part of the gastric region, one on the cardiac, and two on each branchial region. On the outer side of the branchial region there is also an acute triangular tooth, pointing forward and ontward, and of similar character and nearly as large as the other protuberances just described. They are all not only flattened, but somewhat expanded at the top. Their summits are naked, but the deep channels between them are pubescent. Besides the above there are on the earapax three small tubercles on the gastrie and a strong erect tooth on each hepatic region. The gastric and the sides of the branchial regions are hairy. The rostrum is rather longer than the interorbital width of the earapax; it is hairy above, and is neither flattened nor expanded. The movable part of the external antennæ has cylindrical joints. The merosjoint of the external maxillipeds is not notched for the reception of the palpus. Abdomen and sternum pubescent. Sternum of the male with deep excavations between the segments, the exeavations being broader than the ridges separating them.

Dimensions of a male: Leugth of carapax, 0.94; breadth, measured between the tips of the branchial teeth, 0.72 inch.

The species of Scyra heretofore known are but two in number, and inhabit waters of moderate depth on the shores of the North Pacific Ocean, one on the coast of California and Oregon, the other on that of Japan. The present species was placed in the genus with some doubt, on account of the character of the rostrum, the external antennæ, and the outer maxillipeds which, as may be noticed by the description, differ somewhat from those of the type, S. acutifrons. The resemblance in all other essential characters is, however, very great; and in the present state of our knowledge, the Florida species ought not to be separated as the type of a distinct genus.

It is an inhabitant of deep water, as follows: —
Off Sand Key, May 11, 1868. Cast No. 15. 143 fathoms.

#### SUBFAMILY OTHONIINAE.

The Othoniinae are characterized by great orbito-frontal breadth, a small, short rostrum, an extremely short epistome, and gaping external maxillipeds. The orbits are tubular like those of the Pericerinae but are directed forwards instead of outwards.

#### Othonia aculeata STM.

Hyas aculeata Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 171.

Othonia aculeata Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 3.

Othonia Lherminieri Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 20.

The specimens in the collection are all young, and occurred as follows:—

At Key West, 2 to 5 fathoms.

At the Tortugas, 5 to 6 fathoms.

Off the Tortugas, January 29, 1868, in t3 fathoms.

#### SUBFAMILY MITHRACINAE.

# Mithrax hispidus II. M.-EDW.

Cancer hispidus Herbst, Naturg. d. Krabben u. Krebse, pl. xviii, fig. 100 Maia spinicineta Lamarck, Anim. sans Vert., V, 241.

Mithrax spinicinctus Desmarest, Consid. sur les Crust., p. 150; pl. xxiii, figs. t, 2.

Mithrax hispidus H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 322. Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 172. Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 60. Smith, Trans. Connecticut Acad. of Arts and Sciences, H, 2, 32.

This well-known species occurred at Key West, in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

### Mithrax pleuracanthus nov. sp.

This is closely allied to *M. hispidus*, but is a smaller species, with a somewhat narrower carapax. The protuberances of the carapax, and the teeth or spines of the orbits and the basal joint of the antennæ, are sharper and more prominent, and there are small tubereles on the intestinal, branchial, and hepatic regions which do not occur in *M. hispidus*. The minute punctures of the surface are less apparent than in that species.

The dimensions of a male specimen are: Length of the carapax, 0.57; breadth, 0.55 inch; proportion of length to breadth, 1: 0.965.

This species can scarcely be the *M. affinis* of Desboune and Schramm (Crust de la Guadeloupe, p. 10), the description of which applies to it in most respects, for those authors state that the front, rostrum, and orbits are like those of *Mithraculus sculptus*.

It occurred at Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms, and at the Tortugas in 5 to 6 fathoms. There is in the Smithsonian Collection a specimen taken at St. Thomas by A. H. Riise, Esq.

# Mithrax acuticornis nov. sp.

Carapax much longer than broad, and tuberculated, sparsely on the gastric region but more closely posteriorly and at the sides, the tubercles

becoming spiniform toward the margins, which are armed with true spines curving forward at their tips. Rostrum half as long as the interorbital width, and consisting of two rather slender, acute horns. Basal joint of the external antennae armed with two spines, the anterior one of which is slender, curved, and two thirds as long as the rostrum. The margin of the orbit is armed with six spiniform teeth, not including those of the antennal joint. The feet are strongly spinose above, but the hands are unarmed. The color in wet specimens, and probably in life, is a bright deep red.

Dimensions of a male: Length of earapax, 0.73; breadth, 0.55 inch: proportion, 1:0.753.

This species approaches *Schizophrys* in the shape of its carapax, which is much more oblong than in other species of the genus in which I have placed it; but the rostrum is simply two-horned, and the orbits are similar to those of the typical forms of *Mithrax*.

 Off the Quicksands,
 January 23, 1869.
 Cast No. 1.
 34 fathoms.

 West of the Tertugas, January 16, 1869.
 Cast No. 8.
 37
 "

 West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869.
 Cast No. 12.
 42
 "

# Mithrax Holderi nov. sp.

This species resembles *M. acuticornis* in the characters of the front, but the carapax is broader and more strongly and closely tuberculated, the tubercles occupying nearly the whole upper surface, causing it to resemble that of *Tiarinia cornigera*. There is a small spine on the hepatic region and one at the lateral extremity of the branchial region. The anterior spine of the basal joint of the antennæ is nearly as long as the rostrum, and there is another spine, very small, at the insertion of the movable part of the antenna. The ambulatory feet are flattened above, giving the joints a somewhat trigonal form, and both margins of their upper surface are spinulose and ciliated.

Dimensions of a male: Length of the carapax, 0.55; breadth, 0.48 inch; proportion, 1: 0.872.

This species occurred at the Tortugas in 7 fathoms. It is named in compliment to Dr. J. B. Holder, who found it, also at the Tortugas, and I believe at low-water mark, several years ago. Dr. Holder's specimen is in the Museum of the Smithsonian Institution.

# Mithraculus sculptus Stm.

Maia sculpta Lamarck, Anim. sans Vert., V, 242.

Mithrax sculptus H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 322. Gibbes. Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 172. Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 9.

Mithraculus sculptus Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 58.

Key West, 2 to 5 fathoms. Tortugas, 5 to 6 " ! Off the Samboes, 123 "

This well-known species is found throughout the West Indian seas, and is very abundant on the reefs at and above low-water mark. I have queried the depth 123 fathoms, fearing that some accidental transposition of labels has taken place, as the *Mithraculi* are eminently littoral in their habits, and the specimen so labelled is a full-grown male, similar in all respects to those found on the shores.

### Mithraculus ruber nov. sp.

Carapax subtriangular, one fifth broader than long. Surface naked, polished, and uneven, but with the protuberances less numerous and smaller than in M. sculptus and M. coronatus. These protuberances are also rounded, and not clongated as in the allied species, and some of them are sparsely tuberculated. Antero-lateral margin armed with three teeth, besides the angle of the orbit, the posterior tooth being sharp, spiniform, and curving forward, the other two teeth tuberculiform; the middle tooth is composed of two tubereles, and there is a small tuberele between it and the posterior tooth. Behind the posterior tooth there is a small sharp tubercle on the postero-lateral margin. The meros-joint of the outer maxillipeds is slightly sinuous in front, showing a faint indication of a notch. Chelipeds rather long and slender; meros armed above with six small, conical, equal tubercles; carpus and hand smooth. Ambulatory feet cylindrical, densely short-hairy above (hairs simple); they are also spinulose above, the spines being scattered in two rows. Color of the carapax chestnut red, with some bluish posteriorly.

Dimensions of a male: Length of the carapax, 0.18; breadth, 0.60 inch; proportion, 1: 1.25.

It differs from *M. sculptus*, *M. cinctimanus*, and *M. minutus* in its broader carapax, etc., and from *M. coronatus* in its spiniform lateral tooth and in the character of the surface of the carapax.

Found on the reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba.

#### Mithraculus coronatus STM.

Cancer coronatus Herrist, Naturg. d. Krabben und Krebse, I. 184; pl. xi, fig. 63 (\*).

Mithraculus coronatus White, Brit. Mus. Cat. Crust., p. 7 (? partim). Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 58. Smith, Trans. Coun. Acad. of Arts and Sciences, H. 2.

It is somewhat doubtful whether this is really the Cancer coronatus of

Herbst—He refers to Seba, pl xxii, fig. 6. Seba's fig. 22 of pl. xix is a better representation of the species under consideration.

Littoral on the reef at Eastern Dry Rocks. Reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba. Key West, in 2 to 5 fathoms.

### FAMILY TYCHIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY TYCHINAE.

### Tyche emarginata White.

Tyche emarginata Wilte, Annals and Magazine of Natural History, First Series, Vol XX, p. 206.

Platyrinchus tratuberculatus Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe p. 3; pl. iii, figs. 7 and 8.

The curious genus Tyche is so little known that a short description of the crab under consideration may not be out of place here. The carapax is flattened and partly concave above, and has laminiform expansions in front and behind. The frontal region is very broad, the transorbital width nearly equalling that across the branchial regions. The hepatic region is concave. Rostrum rather long, forked from the base; horns widely divergent. Pracorbital spines very long, and somewhat divergent, thus, with the rostrum, giving the entire front a four-horned form. External antenma concealed beneath the rostrum. Eyes long but reaching scarcely beyond the edge of the expanded orbital margin, which is entire, without notch or tooth.

The external maxillipeds are very remarkable in form, the exognath having a hook-shaped process at the base, which over laps the base of the ischium-joint of the endognath. The meros-joint of the endognath has a posterior lobe which projects far into the anterior extremity of the ischium.

This crab was found by the expedition at Key West in 2 to 5 fathoms, and at the Tortugas in 7 fathoms.

#### FAMILY EURYPODHDAE.

Among the general characters of this family, the existence of a distinct orbital arch over the base of the eye, and of a postocular spine, seem to be the most important.

#### SUBFAMILY COLLODINAE.

This name is proposed for a group of genera of Eurypodiidae characterized by the extreme shortness of the rostrum, which group is, as far as known, peculiar to the tropical parts of the American seas, and occurs on both sides of the continent.

### Collodes trispinosus nov. sp.

Carapax ovate-triangular, hairy, and everywhere covered with small granulated tubercles, except on the front and the anterior portion of the gastric region. There is an erect, capitate spine on the gastric, one on the cardiac region, and one of equal size on the basal joint of the abdomen. Rostrum with two minute horns. Four minute spines on the basal joint of the antennæ, the anterior one of which is placed nearly on a level with the horns of the rostrum. Ambulatory feet long, and provided with long stiff hairs; hairs of the penult joint below straight and above hooklike and often serrated on the inner side near the tip. Daetyli of the ambulatory feet about as long as the penult joint.

In the male of this species the carapax is somewhat more clongated and depressed than in the female; the hands are of moderate size only, and much curved inward; fingers nearly as long as palm and gaping, with a tooth inside on the middle of the thumb. Abdomen of the male clongate triangular; intromittent organs nearly straight, simple, reaching nearly to the extremity of the abdomen.

All the specimens examined were covered with a thick coating of mud, held by the setæ.

The dimensions of a female specimen are: Length of the carapax, 0.41; breadth, 0.32 inch.

The only species hitherto known of this genus is the *C. granosus* of the west coast of North America, described by me in "Notes on North American Crustacea," page 66 (Annals of the New York Lycenm of Natural History, Vol. VII, p. 194), from which the species under consideration differs in its more elongated carapax, which is more completely covered with granulated tubercles, and in the somewhat greater length of the rostral horns and the spines on the basal joint of the antennæ. It is proper to state that of *C. granosus* only a single (female) specimen is as yet known.

The species occurred as follows: -

Off the Quicksands, January 23, 1869. Cast No. 1. 34 fathoms.

Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 8. 35 "

Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 7. 40 "

Off French Reef, April 3, 1869. Cast No. 4. 50 "

### Collodes nudus nov. sp.

Allied to *C. granosus* and *C. trispinosus*, having three spines on the back similar in shape and position to those of those species. It differs from them, however, in its naked carapax and feet, and in the less numerous and prominent granulated tubercles of the dorsal surface. The carapax is also much broader anteriorly.

The ambulatory feet of the second pair are rather longer than those of the first pair. The daetyli of the ambulatory feet are armed with spines along the inner edge.

The dimensions of the single specimen found, a male, are as follows: Length of carapax, 0.24; breadth, 0.18; length of ambulatory foot of the first pair, 0.45 inch.

Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 7. 40 fathoms.

### Arachnopsis nov. gen.

Carapax oblong, narrow, and somewhat truncated in front. Rostrum short, bifid. Orbital arch high, protuberant. Postocular spine long, and separated from the orbital arch by a deep, narrow fissure. Eye long, considerably overreaching the tip of the postocular spine, but capable of being drawn back beneath it. Basal joint of the external antennæ with a small, sharp spine at the extremity, pointing obliquely forward and outward, between which and the rostrum the movable part of the antenna is exposed, and with a spinulous crest on the inferior surface extending back to the angle of the buccal area. Meros-joint of the external maxillipeds broader than long, and with sharply prominent external and internal anterior angles. Ambulatory feet long, filiform; those of the second pair longest; dactyli straight, acute, and nearly as long as the penult joint.

This genus differs from Collodes in its filiform ambulatory feet and long eye peduncles.

# Arachnopsis filipes nov. sp.

Body armed above with three erect, slender, blunt spines, one on the gastric retion, one on the cardiac region, and one on the basal joint of the abdomen. Abdominal spine small; cardiac and gastric spines equal and about as long as the distance between the orbital arches. Carapax convex anteriorly, and flattened posteriorly. Surface of carapax smooth and glossy, naked, except for a few hairs on the anterior part of the branchial, the sides of the gastric, and the frontal region. Beneath, the subhepatic and pterygostomian regions are armed with spiniform grandles. Chelipeds in the male as long as the carapax and much curved; edges of meros and carpus spinulose; hand nearly smooth; fingers as long as the palm. Ambulatory feet spinulose along the lower edges of all the joints, except the dactyli; those of the second pair more than twice as long as the carapax. Sternum, abdomen, and external maxillipeds tuberculated.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.25; breadth, 0.18; length of ambulatory foot of first pair, 0.5 inch.

Off Conch Reef, May 11, 1869. Cast No. 2. 34 fathoms. Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 7. 40 "
Off French Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 2. 45 "

### Batrachonotus nov. gen.

Carapax triangular, broadly expanded behind; surface rough with granulations; gastric, cardiac, and branchial regions strongly protuberant; cervical depressions deep and broad, giving the carapax a superior outline much like that of a frog's back. Rostrum very short, not extending beyond the walls of the antennulary fossa, rounded in outline, and slightly emarginated at the middle. Basal joint of the external antenna with a small tooth or spine on the outer margin, but none at the anterior extremity. No spine on the orbital arch. Post-ocular spine minute. Meros-joint of the external maxillipeds broad, with prominent external and internal anterior angles. Ambulatory feet simple; those of the first pair disproportionately long, nearly twice as long as those of the second pair; those of the posterior pairs very short. Dactyli of ambulatory feet rather long. Abdomen very narrow at base.

It differs from the other genera of Collodinae, among other characters, in the want of a terminal spine on the basal joint of the antennæ, and in its very long anterior and short posterior ambulatory feet.

### Batrachonotus fragosus nov. sp.

The following description is that of a male. Body and feet naked. On each of the protuberant regions of the carapax there are one or two large and many smaller rounded tubercles or granules. A strong tubercle on the basal joint of the abdomen. A sharp tubercle on the subhepatic, and one on the pterygostomian region. Stermum regularly granulated. Chelipeds as long as the carapax, and sparsely granulated within; ischium with an erect spine at the summit; hand unarmed; fingers toothed and slightly gaping. Ambulatory feet of the first pair about three times as long as the carapax.

Color of the body in the alcoholic specimen whitish, or pale flesh-color, variegated with purplish.

Of this species we find in the collection only one specimen, a male, the dimensions of which are: Length of the carapax, 0.28; breadth, 0.215; length of ambulatory feet of the first pair, 0.80 inch.

The specimen was taken in N. Lat. 24° 36′ 40″, W. Long. 83° 2′ 20″, on the 22d of January, 1868. Cast No. 3. Depth 16 fathous.

# Euprognatha nov. gen.

Carapax pyriform. Rostrum short, trifid, the median horn being the interantemular spine, which points forward and downward at a much lower level than that of the other two horns, which are minute and divergent.

Basal joint of the external antennæ armed at the anterior extremity with a slender spine reaching forward as far as do the rostral horns; movable part of the antennæ exposed from its insertion. An erect spine on the orbital arch. Eye large; peduncle short. Post-ocular spine reaching beyond the extremity of the eye. Meros-joint of the external maxillipeds somewhat L-shaped, strongly produced beyond the insertion of the palpus in front and at the postero-interior angle. Feet long and slender. Penult joint of the ambulatory feet of the first pair more than twice as long as the dactyli, and three times as long as the antepenult joint.

This genus differs from all the other genera of Collodinae in its interantenular spine and the spine on the orbital arch, and especially in the shape of the meros-joint of the external maxillipeds.

# Euprognatha rastellifera nov. sp.

The following description is that of a male. Carapax naked, with the regions well defined, and minutely and irregularly granulated. There is a single, erect, blunt, almost capitate spine on the gastric, the cardiac, and each branchial region, making four in all, and there are a few smaller spines on the sides of the branchial, and on the hepatic and pterygostomian regions. There is also a small spine on the basal joint of the abdomen. The interantennular spine projects somewhat beyond the other four spines of the front, which reach to the same vertical plane. The chelipeds are large, nearly twice as long as the carapax; hand swollen; fingers not gaping. Ambulatory feet of the first pair nearly one third longer than the chelipeds. The ambulatory feet are naked (except in bearing a few minute curled seta above), and rough with minute spines. The stermum is regularly granulated, except on the concave portion between the chelipeds.

Dimensions: Length of carapax, 0.32; breadth, 0.23; length of ambulatory foot of the first pair, 0.76 inch.

This crab is an inhabitant of deep water, ranging from 80 to 138 fathoms, and occurred in considerable abundance, as follows: —  $\,$ 

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Off the Samboes,
                  May 9.
                                      Cast No. 5, 80 fathoms.
Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869.
                                      Cast No. 6, 88
Off Sand Key,
                  May 16, 1868.
                                      Cast No. 2, 120
                                      Cast No. 12, 123
Off the Samboes,
                  May 9, 1868.
S. W. of Sand Key, February 17, 1869.
                                      Cast No. 2, 125
Off Boca Grande,
                                      Cast No. 5, 125
                  February 15, 1869.
Off Sand Key,
                  May 11, 1868.
                                      Cast No. 11, 128
S. W. of Sand Key, February 17, 1869.
                                     Cast No. 3, 138
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#### SUBFAMILY AMATHINAE.

The only species of this group hitherto known is the Amathia Rissoana of the Mediterranean Sea. Two species are now added, as follows:—

### Amathia hystrix nov. sp.

This species has a close resemblance to A. Rissoana, but differs in having four instead of three spines on the gastric region.

The dimensions of a male specimen are as follows: Length of carapax, including the rostrum, 1,23; excluding rostrum, 0.71; breadth, including lateral spines, 0.95; excluding these spines, 0.48 inch.

Off Sand Key, May 11, 1869. Cast No. 16, 138 fathoms.

### Amathia modesta nov. sp.

Carapax armed with twelve spines shorter than in the other species of the genus, the two on the gastric region being in fact only spiniform tubercles. The lateral and posterior spines are longest, that on the outer extremity of the branchial region equalling in length one fifth the width of the carapax. Rostrum nearly as long as the post-frontal part of the carapax; horns rather stout, divergent, and curving outward at the tips. The spine before the eye is small, and that behind still smaller. No trace of a spine at the anterior angles of the buccal area. Feet somewhat shorter than in the other two species, and with no trace of a spine at the summit of the meros-joint.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, rostrum and posterior spine included, 0.84; from base of rostral horns to tip of posterior spine, 0.54; breadth of carapax, including spines, 0.50; excluding spines, 0.36; length of ambulatory foot of the first pair, 0.95 inch.

Taken off Sand Key in 120 fathoms.

#### Subfamily Anomalopinae.

This group is indicated for the reception of the genus Anomalopus, now for the first time described, with a single species. The crab differs from all other Maioids in its elongated, subcylindrical carapax, and in the character of its ambulatory feet; those of the posterior pair being larger than those of the penult pair. The orbital arch is less distinct than in other Eurypodiidae, and the post-ocular spine much smaller.

### Anomalopus nov. gen.

Carapax very much clongated, almost subcylindrical; rostrum very long, slender, bifid. Eyes without orbits; præorbital spine small, acute; post-

ocular spine minute. External antennae exposed from above; basal joint narrow. Antennulary fossae large. Epistome two thirds as long as it is broad. Meros-joint of the external maxillipeds without any notch at the interior angle where the palpus is inserted; external angle sharply prominent. Chelipeds in the female shorter than the carapax. Ambulatory feet of the first pair very long, twice as long as the carapax, with the daetylus nearly straight, and three fourths as long as the penult joint. Ambulatory feet of the posterior two pairs shorter and stouter than those of the anterior two, and with prehensile extremities; those of the penult pair shorter than those of the last pair.

## Anomalopus furcillatus nov. sp.

Carapax minutely pubescent, unarmed except in front, regions scarcely defined. Rostrum equalling in length two thirds that of the post-frontal part of the carapax, forked in the terminal half of its length; horns but slightly divergent. External antennae much shorter than the rostrum; thagellum as long as the two joints preceding it taken together. Antennaliae reaching to the extremity of the pedancle of the antennae. Chelipeds with a small spine on the outer side of the carpus; hand very small; fingers half as long as the palm and much gaping.

Dimensions of a female: Length of carapax 0.67; breadth, 0.25; length of ambulatory foot of the first pair, 1.50; of the third pair, 0.48; of the fourth pair, 0.82 inch.

Of this species I find but one specimen in the collection, a female, which was taken at the depth of 123 fathoms off "The Samboes,"

### FAMILY LEPTOPODHDAE.

This family is characterized by an entire want of orbits and of a true post-ocular spine, and by the great length of the feet.

# SUBFAMILY LEPTOPODHNAE.

# Leptopodia sagittaria Levell.

Concer sagittarius Farricus, Ent. Syst., II, 442.

Inachus sagittarius Fabricius, Suppl. Ent. Syst., p. 359.

Cancer seticornis Herbst, Naturg. d. Krabben u. Krebse, III, pl. lv, fig. 2.

Leptopodia sagittaria Leach, Zoöl. Misc., H. pl. lxvii. Latreille, Encyc. Meth. pl. cexeix, fig. 1. Desuvrest, Consid. sur les Crust., pl. xvi, fig. 2. Guerin, Iconographie du Règne Anim., Crust., pl. xi, fig. 4. H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 276; pl. xv, fig. 14. filust. Cuv. Règne Anim., Crust., pl. xxxvi. Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc., 1850, p. 169. Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 1.

This crab, which has hitherto been found in shallow waters, but never, as far as I am aware, above low-water mark, occurred to the expedition at the following points and depths:—

South of the Tortugas,	January 15, 1869.	Cast No. 3.	17 f	athonis.
Off Conch Reef,	May 11, 1869.	Cast No. 1.	30	"
Santarem Channel, at the	e edge of Bahama Bank.	Cast No	35	"
Off French Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 2.	45	**

### SUBFAMILY ACHAEINAE.

#### Podochela macrodera STM.

Podochela macrodera Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 68.

Found at Key West, in from 2 to 5 fathoms

### Podochela graeilipes nov. sp.

Closely allied to *P. macrodera*, but differs in its narrower body, ionger and more acute rostrum, and longer and much more slender feet. The daetylus of the first pair of ambulatory feet is exceedingly slender and longer than in either of the two species hitherto known, being more than one third as long as the penult joint. The process of the penult joint in the other ambulatory feet is almost entirely obsolete.

Dimensions of a female: Length of carapax, 0.35; breadth, 0.24 inch. Only female specimens occur in the collection.

West of Toringas,	January 16, 1867.	Cast No. 5.	36 fathoms.
Off Pacific Reef,	May 13, 1869.	Cast No. 2.	49 "
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 31, 1869.	Cast No. 1.	52 "
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 5.	60 "

#### Podonema nov. gen.

The species of this genus I formerly included under *Podochela* (Notes on N. American Crust., p. 69), but the study of several species which have since become known to me has led me to consider it distinct in the hood-shaped rostrum, and in the existence of lamelliform ridges on the pterygostomian regions, defining the afferent channels. Like *Podochela*, this genus has a concave posterior margin of the carapax.

#### Podonema Riisei Stal.

Podochela Riisei Stimison, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 69

A female specimen of this species was taken in 13 fathoms, off the Tortugas.

#### Podonema lamelligera nov. sp.

The following description is that of a female, the only specimen as yet

found. Carapax similar to that of *P. Rüsei*, except that there is a spiniform tubercle, curving backward at the tip, on the gastric region, and that the rostrum is smaller and more pointed. The two marginal lamellae of the basal joint of the external antennae are strongly prominent, joining each other in front, and curving outward at the posterior extremity. On the ischium-joint of the external maxillipeds there is a smooth iongitudinal channel, defined exteriorly by a ciliated ridge. On either side of the buccar area there are four laminiform crests; one at the antero-exterior angle of the area, one on the hepatic, and two on the pterygostomian region. The sternam, where not covered by the abdomen, and the bases of all the feet, are ornamented with cavities, the surface of each joint being concave and surrounded by a laminiform expansion.

Dimensions of the female specimen: Length of carapax, 0.44; breadth, 0.37 inch.

It was taken at the depth of 21 fathoms, off Tennessee Reef, on the 7th of May, 1869.

### Podonema hypoglypha nov. sp.

The following description is that of a male. Gastrie, cardiae, and branchial protuberances low and rounded. Rostrum slightly curved upward, and triangular in outline when seen from in front and below, but with the lateral expansions well developed. The basal joint of the external antennæ is greatly elongated, and the laminiform expansions of the margins slight. Hepatic tooth and pterygostomian ridges moderately developed. Stermun with deep and broad channels separating the segments, which have each a corresponding flattened ridge as broad as the channel.

Dimensions of a male specimen: Length of carapax, 0.63; breadth, 0.48 inch.

It differs from *P. Riisei* in the shape of the rostrum, and from both *Riisei* and *lamelligera* in the elongated basal joint of the external antennae.

No female specimen occurs in the collection.

Key West, in 4 to 5 fathoms.

S. W. of Loggerhead Key, in 9 fathoms.

### FAMILY ACANTHONYCHIDAE.

In this group the eye is short, in some genera searcely movable, and in others somewhat retractile, or rather capable of being moved in a horizontal plane. There are no true orbits, but in many genera the eye lies beneath the expanded orbital margin of the carapax, which has frequently two teeth, one before and one behind the position of the eye. The eye

is, however, never concealed by these expansions. The carapax is generally flattened, angular, and naked, instead of subpyriform and spinous as in the majority of Maioids—The feet are usually short.

It is necessary to reject the name *Periceridue*, which was applied to this group by Dana, for in the genus *Pericera* the eyes are completely retractile, as stated on a previous page. The genus *Acanthonys* seems the most typical of the group, and from this is taken the name adopted above.

#### SUBFAMILY EPIALTINAE.

# Epialtus longirostris STM.

Epialtus longirostrus STIMPSON, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 71. Found at Key West, in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

### Epialtus affinis STM.

Epiallus affinis STIMPSON, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 3. Found on the Reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba.

### Mocosoa nov. gen.

Carapax subpentagonal, tumid; rostrum subtriangular, entire, obtuse, exeavated below; eyes large, namovable. External antennæ concealed beneath the rostrum and not reaching to its tip; basal joint triangular, unarmed in front. External maxillipeds very broad; meros-joint particularly short and broad, with the outer angle much projecting outward, and the inner one a right angle, not at all notched for the reception of the palpus.

This genus differs from *Epialtus* in its immovable eyes, which resemble those of *Huenia*. From *Huenia* it differs in the character of the rostrum. The name adopted for the genus is that of one of the Florida Caciques encountered by De Soto in his march.

# Mocosoa crebripunctata nov. sp.

Upper surface of carapax everywhere uniformly punetate, the minute pits being equal in size and wider than the interspaces. Carapax naked and protuberant, there being two prominences between the eyes, three on the gastric region, one large one on the cardiae, and three on each branchial region. Of the three branchial protuberances one is situated at the middle of the region, and two on the outer margin, the posterior one being smallest and bearing a minute blunt spine. Feet short and armed with a few short, blunt spines, chiefly on the meros-joint.

Body of a strawberry color; upper surface of carapax iridescent.

Of this species there is but one specimen in the collection, an immature female, the dimensions of which are: Length of carapax, 0.20; breadth, 0.17 inch.

It was taken in 15 fathoms, off French Reef, April 3, 1869.

### FAMILY PARTHENOPIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY PARTHENOPINAE.

### Lambrus crenulatus Sauss.

Lambrus crenulatus De Saussure, Crust. Nouv. du Mexique et des Antilles, p. 13; pl. i, fig. 4. Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 73. Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 21.

This species is remarkable for its depressed form and the excavation of the pterygostomian and subhepatic regions, which excavation extends to the infero-exterior margin of the orbit, forming, when the chelipeds are retracted, covered afferent passages, the external apertures of which are seen between the base of the finger of the cheliped and the margin of the orbit. This arrangement would indicate that the erab habitually conceals itself in the sand, with the rostrum, eyes, and afferent apertures only exposed.

Lambrus laciniatus De Haan exhibits the same features in a less marked degree, and the two species, with three or four similar forms, comprise a group which future studies may prove to be distinct from the triangular Lambri, and for which the name Platylambrus would be appropriate.

Lambrus crenulatus was taken near the Tortugas in from 5 to 7 fathoms, and off Loggerhead Kev in 13 fathoms.

# Lambrus Pourtalesii nov. sp.

Carapax considerably broader than long, with a median row of four spiniform tubercles, of which one is placed upon the gastric and three on the eardiae region. In front of the tubercle on the gastric region there are two much smaller ones in a transverse line. The oblique ridge on the branchial region is armed with three unequal tubercles, and a strong, spiniform, laciniated tooth, with a smaller tooth at its base, at the margin of the carapax. There are a few small, scattering tubercles on the other parts the carapax, particularly in the hollows between the branchial and cardiac regions. The depressions between the branchial, hepatic, and gastric regions are moderately deep. The general surface is pitted and granulated, having a carious appearance. There is a small prominent tooth on the hepatic region. Antero-lateral margin, behind the cervical suleus, with VOL. II.

nine small, slender, laciniated teeth, progressively diminishing in size for wards; posterior tooth only one third the size of the large branchial spine or tooth, which is the largest on the margin of the carapax. There is a prominent tubercle at the summit of the branchial region. Rostrum of moderate size, pointing obliquely downward and forward, and bearing a tooth on each side near the base, and a smaller one near the tip. At the basal tooth the rostrum is abruptly contracted more than one half in width. Chelipeds rather long; margins armed with laciniated teeth; meros convex, with the upper surface granulated and tuberculated, the largest tubercles, those along the middle, being subspiniform; earpus with five large and several small spiniform tubercles above and on the outer side. Upper surface of hand with only two or three tubercles about the middle; teeth of the margins larger and more triangular than those of the margins of the meros; those of the inner broader than those of the outer margin, particularly those toward the fingers, which are not, like those toward the carpus, separated by intervals; inner margin with eight large and three small teeth; outer one with four large and six small teeth. Lower surface of hand punctate, with a regular median row of tubercles. Ambulatory feet somewhat compressed; meros-joint spinulose on both upper and lower edge. The ridges of the abdomen, sternum, and outer maxillipeds are tuberculated.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.47; breadth, lateral teeth included, 0.52 inch; proportion of length to breadth, 1:1.106; length of meros-joint of chelipeds, 0.37 inch.

Off Conch Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 1.	40 fathoms.
Off French Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 2.	45 ''
Off American Shoal,	May 6, 1868.	Cast No. 9.	100 "
Off Conch Reef,	May 11, 1869.	Cast No. 6.	117 "

# Lambrus fraterculus nov. sp.

Nearly allied to *L. Pourtalesii*, but differing as follows: The earapax is narrower, the proportion of length to breadth being 1:1.04 even in the female, while in the male it is longer than broad. The depressions between the branchial and the gastrie and hepatic regions are much deeper. In the female the tubercles of the carapax and the teeth of the margins are less spiniform and generally smaller; the tubercles of the branchial and gastric regions are indeed sometimes obsolete or nearly so. In the only male specimen at hand, the median tubercle of the gastric and that of the cardiac region are much taller than in *L. Pourtalesii*. The rostrum is also longer than in that species, with the narrowed extremity much more slender, and the basal teeth more prominent; there is also a small slender

spine placed beneath and outside of this basal tooth. The chelipeds are shorter, and the lower surface of the hand is always ornamented with several rows of granulated tubercles. The daetyli of the ambulatory feet are covered with a dense velvet-like pubescence, except at the tips.

Dimensions of a male; Length of carapax, 0.17; breadth, 0.45 inch. Of a female, length of carapax, 0.54; breadth, 0.56; length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.34 inch.

Off Sand Key,	May 11, 1868.	Cast No.	2.	26 fathoms.
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No.	8.	35 "
West of Tortugas,	January 16, 1869.	Cast No.	4.	36 ''
Off Conch Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No.	1	40 "
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No.	5.	60 ''
West of Tortugas,	January 16, 1869.	Cast No. 1	3.	68 "

# Lambrus agonus nov. sp.

Carapax broader than long, of rounded form, without angles at the sides. Depressions between the regions rather shallow. Surface above everywhere minutely tuberculated and granulated. The larger tubercles are somewhat spiniform, and are arranged as follows: Five on the gastric region, of which four are placed in a transverse line across the middle, and one, larger than the others, on the median line behind them; three in a longitudinal row on the cardiac region; one each side of the intestinal, far apart; five on each branchial, and one on the hepatic region. From the central cardiac, and from each hepatic tubercle, proceeds on each side a row of granules, forming a V. Antero-lateral margin behind the hepatic region armed with six very small teeth, beneath and behind the posterior one of which there is a short tooth-like crest. The rostrum, though smaller in size, resembles that of L. Pourtal sii in having a slender extremity, but instead of two denticles near the tip, it has two or three denticles near the basal teeth. There are two prominent teeth on the outer side of the orbit, and a minute spine at the summit of the eye. On the sternum, near the base of the chelipeds, there is a conical tubercle on each side. Tooth of the basal joint of the cheliped acutely triangular. On the second joint of the abdomen there is a sharply prominent, bluntly triangular transverse crest, and a tooth on each side; and on the penult joint there is a crest like that of the second joint, but smaller.

The chelipeds are very long and slender; upper surface minutely scabrous, and with an irregular row of tooth-like tubercles which is median on the meros and carpus, but approaches the outer margin in the hand. Edges of the meros and carpus with numerous small irregular teeth. On the inner (superior) edge of the hand there are nineteen teeth, increasing somewhat regularly in size to a point near the anterior extremity, where they gradually diminish again. On the outer edge of the hand there are four or five large and about eleven small teeth alternating by threes with the larger ones. The fingers are white in color, and not so much bent downwards as is usual in the genus. Ambulatory feet long, slender, naked, and unarmed, or with only obscure indications of teeth on the meros-joint.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.45; breadth, 0.50; proportion, t: 1.14; length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.55 inch.

In a male specimen of what is probably a variety of this species, dredged off Conch Reef, the hands are shorter than in the typical form, and the rostrum is not narrowed toward the extremity, and is devoid of marginal teeth. These differences are certainly important ones, but the specimen accords so well with the type in all other characters that I can searcely believe it to be distinct.

The species has some resemblance to L. mediterraneus Roux, but differs in the smaller and less numerous marginal teeth of the carapax, and in the unarmed ambulatory feet.

Off the Marquesas,	February 10, 1869.	Cast No. 3.	40 fathoms.
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 7.	40 "
Off Conch Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 1.	40 "
Off Conch Reef,	May 11, 1869.	Cast No. 3.	49 "

#### Solenolambrus nov. gen.

This name is proposed for a well-defined group of Parthenopidae, allied to *Lambrus*, of which I have before me three species, the only ones as yet known, all of which are new to science.

The carapax is pentagonal, and more or less broader than long. The posterior side of the pentagon is much the shortest, and the other four sides are about equal. The margin is acute on all sides, forming a slight crest. The upper surface is naked, glossy, strongly convex, and bears four protuberances, one gastric, one cardiac, and two branchial. The gastric and cardiac protuberances are more or less triangularly pyramidal, and the branchial protuberance is armed with an acute ridge, running obliquely to the postero-lateral margin of the carapax. The frontal region is slightly convex, and there is no protuberance on the orbital region. The rostrum is short and blunt, or faintly tridentate. The orbits are round, with the upper margin entire and smooth. The basal joint of the external antennae is about as long as the next joint; it may be either longer or shorter. The epistome is concave. From the antero-external angle of the buccal area a sharp, elevated, crenulated ridge extends to the outer base of the cheliped, separating the concave pterygostomian from the subhepatic

region, which is also concave and channel like. When retracted, the extremity of the hand of the cheliped covers the pterygostomian region, forming the afferent passage. The external maxillipeds fit accurately the buccal area, and closely against each other within, and the exognath is concave, forming part of the wall of the afferent channel, which is defined within by a slight clevated ridge on the outer side of the ischium of the endognath; the meros-joint has a prominent antero-external angle, and its surface is concave toward the antero-interior angle, and there is no notch for the insertion of the palpus, which, except at its origin, is concealed beneath the other joints of the endognath. The chelipeds resemble those of Lambrus, except that the fingers are very small, and the dactylus is generally at right angles with the palm when retracted. The terminal joints of the ambulatory feet are acuminate. The third, fourth, and fifth joints of the male abdomen are soldered together.

This genus differs from *Parthenope* and *Lambrus* in its naked, polished carapax, in the distinct definition of the afferent channels, and in the want of a notch in the meros-joint of the external maxillipeds for the reception of the palpus. As far as known, it is peculiar to the tropical portions of the American seas, species being found on both the east and the west coasts of the continent.

# Solenolambrus typicus nov. sp.

Carapax one eighth broader than long; posterior side considerably produced. Surface punctate. Protuberances of the gastrie and cardiac regions triangularly pyramidal, and acute, with the ridges forming the angles crenulated; one of the ridges, the posterior, is in the median line of the carapax, and the other two diverge from each other in front. The cardiae pyramid is symmetrical, each of its triangular sides being equal; while the gastric protuberance is not symmetrical, the posterior ridge being a short, steep slope, and the two anterior ridges being long, and enclosing a gradual, somewhat convex slope toward the front. The ridge of the branchial region is also crenulated, and is bent at the middle at an obtuse angle, almost a right angle. In the male each of the protuberances of the carapax is surmounted by an acute spine, while in the female the apical angles are not thus acute. The margin of the carapax is more or less distinetly crenulated, especially the antero-lateral margin, at the outer or posterior end of which there are three small but distinct teeth. The antero-lateral margin is concave anteriorly and convex posteriorly. The posterior margin is straight, with the lateral angles sharply defined, and even spiniform in the male. Eyes rather large, with a minute tubercle on the anterior side of the extremity. Basal joint of the external antennae somewhat longer than the next joint.

Epistome of moderate length. On the subhepatic region, near the afferent ridge, and parallel to it, there is a slight supplementary ridge. External maxillipeds naked; ischium with the outer ridge tuberculated, and a few tubercles on the surface near the extremity; external angle of meros very strongly prominent. On the sternum between the bases of the chelipeds there are two small tubercles, one on either side of the median line. Chelipeds long, naked, with the exception of some inconspicuous setae on the crest of the hand; meros with denticulated margins, and with the surface smooth and glossy above, except at the inner or posterior extremity, where there are three or four small tubercles, and at the outer extremity, where there is a granulated protuberance; earpus with five denticulated erests; hand trigonous, with ten strong, regular, equal teeth on the superior crest, twelve small, granulated teeth on the onter margin, and fifteen teeth, increasing regularly in size toward the extremity, on the lower margin; upper surface of the hand with two rows of tubercles and two or three scattered ones between the rows; lower surface with three rows of tubercles, those of the middle row minute and obsolescent toward the extremity; inner surface glabrous at the middle, and with a row of tubercles close to either margin, and a few scattered ones near the fingers. All the tubercles of the surfaces of the hand are ornamented with granules, from two to five in number. Fingers very small and slender, one fifth as long as the palm; dactylus when retracted placed almost at a right angle with the palm. Ambulatory feet compressed, naked, polished, with a laminiform crest above; the meros of the posterior pair having a crest below also, which has a lobe-like expansion at the inner extremity. Abdomen tuberculated on the sides; that of the male not parrowed at the third joint and very little tapering.

Dimensions of a female specimen: Length of carapax, 0.45; breadth, 0.50 inch; proportion, 1:1.11; length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.41; length of hand, 0.50 inch.

Off the Samboes, May 9, 1868. Cast No. 5. 80 fathoms.

Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869. Cast No. 6. 88

Off Alligator Reef, May 8, 1869. Cast No. 8, 410

## Solenolamb us tenellus nov. sp.

This species is much smaller than the preceding, and more delicate and fragile in appearance. The carapax is but little shorter than broad, and about equally produced in front and behind beyond the line of the lateral angles. Surface rather coarsely punctate. Protuberances of the carapax much less prominent than in the other species; those of the gastric and cardiac regions obtusely rounded, without angular ridges; ridge of branchial region sufficiently well marked near the postero-lateral margin,

but almost obsolete anteriorly. Margins of carapax erenulated, the teeth being most distinct on the flattened, expanded, and broadly rounded lateral angle, where they are about six in number, not crenulated, and but little projecting, being defined chiefly by the impressed lines on the marginal limb. On the hepatic region there are two or three denticulated teeth. Postero-lateral margin slightly coneave. Posterior margin convex; its lateral angles obtuse. Rostrum rather prominent and faintly tridentate at the extremity; median tooth smallest and most prominent. angle of orbit not prominent. Eve large, with a very minute tubercle at the summit. In the external antennae the basal joint is about equal to the next in length. Subhepatic region less concave than in S. typicus, and without any supplementary ridge. External maxillipeds and afferent channels nearly as in S. typicus, but with the ridges less strongly tuberonlated, and with the outer angle of the meros-joint less acutely prominent. Sternum between the bases of the chelipeds convex on either side, but not tuberculated. Chelipeds very long and slender; edges denticulated, but with the surface between them smooth and polished; meros with about thirteen denticles on either edge, the third denticle from the outer extremity being larger than the others; hand with twelve sharp, forwardcurving teeth on the superior edge, the terminal tooth above the finger being spiniform and considerably longer than the others; outer edge of hand with about eleven obtuse, equal, less prominent, minutely erenulated teeth; inner edge with nineteen or twenty very minute teeth. Ambulatory feet naked and compressed, but without laminiform crests; merosjoint of the posterior pair slightly expanded below near the base. In the male the sternum and abdomen are smooth and glabrous; abdomen broad at the base and narrower at the third joint.

Dimensions of a male: Length of the carapax, 0.25; breadth, 0.27 inch; proportion, 1; 1.08; length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.29; length of hand, 0.32 inch.

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Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869.
                                   Cast No. 8.
                                                35 fathoms
Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869.
                                   Cast No. 7.
Off Conch Reef,
                  March 21, 1869. Cast No. 1, 40
Off French Reef,
                  March 21, 1869.
                                   Cast No. 2, 45
Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869.
                                   Cast No. 6. 48
Off Conch Reef,
                  May 11, 1869.
                                   Cast No. 3, 49
                                                      "
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#### Mesorhoea nov. gen.

This genus bears an almost exact resemblance to *Solenolambrus* in the form and armature of the earapax, the character of the feet, and that of the pterygostomian and hepatic channels, except that the latter are deeper. It differs, however, in the very important point that the affection

rent channels meet at the middle of the endostome, which has there a triangular projection, and a deep notch in its vertical, laminiform wall. The meros-joint of the external maxillipeds is acutely produced forward at its internal angle, and behind it the palpus is entirely concealed. The epistome is very short. The eyes are small, and may be retracted into their deep sockets so as to be almost entirely concealed. The basal joint of the external antennæ is somewhat shorter than the next joint.

The remarkable form of the endostome and external maxillipeds in this genus indicates an approach to the oxystomatous crabs, to which the Parthenopidae show, indeed, considerable resemblance in other respects.

# Mesorhoea sexpinosa nov. sp.

Carapax one fifth broader than long, and about equally produced in front and behind beyond the line of the lateral angles. Surface punctate and inconspicuously pubescent. Protuberances of the gastric, cardiae, and branchial regions strongly angular, each surmounted by a three-sided spine, the spine of the branchial region being situated on the postero-lateral margin, of which it forms a projection. The angles or ridges are more or less crenulated. The lateral edges of the gastric protuberance are continued forward nearly to the front, becoming parallel shortly after diverging from the spine. The eardiac spine is more slender than the others, and its posterior edge is nearly vertical. The branchial ridge is nearly straight. Between the protuberances and ridges the surface is more or less regularly concave, the sides of the protuberances being not swollen. The rostrum is short. The margins of the earapax are sublaminiform and almost entire, the normal crenulation being indicated only by faint impressed lines on the limb. Microscopic n tches may, however, be detected on the antero-lateral margin, which is slightly convex toward the lateral angle. Postero-lateral margin coneave. Posterior margin about half as long as the postero-lateral, convex at the middle, and terminating on either side in a slight tooth. Afferent channels deep, separated from the subhepatic channels by a very thin and sharp, prominent, ciliated lamina, and defined on the inner side by the ciliated outer edge of the ischium of the external maxillipeds. From the anterior angle of the buecal area a short ridge extends to the middle of the inner tooth of the orbit, which ridge separates the concavity of the epistome from that of the subhepatic region. Meros-joint of the external maxillipeds with two tubercles on the surface, one towards the postero-exterior angle, the other close to the antero-exterior angle; anterior margin of the joint deeply concave or notched. Chelipeds short, pubescent, especially on the toothed edges; surface between the edges smooth; on the basal joint below there is a strong, triangular, pyramidal spine, nearly as large as the dorsal spines of the carapax; margins of the meros crenulated with six or seven small teeth on either edge; carpus flattened above, with two strong, crenulated crests, the outer one of which bears a larger, spiniform tooth at the middle: hand with an elevated, nine-toothed superior crest and eleven-toothed outer margin; fingers very small; dactylus at right angles with palm—Ambulatory feet much compressed; antepenult and penult joints with a laminiform crest above; meros-joint of the posterior pair with a slight crest below. Abdomen glabrous.

Of this species there is but one specimen — a female — in the collection; in which the length of the carapax is 0.32; the breadth, 0.39 inch. The length of the hand is 0.28 inch.

The specimen was taken in 11 fathoms, four miles southwest of Loggerhead Key.

#### SUBFAMILY CRYPTOPODHNAE.

## Cryptopodia concava nov. sp.

Carapax subpentagonal, greatly expanded posteriorly, the posterior margin, which is nearly straight, equalling the entire width; lateral margins short; antero-lateral margins slightly convex. Rostrum triangular. The gastric region is protuberant, and from its summit a sharp, crenulated ridge or raised line passes on either side to the postero-lateral angle, enclosing a concave, triangular space. The surface between this ridge and the antero-lateral margin is also concave. The entire upper surface of the carapax, the ridges excepted, is smooth and shining. The margins are crenulated with small teeth, the furrows separating which extend for some little distance inward, giving the indentations the appearance of being much deeper than they really are. The teeth themselves are minutely granulated. External maxillipeds smooth, glabrous; merosjoint triangular, with the external angle very acutely projecting, and the internal angle without a notch for the insertion of the palpus, the first joint of which is indurated, with a projecting tooth at its extremity.

Chelipeds flattened as in *C. fornicata*, but with the meros-joint narrower, the carpus smaller, and the hand convex below; fingers slender, curved. Ambulatory feet crested; crest of meros spinulose above and below. Transverse crest of sternum bilobed, each lobe being three-toothed, and in the same line with a tooth on the basal joint of the cheliped, which belongs also to this crest, which forms the margin of the concave and perpendicular front of the sternum.

The dimensions of the only specimen found — a young female — are as follows: Length of earapax, 0.32; breadth, 0.43; proportion, 1:1.34;

length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.22; length of hand, 0.26; breadth of hand, 0.12 inch.

The specimen was taken off Conch Reef in 34 fathoms.

#### CANCROIDEA.

#### FAMILY CANCRIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY XANTHINAE.

#### Actaea nodosa STM.

Actaeu nodosa Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 75. Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 25.

Dredged January 16, 1869, west of the Tortugas, in 35 and 37 fathoms.

# Actaea setigera STM.

Xantho setiger H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 390.

Actaea setigera Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 51. A. Milne-Edwards, Nouv. Arch. du Museum d'Hist. Nat., I, 271; pl. xviii, fig. 2.

Found on the Reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba.

# Carpoporus nov. gen.

Carapax subhexagonal, nearly as long as broad; antero-lateral margin armed with three small teeth (in a line which conducts beneath the orbit anteriorly), and drawn in posteriorly, the greatest breadth of the carapax being at the middle tooth; postero-lateral shorter than the posterior margin; facial region very broad; front prominent. Orbit circular, without teeth below, except two or three minute spiniform denticles on the margin; fissures of outer and inferior margins obsolete. Basal joint of the external antennæ narrowing forwards, reaching the front, and passing well into the hiatus of the orbit, nearly as in *Eucanthus*, movable part of the antennæ very small. Chelipeds, when retracted, having a large hole between the carpus and hand above for the passage of water to the afferent branchial apertures. Third, fourth, and fifth joints of the abdomen in the male soldered together; terminal joint as broad as long.

This genus differs from *Xantho* in its external antennae; from *Euxanthus* in the narrowness of the carapax; from *Polycremnus* in its five-jointed male abdomen; and from *Halimede* and *Medaeus* in the want of conspicuous fissures and teeth on the margin of the orbit.

It is very peculiar in the perforation of the retracted chelipeds, recalling a similar perforation of the chelipeds of *Echinocerus foraminatus*, in which, however, it occurs between the carpus and meros.

## Carpoporus papulosus nov. sp.

Carapax naked above, areolated; areolets protuberant, somewhat wart-like, and granulated; gastric and frontal regions very prominent. Lateral teeth small, spiniform; their interstices armed with denticles, two or three in number. Front strongly projecting at the middle, and bilobed; margin of lobe concave. Peduncle of the eye granulated, and with a few minute spines at the summit. Orbit with the margin minutely crenulated with granules, with a slight fissure near the middle of the superior margin, and with two spiniform teeth below near the outer side. Outer maxillipeds armed in front and along the inner edges with small but strongly prominent tubercles. The carpus and hand of the chelipeds are sculptured externally with granulated protuberances, which on the hand are arranged in four or five longitudinal rows; hand serrated above with four teeth; fingers short, less than half the length of the palm. Ambulatory feet hairy below; penult and antepenult joints armed above with two rows of short, stout spines.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.25; breadth, 0.31 inch; proportion, 1: L24.

S. W. of the Tortugas, January 18, 1869. Cast No. 1. 25 fathoms. Off Carysfort Reef, March 31, 1869. Cast No. 1. 52 "

# Micropanope nov. gen.

The generic group now for the first time described is nearly allied to Panopeus, and also shows some resemblance to Pdumnus. As in the latter genus, the species are among the smallest of Cancroid forms, and live in deep or moderately deep water. As far as I am aware they are never truly littoral like the Panapei. Species of the genus occur in the warmer seas of both sides of the American continent.

The carapax is rather narrow, with the antero-lateral margin short and the front broad. As in *Panopeus*, there are five teeth on the antero-lateral margin, but the second tooth is coale-seed with the scarcely prominent angle of the orbit, and the posterior tooth is minute; so that only two of the teeth are prominent, arming the carapax at its antero-lateral angle. The external hiatus of the orbit is reduced to a simple emargination. The basal joint of the external antennæ is short, but meets a process from the front. The endostome is usually marked on either side by a slight ridge, which does not, however, extend to the anterior margin. The hand in the chelipeds is large, with rather long fingers, bent to an angle with the palm, so that the lower margin of the hand is rather deeply concave.

# Micropanope sculptipes nov. sp.

Carapax naked, distinctly areolated; anterior and antero-lateral areolets somewhat roughened in front with small, sharp, tooth-like tubercles. Antero-lateral teeth sharp and denticulated; the posterior one nearly obsolete. Frontal lobes little projecting, but with a convex outline; margin minutely crenulated, and defined by a slight furrow following it above. A small tubercle on the subhepatic region beneath the second antero-lateral tooth. Chelipeds granulated above; carpus with a sharp tooth and denticulated margin within, and with the granules arranged in reticulating lines; hand with a double denticulated crest, and with the minute granules of the outer surface showing a tendency to arrangement in rows; these granules become obsolete toward the base of the thumb or propodal finger. Ambulatory feet armed with minute spines above, which form two rows on the carpal joint.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.13; breadth, 0.17 inch; proportion, 1:1.30.

It was taken at the following localities and depths: —

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February 10, 1869. Cast No. -. 15 fathoms.
Off the Marquesas,
Off Carysfort Reef,
                      March 21, 1869.
                                          Cast No. 8, 35
                                          Cast No. 6, 35
West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869.
                                          Cast No. 12, 42
                                                              66
West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869.
                                          Cast No. 2, 45
                      March 21, 1869.
Off French Reef,
                      March 21, 1869.
                                          Cast No. 5, 60
                                                              16
Off Carysfort Reef,
West of the Tortngas, January 16, 1869.
                                          Cast No. 13, 68
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# Chlorodius dispar nov. sp.

Carapax transversely oval, very broad, convex, smooth, polished, sparsely punctate in front, and searcely at all arcolated, the only depressions at all conspicuous being those at the antero-lateral corners of the gastric region, partly defining the protogastric lobes. Antero-lateral margin almost entire, the posterior two of the five normal teeth only being distinguishable. Orbits entire, above and below. Front straight, slightly notehed, but not at all prominent at the middle; margin furrowed. Chelipeds very unequal, the right one in both specimens under observation being much larger than the other; they are naked, smooth, and polished; fingers a little more than half as long as the palm, scarcely gaping, and but little excavated at the tips. Ambulatory feet compressed, hairy above.

Colors: Carabax, dark brown; chelipeds, dark reddish; fingers, black; greater hand with one or two white spots on the outer side between the bases of the fingers.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.18; breadth, 0.26 inch; proportion, 1:1.44.

This species approaches somewhat *C. levissimus* Dana, of the Sandwich Islands, but differs from that and all other known species in its smooth, oval, convex carapax and the obsolescence of the antero-lateral teeth.

Found on the reef at Crnz del Padre, Cuba; two specimens, a male and a female.

#### FAMILY ERIPHHDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY OZINAE.

#### Pilumnus aculeatus H. M.-Epw.

Cancer acultatus SAY, Jour. Acad. Nat. Sei., Philad., I, 449.

Pilumnus aculeatus II. Milne-Edwards, in Guerin, Iconog. dn Règne Anim., Crust., pl. iii, fig. 2; and Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 420. Gibbes, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 177.

A young specimen of this species was collected at the Tortugas. I find no note of the depth of water at which it was taken.

#### Pilumnus caribaeus Desb. et Schr.

Pilumnus caribacus Desbonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Gnadaloupe, p. 32.

The specimens which I have referred to the above species differ from *P. aculeatus* in having the anterior spine of the three principal ones of the antero-lateral margin bifid, and in the shorter and more numerous spines of the frontal margin.

Found on the reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba, and at Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

# Pilumnus floridanus nov. sp.

This species belongs to the same group with *P. aculeatus*, and bears a close resemblance to it. It differs in its narrower earapax, which is covered with a dense, short pubescence, with a few longer hairs, a transverse series of which, across the frontal region, forms a somewhat conspicuous feature. Below the ciliated line, the frontal region is naked, and its margin is unarmed; its lobes are not strongly and evenly projecting as in *aculeatus*, but are most prominent within, near the median sinus. The orbits are unarmed above, but have eight or ten spiniform teeth on the margin below, which teeth are far shorter than in *aculeatus*. The subhepatic tooth or tubercle is small and inconspicuous, and the surface of the subhepatic region is not perceptibly granulated. There are no spines on the hepatic region above. In the chelipeds the entire outer surface of the greater hand is tuberculated. The ambulatory feet are armed with spines as in *aculeatus*.

Dimensions of a female specimen: Length of carapax, 0.22; breadth, 0.30 inch; proportion, 1:1.36.

Found at the Tortugas.

## Pilumnus lacteus nov. sp.

Closely allied to *P. gemmatus* Stm. (Notes on North American Crustaeea, p. 86), and like that species covered with a whitish or cream-colored, velvet-like pubescence. It differs in the more spiniform shape of the antero-lateral teeth of the carapax, in the less numerous tubercles on the carapax and chelipeds, in the want of tubercles on the superior margin of the orbit, and in the smooth, glabrous outer surface of the hands, which is light red in color. The lobes of the front also are more triangular and pointed.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.31: breadth, 0.44 inch; proportion, 1:1.42.

Found on the reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba, and at Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

## Pilumnus Agassizii nov. sp.

Carapax convex, and with the anterior two thirds deeply areolated; areolets protuberant. Surface pubescent everywhere, except on the anterior and antero-lateral arcolets, which are naked and thickly granulated. The depressions between the protuberant areolets are broad, occupying fully as much space as the areolets themselves. Two of the areolets form the lobes of the front, which are as large and prominent as the epigastric lobes, or even larger. The frontal surface is vertical, and not much projecting, but the lobes are deeply separated from each other and from the orbits. Orbital region protuberant and granulated: margin not toothed, but crenulated with granules, and marked by two fissures above and two less conspicuous ones below. The antero-lateral margin behind the orbit is armed with three triangular, acute, equal teeth of moderate size. Subhepatic tooth distinct. Chelipeds stout, short, and thick; carpus covered above with granulated tubercles which are confluent exteriorly, forming transverse ridges; hand covered above and on the outer side with small but prominent mammillary tubercles, having their apices Ambulatory feet pubescent and hairy; penult and pointing forwards. antepenult joints armed with minute spines above.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.65; breadth, 0.83 inch; proportion, 1:1.28.

This species has some little resemblance to *P. gemmatus*, but the protuberances of the carapax are densely granulated instead of sparsely tuberculated.

It was taken in from 5 to 7 fathoms between East and Middle Keys, Tortugas, and East of the Tortugas in 13 fathoms.

# Pilumnus nudifrons nov. sp.

Body and feet everywhere pubescent above, except on the frontal and orbital regions. Carapax about seven eighths as long as broad, much narrowed posteriorly, convex; regions slightly defined and not protuberant: surface beneath the pubescence punctate and sparsely roughened with scattered tubercles variable in size, and most numerous on the gastric and hepatic regions. Frontal and orbital regions continuous, without any teeth or spines, forming a prominent, wide, naked, minutely granulated anterior border to the carapax, made more distinct by a channel-like depression which separates it from the rest of the surface. On this border there are no sinuses at the junction of the front and orbits, and the median emargination of the straight or slightly convex frontal outline is very slight. At the outer angle of the orbit the border is continued for a short distance posteriorly, on the antero-lateral margin. Beyond this the antero-lateral margin is nearly parallel to the axis of the body, and armed with three small triangular teeth. Orbital margin below entire, and smooth, without fissures or teeth, with the exception of the usual large tooth forming the inner angle. The subhepatic tooth is distinct, forming part of an irregularly denticulated or granulated ridge, which extends from the posterior extremity of the anterior border of the carapax to the anterior angle of the buccal area. The basal joint of the external antennae is small, and the space between it and the frontal projection is almost equal to its own length. Chelipeds very short and stout, armed above and on the outer side with roughened tubercles like those of the carapax. On the superior margin of the hand there are three strongly projecting teeth.

Dimensions of a female specimen: Length of the carapax, 0.41; breadth, 0.49 inch; proportion, 1:1,195.

Only two specimens of this species were taken, both females. They occurred at the depths of 111 and 125 fathoms, off Sombrero Key.

# Pilumnus granulimanus nov. sp.

This is a small species, in which the carapax is rather short and broad, naked, areolated and granulated in front, and smooth posteriorly. The granulation is especially conspicuous on the hepatic regions. Anterolateral margin minutely denticulated, and armed with four small, equal, acute, triangular teeth, besides the angle of the orbit. At the penult tooth a short granulated ridge extends inwards on the surface of the

carapax. The antero-lateral margin in these characters resembles that of Xantho and Panopeus rather than that of the ordinary Pilumni. The subhepatic region is granulated, and bears a minute tooth beneath the interval between the angle of the orbit and the next marginal tooth. Orbit with a distinct notch beneath the outer angle; margins otherwise entire, above and below. Front somewhat deflexed, very little projecting; margin unarmed and profoundly notehed at the middle. The basal joint of the external antennae falls considerably short of reaching the front. There is no ridge on the endostome. Feet setose; greater cheliped less setose than the rest; carpus and hand covered externally and above with small, subequal granules, regularly crowded, and diminishing in size below; carpus with two minute, sharp teeth at the inner angle. Ambulatory feet with a few minute, short spines along the superior edge. Color yellowish, marbled with red.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.18 inch; breadth, 0.25 inch; proportion, 1:1.38.

A male and a female of this species were found on the reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba.

# Melybia nov. gen.

Carapax broad, subquadrate; front rather depressed, very broad; antero-lateral margin short, only one third as long as the postero-lateral, and armed with three or four teeth. Basal joint of the external antenna occupying the hiatus of the orbit, firmly soldered, and reaching a process of the front. External maxillipeds very narrow, widely gaping; exognath half the width of the endognath. Feet all spinulose; chelipeds rather large, even in the female; ambulatory feet long, slender, and compressed.

This genus is closely allied to *Melia*, but differs therefrom in its broader earapax, three-toothed antero-lateral margin, firmly soldered basal-joint of the external antennæ, broader exognath of the external maxillipeds, and spinulose feet. It has somewhat the appearance of a *Thalamita*.

# Melybia thalamita nov. sp.

Carapax somewhat convex, slightly pubescent; surface nearly smooth and even; regions faintly defined. Antero-lateral margin three-toothed (the little-prominent angle of the orbit not included); teeth spiniform, pointing forward, the anterior one longest, the posterior one minute. Front bilobed; margin of the lobes nearly straight. Orbit with two fissures above, and one below near the outer side; margins smooth or minutely crenulated. Subhepatic region minutely granulated. In the chelipeds the meros-joint is spinulose along the upper ædge, and armed with two slender spines on the inner edge; earpns with four or five spines

on the upper side, the spine at its summit being the longest one on the chelipeds; hand oblong, with two longitudinal rows of spines on the upper edge; fingers two thirds as long as the palm. Ambulatory feet sparsely hairy; meros armed with spines along the upper edge, and with one spine below near the extremity; dactyli nearly as long as the penult joint.

Dimensions of a female specimen: Length of carapax, 0.25; breadth, 0.36 inch; proportion, 1:1.44.

In a variety (?) of the species, dredged, as stated below, in 42 fathoms, the carapax and feet are naked.

Off French Reef, April 3, 1869. Cast No. 1. 15 fathoms. West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 7. 35 "West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 8. 37 "West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 12. 42 "

#### SUBFAMILY ERIPHIINAE.

# Eriphia gonagra H. M.-EDW.

Cancer gonagra Fabr., Ent. Syst., II, p. 460. Suppl. Ent. Syst., p. 337.

Eriphia gonagra H. MILNE-EDWARDS, Hist. Nat. des Crust., I, 426, pl. xvi, figs. 16 and 17. GIBBES, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 177.
DANA, U. S. Expl. Exped., Crust., I, 250. STIMPSON, Notes on North American Crust., p. 89. SMITH, Trans. Conn. Acad. Arts and Sciences, II, 7.

Dredged at Key West, in from two to five fathoms.

# Domecia hispida Soul.

Domecia hispida Souleyet, Voyage au Pole Sud., pl. vi, figs. 3, 7. Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 90.

Of this species I find three lots of specimens, labelled as follows: -

Florida Reefs, in shallow water. Reef at Eastern Dry Rocks, littoral. Reef at Cruz del Padre, Cuba.

#### FAMILY PORTUNIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY PORTUNINAE.

#### Bathynectes nov. gen.

Very near *Portunus*,\* but differing in its antero-lateral teeth, which are not like those of a saw, but are somewhat spiniform, and separated by

\* By Portunus the typical forms are meant, P. puber, corrugatus, etc. P. holsatus (marmoreus) should be separated generically; it is quite distinct in its external max-VOL. 11. 10 considerable intervals. The front, also, has no median tooth, and the hiatus of the orbit is widely open, not being filled by the basal-joint of the external antennæ, which is narrow, and firmly soldered anteriorly to the process of the front. The meros-joint of the external maxillipeds is as broad as long, and does not project anteriorly, but fits accurately to the anterior edge of the buccal area. The ambulatory feet are very slender; those of the first pair much shorter than those of the second; second and third pairs very long, the third longest; fourth pair two thirds as long as third.

# Bathynectes longispina nov. sp.

The following description is that of a male: Body naked; feet also naked, except the posterior ones, which are ciliated, as usual. Carapax subhexagonal, with a granulated and uneven surface. A well-defined ridge crosses the middle, connecting the lateral spines; while a shorter ridge crosses the cardiac, and another, interrupted at the middle, the gastric region. Antero-lateral margin armed with five sharp, spiniform teeth, including the angle of the orbit; the posterior tooth or spine being three times as long as the others, and more than one third as long as the width of the carapax, excluding the spines; first (anterior) two teeth broader and less spiniform than the others; third and fourth teeth very acute and a little longer than the distance between their bases. Front prominent, four-toothed; the middle two teeth being smaller than, and projecting a little beyond, the two lateral ones. Orbit with two open fissures above and one below; besides which, below, there is a simus beneath the outer angle, and a broader one, with a denticulated margin, next the inner tooth. From the base of this inner tooth of the orbit a small projecting lobe crosses the bottom of the hiatus of the orbit and reaches the basal joint of the antenna. This joint is oblong in form, and bears a crest or carina along the outer side, terminating anteriorly in a slight tooth. Flagellum of the outer antennæ more than half as long as the carapax. Chelipeds one half longer than the carapax; meros with a long spine on the inner edge, and a short one on the superior edge, both distant from the anterior extremity of the joint about one third its length; carpus with a very long spine at the inner angle, which spine is itself armed with two or three small teeth on the anterior edge, and with three

illipeds, the meros-joint of which is elongated, projecting considerably beyond the buccal margin; and the basal joint of the external antennæ is slightly movable; the carapax is naked; there is no elevated line on the surface of the terminal and penult joints of the posterior pair of ambulatory feet, and the first joint of the abdomen is almost entirely concealed beneath the carapax. For P. holsatus and its allies the name Liocarcinus is proposed.

other spines, and several spinuliform tubercles on the supero-exterior surface. Hand costate, there being three ridges on the outer, two on the upper, and one on the inner side; of the superior ridges, the outer one is armed with five spines, and the inner one is denticulated, with a long spine at the summit anteriorly; fingers nearly as long as the palm, and strongly toothed within, the teeth being four or five in number on each Ambulatory feet of the third pair two and a half times as long as the earapax. Colors: Body greenish; ambulatory feet white.

Dimensions: Length of carapax, 0.58; breadth, including the lateral spines, 1.10; excluding the spines, 0.68 inch; proportion of length to latter breadth, 1:1.17; length of third pair of ambulatory feet, 1.45 inch.

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      Off Sand Key,
      May 15, 1868.
      Cast No. -. 100 fathoms.

      Off Key West,
      April 21, 1869.
      Cast No. 5. 120 "

      Off American Shoal, May 8, 1868.
      Cast No. 3. 150 "
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## Bathynectes brevispina nov. sp.

This species greatly resembles the typical form in color and most other characters, but differs in the following important particulars: The earapax is more convex, and the transverse ridges are less prominent. The anterolateral teeth are much smaller and shorter, the second, third, and fourth teeth being only half as long as the distance between their bases, and the posterior tooth (lateral spine) equalling in length only one seventh the width of the carapax, excluding the spines.

The dimensions of the only specimen in the collection — a female — are: Length of carapax, 1.96; breadth, including the lateral spines, 2.95; excluding the spines, 2.40; proportion of length to latter breadth, 1:1.22.

The specimen was taken in 107 fathoms, off the Marquesas, February 11, 1869.

It was at first regarded as a large female of *B. longispina*, but the differences between the two forms are so much greater than is usual between the sexes in Portunidae, that I have preferred to consider them distinct, until the question can be decided by the acquisition of additional materials.

#### SUBFAMILY LUPINAE.

# Neptunus Sayi Stm.

Lupa pelagica Say, Jour. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philad., I, 97 (1817).

Lupa Sayi Gibbus, Proc. Am. Assoc. Adv. Sci., 1850, p. 178. Dana, U. S. Expl. Exped., Crust., I, 273, pl. xvi, fig. 8.

Neptums Sayi Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crustacea (1860), p. 92. A. Milne-Edwards, Arch. du Mus., X, 317, pl. xxix, fig. 2.

Found on Gulf weed, January 18, 1869.

#### Callinectes ornatus Ordway.

Callinectes ornatus Ordway, Monograph of the genus Callinectes (1861), p. 6.

Found at Key West in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

The Callinectes ornatus of Smith (Trans. Conn. Acad. of Arts and Sci. II, 8) is probably not the same as that of Ordway, as the Brazilian specimens are described as having the carapax deeply arcolated, which is not the case in specimens from the Florida coast.

# Acheloüs Ordwayi STM.

Acheloüs Ordwayi Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crustacea (1860), p. 96. Smith, Trans. Conn. Acad. of Arts and Sciences, II, 9.

Neptunus Ordwayi A. Milne-Edwards, Arch. du Muséum d'Hist. Nat., X, Add.

The carapax is everywhere granulated above, except on certain spaces about the middle. The depressed pubescent areas on the male abdomen are characteristic.

For the differences between this species and A. spinimanus and A. cruentatus, see the excellent description of Smith, referred to in the synonymy.

Dredged in from 5 to 7 fathoms between East and Middle Keys, Tortugas.

# Acheloüs spinicarpus nov. sp.

Carapax convex, and rendered uneven by granulated ridges and protuberances similar to those seen in all species of Acheloüs, but which are generally much less prominent than in the species under consideration. The branchial ridge (that extending inward from the lateral spine) is sinuous and strongly convex forward. The lateral spine is long, equalling in length two thirds that of the entire antero-lateral margin. The eight smaller teeth of the antero-lateral margin vary somewhat in size, the second, fourth, and sixth, counting from the front, being smaller than the others. Front moderately prominent, projecting slightly beyond the level of the outer angles of the orbit; teeth sharp, triangular, rather deeply cut, and about equal in size, but the median ones are more prominent than the outer ones. The postero-lateral angles of the carapax are armed with a slight tooth. In the chelipeds, the meros-joint is armed in front with four or five spines (usually four on one side and five on the other) and with one spine at the outer extremity. The inner spine of the carpus is very long, two thirds as long as the palm of the hand. The outer spine of the carpus is short. There is only one spine on the superior margin of the hand. There is no spine on the meros-joint of the posterior pair of ambulatory feet, but the margins of this joint are denticulated both above and below, most strongly so toward the extremities.

The abdomen of the male is naked, smooth, and polished, and the sternum is granulated.

Dimensions of an adult male: Length of carapax, 0.37; breadth, including spines, 0.81; excluding spines, 0.50 inch; proportion of length to latter breadth, 1:4.35. In a young male the length of the carapax is 0.25; breadth, including spines, 0.55; excluding spines, 0.34 inch.

This species is easily recognized among most of its congeners by its long carpal spines. From A. Ordwayi and A. tumidulus it is distinguished by the great length of the lateral spines.

Off the Tortugas,	January 4, 1868.	Cast No. 1.	13 fathoms
Off Carysfort Reef,	March 21, 1869.	Cast No. 7.	40 "
Off Conch Reef,	May 11, 1869	Cast No. 3.	49 "
Off Alligator Reef,	May 8, 1869.	Cast No. 3.	53 "
Off Pacific Reef,	May 13, 1869.	Cast No. 3.	60 "
Lat 31° 31′, Long. 79° 41′	, May 25, 1868.	Cast No. 1.	74 "
Off American Shoal,	May 8, 1868.	Cast No. 3.	150 "

# Acheloüs tumidulus nov. sp.

Carapax rather narrow, only one fourth broader than long, rather more convex than is usual in the genus, and somewhat protuberant about the middle and posteriorly. Posterior tooth of the antero-lateral margin (lateral spine) of moderate length, about as long as the space occupied by the three teeth next in front of it. Front prominent, projecting much beyond the level of the outer angles of the orbits, convex; teeth rounded. the two middle ones being smaller and most prominent, and separated from the lateral ones by a rather broad, shallow sinus. No notch on the orbital margin above the insertion of the external antenna. Meros-joint of the outer maxillipeds longer than broad. Chelipeds rather short: meros armed with three large and one small spine on the front edge; spine of the outer extremity of the posterior edge of the meros almost obsolete. Inner spine of the carpus long, reaching to the middle of the palm of the hand. There is only one spine on the superior margin of the hand. On the meros-joint of the posterior pair of ambulatory feet there is a denticulated extero-inferior margin, but no spine. The abdomen of the male is smooth and polished.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.20; breadth, including the lateral spines, 0.31; excluding the spines, 0.25 inch; proportion of length to latter breadth, 1:1.25.

This differs from most other American species heretofore described in the narrowness of the carapax and the prominence of the front. From A. Ordwayi it differs in the frontal teeth, which are not deeply ent.

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West of Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 8, 37 fathoms.
Off Couch Reef, March 21, 1869. Cass No. 1, 40, "
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# Achelous spinimanus De Haan.

Portunus spinimanus Latrelle, Encyc. Meth., X, 188.

Lupa spinimana Leach, in Desmanest, Considérat, sur les Crustacés, p. 98.
II. Milne-Edwards, Hist Nat. des Crust., I, 452.

Acheloüs spinimanus De HAAN, Fauna Japonica, Crust., p. 8. A. MILNE-EDWARDS, Arch. du Muséum d'Hist. Nat., N, 341, pl. XXXII. SMITH, Trans. Conn. Acad. of Arts and Sciences, 11, 9.

Taken in shallow water on the Florida coast.

# Achelous depressifrons STM.

Amphitrite depressifrons STIMESON, Notes on N. American Crustacea (1859), p. 12.

Achdoüs depressifrons STIMPSON, Notes on N. American Crustacea (1860), p. 95.

A. MILNE-EDWARDS, Arch. du Muséum d'Hist. Nat., X, 342.

Key West, in from two to five fathoms.

Two miles south of Rebecca Shoal, in ten fathoms.

#### OCYPODOIDEA.

## FAMILY CARCINOPLACIDAE.

In this family the base of the abdomen covers the entire width of the posterior extremity of the stermum.

## SUBFAMILY EURYPLACINAE.

The genus Eurypiax is the type of a group which differs from the usual forms of Carcinoplacidae (as Pseudorhombila, Eucrate, Pilumnoplax, and Heteroplax) in having the verges lodged in covered or closed canals, and in having the anterior corners of the posterior segment of the sternum exposed instead of being covered by the abdomen. The first joint of the abdomen is narrow and very little developed. The eyes are long and the antennae are excluded from the orbit by the internal suborbital lobe.

# Euryplax nitida STM.

Euryplax nitida Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crust., p. 14. Smith, Trans. Conn. Acad. of Arts and Sciences, II, 162.

The female, now for the first time described, differs remarkably from the male in its narrower and more convex carapax, in which the broadest part is at the second antero-lateral tooth. The outer angle of the orbit is very prominent, forming the largest tooth of the antero-lateral margin, the posterior tooth of which is the smallest; just the opposite of what occurs in the male. There is no pit on the meros-joint of the chelipeds. This pit would, therefore, appear to be a sexual character, belonging to the male.

In a young female specimen, probably of this species, which was dredged in forty-nine fathoms, and is less than two tenths of an inch in length, the posterior tooth of the antero-lateral margin is obsolete. The same thing occurs in a young male of about the same size from St. Thomas. In this young male the pits are already present on the meros of the chelipeds, but the shape of the carapax is like that of the female, and the internal sub-orbital lobe is much less developed than in the adult.

Key West, 2 to 5 fathoms.

Off Elbow Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 3. 49 fathoms.

### SUBFAMILY EUCRATOPSINAE.

In this group the vergal canals are closed, and the last joint of the sternum in the male is exposed at the anterior corners, as in the Euryphacinae; but the first joint of the abdomen is well developed, and is much broader than the second, reaching to the coxe of the posterior feet, which the second joint does not. The third joint of the abdomen is much wider than the second, but falls considerably short of the margins of the sternum. The third, fourth, and fifth joints are soldered together. Except in the passage of the verges through the sternum, the typical genus of this group (Eucratopsis) differs little from Panopeus.

# Panoplax nov. gen.

This genus resembles *Panopens* in general appearance. The carapax is somewhat depressed, and much broader than long. Antero-lateral margin short, with three teeth (not including the angle of the orbit, which is not prominent), and a slight emargination indicating the fifth, or posterior tooth, which, being placed within as well as behind the prominent fourth tooth, belongs more properly to the postero-lateral margin. Facial region narrow; eyes short; orbit rather small, with a slight hiatus beneath the outer angle. Antennae and outer maxillipe is as in *Panopeus*. Ambulatory feet compressed; dactyli but little longer than the penult joint.

It is very closely allied to *Eucratopsis* Smith (*Eucrate* D.ma), but differs in its broader and more depressed carapax, deflexed front, more clongated hands, etc.

# Panoplax depressa nov. sp.

Carapax faintly areolated, and smooth and naked above. Third and fourth antero-lateral teeth triangular, acute, and about equal in size, the third, however, being somewhat broader. Second antero-lateral tooth half as large as the third. Front deflexed, in a curve; lobes broadly convex, smooth. There is a slight, straight, acute transverse ridge crossing the frontal region just above the margin. Chelipeds rather large; carpus

with a small spine at the inner angle; hand compressed, smooth. Ambulatory feet pubescent, the daetyli in particular being covered with short hairs on all sides.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.28; greatest breadth, at tips of the fourth antero-lateral teeth, 0.43 inch; proportion, 1:1.54; length of ambulatory feet of the second pair, 0.60 inch.

Dredged between East and Middle Keys, Tortugas, in from 5 to 7 fathoms.

#### LEUCOSOIDEA.

## FAMILY CALAPPIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY CALAPPINAE.

# Cyclois Balguerii STM.

Mursia Balguerii Desbonne et Schramm, Crust, de la Guadeloupe, p. 52, pl. iv, fig. 20.

The specimens agree in all respects with the description and figure quoted, except in the proportions of the carapax, which is narrower than in the Guadaloupe specimens, being fully as long as broad.

Key West, 2 to 5 fathoms.

Between East and Middle Keys, Tortugas, 5 to 7 fathoms.

Off Orange Key, Bahamas, April 1, 1869. Cast No. 2. 9 fathoms.

Off the Tortugas, March 4, 1868. Cast No. - 13 "

Off Pacific Reef, May 13, 1869. Cast No. 1. 30 "
Off Carysfort Reef, March 24, 1869. Cast No. 8, 35 "

Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 8. 35 Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 7. 40

Off French Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 2. 45 "

# Acanthocarpus nov. gen.

Body regularly ovate, strongly convex in its antero-posterior dorsal outline. Carapax as broad as long, broadest in front. Antero-lateral continuous with the postero-lateral margin; the latter armed with a strong tooth at about the middle. Fronto-orbital region very broad, occupying more than half the width of the carapax. Eyes large. External maxillipeds not reaching to the anterior extremity of the buccal area; ischium truncate in front, without projecting at the inner angle, which, like the outer one, is a right angle; meros shorter and broader than the ischium, and narrowed in front, with the palpus attached at the autero-interior angle; exognath reaching to the tip of the meros. Chelipeds with a great spine on the carpus placed in a horizontal plane and pointing outward in a direction exactly transverse to the axis of the body. The ambulatory feet all have slender dactyli, as in Calappa and Mursia. This genus differs from Calappa in the want of lateral expansions of the carapax, and from Marsia in the want of lateral spines. From all the genera of the family hitherto described it differs in its great facial width.

# Acanthocarpus Alexandri nov. sp.

Carapax regularly convex, with uneven surface, the protuberances being arranged obscurely in five longitudinal rows anteriorly, the middle ones of which form centrally and posteriorly three conspicuous ridges, the lateral ridges terminating in the teeth of the postero-lateral margin. The surface is uniformly, but not thickly, covered with minute, equal granules, the interspaces between which are wider than the granules themselves. The posterior margin is regularly arcuate, and bears a slightly prominent tooth at the middle, and a slight wave in the outline on either side. The lateral margin is unarmed, except by two or three slight tuberculiform teeth near the orbit. The orbits are large, without fissures, except the inner superior one, which is itself nearly obsolete; orbital margin ciliated. The front is of moderate width, a little convex, but not toothed, and is separated from the orbit by its lateral angle simply, and not by any notch. The spine on the carpus of the cheliped is nearly half as long as the carapax; and above it, on the same joint, there is another spine, stouter, but only one fourth as long as the first. Both these spines are granulated. The hand is provided with a seven-toothed crest above, and another, oblique, six-toothed crest on the outer surface, extending from the base of the daetylus to the postero-inferior angle. On the latter crest the posterior tooth is largest, and forms by itself a short crest, separated from the other teeth by a considerable interval. Between the upper and lower crests of the hand there are four or five tubercles scattered upon the surface. Ambulatory feet naked, unarmed, with smooth polished surface.

Dimensions of a male: Length of earapax, 0.31 inch; breadth the same,

Off the Quicksands, January 23, 1869. Cast No. 2. 74 fathoms.

# Calappa marmorata FABR.

Cancer marmoratus Fabricius, Ent. Syst., II, 450 (1793).

Cancer flammens Herrist, Namerg. d. Krabben und Krebse, II, 161; pl. xl, fig. 2.

Calappa marmorata Fabricius, Suppl. Ent. Syst., p. 346. H. Milne-Edwards, Hist. Nat. des Crust., II, 104. Desnonne et Schramm, Crust. de la Guadeloupe, p. 51.

Found at Key West, in from 2 to 5 fathoms.

# Calappa galloides Stw.

Calappa galloides Stimpson, Notes on N. American Crustacea, p. 25.

Found at Key West, in 4 to 5 fathoms.

#### FAMILY MATUTIDAE.

The Matutidae may conveniently be divided into two subfamilies, Matutinae and Hepatinae. The latter group differs from the former in having a broader carapax, a narrow facial region, and short orbits and eyes.

#### SUBFAMILY HEPATINAE.

#### Osachila nov. gen.

This genus is allied to *Hepatus* in all essential characters, but differs considerably in the shape of the carapax, which is nearly as long as broad, and has the front much produced, so much so as to form a true rostrum in one species. The carapax is also more or less depressed and expanded at the sides, and its surface is very uneven, having six chief protuberances.

Species of this genus are found in the seas of both sides of Tropical America. The name is that of a Florida Cacique.

## Osachila tuberosa nov. sp.

Carapax somewhat octagonal, very slightly broader than long; surface very uneven, deeply pitted on the protuberances, and finely, densely punctate on the depressed parts. Three of the protuberances are on the gastric region, and correspond to the metagastric and progastric lobes, the protuberance of the latter being much the smallest, and continued anteriorly in the form of a slight-ridge in the furrow between the metagastric lobes, reaching, with the furrows, nearly to the frontal region. The cardiac protuberance is rounded and smaller than the metagastric ones. The mesobranchial lobes are strongly protuberant and larger than the metagastric, and there is a small, clongated, longitudinal protuberance between them and the cardiac protuberance. The front is projecting, and bilobed, with the lobes very obtuse and separated by a deep furrow. No protuberance on the concave hepatic region. Antero-lateral margin straight or slightly concave anteriorly, but quickly curving backward and becoming parallel to the axis of the body in the greater, posterior part of its length; it is armed with numerous small irregular teeth, and is pitted above like the protuberant parts of the carapax; and the posterior tooth, which forms part of the branchial protuberance, is larger than the others. Postero-lateral margin nearly straight, obtuse, rugose, and armed with two or three tuberculiform teeth, of which one, separated from the post-rior extremity of the carapax by a concavity, is the largest. Posterior extremity of the carapax narrow, with a rugose and much-thickened margin concealing the base of the abdoncen. Beneath, the entire surface of the carapax, maxillipeds, sternum, abdomen, and of the bases of the feet, is densely covered with rather large pits, giving it a vermiculated or reticulated appearance.

Chelipeds rather stont; outer surface strongly rugose with punctate tubercles and pits; hand with four teeth on the superior crest. Ambulatory feet (except dactyli) naked, compressed, and crested above and below; crest of meros-joint with a row of pits along the posterior side, giving it a plicated appearance; last three joints with another crest on the postero-superior surface; dactyli stout, densely pubescent below.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, 0.56; breadth, 0.59 inch; proportion, 1:1.054.

January 16, 1869. Cast No. 4. 36 fathoms. West of Toringas, Oil' Conch Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 1. 40 Off French Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 2. 45 Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 5. 60 West of Tortngas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 13. 68

#### FAMILY LEUCOSIDAE.

#### SUBFAMILY ILLHNAE.

No attempt has yet, I believe, been made to separate the Leucosidae into subfamilies. The existence of the group which I have here named Iliinae seems to be sufficiently well indicated by tangible characters, such as the long, slender chelipeds, and the two-notched extremity of the pterygostomian channel.

## Iliacantha nov. gen.

Closely allied to *Ilia*, but having three spines (one median) at the posterior extremity of the carapax, instead of four tuberculiform teeth. From *Persephona*, *Myra*, and other allied genera of Leucosidae, it differs in the peculiar conformation of the hands, which are twisted, so that the fingers open in a vertical instead of a horizontal plane.

The pterygostomian channels at their anterior extremities project considerably beyond the orbits. The abdomen in a young male, the only specimen of that sex I have seen, is seven-jointed, none of the joints being soldered together.

The species of *Ilia*, the nearest ally of this new genus, are confined to the Mediterranean Sea.

# Iliacantha subglobosa nov. sp.

Carapax subglobose, smoothly and evenly convex, and marmed, except at the posterior extremity, where there are three spines, similar in position to those of the species of *Myra* and *Persephona*, the middle one being long (equalling in length one seventh that of the carapax) and curved upward, and the lateral ones tlattened, triangular. The hepatic region is considerably swollen, but entirely unarmed, and is bounded posteriorly by a depres-

sion indicating the outer extremity of the cervical suleus, which is entirely obsolete in its median portion. The margin of the carapax is distinct and somewhat acute on the hepatic region, and on the anterior part of the branchial, as far as a slight angular projection, posterior to which it ceases to be defined. Surface of the carapax minutely granulated. Chelipeds in the female two and a half times as long as the carapax, excluding the spine, and minutely granulated; meros more sharply granulated than carpus and hand; fingers very slender, much longer than the palm, and armed within with needle-like teeth. Ambulatory feet very slender and smooth, those of the first pair reaching to the middle of the palm of the chelipeds; meros-joint as long as the terminal three joints taken together.

The above description is that of a female. In the male the carapax is less smoothly rounded above, the regions being faintly indicated, and the intestinal region protuberant above the base of the posterior spine.

Dimensions of a sterile female: Length of carapax, including the posterior spine, 0.63; breadth, 0.52; length of cheliped, 1.38 inch.

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Off Carysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 7. 40 fathoms
Off French Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 2. 45 6
Off Pacific Reef, May 13, 1869. Cast No. 3. 60 6
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# Iliaeantha sparsa nov sp.

Carapax oval; intestinal and hepatic regions only defined; surface sparsely granulated; granules scattered, sharply projecting, almost like short capitate spines; surface between the granules punctate, or, as near the margins, covered with smaller granules. Postero-lateral margin less convex than in I, subglobosa. Posterior spines large; lateral ones similar in shape to and more than one half as large as the middle spine. A spine on the hepatic region half as large as the lateral posterior ones. Depression between the frontal and gastric region very deep, giving great prominence to the facial projection; median sinus of front very deep; frontal teeth much projecting. External maxillipeds larger, more produced in front, and more coarsely granulated than in the preceding species; granules prominent, like those of the back of the carapax.

Dimensions of a sterile female: Length of carapax, posterior spine included, 0.30; breadth, 0.25 inch.

It is easily distinguished from I. subglobosa by its hepatic spine.

West of the Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 1. 30 fathoms.

# Myropsis nov. gen.

This genus differs from Myra, to which it is nearly allied, in its more globalar form, in having five instead of three posterior spines, in the want of the median and hepatic ridges, and in having the outer margin of the

exognath of the outer maxillipeds straight instead of curved. From *Hia* and *Hiacantha* it differs in its chelipeds, the fingers of which open in a horizontal plane. From *Persephona* it differs, among other characters, in the basal joint of the antennula, which is indurated and crested. The anterior extremity of the pterygostomian channel does not reach beyond the orbits. All the joints of the male abdomen are soldered together, except the terminal one.

The species of Myra, the nearest ally of the new genus, are all, as far as known, inhabitants of the East Indian and Australian seas.

# Myropsis quinquespinosa nov. sp.

Body and chelipeds everywhere granulated, above and below. Carapax subglobular, regularly and evenly convex, as in Iliacantha subglobosa: intestinal and cardiac regions only defined, and defined by rather deep furrows on either side; hepatic region not swollen; cervical sulcus obsolete; granules of the surface equal in size and distributed with great regularity, being distant from each other by a space equal in width to two or three times their diameter. Lateral margins of carapax regularly arched. Of the five posterior spines, the median one is situated on the intestinal region; the intermediate ones are but little smaller than the median one, and are placed at a lower level, occupying the postero-lateral angles of the carapax; the outer ones, placed on the branchial region over the insertion of the posterior feet, are small, only one third as long as the median spine. There is also a small spine at the middle of the lateral margin, and one on the hepatic region. The frontal teeth are obtuse, and not very prominent. Chelipeds cylindrical; meros more than two thirds as long as the carapax, and covered with granules as large as those of the carapax, but densely crowded; granules of hand smaller, but also densely crowded; fingers longer than the palm, and armed within with very minute and acute teeth varying in size. Ambulatory feet naked (except the daetyli), cylindrical, and partly microscopically granulated; those of the first pair one sixth longer than the carapax.

Dimensions of a male: Length of carapax, spines included, 0.72; breadth, 0.58; length of cheliped, 1.25 inch.

# Callidactylus nov. gen.

Carapax rounded, nearly as broad as long, regularly convex, except near the anterior margins; hepatic region well defined, protuberant, and toothed; posterior extremity armed with three spines, as in *Persephona*, etc. From short; basal joint of the antennals not indureted. Orbit

longitudinal, with three very distinct fissures on the outer side, which extend to the base of the orbital tube. Ptervgostomian channel much narrower than in Myra, strongly tridentate in front, and extending beyond the orbit. External maxillipeds sharply granulated; exognath with a convex outer margin, but much less dilated than in Myra; meros-joint of endognath with a concave outer surface. Chelipeds of moderate length; hand much longer than the meros; palm short, pyriform, much swollen within toward the base, and somewhat twisted, though less so than in Ilia, so that the fingers move in an oblique plane; fingers much longer than the palm, very thin and delicate, laminate, curving upward and inward toward the tips, serrated on the outer edge, and armed within with numerous needle-shaped teetly. Ambulatory feet naked (except the dactyli of the posterior pair, which are sparsely pilose); penult joint compressed, with a laminiform crest above and below; dactyli lanccolate, those of the first three pairs three-edged, those of the posterior pair two-edged and shorter and broader than the others.

In the female there is a deep, smooth channel on the outer maxillipeds, in the median line, between and on the ischium joints, defined on either side by a strong ciliated ridge. This channel does not exist in the male, and has doubtless something to do with the flow of the water which bathes the eggs or young in the abdominal cavity.

In the male, all the joints of the abdomen, except the terminal one, are soldered together.

The genus resembles Myrodes somewhat in the character of the fingers, but differs from it as well as from Myra and the allied genera in the want of an indurated erest on the basal joint of the antennulæ, and in the character of the dactyli of the ambulatory feet. From Persephona, etc., it differs in the convex outer margin of the exognath of the outer maxillipeds.

# Callidactylus asper nov. sp.

The following is a description of an adult female. Carapax convex in the middle and posteriorly, but somewhat depressed toward the anterior margins. The sulei separating the gastrie, cardiac, and intestinal from the branchial regions are easily traceable, as well as that between the cardiac and the gastrie; but there is none between the cardiac and the intestinal regions. The hepatic region is surrounded by rather profound depressions, and on its posterior part there is a strong tooth-like protuberance, occupying about one third its area. The upper surface of the carapax is ornamented with scattered, prominent granules, or short, capitate spinules, which become less prominent posteriorly and disappear altogether near the posterior extremity, where the surface is covered, with smaller and more crowded and depressed granules. On the lateral parts

of the branchial region the two kinds of granules are found together. In the median line there are three or four short blunt spines on the posterior part of the gastrie and the cardiac regions, the posterior one of which is rather remote from the others, and much larger than they, nearly as large as the median posterior spine. There is a strong, triangular tooth, pointing forward, on the subhepatic region, and a smaller tooth at the anterior extremity of the branchial region on the antero-lateral margin. On the postero-lateral margin there is also a small tooth, or short spine. The three posterior spines occupy the usual position (as in Persephona, Myra, etc.), and are short. The outer maxillipeds are granulated, like the upper surface of the carapax, and somewhat setose, the seta arising between the granules. The fourth, fifth, and sixth joints of the abdomen are soldered together: the surface is smooth and glossy about the middle, but there is a transverse tuberculated ridge on the fourth joint, and the sixth joint is sparsely granulated.

Of the male sex I have but one half-grown example. The carapax is rather broader and more depressed than in the female, and the granules are smaller, less numerous, and more scattered. The posterior spines are longer. The stermin and abdomen are evenly covered with minute, depressed, crowded granules.

Dimensions of a female specimen: Length of carapax, spine included, 0.70; breadth, 0.61; length of meros-joint of cheliped, 0.42; length of hand, 0.65 inch. In the young male the length of the carapax is 0.39; breadth, 0.65 inch.

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Lat. 24° N. Long., 83° W., January 22, 1868. Cast No. 3.—16 fathoms.
Off Carrysfort Reef, March 21, 1869. Cast No. 8.—35——"
West of Tortugas, January 16, 1869. Cast No. 8.—37——"
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#### SUBFAMILY EBALHNAE.

The genera Ebalia, Nursia, Lithadia, Orcophorus, Spelacophorus, etc., appear to form a natural group, to which the name Ebaliinae may be applied.

## Lithadia cadaverosa nov. sp.

The following description is that of a female, no males having occurred: Carapax broad, somewhat octagonal in shape, very little produced posteriorly, and very strongly convex; the branchial regions being more swollen than in any of the other known species of the genus, and occupying by far the greater portion of the carapax. These regions and the other protuberant parts of the carapax are more or less covered with depressed, often confluent granules, arranged in lines or groups with depressed spaces intervening, giving to the surface an eroded or vermiculated appearance.

The excavations between the regions are very deep, but those surrounding the cardiac region are broader and less abrupt than in other species of the genus; those surrounding the hepatic region and lying in front of the branchial are very narrow. In one of the two specimens there are several small, round, isolated tubercles in the depression between the cardiac and gastric regions; while in the other this space, as well as the entire gastric and part of the branchial region, is evenly covered with flat, translucent granules, giving the surface a finely reticulated appearance. The hepatic region is narrow, with a granulated ridge extending inward a short distance from the antero-lateral margin, which is here defined by a similar ridge. Behind the hepatic region, and separated from it by a deep transverse sinus below, there are on the margin two strong, triangular teeth pointing downward on the antero-lateral part of the branchial region. The posterior of these two teeth corresponds to the anterior lateral tooth of other species of the genus, but the tooth in front of it is the larger: the surface of both is flattened. The posterior lateral tooth of the branchial region is blunt. The intestinal region is broad, and the two marginal lobes are thickened, but very little projecting, and not at all dentiform. On the inferior surface of the branchial region there are one or two rows of small tubercles. The front is thick, the epistome and suborbital region ample, and the external maxillipeds bent nearly to a right angle in front, so that the anterior portion of the facial region is large and lies in a vertical plane. The frontal margin is slightly concave, but not notched. The chelipeds are rugose, with angular, granulated protuberances; meros not at all flattened, but nearly as thick as it is broad. Ambulatory feet armed above with short, thick spines, as in L. Cuningii: dactyli and penult joints somewhat setose. Color, bluish-white, with flake-white ridges and tubercles; frontal portion and feet, flesh-colored; a few blood-red spots on the abdomen and about the bases of the feet, particularly of the chelipeds,

Dimensions of the larger female: Length of carapax, 0.26; breadth, 0.30 inch

This crab is well protected by its general appearance, and with its feet retracted would scarcely be taken for a living object. It differs from *L. cariosa* in its broader and more convex carapax, and in the much less prominent lobes of the intestinal region.

West of Tortugas, January 16, 1869 - Cast No. 7, 35 fathoms. Off Couch Reef, March 21, 1869. - Cast No. 1, 40 - "

ACADEMY OF SCHENCES, CHICAGO, ILL., December 1st, 1870. No. 3.—On the Mammals and Winter Birds of East Florida, with an Examination of certain assumed Specific Characters in Birds, and a Sketch of the Bird-Faunæ of Eastern North America. By J. A. Allen.

### Introduction.

The present paper embraces five more or less distinct parts. The first consists of introductory remarks respecting the topographical, climatic, and faunal features of that part of the peninsula of Florida usually known as East Florida. The second is an annotated list of the mammals of this region. The third is devoted to a consideration of individual, seasonal, age and geographical variation among birds, with reference to certain characters commonly assumed to be specific. The fourth contains a list of the winter birds of East Florida, with field and revisionary notes. The fifth is given to an examination of the geographical distribution of the birds and mammals (more particularly of the birds) of Eastern North America, in which is considered the number of the natural faunæ of this region, their distinctive features and their boundaries.

The enumeration of the mammals and birds, forming Parts II and IV, is based partly on my own observations and partly on notes kindly furnished me by Messrs. C. J. Maynard and G. A. Boardman. These observations may be considered as equivalent collectively to the labors of a single observer constantly in the field for at least four or five winters.

My own observations were made during a three months' exploration of the country bordering the St. John's River, between Jacksonville and Enterprise, in the winter of 1868 and 1869, under the auspices of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. The greater part of January was passed at Jacksonville, where I also spent the last week of March. Five weeks were also passed in the vicinity of Enterprise, and the balance of the time at various intermediate points.

Mr. Maynard's explorations were made during the same winter, mainly in portions of the country unvisited by myself, a large part of his collection coming from the Upper St. John's and Indian Rivers. He also spent several weeks at Dummitt's, twenty miles south of New Smyrna. During most of December and January he collected

in the vicinity of Jacksonville, at which point one of his assistants, Mr. Charles Thurston, remained during April and a portion of May, collecting, among other things, the later arriving birds. Nearly all the birds and mammals collected by these gentlemen, and by Mr. J. F. Le-Baron, a third member of Mr. Maynard's party, have been added to the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, and are accompanied by measurements carefully taken before skinning.

Mr. Boardman's observations were continued through three successive winters, during which he spent considerable time at the following points: St. Augustine and Fernandina on the coast, Jacksonville, Green-Cove-Springs and Enterprise on the St. John's River. Although the numerous specimens he collected at these and intermediate points were presented by him to the Smithsonian Institution, I am indebted to him for an annotated manuscript list of the species he met with. I am also indebted to the Rev. Thomas Marey, who accompanied me on my Florida trip, for valuable assistance in collecting, and to Mr. J. E. Brundage for similar aid.

Having made use of the reports of previous visitors on the faunæ of this region, the following lists are believed to embrace all the species of mammals thus far known from East Florida, and all the birds regularly present in winter, of nearly all of which I have examined specimens from Florida. A few other birds not included in my list doubtless occasionally visit this region from the North, and others may linger here which usually pass the winter further south. In order to increase the value of the bird list as a faunal record, those species known to be resident throughout the year have been indicated by an asterisk (\*), and those known only as winter visitors by an obelisk (†). The date of the first appearance of the strictly spring visitors is also noted, so far as such arrivals were observed.

The specimens on which the investigations detailed in Part III are based, as well as the revisionary notes of Parts II and IV, are mainly those of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, which embrace, among others, nearly a thousand specimens of birds from Florida.\*

The topics discussed in Part III, namely, individual and climatic variation, necessarily involve the question of the nature of species, as well as the validity of various diagnostic characters. Many details

<sup>\*</sup> I have also made use of measurements, taken by Mr. Win. Brewster and Mr. C. J. Maynard, of hundreds of specimens not in the collection of the Museum.

in reference to these variations are given in this part, but a large proportion are recorded in the general and revisionary notes of Part IV. The conclusions arrived at, it may be here premised, are mainly the following: (1.) That the majority of nominal species originate in two principal sources of error; namely, (a) an imperfect knowledge of the extent and character of individual variation, and (b) of geographical variation. (2.) That this imperfect knowledge is mainly due to the neglect of zoölogists to study with sufficient care the common species of their respective countries, whence has arisen a faulty method of investigation and erroneous ideas respecting species and specific characters. (3.) Instead of the method at present pursued by a large school of descriptive naturalists — the analytic, or the search for differences being the proper one, that synthesis should be duly combined with analysis, and that general principles should be sought as well as new forms, or so-called "new species" and "new genera." (4.) It is claimed that nothing is to be gained by giving binomial names to climatic or other forms, in cases where, however considerable the differences between them may be, a complete transition from the one to the other can be traced in specimens from intermediate localities, notwithstanding the plea sometimes urged that their use affords "convenient handles to facts."

In accordance with such views a partial revision of the species of certain groups is incidentally attempted in Part IV, more especially of the *Interida*, the raptorial birds, and the genera *Parus*, *Turdus*, *Passerculus*, etc.

## PART I.

The Topographical, Climatic, and Faunal Characteristics of East Florida,

No part of the Florida Peninsula, as is well known, is much elevated above the level of the sea, the greater\_portion being extremely low and large areas swampy. The surface is slightly undulating, but the higher ridges rarely attain a height of more than fifty or seventy-five feet, and the highest eminence is less than two hundred. A large part of Northern Florida, including what is usually termed East and West Florida, is covered with open pine forests, constituting the so-called "pine barrens." These barrens frequently rise into dry knolls, but they likewise embrace considerable tracts that are so low as to be more or less submerged during a portion of the year, especially in wet

seasons; they are also interspersed with cypress swamps of varying extent. Such swamps usually border the St. John's on its upper course, sometimes extending back from the river for several miles. Other portions of the low grounds support a mixed forest of live-oak, water-oak, elm, bitter-nut hickory, maple, laurel, sweet gum, etc., with a more or less dense undergrowth, such forests forming the so-called "hummocks." Some portions of these forests are swampy; others are dry, and slightly elevated. The saw and dwarf palmettos (Sabal serrulata R. & S. and S. Adansonii Guerns.) frequently render the former difficult to penetrate, and extensive groves of the cabbage palm (Chamærops palmetto Michx.; Sabal palmetto R. & S.) here and there occupy the banks of the streams. At intervals in the pine barrens extensive thickets of low trees and thickly growing shrubs are met with, which are exceedingly difficult to enter, and are appropriately termed "scrubs." Each of these kinds of country, as would be naturally expeeted, forms the favorite haunt of certain species of birds and mammals, the grassy or open pineries being frequented by some that rarely visit the swamps and hummocks, and the latter by others that rarely visit the open pineries. The extensive savannas which occur along the upper portion of the St. John's River and elsewhere form the favorite haunts of numerous wading birds; and the numerous lakes are congenial to the swimming birds.

East Florida hence differs but little in its general character from the lower portions of Georgia and the low lands of the coast of South Carolina. The trees, especially of the hummocks and swampy forests, are usually covered with the pendant *Tillandsia usnoides*, or "Spanish moss," and the abundance of epiphytic orchids and other plants, as well as the palms, clearly indicates the subtropical and peculiar character of the climate.

From the great extent in latitude of the Florida peninsula—from 25° to 31°, or about four hundred miles—considerable differences necessarily exist between the fauna and flora of the northern and southern portions. Although the change in these features from the north southward is more or less gradual, it seems to be appreciably greater near Lake George than elsewhere. At this point so well-marked a change occurs in the vegetation as to attract the attention of unscientific observers, and a corresponding change in the fauna is readily traced. Above Lake George the general aspect of both the flora and fauna is decidedly more southern than it is below the lake. The

boundary between the Floridian and Louisianian faunæ and floræ, it would hence seem, may be properly regarded as passing near this point, the portion of the State to the southward being alone properly Floridian, the northern resembling more the Louisianian type.\*

As already observed, Florida, from its excessively marshy character, is pre-eminently suited to the wants of the grallatorial birds. Immense numbers of the heron tribe hence make it their permanent home, while it is the favorite winter resort of numerous species of *Grallæ* that pass the breeding season far to the northward. Ibises and egretts abound in its swamps and savannas, forming at all times, by their numbers and showy plumage, a characteristic feature of the fauna. In winter the abundance of snipe and other species of *Grallæ* and ducks render it at that season a sportsman's paradise. Florida hence attracts great numbers of sportsmen in winter, through whose reckless and often wanton waste of life the water-fowl, especially of late years, are annually decimated.

The summer bird fauna of Florida is probably not better represented in species than that of the temperate parts of the continent generally; but this State being the winter resort of numerous species of sparrows and warblers, and of those smaller land birds generally that pass the summer in much higher latitudes, its winter bird fauna, as compared with that of the Northern States, is extremely rich. In New England the number of species of birds that can be regarded as "common" in winter does not exceed fifteen,† but in Florida at that season at least five times that number can be so regarded. This, however, accords with a general law of distribution in respect to the relative number of species found at different points in latitude from the arctic zone southward, the number increasing in proportion to the decrease of the latitude, or with the increase of the mean temperature. In winter, through the southward migration of many species, the minimum number of species which in summer is characteristic of the aretic zone is carried down nearly to the Northern States, there being a marked decrease from summer to winter as far south as the warm temperate or subtropic belt; within the tropics, on the contrary, the number of species is far greater in winter than in summer, through the temporary influx of species from colder regions.

<sup>\*</sup> For a further definition of the Floridian bird fauna, as distinguished from the Louisianian, see beyond, Part V.

<sup>†</sup> See American Naturalist, Vol. I, p. 47, March, 1867.

In consequence of the subtropical character of the climate of Florida certain peculiarities occur in respect to the development of vegetation at the vernal period, and in the time of breeding of the resident birds, that seem in this connection worthy of record. The mildness of the winter climate is such that the verdure of the forests is to a greater or less degree perennial, severe frosts being of rare occurrence. Some of the early flowering trees, such as the maples, ashes, and elms, begin to bloom and to gradually unfold their leaves early in January. Although the forest trees in general put forth their leaves in February, and a few have acquired their full summer dress by the 1st of March, their development is slow and irregular. I observed peach-trees in flower at the same locality (Jacksonville) in January and in April; and the flowering period of some of the forest trees is nearly as protracted. The development of vegetation is hence as great during a single week in May, in New England, as during any four weeks in February and March, in Florida.

A similar irregularity is observed in respect to the pairing and breeding of the resident birds. Some of the rapacious species, as the fish-hawk and the white-headed eagle, commence incubation in January, and, as I have been informed, occasionally in December; other members of the same species delay breeding till February or March. The great blue heron and the egretts nest in February, as do also the courlans, several of the hawks, the sandhill crane, the wood-duck and the bluebird; the mocking-bird and other resident song-birds, in March and April.

In the Northern States the vivacity of the birds during the pairing season is as much greater than it is in Florida as is the rapidity of the development in vegetation. In spring at the North the woods, the fields, and the hedgerows are ever vocal with bird music; but in Florida no such outburst of song marks the arrival of the vernal season. The brown thrush, the blue-bird, the cat-bird, the towhee, and the various kinds of sparrows that are common in the breeding season to both New England and Florida, seem to lose at the latter locality the vivacity which characterizes them at the North, their attempts at song being listless and feeble. The songs of some are also much abbreviated, and so different from what they are at the North as to be sometimes scarcely recognizable as proceeding from the same species. Even the mocking-bird sings far less than in the Middle States, and

with much less power. Such at least is the general fact as indicated by my own limited experience in Florida, which accords, I find, with that of various other observers.

In recounting the faunal peculiarities of Florida it is necessary to allude further to a few facts that will be more fully presented in the following chapters, namely, the differences which distinguish the Florida representatives of species that have a wide distribution to the northward from the northern ones. It has for some time been well known that a difference in size in birds and mammals usually accompanies differences of locality in respect to latitude and elevation. Other differences, however, are found to accompany these with considerable uniformity; namely, a relative increase in the length or general size of the bill, and an increase in the intensity of the general color of the plumage.\* Florida birds, in short, usually differ considerably in these respects from their New England cospecific representatives; so much so, indeed, that in many cases the majority of ornithologists would probably regard the two forms as distinct species, though few of them have as yet been specifically separated.

Hence not only do birds of the same species living at distant points differ considerably in size, color, and other features, but also in their habits, notes, and songs. With the decrease in size to the southward there seems to be a corresponding decrease in vivacity, — a fact which accords with the general law of the distribution of the higher forms of life in the temperate latitudes. Although a few structurally high types are, from certain peculiarities of their conformation, necessarily tropical, the highest races of men, whether considered physically, intellectually, or morally, are inhabitants of a medium climate, and gradually decline in rank both to the northward and southward from this favored region, animal and vegetable life reaching, as a whole, its highest manifestation in the temperate latitudes. The excessive variety of forms within the tropics mainly results from the addition of those of comparatively low or medium grades, only a few of the exclusively tropical forms being of absolutely high rank. Generally, too, the forms to be properly regarded as temperate are represented in the tropics by only their lower members, while, conversely, many of the higher types of the tropics are really cosmopolitan.

<sup>\*</sup> See Annual Report of the Mus. Comp. Zoöl., 1869, p. 16.

#### PART II.

List of the Mammals of East Florida, with Annotations.

#### FELIDÆ.

## 1. Felis concolor Linné. PANTHER.

Not very unfrequent in the more unsettled parts of the State. I saw several hunter's skins of it at Jacksonville, said to have been taken up the river.

# 2. Lynx rufus Rafinesque. Bay Lynx.

Abundant. Especially numerous on the Upper St. John's and Indian Rivers, according to Mr. Maynard and others.

#### CANIDÆ.

# 3. Canis lupus Linné. GRAY WOLF.

Canis lupus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 58, 1767. — Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 154, October, 1869

Canis lupus, occidentalis RICH., Fauna Bor. Amer., I, 60, 1829.

Canis occidentalis et var. Baird, Mam. N. Amer., 104, 111, 113, 1857.

Not numerous. They were described to me as being very dark colored, or black.\* This account tends to confirm the statement of Audubon and Bachman in respect to this point.† After citing the comparative frequency of this form of the common wolf in Kentucky, and in several of the Southern Atlantic and Gulf States, as compared with its occurrence in regions more to the northward and westward, they observe: "The varieties with more or less of black continue to increase, as we proceed farther to the south; and in Florida the prevailing color of the wolves is black." ‡

# 4. Vulpes virginianus Richardson. Grav Fox.

Canis virginianus Erxl., Syst. Reg. Anim., 567, 1777. — "Schreber, Säugeth., III, 361, pl. xcii, 1778."

Canis cinereo-argentatus Erxl., Syst. Reg. Anim., 567, 1778.— "Schreber, Sängeth., 360, pl. xcii." — Godman, Am. Nat. Hist., I, 280, 1826.

Canis griseus Bodd., Elenchus Anim., I, 77, 1784.

- \* Since writing the above, I have received a letter from Mr. G. A. Boardman, of Milltown, Me., in which he also refers to the dark color of the Florida wolves.
  - † Quad. N. Amer., Vol. II, p. 130.
- † Respecting the distribution of the different color races of the common wolf in North America, see my paper on the Mammals of Massachusetts, Bulletin Mus. Comp. Zoöl., Vol. I, p. 156, 1869.

Canis (Vulpes) virginianus RICH., Faun. Bor. Am., I, 96, 1829.

Vulpes virginianus Dekay, New York Fauna, I, 45, pl. vii, fig. 2, 1842.— Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., I, 162, pl. xxi, 1849.

Vulpes (Urocyon) virginianus BAIRD, Mam. N. Am., 138, 1857.

Common.

#### MUSTELIDÆ.

#### 5. Putorius lutreolus Cuvier. Mink.

Mustela lutreola Linn., Syst. Nat., 66, 1766.

Putorius lutreolus Cuv., Règ. Anim., I, 148, 1817. — Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 175, October, 1869.

Putorius vison GAPPER, Zoöl. Journ., V, 202, 1830.

Putorius nigrescens Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., III, 104, pl. exxiv, 1853.

"Not common." — Boardman. I did not meet with it. It is well known to be common, however, in the adjoining States. Audubon and Bachman speak of it as being very numerous in the rice-fields of South Carolina

#### 6. Lutra canadensis Sabine. OTTER.

Abundant. Its fur, however, is of little value, compared with that of northern specimens, and the animal is hence not much hunted.

# 7. Mephitis mephitica Baird. Common Skunk.

Viverra mephitica Shaw, Mus. Lever., 172, 1792. — Івід., Gen. Zoöl., I, 390, 1809.

Mephitis chinga Tiedem., Zoöl., 362, 1808.

Mustela (Mephitis) americana Desm., Mamm., I, 186, 1820.

Mustela varians GRAY, Charlesw. Mag. Nat. Hist., I, 581, 1837.

"Mustela mesomelas Licht, Darst. Säugeth., I, fig. 2." — Geoff. St. Hil., Voy. de la Venus, Zool., I, 133, 1855. — Max. zu Wied, Archiv für Naturgesch., XXVII, 218, 1861. — Baird, Mam. N. Am., 199, 1857.

Mephitis macroura Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., III, 11, 1853.

Mephitis mephitica Baird, Mam. N. Amer., 195, 1857. — Allen, Bull. Mus. Com. Zoöl., I, 178, October, 1869.

Mephitis occidentalis BAIRD, Mam. N. Amer., 194, 1857.

Common on the Lower St. John's, but, according to Mr. Maynard, quite unknown on the Indian River.

# 8. Mephitis bicolor Gray. LITTLE STRIPED SKUNK.

Mephitis bicolor Gray, Charlesw. Mag. Nat. Hist., I, 581, 1837. — Baird, Man. N. Amer., 196, 1857.

Mephitis zorilla Licht., Abhand. Akad. Wiss. Berlin, for 1836, 281, 1838. — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Amer., III, 276, 1854.

Mephitis interrupta Licht., Abhand. Akad. Wiss. Berlin, for 1836, 283, 1838.

This beautiful little animal was obtained by Mr. C. J. Maynard at Captain Dummitt's, where it was said to be common in the scrub. Mr. Maynard says they are domesticated and used there as cats, the odor glands being removed when the animals are young; they become very tame and are quite efficient in destroying the mice (Hesperomys sp.) that infest the houses. I am not aware that this animal has been reported before from any point east of the Mississippi River. It has been recently ascertained to extend northward in the interior as far as Central Iowa.\*\*

#### URSIDÆ.

## 9. Procyon lotor Storr. RACCOON.

Ursus lotor Linné, Syst. Nat., 48, 1758.

Procyon lotor Baird, Mam. N. Amer., 209, 1857. — Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., 1, 181. October, 1869.

Procyon Hernandezii Wagler, Isis, XXIV, 514, 1831.—Baird, Mam. N. Amer., 212, 1857.—Ibid., U. S. and Mex. Bound. Surv., II, Mam., 22, 1859.

Exceedingly numerous.

#### 10. Ursus arctos Linné. Common Bear.

Ursus arctos Linné, Syst. Nat., 69, 1766. — Cuvier, Règ. Anim., I. 142, 1817. — Blainville. — Middendorff, Sibirische Reise, II, ii. 1854. — Gray, Proc. London Zoöl, Soc., 1864, 682. — Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 184, October, 1869.

Ursus americanus Pallas, Spieclegia Zobl., XIV, 6, 1780. — GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 101, 1788. — RICHARDSON, Faun. Bor. Amer., I, 14, 1829. — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Amer., III, 187, 1853. — Max. zu Wied & Mayer, Verhandl. Akad. der Naturf., XXVI, i, 33, 1857. — Baird, Mam. N. Amer., 225, 1857.

Ursus (Enarctos) americanus Gray, Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc. 1864, 692.

Ursus horribilis Ord, "Guthrie's Geog., 2d Amer. ed., II, 291, 299, 1815."
 SAY, Long's Exped., II, 53, 1823.
 BAIRD, Mam. N. Amer. 219.

Ursus horribilis, var. horriaceus, Baird, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey, Rep., II, Mam., 24, 1859.

Ursus cinereus Desm., Mam., I, 164, 1820.

Ursus (Danis) cinereus Gray, Proc. Lond Zool. Soc., 1864, 690.

Ursus ferox Richardson, Fann. Bor. Amer., I, 24, 1829. — Max. zu Wied, Reise in das innere Nord Amer., I, 488, 1839. — Max. zu Wied & Mayer, Verhandl. Akad. der Naturforsch., XXVI, 39.

Ursus cinnamomeus Baird, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey Rep., II, Mam., 29.

<sup>\*</sup> See H. W. Parker, in Amer. Nat , Vol. IV, 376, August, 1870.

Numerous and often troublesome, occasionally destroying swine, of which they are exceedingly fond. Judging from their tracks in the swamps, they must not only be exceedingly numerous, but some of them of enormous size. The several skins seen by me were all intensely black.\*

#### CERVIDÆ.

## 11. Cariacus virginianus Gray. Virginia Deer.

Cervus virginianus Boddert, Elench. Animal., I, 136, 1784. — GMELIN, Schreber, Desmerest, Aud. & Bach., Baird, &c.

Cariacus virginianus GRAY, Cat. of Bones in Brit. Mus., 266, 1862.

Abundant almost everywhere. Not so numerous along the Lower St. John's as in the more unsettled districts further south. As remarked by Professor Baird, the Florida deer are considerably smaller than those of the Northern States; so much so that it is a fact of common observation.

#### MANATIDÆ.

#### 12. Trichechus manatus Linné. MANATEE.

Trichechus manatus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 34, 1758.

"Manatus australis Tilesius, Jahrb. der Naturg., I, 23." — Gray, Cat. Seals and Whales, 358, 1866. — Murray, Geog. Distr. Mam., 202, 1866.

Manatus amer' anus Desm., Mam., 507, 1822.

Manatus latirostris Harlan, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III, 390, pl. xii, fig. 1-3, 1824. — IBID., Fann. Amer., 277, 1825.

I learn from Mr. Maynard that the manatee is still quite common in Indian River, where they are often caught in nets. They come into the river at night to feed on the mangrove bushes. Mr. Maynard did not meet with them in Mosquito Lagoon, which he traversed nearly its whole length, and he thinks they do not occur there.

The manatees of America and Africa seem to be very closely allied, and to number at most but two species. Those of the same species also appear to be exceedingly variable in their osteological characters. Dr. J. E. Gray,

\* In my recent paper in this Bulletin, cited above, I have discussed the mutual relationship of the numerous supposed species of land bears of the northern hemisphere. The close affinity between the bears of Northwestern America and Northeastern Asia is especially noticed; but at that time I was not aware that Temminck, in the Fauna Japonica, had referred the large land bear of Japan to the *U. ferox* of authors, or to the so-called "grizzly bear" of Western America. This indicates the very close affinity, in this author's opinion, of the Japan and American bears.

in a valuable paper entitled "On the Species of Manatees (Manatus), and on the Difficulty of distinguishing such Species by Osteological Characters,"\* states that he finds the African and American species are distinguished by only a single character, — the absence of the nasal bones in the African species. Concerning the individual variation in the skulls of the two species, he observes as follows: "When Cuvier had a skull of the American and one of the African Manatee, he gave eight characters by which the African skull could be known from the American. Now we have a series of skulls of each kind, we find that not one of these characters will separate the skulls of the two countries from one another. Indeed, the skulls of each kind are so variable that, after having them laid out before me for two or three days, studying them every now and then, and inducing two proficients in the study of bones, and in observing minute characters, to give me their assistance, we came to the conclusion that we believed there was no character, common to all the skulls of each kind, which could be used to separate them. As a proof of the difficulty of so doing, I may state that there was one skull in the series which had been long in the collection, and had been received without any habitat, and neither of the three could decide to which of the series this skull should be referred; and it was not until I accidentally observed the character, derived from the absence of the masal bones in the African kind, that this question could be settled."

Having myself been struck with the variability of osteological as well as external characters in individuals of the same species, in both birds and mammals, — a matter to which I have already often called attention, and the consideration of which occupies a considerable portion of Part III of the present paper, - I can hardly refrain, in this connection, from citing further the judicious remarks of Dr. Gray on this point. "The examination," he says, " of a large series of skulls of the bears (Ursus) and Paradoxwi, shows how difficult it is to distinguish species by the study of the skulls alone. Thus, when we have a series of skulls of bears from different localities, which, from their external form and habits, are known to be distinct species, it is easy to say which is the skull of U. thibetanus, U. syriacus, U. arctos, U. cinercus, and U. americanus, when we have the habitat marked on each; but the true test of the power of distinguishing the one from the other is to determine to what species a skull belongs, of which we have no information as to its origin; and we have several skulls in the British Museum under these circumstances, and I cannot, with the best assistance at my command, determine to which species they ought to be referred. And it is the same with the Paradoxuri." "It' this is the case with the skulls," he continues, 6 how must the difficulty of distinguishing species with certainty be increased when we have only fossil bones, which are generally more or less imperfect,

<sup>\*</sup> Ann and Mag. Nat. Hist., 3d Ser., Vol. XV, pp. 130 - 139, 1865.

to examine and compare, or of which only a limited number of examples are to be obtained and compared? They [the skulls] vary in most genera much more than was expected, before series of the skulls of each species were collected and compared."

These observations by Dr. Gray are fully confirmed by my own studies; and I hence believe that, as the number of specimens of different species increases in our museums, many species now believed to be valid will be found to rest merely on individual characters.

#### VESPERTILIONIDÆ.

## 13. Lasiurus noveboracensis Gray. RED BAT.

Vespertilio noveboracensis Erxl., Syst. Règ. Anim., 135, 1717.

Vespertilio lasiucus GMUL., Syst. Nat., 1788.

Vespertilio rubellus Pal. de Beauv., Cat. Peale's Mus., 1796.

? Vespertilio cinereus PAL. DE BEAUV., Ibid.

? Vespertilio pruinosus SAY, Long's Exped., 67, 1823. — RICH., Faun. Bor. Am., I, 1, 1829.

Taphozous rufus Harlan, Faun. Amer., 23, 1825.

Lasiurus rufus Gray, List Mam. Brit. Mus., 32, 1842.

Lasiurus noveboraceusis Tomes, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1857, 34.

? Lasiurus pruinosus Tomes, Ibid , 37.

Lashurus noveboracensis H. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 15, 1864. — J. A. Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 207, 1869.

? Lasiurus cinereus H. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 21.

Common. All of the several specimens obtained, both by myself and Mr. Maynard, are of a deep cherry red, with but a slight skirting of ash, and are uniformly much darker or deeper colored than any I have seen from the Northern States. All examined (nine specimens) were males.

# 14. Scotophilus fuscus II. Allen. CAROLINA BAT.

Vespertilio fuscus Pal. de Beauv., Cat. Peale's Mus., 14, 1796. — LeConte, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 437, 1855.

Vespertilio carolinensis Geoff St. Hill., Ann. dn Mus., VIII, 193, 1806, pl. xlvii, fig. 7. — Harlan, North Am. Jour. Geol. & Nat. Sci., I, 218, 1831 — LeConte, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 437.

Vespertilio arcuatus Say, Long's Exped., 167, 1823.

Vespertilio phaiops Raf., Amer Month. Mag., 445, 1818.

Vespertilio ursinus Temm., Mam., II, 234, 1835.

Scotophilus fuscus II. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 31, 1864.

Scotophilus carolinensis II. Allen, Ibid., 28.

Common. Several specimens taken.

## 15 Scotophilus georgianus II Allen. Georgia Bar.

Scotophilus georgianus II. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 35, 1864, nec. syn. — J. A. Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., No. 8, 1809.

This species doubtless occurs in Florida, at least in the northern part, since the capture of specimens at different localities in Georgia and at New Orleans is on record.\*

# 16. Nycticejus crepuscularis II. Allen.

Vespertilio crepuscularis LeConte, McMartrie's Cuv. An. King., I, 432, 1831. Ibid., Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 438, 1855.

Nycticejus crepuscularis II. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 12, 1864.

A specimen collected by Mr. Maynard at Jacksonville, in January, but afterwards lost, I refer from his measurements and description of it to this species. There is also a specimen (No. 731) in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, collected in Florida by Mr. Chas. Belknap.

## 17. Corynorhinus macrotis II. Allen. BIG-EARED BAT.

Plecotus macrotis LeConte, McMurtrie's Cuv. An. King., I, 431, 1831.

Plecotis Le Contei Cooper, Ann. Lyc. Nat. Hist., IV, 12, 1837.

Synotus macrotis H. Allen, Mon. N. Am. Bats, 63, 1864.

Corynorhinus macrotis H. Allen, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XVII, 173, Aug. 1865.

A specimen of this species from Micanopy, Florida, collected by Dr. Bean, is cited by Dr. Allen† This Southern species ranges northward along the coast nearly or quite to the Middle States, it being comparatively common, according to authors, in South Carolina.

#### NOCTILIONIDÆ.

#### 18. Nyctinomus nasutus Tomes.

Molossus nasutus Spix, Sim. et Vesp. Bras., 60, pl. xxxv, fig. 7, 1823.

Nyctinomus nasutus Tomes, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1861, 68.— H. Allen,

Mon. N. Am. Bats, 7, 1867.

This widely distributed southern species should unquestionably be included among the mammals of Florida. It has been reported from Texas, Louisiana, South Carolina, and the West Indies,‡ as well as from South America, as far south even as Buenos Ayres.§ Specimens in

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. H. Allen, Monograph of North American Bats, p. 38.

<sup>†</sup> lbid., p. 55.

<sup>‡</sup> lbid., p. 10.

<sup>§</sup> Tomes, Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1861, p. 68.

the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy from Hayti, collected by Mr. P. R. Uhler, have been identified by Dr. Harrison Allen as of this species.

## 19. Megadermatidæ Sρ.?

A large species of bat was noticed by both Mr. Maynard and myself, but as it always flew very high, neither of us obtained it. It was very much larger than any other species yet described from the United States, and is doubtless a West Indian form; probably a species of Megadermatidæ.

#### SORECIDÆ.

#### 20. Blarina brevicauda Bard. Mole Sinew.

Sorex brevicaudus Say, Long's Exped, I, 164, 1862 - 63.

Sorex parvus SAY, Ibid., 164.

Sorex talpoides Gapper, Zoöl Journ., V, 208, pl. viii, 1830.

Sorex carolinensis BACH., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 366, pl. xxvi, fig. 3, 1837.

Sorex cineveus BACH., Ibid., 373, fig. 3.

Sorex Dekayi BACH., Ibid., 377, fig. 4.

Corsira (Blavina) talpoides GRAY, Proc Lend. Zool. Soc., V, 124, 1837.

Blarina brericanda Barro, Main. N. Am., 42, pl. xxx, fig 6, 1857.— Allen, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 212, October, 1869.

Blarina talpoides Baird, Mam. N. Am., 37, pl. xxx, fig. 5.

Blarina carolinensis Baird, Ibid., 45, pl. xxx, fig. 8.

Blarina cinerea Baird, Ibid., 48, pl. xxx, figs. 9 and 10, young.

Blarina erilipes Baird, Ibid., 51, pl. xxviii, young.

Blarina Berlandieri BAIRD, Ibid., 53, pl. xxviii, young.

A single specimen of *Blarina* from Indian River, Florida, collected by Mr. G. Wurdemann, is mentioned under "*Blarina cinerea*," by Professor Baird, as having been received at the Smithsonian Institution.\* While it may be of a species distinct from *B. brevicanda*, it seems more probable that it is the young of that species, as I have elsewhere stated.† *Sorex cinereus* of Bachman.‡ which Professor Baird cites as a synonyme of his *Blarina cinerea*, Dr. Bachman subsequently regarded as the young of his *S. carolinensis*.\$ which is the same as *B. talpoides et brevicanda* of recent writers.

<sup>\*</sup> North American Mammals, p. 50

<sup>†</sup> Bull. Mus. Com. Zool., Vol. I, No. 8, p. 212.

<sup>‡</sup> Journ. Phil Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. VII, 1837, p. 373, pl. xxiii, fig. 3.

<sup>§</sup> Quadrupeds of North America, Vol. III, p. 344.

#### TALPIDÆ.

# 21. Scalops aquaticus Fischer. Shrew Mole.

Several specimens of this species from Indian River and Jacksonville, Florida, are mentioned by Professor Baird in his list of the specimens of this species in the Museum of the Smithsonian Institution, in his Report on North American Mammals. Mr. Boardman has also informed me that it is not uncommon there.

#### SCIURIDÆ.

# 22. Sciurus niger Linné. Southern Fox Squirrel.

Sciurus niger Jinné, Syst. Nat., I, 64, 1758. Sciurus vulpinus Gmel., Syst. Nat., I, 147, 1788 Sciurus vulpinus et syn. Baind, Main. N. Am., 246, 1857.

Common. Confined chiefly to the pine woods. Extremely variable in general color, the variations in this respect ranging from pale yellowish gray to black. The specific name niger of Linné is the one which has unquestionably the priority, as observed by Professor Baird, and its applying only to a single stage of coloration, inasmuch as it is a common one, does not seem to be sufficient reason for rejecting it, since it is as applicable as any name referring to its color can be, and is not likely to seriously mislead.\*

#### 23. Sciurus carolinensis Gmelin. Gray Sourrel.

Sciurus carolinensis GMEL., Syst. Nat., I, 143, 1788. — BAIRD, Mam. N. Am., 256, 1857.

"Sciurus emereus Schreber, Sängeth., IV, 766, pl. cexiii, 1792."
Sciurus niger Godman, Am. Nat. Hist., H, 133, 1826.

Sciurus leucotis Gapper, Zoöl. Journ., V, 206, pl. xxi, 1830.

Exceedingly abundant, and generally very tame. Two of my party shot a dozen one evening in less than half an hour at Hawkinsville. They are considerably smaller than at the North, and also differ somewhat in color from northern specimens, the gray being more suffused with brownish than in the gray northern type.

The fifty or sixty specimens carefully examined were quite uniform in color and generally so in size. The yellowish-brown patch on the back usually present in the gray type of this species was of greater extent and less distinctly defined than in northern examples. No

<sup>\*</sup> See Baird, North American Mammals, p. 248.

dusky or black varieties were noticed, nor could I learn that they existed here. Their voice is not so heavy as that of the northern animal, but in no other respects than in those above mentioned do they differ from it. Professor Baird has quite fully described the gradual transition from the common gray to the glossy black type of coloration seen at the North, where the dark varieties are most common.\*

# Measurements of Florida Specimens.

M. C. Z. No.	Original No	Locality.	Date.	Collected by	Total Length.	Nose to Occiput	Nose to Tail.	Tail to end	Tail to end of Hairs.	Langth of Fore Feet	Length of Hind Foot
2455	903 -	Lucksonv'l	Jan 19	C.J. Maynard	20.60	9 50	9.00	8.00	11.00	2.007	9.45
2454		ouckson i	10	C.D. 11111 Hard	18.20				10,45		2.35
2453			" 12	66	17.75		8.45		10.25		2 45
2040 :		66	" 25	J. A. Allen	19.50				10.00		_
2041		2 44	" 25	66	20.50		10.50	7.50	10,00		
	221	Dummitt's	Mar.16	C.J. Maynard	20.00	2.45	9.50	8 15	10.50	1.60	2.56
	222 -	7 66	" 18		18.56	2.55	10.20	8 ()()	10.56	1.35	2 40
2054	365 :	Welaka	Feb. 6	J. A. Allen	21.00	_	10 (()	8.25	11.00	-	_ 1
2055	366 9	44	6.4	4.6	21.50	_	10.00	8.75	11.50	_	
2056	367 -	7 66	6.6	6.6	19.00	-	10.00		9,00	_	_
2057		7 66	6+	+ 6	19 00				10 00		-
2058			66	4.6	19.00	_	9.15		9.55	_	. —
2059			64	66	21.50		10.15			-	-
2066		*************	Mar.12		19.50				10.50		2.15
2067			4.		19.50			8,60	9.25		2 23
	379 =		4.6	4.6	19.25				11.00		2.22
	380				20 00		9.25			1.40	2.20
	351			"	18.75		8.75		10.00		2.25
2068			64		19.50		8.90		10.60		2 05
	., 4		"	"	19 00				10.00		2.25
	., .,			"	18.50			6.75		1.40	2.201
	386 3		64	"	18 50				10.00 $10.75$		2.15
				"	$\frac{19.75}{20.50}$				10.50		2.37
	.,	, ,,	- 66	44	19.75				11.00		2.25
				66	19.75				10.25		2.22
	390 - 391 -		1 66		19.25			7,65		1.40	2.30
	392 -			"	18 50			7.50		1.45	2.32
	* 1 . /	7 46	66	6.6	19.25				10.10		2.22
	394 :		1 46	41	20.00			8.15	10.75		2 20
	,	7 66	4.6	44	19.50				10.50		2.40
		2 14	6.6	64	20.(1)						2 35
		2 66	6.6		19.25				10.55		2.30
	395		"	4.6	18.35			7.95		1.55	2.20
	399		66	44	20.50				10.35		2.45
		7 • 6	6.6	6.6	19,00	2.40	8.90	7.35	10,10	1,60	2.15

<sup>\*</sup> N. Am. Mann., p. 259. See further on this point my remarks on this species in No. 8 of the first volume of this Bulletin, already cited.

# 24. Geomys pineti Rafinesque. "SALAMANDER."

Geomys pinctis RAF., Amer. Month. Mag., II, 45, 1817.

Pseudostoma floridana Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., III, 242, pl. cl, fig. 1, 1853.

Common, but mainly confined to the drier portions of the pine woods. The five specimens collected by me differ very much in size, and considerably in color, some of them being plumbeous and others brownish-plumbeous; in other words, some are much darker than others. The difference in size appears to be mainly due to age. This species extends southwards at least as far as Lake Harney, and at some localities is particularly numerous, the little hillocks of earth it throws up sometimes nearly covering the ground.

#### MURIDÆ.

## 25. Mus decumanus Pallas. Brown Rat.

Abundant at Jacksonville, but not observed by any of my party on the Upper St. John's, nor by Mr. Maynard on Indian River.

Although no other species of Mus was observed, it is not improbable that the common mouse (M. musculus) occurs in the vicinity of the towns. It was not found on the Upper St. John's (to which locality it probably has not yet extended), where the common house mice are a species of Hesperomys, as are also the house mice on Indian River, according to Mr. Maynard. Neither was any species of Reithrodon obtained. The R. humilis, which occurs in Georgia and South Carolina, is certainly to be expected in Northern Florida; but it has not yet to my knowledge been reported from there.

# 26. Hesperomys leucopus Wagner. White-Footed Mouse.

Mus sylvaticus, var. ERXL., Syst. Reg. Au., I, 390, 1775.

Mus leacopus Desm., Mam., H, 307, 1822. — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., I, 300, pl. xlvi, 1849.

Mus agrarius Godman, Am. Nat. Hist., II, 1826.

Mus noveboracensis Selys-Longell., Étude Micromam., 67, 1839.

Mus Emmonsii Dekay, Emmon's Rep. Quad. Mass., 61, 1840.

Cricetus myoides Gapper, Zoöl. Journ., 1830, 204.

Hesperomys polionotus Wagner, Wiegm. Arch., 1843, ii, 52.

? Hesperomys cognatus LeConte, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VI, 442, 1852.

Hesperomys leucopus LeConte, Ibid., 413. — Baird, Mam. N. Am., 459, 1857.

— Allen, Ball. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., I, 227, October, 1869.

Hesperomys myoides BAIRD, Main. N. Am., 472.

Hesperomys indianus Max. zu Wied., Arch. für Naturg., XXVIII, i, 111, 1862.

A mouse provisionally referred to this species was abundant, especially at certain localities. At my first camp, about twenty-five miles above Jacksonville (near Hibernia), an Hesperomys and the wood rat (Neotoma floridana) were excessively numerous. At evening they began scampering over the leaves, their little footsteps being heard in every direction; at times they approached so near the camp-fire as to be distinctly seen. They ascended the bushes, and could be heard on the lower branches of the trees. Some of my party being unaccustomed to such manifestations of nocturnal life, were at first filled with apprehension as to the character of their visitors, and could scarcely be convinced that the place was not infested with poisonous snakes or other dangerous animals. Depending upon my traps for specimens, which unfortunately for me the mice avoided, I secured but two or three examples of the Hesperomys so abundant here. These, with several others obtained by me elsewhere, as also others obtained on Indian River by Mr. Maynard, including both young and adult, are undistinguishable from the common H. leucopus of the North, the young being deep plumbeous.

I observed at this place a fact in respect to the habits of the Hesperomys I had not previously noticed nor seen pointed out, though it was noticed in all the parts of Florida I visited. I refer to its habit of cutting off the branches and main stems of the young saplings. I at first supposed this work to be that of the wood-boring larvæ of some coleopterous insect, so nearly did the "pruning" resemble that of the so-called "oak-pruners" (Cerambycidæ sp.). A closer examination, however, showed that, instead of the twigs being smoothly cut, as by a boring insect working from within outwards and severing the bark last, the cutting was begun from without, and that a considerable portion of wood had been gnawed away, both the cut surfaces being highest at the middle. Marks of the teeth of these little gnawers were also generally clearly distinguishable. No traces of boring by insect larvæ could be detected near the severed point. The branches thus cut are generally of about the size of one's finger, and are usually the main stem of a young sapling. Various species of trees are thus mutilated; but as they are usually destitute of fruit, the purpose of these animals in this work is not apparent. It is a habit that may be common to the Hesperomys of the North, but I have never seen it referred to. These little animals being a hundred-fold more numerous in East Florida than they generally are in the Northern States, their work would here be of course much more noticeable.

# 27. Hesperomys aureolus Wagner. Golden Mouse.

Africola Nuttolle Harlan, Month. Amer. Jonen. Geol. & Nat. Sci., I, 446, 1842.—IBID., Med. & Phys. Researches, 55, pl. ——, 1835.

Mus (Calomys) aureolus Aud. & Bach., Jouin. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VIII, 302, 1842. — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., II, 305, pl. xev, 1851.

Hesperomys aureolus Wagner, Wieg. Archiv, 1843, ii, 51.

Hesperomys Nuttalli Baird, Mam. N. Am., 467, 1857.

A single specimen which I refer to this so-called species was obtained by Mr. Maynard at Dummitt's. While this example is of the size and general proportions of H. leucopus, it is markedly different in color, being of a bright golden vellow above, which color reaches on the outside of the legs to the feet; the under surface has also a vellowish wash. It also differs in the texture of its fur, which is remarkably soft and fine. It is a little lighter colored than Audubon and Bachman's description and figure of H. aureolus represent that animal to be, but the distribution of the colors is the same, the specimen in question being not orange, but bright vellowish-cinnamon. It is, however, much nearer this than to Dr. Harlan's Arvicola Nuttalli. The latter does not differ very appreciably, judging from Dr. Harlan's very unsatisfactory description and his wretched figure of it, which was evidently made from a badly stuffed skin. Mr. Maynard believes the specimen referred to above to be a young animal, and states that it was so regarded by the people in whose house it was caught. He further informs me that he captured another of the same color, but very much larger, which was lost. This he regards as merely the adult of the same species. His measurements show the latter to have agreed in size and proportions with the so-called H. gossypinus. The texture of the fur of the small specimen above referred to agrees with that of the plumbeous, immature stage of H. leucopus. This form, whether a valid species or not,\* is now known to occur in Southeastern Pennsylvania, Southern Illinois, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi, Missouri, and at several intermediate points.

# 28. Hesperomys gossypinus Le Conte. Cotton Mouse.

Hesperomys gossypinus LeConte, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VI, 411, 1853.
 — Ватир, Маш. N. Am., 469, 1857.

<sup>\*</sup> This and the following species are only provisionally adopted. See a previous number of this Bulletin (Vol. I., No. 8, p. 227) for a fuller expression of my views as to the number of North American species of this group, and their mutual affinities.

Several specimens were obtained, corresponding in size and color with what LeConte and Baird have described under this name. It is apparently common. As I have previously stated elsewhere,\* these Florida specimens have well-developed cheek-pouches.

The specimens in question are rather larger than any examples of II. leucopus I have seen from the Northern States, they agreeing very well in measurements with the two specimens cited by Professor Baird. † The large size of these specimens, conjoined with their southern habitat, would seem at first to clearly indicate their being distinct from H. leucopus, as they are at least one third larger than the average size of the latter at the North. Professor Baird in speaking of this species observes: "There is every reason to consider this mouse as specifically distinct from H. leucopus of the North; although skins, when much stretched (as Nos. 1105, 1112, from Middleboro', Massachusetts), of the latter, may measure as much as those recorded here, yet they are certainly actually smaller, as shown by the feet, which never attain anything of the length of .45 for the anterior and .90 for the posterior." But he is "hardly satisfied," he adds, "that this animal is different from the smaller H. leucopus, as the difference in size is no greater than is to be seen in a series of *Hesperomys* from more northern localities. The tail is duskier beneath than in H. cognatus, and the sides more rusty; otherwise I can realize only the larger size. Should both [H. cognatus and H. gossypinus] prove to be the same, the name H. qossypinus must of course take precedence."

As already observed, the prevailing form of the Hesperomys of East Florida is not essentially different from a large proportion of the Heleoopus of the North, either in measurements, proportions, or color, although it is unmistakably referable to the so-called Hesperomys, which has been supposed to replace in the Southern Atlantic and Gulf States the Heleoopus of the more northern ones. If, as I have elsewhere suggested (loc. cit.), as Professor Baird admits may be, and as the facts seem to indicate, Hegosypinus is inseparable from Hesperomy, and the latter being most unquestionably referable to Heleoopus, it would seem that Hegosypinus must also be referred to the Heleoopus.

Respecting the variations in this species and the affinities of the *H. gossypinus*, Andubon and Bachman observe as follows: "That a species so widely distributed and subject to so many variations in size, length of tail, and color, should have been often described under different names is not surprising. We have ourselves often been in a state of doubt on obtaining some striking variety. The name *Hypudaus gossypinus* of our

<sup>\*</sup> Bulletin Mus. Comp. Zool., Vol. I, No. 8, p. 229, 1869.

<sup>†</sup> Mam. N. Am., p. 469.

friend Major LeConte (see Appendix to MeMurtrie's translation of Cuv. An. Kingd., Vol. I, p. 434) was intended for this species, as it is found in the Southern States. We were for several years disposed to regard it as distinct, and have, not without much hesitation, and after an examination of many hundred specimens, been induced to set it down as a variety only." These authors also remark that they are considerably larger in the Carolinas than in the Eastern States.\*

## 29. Hesperomys palustris Wagner. Rice-field Mouse.

Mus palustris Harlan, Am. Journ. Sci., XXXI, 386, 1837.

"Hesperomys palustris Wagner, Supplem. Schreb. Saugeth., III, 543, 1843." Hesperomys (Oryzomys) palustris Baird, Mam. N. Ami, 482, 1857.

Arvicola oryzviora Aud. & Bacii., Quad. N. Am., III, 214, pl. cxliv, fig. 3, 1857.

No specimens of this species were obtained by either Mr. Maynard or myself. Its habitat is usually given as South Carolina and Georgia, but Audubon and Bachman state: "The late Dr. Leitner brought us a specimen obtained in the Everglades of Florida." † It in all probability occurs also in East Florida. The above-mentioned authors give it as somewhat common in the salt-marshes near Savannah and Charleston. Professor Baird has received it from Columbus and St. Simon's Island, Georgia, and Society Hill, South Carolina.

# 1). Neotoma floridana Say & Ord. WOOD RAT.

Mus floridanus ORD, Bull. Soc. Philom., 1818, 181. — SAY, Long's Exped., I, 54, 1823.

Arvicola floridana HARLAN, Faun. Amer., 141, 1825.

Neotoma floridana SAY & ORD, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1V, ii, 352, 1825. — BAIRD, Mam. N. Am., 487, 1857.

I found this species very abundant on the Lower St. John's, especially around Jacksonville and Hibernia, but I did not meet with it above Lake George. The old residents about Hawkinsville seemed wholly unacquainted with it. Mr. Maynard also failed to meet with it on Indian River. It hence appears probable that it may not occur very frequently in the southern part of the peninsula. Professor Baird, however, has recorded a specimen from "Indian River, Fla.," collected by Dr. Wurdemann.

The present usual northward range of this species does not appear to extend beyond North Carolina; but Professor Baird, writing in 1857,‡

<sup>\*</sup> Quad. N. Amer., Vol. I, pp. 301, 305.

<sup>‡</sup> Mam. N. Am., p. 489.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., Vol. III, p. 216.

remarks: "A few specimens of unusually large size were captured some years ago by J. G. Bell, near Piermont, on the Hudson River, but I have not heard of any in intermediate localities [New York and Society Hill, South Carolina]." Mr. George Gibbes states that he "caught a specimen, many years ago, in Massachusetts." Audubon and Bachman remark that specimens of it have been obtained in North Carolina, and that they had "observed a few nests in the valleys of the Virginia mountains," and that they had "somewhere heard it stated that one or two had been captured as far to the north as Maryland." †

# 31. Sigmodon hispidus Say & Ord. Cotton Rat.

Arricola hispidus Godman, Am. Nat. Hist., II, 68, 1826.

Arvicola hortensis Harlan, Faun. Am., 138, 1825.

Arvicola ferrugineus Harlan, Am. Jeurn. Sci., X, 285, 1826.

Sigmodon hispidum Say & Ord, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., IV, ii, 354, pl. x, figs. 5 - 8, 1825. — Baird, N. Am. Mam., 503, 1857.

Supnodon Berlandieri Baird, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 333, 1855. IBID., N. Am. Mam., 504.

Abundant throughout the country along the St. John's River, and also on Indian River, whence Mr. Maynard brought fifteen specimens. They are quite a pest to the farmers, who often successfully resort to poison to reduce their numbers. By scattering grain poisoned with strychnine about their fields they are able to destroy hundreds with slight trouble. Different specimens vary considerably in color, from gray through yellowish-brown to rufous. The so-called Sigmodon Berlandieri, from Texas and New Mexico, seems undistinguishable from S. hispidus.

In its general economy, the cotton rat represents the *Arvicolæ* of the North, especially *A. riparius*.

Concerning S. Berlandieri, Professor Baird remarks: "This species is readily distinguishable from S. hispidus by the much lighter color above, where it is grayish-yellow brown instead of distinct reddish-brown; the tail is considerably longer and covered by finer annuli. The toes are shorter, and the metatarsus shorter, while the feet are nearly the same length. The claws, however, are much weaker." The tail in this species is said to be "equal to or longer than the trank"; the "color above grayish-yellow brown, lined with black"; while S. hispidus is said to have the

<sup>\*</sup> Nat. Hist. Wash. Terr., Zoöl., p. 128, 1860.

<sup>†</sup> Quad. N. Am., Vol. I, p. 36.

tail "less than the trunk," and "the color above reddish brown, lined with very dark brown." The specimens from Florida examined by me are mainly of the gray type, and hence like S. Berlandieri, but some were decidedly rufous, or like S. hispidus. In "Mammals of North America' measurements of specimens of the so-called S. Berlandieri are given, and of twelve of S. hispidus. In the latter the length of the trunk is as 69 to 100; in the former (S. Berlandieri) as 63 to 100! It hence appears from Professor Baird's own measurements that the S. Berlandieri is far from having the tail relatively the longer. The other distinctions are based on too few specimens to have much value, since individual variations of the same character are common.

# 32. Arvicola pinetorum Le Conte. Pine Mouse.

Psammomys punctorum LeConte, Ann. N. Y. Lyccum Nat. Hist., III, 132, pl. ii, 1829.

Arrevola scalopsoides Aud. & Bach., John. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VIII, 299, 1842.

Arricola pinetorum Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., II, 216, pl. lxxx, 1851.

Arricola (Paymys) pinetorum Baird, N. Am. Mam., 544, 1857. Included on the authority of Audubon and Bachman, who state that

Included on the authority of Audubon and Bachman, who state that they had received it from Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Georgia. Professor Baird also cites specimens from Georgia and Louisiana. This is the most southern of the *Arvicolae*, and the only one, except *A. austerus*, whose habitat includes the Gulf States.

#### LEPORIDÆ.

# 33. Lepus sylvaticus Bach. Gray Rabbit.

Lepus americanus Desm., Mam., II, 351, 1822. — Harlan, Faun. Amer., 193, 1825.

Lepus sylvaticus Bach., Johnn. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 1837. — Waterh., Nat. Hist. Mam., II, 116, 1848. — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., I, 173, pl. xxii, 1849. — Baird, Mam. N. Am., 597, 1857.

Abundant. Mr. Maynard obtained a specimen but a few weeks old, at Dummitt's, as early as the 16th of February

# 34. Lepus palustris Bachman. MARSH RABBIT.

Lepus palustris Bach, Johnn. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VII, 194, 336, pl. xv, xvi, 1837; Ibid., VIII, 79, 1839.—Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., I, 151, pl. xviii, 1849.—Baird, Mam. N. Am., 615, 1857.—Coues, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., XIII, 86, 1869.

Common, especially on the Lower St. John's.\*

<sup>\*</sup> Sec on the habits and anatomy of this species a paper by Dr. Elliott Coues, Proceed. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. XIII, pp. 86 - 101, June, 1869.

#### DIDELPHIDÆ.

## 35. Didelphys virginiana Shaw. Opossum.

Didelphys virginiana Shaw, Gen. Zoöl., I, 473, pl. evii, 1800. — Desmarest, Harlan, Temminck, Waterhouse, Baird, and most other authors.

? "Didelphys marsupialis Schreb., Sängeth., III, pl. exlv, 1778."

Didelphys californica Bennett, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., I, 40, 1833. — Also Wagner, Waterhouse, Aud. & Bach. (from Bennett). — Bahrd, Mam. N. Am., 233, 1857. — Bahrd, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Surv. Rep., II, Zoöl., 32, 1859.

Didelphys breviceps Bennett, Proc. Lond. Zoül. Soc., I, 40, 1833. — Watermouse, Nat. Hist. Mam, I, 477, 1846 (from Bennett?). — Aud. & Bach., Quad. N. Am., III, 330, 1851 (from Bennett).

Didephys prunosus Wagner, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1842, 358. — Water-House, Nat. Hist. Mam., I, 477, 1846, (from Wagner).

#### Abundant.

This species is quite variable in its color-markings, and remarkably so in many other features, especially in the length and size of the nose, and in the size and proportions of the skull, even in specimens from the same locality.\* Slight and quite inconstant differences also occur between examples from the Southern States, Texas, Mexico, and California. It would, in fact, be quite unusual if specimens of any species ranging so widely should not be found to differ somewhat at localities so widely separated. Two supposed species of North American Didelphys described by Mr. Bennett, as cited above, have been quoted by numerous other authors, and by them currently adopted, without apparently an examination of their merits. Professor Baird, rejecting one of them, has endeavored to separate the opossums occurring west of the Mississippi valley from those living farther eastward, designating the western one as D. californica. The distinctions claimed are somewhat similar to those urged as distinguishing the so-called Procyon Hernandezii of the western half of the continent from the P. lotor of the Atlantic States. They are equally slight and unsatisfactory, and at most mark but a geographical race, so intimately allied to and intergrading with the better-known eastern form that the point at which the one supplants the other is thus far undetermined. The Didelphys breviceps of Bennett was founded on a single specimen from California, which differed from the so-called D. californica only in having a relatively shorter head.

\* Since writing the above I have been incidentally informed by Dr. Cones that, in preparing his memoir on the anatomy of *Dulelphys virginiana* (now publishing in the Mem. of the Bost. Soc. Nat. Ilist., Vol. II, Pt. I), he had occasion to examine a large number of specimens, and that he found the variation in size and proportions to amount to nearly twenty per cent.

## PART III.

On Individual and Geographical Variation among Birds, considered in respect to its bearing upon the Value of certain assumed Specific Characters.

A systematic investigation of the extent and character of individual variation in birds seems not to have hitherto been attempted; in fact, few collections exist that furnish the material necessary to such a work. In occasional instances considerable differences between individuals of the same species, other than those that result from age and sex, have, however, already been pointed out, but these instances seem to have been generally, but improperly, regarded as exceptional cases.

The collection of birds in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy now offers unusual facilities for a general investigation of this subject, most of the common species of Eastern North America being each represented by fifty to one hundred and fifty or more specimens. The greater part of them having been collected in Southern New England, and a large proportion in Eastern Massachusetts, they are the more valuable for this purpose, from their having been collected essentially from the same locality. The examination of this material has disclosed a hitherto unsuspected range of purely individual differentiation in every species thus far studied. At the same time regard has been had to the more obscure seasonal variations in color, and to the general differences that depend upon age, including such as result from senility as well as from immaturity. Local or geographical variations have likewise been carefully considered, with results that a short time since were unsuspected. These several lines of investigation have shown that in many instances what have been regarded as reliable characteristies of species have in not a few cases really little or no value; that the importance of many diagnostic features has been too highly estimated, and that consequently a careful revision of our published faunæ will be necessary for the elimination of the merely nominal species. In the following pages many of the data which have led to these conclusions will be presented.

Individual variation not only affects color and size, but the proportions of different parts, as the relative size and form of the wings, tail, bill, toes, and tarsi, including the skeleton as well as the external organs;

of the soft parts no account can as yet be given. Geographical variation has an equally universal range, but is most strikingly exhibited in the color, in size, and in the form of the bill. Individual variation will be first considered, and subsequently geographical variation. In each case each prominent phase of variation will be more or less fully described.

## 1. Individual Variation.

Individual Variation in Color. — In birds of whatever age, two lines of variation from the average or medium type of coloration are readily distinguishable, the variation depending essentially on differences in the depth or intensity of the general tint. On the one hand, individual variation in color results from a greater than the average amount of coloring matter in the integuments; on the other hand, from an amount less than the average amount. The difference in this respect between the extremes of a series of fifty or one hundred specimens of any species, collected in course at a single locality, and nearly at the same season of the year, is often as great as occurs between truly distinct species. But the difference is here solely one of intensity of color, while in allied species there is almost always an appreciable variation in the style of coloration. In individual variation the differences usually extend alike to all parts of the integuments; that is, if the plumage of the upper surface of the body is brighter or paler than usual, the same difference extends to the plumage of the lower surface of the body, and also to the bill and the feet. This is noticeable not only in species that have the color in uniform masses, differing in tint on different regions of the body, as in the robin (Turdus migratorius), the bluebird (Sialia sialis), the Maryland yellow-throat (Geothlypis trichas), the mocking-bird (Mimus polyglottus), and species generally of that type of coloration, but also in spotted birds, as in the various spotted species of Fringillidæ, Turdus, Dendræca, etc., where the plumage on certain regions of the body is marked with numerous streaks and spots differing from the ground color, in which case the intensity of the color of the markings correllates in its variations with that of the ground color-Closely allied species, on the contrary, usually vary more or less, not only in respect to the ground color, but also to a greater or less degree in the style of the markings. In illustration of this point the familiar group of the small, spotted-breasted wood-thrushes of Eastern

North America — the group Hylocichla of Professor Baird — may be taken. Three of these species (Turdus fuscescens, T. Swainsoni, and T. Pallasi) are so closely related that for many years they were variously confounded with each other by almost all who wrote of them, one of them not being clearly recognized as distinct from the others till thus established by Dr. T. M. Brewer,\* in 1844, and also at about the same time by Mr. J. P. Giraud, † each apparently independently of the other. Yet they are so distinct that there seems to be not the slightest excuse for again confounding them. While they all agree so closely in general size, in form, and in proportions, that a series of detailed measurements of many specimens of each species gives in the average no constant differences in any of these particulars, each differs from the other radically and constantly in style of coloration, and somewhat in general tints, in habitat, nidification, habits and song. Two of these species (T. fuscescens and T. Swainsoni) agree in the style of the coloration of the dorsal surface, but differ so much in the color of this part, that this character alone is always sufficient to separate them, while a still wider difference is seen in the color and markings of the ventral surface, a glance at this part of T. fuscescens being sufficient to invariably distinguish it from either of its above-named allies. The third species (T. Pallasi) differs markedly from both the other two in the style of coloration of the dorsal surface, the rump and tail being conspicuously different in color from the anterior part of the body, whilst the others exhibit no contrast of color between these regions. But the under surface of T. Swainsoni is so like that of T. Pallasi that frequently specimens cannot readily be referred to the one species rather than to the other from a view of this surface alone. This group serves as a fair general illustration of the kind of variation in color usually seen in closely allied species, but there occur occasional exceptions, where a difference in the relative proportions of different parts, or a wide difference in size, is the prominent specific distinction, the smaller species, so far as color is concerned, being a diminutive representative of the larger.

Taking the present group of *Hylocichla* (for reasons that will appear hereafter ‡) as a group illustrative also of individual variation, it is found that the differences in color in different individuals of either species

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 191, July, 1844.

<sup>†</sup> Birds of Long Island, p. 91, 1843 - 44.

<sup>‡</sup> See the remarks on these species in Part IV.

results from the amount of rufous pervading the plumage. Individuals of Turdus Swainsoni of the rufous or bright-colored type have the dorsal surface of a uniform brownish-olivaceous tint, and the sides of the head and breast strongly suffused with yellowish-brown, which tint is also traceable throughout the lower plumage, in the brighter color of the basal brownish band on the inside of the wings, and in the color of the mouth and base of the bill. In other individuals the upper plumage is of a dark olivaceous tint, without any trace of brownish, the sides of the head, neck, and breast being ashen, with often no appreciable tinge of ferruginous; specimens of this type thus differing widely in general aspect from those of the other. Between these extremes, of which examples are not unfrequent, nor confined to any particular locality or season of the year, there is every degree of intergradation, specimens intermediate between the two being by far the most frequent, and constituting the average or common form.

Turdus Pallasi and Turdus fuscescens present precisely similar variations. They are also seen in Turdus mustelinus, in Turdus migratorius, in Sialia sialis, in Seiurus noveboracensis, in many species of Dendræca, sparrows, and other species which I have especially investigated in reference to this point, embracing examples of all the leading families of birds. The ruffed grouse (Bonasa umbellus), as is well known, varies in the color of the upper parts from reddish-brown to gray; the great horned owl (Bubo virginianus) from dusky through numerous shades of rufous and fulvous to nearly white, the fulvous suffusion so commonly present in this species varying from ferruginous on the one extreme to its complete obsolescence on the other. In such common and thoroughly known species as the robin, blue-bird, etc., the true character of these variations is recognized, but in groups where the species are not well known, and especially in specimens from partially explored regions, they are frequently regarded as of specific value, and the addition of numerous nominal species is the result.

Besides the variation in the depth of color already noticed, birds having the plumage varied with streaks and spots differ exceedingly in different individuals of the same species in respect to the size, shape, and number of these marks, and in the general aspect of the plumage resulting from such variations. Generally, as already stated, such differences correllate with the variations in the intensity of the ground color, the darker or more deeply colored birds being usually those with the mark-

ings largest and brightest. A wide range of variation in this respect is seen in all birds which have the breast and lower plumage marked with dark streaks and spots on a lighter ground, or that have the whole plumage streaked. In the common song sparrow (Melospiza melodia), the fox-colored sparrow (Passerella iliaca), the swamp sparrow (Melospiza palustris), the black and white creeper (Mniotilta varia), the water wagtail (Seiurus noveboracensis), in Turdus fuscescens and its allies, etc., the difference in the size of the streaks is often very considerable. In the song sparrow they vary to such an extent that in some cases \* they are reduced to narrow lines; in others so enlarged as to cover the greater part of the breast and sides of the body, sometimes uniting on the middle of the breast into a nearly continuous patch. Variation in this respect is equally great in the fox-colored sparrow and in the grass finch (Poocates gramineus). Massachusetts specimens of the savanna sparrow (Passerculus savanna auct.) also present variations exactly parallel with those of the song sparrow. Yet these differences, with other variations to be hereafter mentioned,† have been regarded, as in the case of Passerculus savanna, as of specific value. Similar variations in the Hylocichla group are very marked, as in Turdus (Hylocichla) fuscescens especially. In some specimens of this species the colors are on all parts not only very pale, but the markings on the breast are reduced to indistinct narrow lines; in others, in which the general color of the plumage is darker, the markings on the breast are dark, broad, and triangular. Two specimens taken in Cambridge the same day (early in May), both of which are males, exhibit these extremes. Average male specimens of the black and white creeper (Mniotilta varia), in which the plumage is varied with longitudinal black and white streaks, have the black streaks about a third broader than the white ones; but other specimens occur in which the white ones are equal to and even broader than the black ones; others have the black streaks so much broader than they usually are, - the white ones of course being proportionally reduced, — that the general aspect of the plumage at a short distance is nearly black. The difference between these two extremes is strikingly great. Yet similar variations, scarcely less in degree, occur in nearly all of the striped-breasted warblers.

In birds which have the ground color of certain areas of the body

<sup>\*</sup> Perfectly mature specimens only are here referred to.

<sup>†</sup> See the remarks on the genus Passerculus in Part IV.

black spotted with white, as in some of the woodpeckers (Picus villosus and P. pubescens, for example), the white markings vary in size most notably, and sometimes in number. The white markings so common on the wings and tails of birds, as the bars formed by the white tips of the greater wing coverts, the white patch occasionally present at the base of the primary quills, or the white band crossing them, and the white patch near the end of the outer tail feathers, are also extremely liable to variation in respect to their extent and the number of feathers to which, in the same species, these markings extend. Variation in the tail markings is particularly common, as may be seen by comparing numerous specimens of almost any species of Dendræca, Junco, Pipilo, of Mimus polyglottus, Chordeiles popetue, etc. In the latter species the white patch on the wing does not ordinarily encroach upon the outer vane of the first primary, and rarely upon its shaft, but in several specimens before me it covers not only the shaft of the first primary, but extends completely across its outer vane! The black subterminal bar on the upper surface of the tail of the ruffed grouse (Bonasa umbellus) ordinarily crosses all but the middle pair of feathers, on which there is usually no trace of this bar; in many specimens, however, it is barely traceable on them, and in others it is as distinct and perfect on the middle pair as on the others.\*

The Parula americana presents also remarkable examples of individual color variation. The colors of the males are usually much brighter than those of the females, but cases are frequent where the sex cannot be determined by the color of the plumage. Adult males also vary greatly in the style of coloration. They are generally bright yellow anteriorly below, with a broad band of dusky reddish-brown across the breast, varying in tint from nearly pure chestnut to dusky reddish-brown, and even black, and also greatly in extent. In some, however, this band is partially obsolete, in which case the whole plumage is generally paler than in average specimens. More rarely large, brightly colored males are taken, even in New England, with the whole breast bright yellow, the brownish pectoral band being entirely absent. This condition, however, seems to be more frequent in specimens of Parula collected in Mexico, and Central and Northern South America, which on this account have been regarded as distinct from the Parula of the North; yet all the conditions of color seen in specimens from

<sup>\*</sup> See remarks on color variations in other species in Part IV.

the North are also common to those from the South, and vice versa.

In species in which the female usually differs from the male in being paler colored, the pattern of coloration being the same in both sexes, females occur more or less frequently which are as brightly colored as the brightest males, and males that are paler than the generality of the females.

Variation in Color depending on Season. — A word in this connection seems necessary concerning some of the more obscure variations depending upon season and age, since it is sometimes difficult to avoid confounding these differences with those resulting from individual variation. In many species there is a marked change in the color of the plumage without a change of the plumage itself. No experienced collector can have failed to notice the much brighter and livelier tints the plumage of most song birds presents immediately after the autumnal moult, in species in which there is no marked seasonal change of color, in comparison with the faded appearance they exhibit towards the close of the breeding season. This brighter autumnal tint is particularly marked in the Vircos, the different species of Empidonax, Sayornis, Contopus, and in some of the Sylvicolida, and is clearly traceable in hundreds of other species. But almost as great a difference is seen when specimens of any species taken in spring, on its first arrival at its breeding station, are compared with those collected several weeks later, or just before the autumnal renewal of the plumage. In this case the variation results in part from an actual fading of the color, and in part from the wearing of the edges of the feathers. Seasonal differences of this character are often only readily appreciable to the experienced eye, and the failure to recognize the eause of these differences has led in many instances to their being regarded as of specific value. Especially noteworthy instances of such mistakes will be noticed later. Collectors, and even naturalists, gencrally place little value on faded or dull-colored specimens, so that ordinarily in collections of our native birds only fine-looking specimens are preserved. But travellers and explorers of new localities are often compelled to content themselves with any representative they may be able to get, so that the "closet" or exclusively "museum naturalist" has not usually the material necessary to furnish him with a clew to the cause of these variations.

Generally, aside from the paler tints of late-collected birds, as compared with those taken early in the season, there is a total absence of the grayish, yellowish, brownish, or rufous suffusions (the particular tint varying of course in different species) that tinges the feathers early in the season. The general aspect of the plumage at the two periods in question is thus essentially different. The common chickadee (Parus atricapillus) will illustrate this point, in which the brownish tint so conspicuous on the lateral portions of the ventral plumage in autumn and winter is gradually lost as spring approaches, and in summer is almost entirely wanting, especially in nesting females, which at this season have the plumage generally much more worn than the males. The savanna sparrow will also illustrate the differences resulting simply from the fading of the color during the breeding season. In spring both sexes have a greenish-yellow, superciliary stripe, varying more or less in intensity in different specimens, but rarely or never of the pale soiled-whitish so frequently met with late in the breeding season. In the large series of specimens before me collected at that season in Massachusetts, few if any have this stripe so bright as average spring specimens have it, in many it having faded to soiled white. Scores of similar cases might be cited, but the above are sufficient for illustration.

Variations in Color depending upon Age. — So well known are many of the variations depending upon age, that it seems necessary to advert to only a few of the lesser known phases. In many species there is no marked difference between old and young birds, after the moulting of the first or nestling plumage, which usually occurs in the oscine groups in a few weeks after they leave the nest. But even in these, in many cases, sufficient marks of immaturity remain for a time to enable any one acquainted with such features to recognize birds of one or two years of age from those that are older. Yearling birds of this group are often recognizable by their having more or less well-defined bars across the wings, formed of light-colored, hastate, or drop-shaped spots on the ends of the greater wing-coverts and inner secondaries, which in many genera are peculiar to yearling birds, though in other respects, so far as the plumage is concerned, they are not distinguishable from adults, a difference which in some instances has been considered specific. Similar marks are also seen in older birds, in species that do not obtain their adult colors till later in life.

Yearling and two-year-old birds are also often distinguishable from older ones by the presence, after the spring moult, of a greater than the ordinary amount of ferruginous, ashy, or yellowish edging to the feathers, such as is often seen in the winter plumage of adult birds. In some cases such a bordering to the clothing feathers, especially those of the back, is often strictly distinctive of young birds, and is, moreover, a feature of common occurrence.

Generally speaking, several years clapse before the purity of the colors and the definiteness of outline of the markings characteristic of maturity is fully obtained, especially in highly colored species. In birds of variegated colors the contrasts of color become for a time more and more decided with each moult, and the markings better and better defined, especially in respect to the white bars of the wings and the spots on the tail common to a large number of species. The latter markings usually gradually increase in extent for a considerable period. A good illustration of this is seen in many of the gulls, particularly in the genus Larus. In L. argentatus the following gradual change with age occurs in the white markings on the tips of the primaries. At first, as ornithologists are aware, the plumage of this species is uniformly dusky, the adult colors not being acquired before the second year, and apparently frequently not before the third, there being in the breeding season usually a large proportion of individuals in the brown plumage.\* But there are wide differences in the intensity of the color in different individuals in this stage of plumage, some being but slightly dusky and others extremely dark, - differences that probably result mainly from differences in age, the darker birds being probably yearling birds and the lighter ones two years old, though part of the difference is doubtless due to individual differentiation. In this stage the wings and tail are of nearly the same uniform dusky tint as the general plumage. In what may be considered as the second stage, the general color is somewhat lighter, the tail much lighter, and the primaries much darker, with a distinct paler apical margin. At a third stage the tail becomes white, the dorsal plumage begins to assume the blue tint characteristic of maturity, the primaries change from dull blackish brown to black, and a small white spot appears near the end of the inner vane of the first

<sup>\*</sup> Generally the large parties that spend the summer on the coast of Massachusetts, where none of these birds now breed, consist almost wholly of birds in the brown stage of plumage. See American Naturalist, Vol. III, p. 640, 1870.

primary, separated from the white at the extreme tip by a broad space of black. A subsequent gradual increase occurs in the purity of the colors and in the extent and form of the wing markings. The complete series of the changes in the latter is as follows: At first, as previously remarked, the primaries are dull brownish black, a little darker than the general plumage, with their extreme apical margins lighter. At the next stage the three inner primaries have become much lighter, and the light border to all broader and whiter. Later the three inner primaries and the distal portions of most of the others become wholly ashy white, and the outer portion of the other primaries much blacker. The subapical dark portion of the wing now embraces only the seven outer primaries, and is of a triangular form, the first primary forming the base of the triangle. The black on the outer vane of the first primary reaches nearly to the base of the outer vane of the second, and is more and more restricted on the others, till on the sixth (or, more rarely, on the seventh) it forms only a narrow bar near the tip. In other words, the black, if present on the seventh primary, exists as a narrow transverse subapical bar, which bar increases in distal extension on the sixth, fifth, fourth, third, and second, to the first, and embraces the whole outer vane of the first primary. The basal outline of the black area being an oblique one, a much larger portion of the outer than of the inner vane of each feather is embraced in the black space. All the primaries are now terminated with a narrow white border, the first primary having also an oval white spot on the inner vane, near the end of the feather. Subsequently this spot enlarges so as to embrace a part of both vanes, the white at the tip of the feather also meantime increasing somewhat in extent, and the two being separated by a broad bar of black. Coincident with this increase in the amount of white on the first primary, a small white spot appears on the inner vane of the second primary. Subsequent increase in the extent of these white markings goes on until the white area on the second primary extends to both vanes, and the two white spots on the first primary are separated by only a narrow bar of black. Later still this bar becomes broken, through the partial union of the two white spots, and finally becomes entirely obsolete, leaving the first primary with a single continuous white apical area, an inch and a half to two inches in length. It is probable that not all individuals reach this final stage, though most doubtless do in old age. A large series of specimens of mature birds usually exhibit the gradual change above described, and indicate the inconstancy of these markings and their unreliability as specific characters. Often, as is well known, these markings in the gulls differ considerably in the two wings of the same bird.

Although the *L. argentatus* has been taken as a general illustration, the same variations with age, or in different individuals, are exhibited by most species of the genus *Larus*. Generally they are admitted to have no value as specific characters, even by those who in the case of *L. argentatus* have accorded to them this importance.

In some of the species of Junco and Pipilo, in Mimus, in numerous species of Dendræca, in Parula, Mniotilta, etc., there is a similar increase with age in the extent of the white markings on the tail, sometimes three and sometimes four pairs of feathers being spotted or terminated with white in different specimens of the same species. In short, these variations occur in so many species that they may be looked upon as indicating a general law of variation in color depending upon age, namely, an increase in the purity or intensity of the general color, and an increase in the size of the wing and tail markings, for a time, with age.

After complete maturity is attained there is, however, unquestionable evidence of a decline in color, which in many cases, and especially in bright-colored species, is quite marked. So general is such a decline in other groups of the animal kingdom that a citation of evidence on this point seems wholly needless. Yet in birds, in numerous instances, it is scarcely appreciable, and doubtless is in most species too slight to be readily traced. This obscurity may result, however, more from an absence of favorable conditions for such a decline to be recognized than from its real absence. It can hardly be doubted, in fact, that a share of the color variation seen in mature birds is attributable to this cause. It is well known that young mammals in their first pelage are, as a general rule, much darker colored than the adults of the same species. At a later period the color fades more slowly, but in old age the hair often becomes more or less gray, the blanching being in some cases very marked. Nearly all birds are also darker in their nestling and immature stages of plumage than after they arrive at maturity, especially if in the adult stage the plumage is light colored; and it is more than probable, and in some cases certain, that the decline in color

continues in a slight degree through life. The change of Fulco candicans from du-ky when young to nearly white when fully mature may be hardly referable wholly to the blanching of age; but the gradual obsolescence of the dusky mottlings of the snowy owl (Nyctea nivea), as it advances in age, seems strictly parallel to the blanching of the gray colt to a white horse. Hence a second law of variation in color in old age, namely, that of senile decline.

# INDIVIDUAL VARIATION IN GENERAL SIZE AND IN THE RELATIVE SIZE OF DIFFERENT PARTS.

Individual Variation in General Size and Form. — Measurements of scores of specimens of birds of the same species and sex, collected at the same locality and season, show the existence of a large range of individual variation, both in size and in general proportions; the variation extending to every external part of the body, and implying a corresponding variation in the internal anatomy. In birds size has usually been regarded, from its comparative constancy in the same species, as an important specific character. But from the fact that specimens of closely allied species often differ but little from each other in this respect, it has been justly looked upon as being in some cases more or less unreliable; but from the great importance commonly attached to it, it is evident that such instances are usually regarded as exceptional. Individual variation in this respect having been formerly regarded as too slight to have any significance, the size of a single specimen has usually been given as that of the species to which it belonged; hence subsequent variations from it discovered in other specimens of the same species has sometimes led to the recognition of the latter as specifically distinct. Especially has this been the case when a difference in size has been associated with a wide difference of locality. The facts in the case, however, show that a variation of fifteen to twenty per cent in general size, and an equal degree of variation in the relative size of different parts, may be ordinarily expected among specimens of the same species and sex, taken at the same locality, while in some cases the variation is even greater than this. Table A (p. 198) shows to some extent the general variation in size, but it does not always give, nor even generally, the extreme differences in the size of similar parts, as the wing, tail, etc., since those averaging the largest or

smallest for the four measurements given are often not those having the longest or the shortest wing, tail, or tarsus, or which measure the most or the least in length or alar extent. The extremes of variation in the size of the wing and tail is given in Tables B, C, and D.\*

Table A. — Variation in General Size.

Mus Comp. Zoolegy No. Collector's Number. Fex.	Locality.	Date.	Collected by	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
S84   693   3   Turdus Swain   1520   -	soni i Newton, " i	May 14, 'e2, '68 May 25, '68 May 26, '68 May 26, '68 May 27, '68 May 21, '68 May 20, '68 May 30, '68 Sept.19, '67 Sept.30, '68 Mar. 28, '68 Mar. 28, '68 Mar. 27, '68 May 30, '68 Sept.28, '69 Mar. 12, '68 May 6,	J. A. Allen C.J. Maynard C.J. M	7.76 J 7.	2.65 1.40 2.83 3.70 11.95 9.3 1.95 9.8 2.5 1.2.6 9.73 1.7.75 9.75 1.0.8 2.2.6 9.40 9.8.9 9.40 9.8.9 9.8.9 1.10 9.8.2 9.8.2 9.8.2 1.1.9 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0	4 200 3 800	$\begin{array}{c} 2.83\\ 3.83\\ 4.00\\ 3.55\\ 2.00\\ 2.07\\ 2.60\\ 2.20\\ 2.20\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\ 2.20\\ 2.25\\$
1485 915 Z Sterna hirund 10464 952 Z Sterna arctica ————————————————————————————————————	o Muskeget Isl Muskeget Isl. [mus Muskeget Isl.	June29, 768 July 2, 768 July 2, 768	J. A. Allen J. A. Allen J. A. Allen J. A. Allen H. C. Daring L. Agassiz	14 90 : 16 1. : 14.40 :	29 39 32 15 29 00 12.25	$\frac{10.40}{11.60}$	5 50 7.50 6 30 3.85

As a large proportion of the specimens mentioned in some of the following tables (most of Tables A to G) were taken during the senson of their migration, they may have originated at widely different localities, and thus the differences indicated may be in some measure due to geographical causes. In other cases, however, all the specimens

<sup>\*</sup> The measurements given in this paper were all taken either from fresh specimens by the collector, or by myself from specimens preserved in spirits.

were taken in the breeding season; while in still other instances (Tables II to P) the species were purposely chosen from among such as find their northern limit of distribution near the locality where all were taken. Of ten species of the latter class, twenty perfect male specimens have been carefully measured,\* the measurements embracing a series of eighteen to twenty distinct parts; under such circumstances the variation in general size, in length, in alar extent, in the length of the folded wing, the tail, the tarsus, the head, the bill, etc., etc., commonly ranged from twelve to eighteen per cent.

In respect to the differences in the general form of the body, two leading styles of variation from the average form may be recognized in nearly all species, namely, a relatively robust form, in which the stoutness extends to all parts, and a relatively slender form, in which the slenderness is equally general. Variations of this general and symmetrical character are remarkable only for their extent, since in such cases there are no marked discrepancies between the relative size of different parts. Contrary, however, to our usual notions of exact symmetry in animals, the unsymmetrical variations are by far the most frequent and important.

Variation in the Relative Size of Different Parts. — In specimens of average size of any given species, considerable differences exist in the relative size of different parts. In individuals of the average alar extent of their species, for example, the length of the folded wing may vary very considerably, in consequence of a difference in the length of the primary quills as compared to the length of the bones of the wing. The length of the folded wing or the alar extent may vary with reference to the whole length of the specimen, in consequence of differences in the relative length of the tail, the neck, or the body. The tarsus also varies independently of variation in the general size, as do also the toes to the tarsi, relatively short toes being found to accompany tarsi of ordinary length, and, conversely, long toes short tarsi.† The wing varies in its form in consequence of the different relative development of the primary and secondary guills. The tail varies in respect to its form, especially in regard to the degree of its emargination or graduation, and, in some groups, in respect to the number of its feathers. The bill also varies greatly in size and form. The variations in these various parts will be considered separately and in detail.

<sup>\*</sup> See below, Tables H to P, pp. 210-219. 

‡ See Table E, p. 204.

§ See Table F, p. 205.

Variation in the Length of the Folded Wing and the Tail .- The measurements given in the following table (Table B) sufficiently illustrate the variation in the length of the folded wing in fully mature specimens of the same sex and species, while Table C indicates the variation in the length of the tail, in specimens of a similar character. All the specimens, with a few exceptions, were taken within a few miles of Cambridge; the others are mainly also from Eastern Massachusetts, a few \* being from a single locality in Florida. The series from which these extremes are taken embrace ordinarily not more than twenty-five or thirty specimens; with larger suites the differences would in many cases doubtless be much increased. The largest and smallest only are taken, between which, however, there is every gradation. The difference between these extremes is indicated, and also the percentage of the variation, based on the average of the two extremes. The amount of the variation in the length of the folded wing ranges, as will be seen from the table, from twelve to twenty-one per cent of the average length. In the tail the amount of variation in respect to length ranges from fourteen to twenty-three per cent. The different species vary considerably in respect to the amount of variation each presents, some being much more variable than others. It should be stated, however, that as a general rule the widest extremes, or the highest percentages of variation, occur in those species of which the greatest number of specimens has been examined. It will also be noticed that the tail usually varies more than the wings. In species with a relatively long tail the percentage of variation in the length of this member is found to be greater than in those species in which it is of medium length or short, as would have been naturally expected. In several cases the greater differences occur between females, but this may be a mere coincidence.

In this connection it may be added that the variation proves to be much less between specimens of the same species and sex when taken at a single locality in the breeding season than when taken during the period of migration. In many instances specimens of the same species may be obtained at one locality which shall represent the whole range of its geographical variation, as well as its individual variation, as in the case of those species which breed far to the North, but migrate in winter to the tropics, being thus but transient visitors to the temperate portions of the United States.

<sup>\*</sup> Those of Mimus polyglottus, Cardinalis virginianus, Picus borealis.

Table B. — Individual Variation in the Length of the Folded Wing.

M C. Z No.	Orig No.	Sex		Folded Wing	Difference.	Percent of Variation.
10596	2510 2485	9 9	Mimus polyglottus Mimus polyglottus	4.75 ( 4.00 (	.75	17.0
10716	1987 1993	3 3	Cardinalis virginianus Cardmalis virginianus	3.85 (	.55	14.6
	316 820	ਰ ਤੋਂ	Passerculus savanna Passerculus savanna	2.95 }	.40	14.5
8830 8834	367 556	ਹੈ ਹੈ	Turdus fuscescens Turdus fuscescens	4.16 } 3.55 }	.61	15.8
4821 4819	148 5	ರೆ ರೆ	Sayornis fuscus Sayornis fuscus	3.87 }	.67	19.0
9057 5020	618 703	ਤੋਂ ਤੋਂ	Geothlypis trichas Geothlypis trichas	2 56 }	.50	21.0
4648 4655	1389 751	ਹੈ ਹੈ	Carpodacus purpureus Carpodacus purpureus	3 70 / 3 10 }	.60	17.6
9696 1421		3°	Pipilo erythrophthalmus Pipilo erythrophthalmus	3.68 }	.51	14.6
4910	170 140	3°	Junco hyemalis Junco hyemalis	3.20 } 2.75 }	.45	180
1568 10025	_	?	Tyrannus carolinensis Tyrannus carolinensis	4.85 }	.68	15.0
10014 2734	_	i .	Galeoscoptes carolinensis Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3 85 \ 3.25 \	.60	17.0
786 1334		3	leterus Baltimore Leterus Baltimore	4.00 } 3 42 }	.58	16.0

Table C. — Individual Variation in the Length of the Tail.

M C. Z No	Orig No	Sex		Tail.	Difference.	Percent of Variation.
10592	2474 2372	ਹੈ ਟੈ	Mimus polyglottus Mimus polyglottus	5.15 }	.95	20.5
_	1955 2460	3	Cardinalis virginianus Cardinalis virginianus	4 30 ( 3 40 (	.90	23.4
5096	317 846	o o	Passerculus savanna Passerculus savanna	2.26 ( 1.85 (	.41	19.5
8830 8835	528 556	ਹੈ ਹੈ	Turdus fuscescens Turdus fuscescens	3 00 { 2 55 {	.45	14.4
		9	Parus atricapillus Parus atricapillus	2.63 ( 2.15 (	.48	20.0
9056 5020	454 703	∂ ♂	Geothlypis trichas Geothlypis trichas	2 15 { 1.70 {	.45	23.4
4651 4653	1071 1371	9	Carpodacus purpureus Carpodacus purpureus	2.57 { 2.05 {	.52	22.5
4614 4727	1330 415	ਹੈ ਹੈ	Pipilo crythrophthalmus Pipilo crythrophthalmus	4 00 { 3.29 {	.71	19.5
4917	160 201	5° 5°	Junco hyemalis Junco hyemalis	2.78 { 2.40 {	.38	15.0
10646 10633	1972 41	4	Picus borealis Picus borealis	3.75 }	.50	14.0
1317		?	Tyrannus carolinensis Tyrannus carolinensis	2.93 }	.61	19.0
2734 10014		3	Galeoscoptes carolinensis Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3.35 (	.75	20.0
1334 2289		3 3	Icterus Baltimore Icterus Baltimore	2.70 { 3.10 }	.40	13 8

Variation in the Relative Length of the Wings and Tail. — Table D illustrates the irregularity of the variation in the wings and the tail. The first column of measurements gives the length of the folded wing, and

Table D. — Individual Variation in the relative Length of the Folded Wing and Tail.

M. C. Z. No.	Original No.	šex.		Wing.	Tail.	Diff. betw'n Wing and Tail.	Amount of Variation.
	2429	3	Mimus polyglottus	4.35	4.35	.00 )	
10590	2342	9	Minus polyglottus	3.25	4.35	+1.00	
10000	2560	Q.	Minus polyglottus	4 15	4.35	+ .25	1 1
	2614	3	Minus polyglottus	4.40	4.90	+ .50 }	1.20
	2340	3	Mimus polyglottus	4.40	4.50	+ .10	1.20
	2478	9	Mimus polyglottus	4.40	4 20	20	
	2374	3	Mimus polyglottus	4 30	4.16	14	
8881	441	3	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3 60	3.60	.00)	
0001	1376	Q	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3.70	3 60	10	.45
8879	412	3	Galeoscoptes carolmensis	3.75	4.10	+ .35	
8841	495	3	Turdus fuseescens	4.00	3.00	1.00	
8832	332	3	Turdus fuscescens	4.10	4.00	.10 (	1.15
8835	581	3	Turdus fuscescens	4.15	2 90	1.25	
8821	374	3	Seinrus auroeapillus	3.60	2 00	1.00 /	
	423	3	Seinrus aurocapillus	3.00	2 66	1.66	.66
8851	322	Ŷ	Turdus Pallasi	3,50	2 60	.90 }	
	301	3	Turdus Pallasi	3.43	3 17	.23	.67
4301	514	3	Dendræca æstiva	2.85	1.80	1.05	
1001	362	3	Dendræca æstiva	2 45	1.98	.47	.58
5058	707	3	Dendræca striata	2.85	2.00	.85 )	
	1341	3	Dendræca striata	3.00	1.75	1,25	
5062	734	9	Dendræca striata	2.45	1.98	.46 )	.79
	741	9	Dendræca striata	2.80	1.80	1 00 {	
5041	665	3	Setophaga ruticilla	2.60	2.10	50 ]	1
	698	8	Setophaga ruticilla	2.43	2,50	+ .07	.57
	693	Q.	Regulus satrapa	2.20	1.52	.68 ]	
	50	Ý	Regulus satrapa	1.94	1.75	.19	.49
4808	711	3	Contopus virens	3 3 5	2.36	.99 /	
4994	1116	8	Contopus virens	3.15	2.70	.45	,54
10645	1924	ਰ	Picus borealis	4.80	3.32	1.48 )	
10646	1972	9	Picus borealis	4.75	3.75	1.00	.48
4587	323	3	Agelæus phæniceus	4.85	3 40	1.45 )	
4589	214	3	Agelæus phæniceus	4.60	3.82	.78	.67
4654	1069	3	Carpodacus purpureus	3 85	2 00	1.35 }	
4655	286	3	Carpodaeus purpureus	3.03	2.32	.71	.64
~	288	3	Poocætes gramineus	3.55	2.41	1.14 }	5.4
	846	9	Poocætes gramineus	3.10	2.50	.60	.54
	881	3	Passerculus savanna	2.75	1.85	.90 }	4.2
	127	3	l'asserculus savanna	2.74	2.25	.49	.41
	115	3	Passerella iliaca	3 75	2.65	1.10 (	70
	55	9	Passerella iliaea	3.32	3.00	.32	.78
	177	3	Melospiza melodia	2.35	2.68	+ .33 (	10
	2363	3	Melospiza melodia	2 60	2.40	20 }	.53
	2369	3	Cardinalis virginianus	3 60	3 40	20 į	.70
		3	Cardinalis virginianus	3.60	4.10	+ .50 }	.70
2293		3	Doliehonyx oryzivora	3.75	2.78	.96 {	.32
5741		3	Doliehonyx oryzivora	4 00	2.72	1.28	.52
10107		3	Hedymeles ludoviciana	4.20	2.93	1.27	.39
9787		3	Hedymeles Indoviciana	3.83	2.95	.88 }	.09

the second the length of the tail, of the same specimens; the third column shows the difference in length between the tail and the wing, and the fourth column the amount of the difference between the two extremes. In Mimus polyglottus the tail is usually one fourth to one half an inch longer than the wing; but in many specimens the wings and tail are equal, and in a small proportion the tail is shorter than the wing. In the seven specimens of this species cited in the table, the variation ranges from the tail being one fifth of an inch shorter than the folded wing to one inch longer. In the three specimens which agree in the length of the tail (4.35 in.), the variation in the length of the folded wing ranges from 3.25 in. to 4.25 in., or is nearly twenty-seven (26.85) per cent. The larger specimen, however, is a male, while the others are females; but between the two females the difference is over twenty-four (24.3) per cent. Similar differences have been met with in various other species, but it has not been deemed necessary to cite a larger list of examples.

Variation in the Form of the Wing. — By the form of the wing is meant its general outline when expanded, which is mainly determined by the relative length of the remiges. The form of the wing, and especially the relative length of the different primary remiges, has direct relation to the power of flight. In strong, swift-flying birds, the outer primaries are the longest, giving a narrow pointed form to the expanded wing, as in the swifts, the swallows, in Chordeiles, in the Sterninæ and in most of the Procellaridæ. In birds of medium powers of flight, as in most of the true finches (Coccothraustinæ) and Turdinæ, the Tyrannidæ, the Sylvicolidæ, etc., etc., the third, fourth, and fifth primaries are the longest, the wing being less pointed and broader. In species with low power of flight, as the Troglodytidæ, several genera of sparrows, the grouse, etc., the outer primaries are still more reduced, the wing is much more rounded and shorter, and the power of flight is in each case correspondingly less. In birds of the first class, which live almost wholly on the wing, little variation is seen in the relative length of the primaries. In those of the second and third classes, slight variations affect in less degree the particular habits of life, so that among the latter would be naturally expected the greatest range of individual variation.

Correlating with the variation in the form of the wing, as determined by the relative length of the outer primaries to the length of the inner primaries are similar variations in the relative length of the inner secondaries as compared with the outer secondaries. Relatively short inner secondaries (generally improperly called "tertiaries") hence accompany long primaries, and, conversely, long inner secondaries, short outer primaries. The particular form of the wing in any group depending upon the relative development of these several elements, they hence afford excellent generic characters; but while thus important, they are subject to a considerable range of individual variation. The form of the wing being readily determined by measurements, and easily expressed mathematically, the amount of the variation is easily measured and tabulated. In the following table (Table E) the extent and character of this variation is to some degree illustrated. In the first column of measurements is given the length of the folded wing; in the second the extent of the longest primary beyond the outer (or shortest) secondary, and in the third the extent of the longest primary beyond the inner (or longest) secondary. The fourth column gives the amount of variation in each specimen cited.

Table E. - Variation in the Form of the Wing.

M. C. Z. No.	Sex,	Species.	Length of the Wing.	Ext, of Pr. beyond Outer Sec	Ext. of Pr. beyond Inner Sec.	Amount of Variation.
2319	3	Icterus Baltimore	3.75	.77	.90	.13
2290	3	Icterus Baltimore	3 83	.67	.81	.14
1333	3	Icterus Baltimore	3.64	.57	1.06	.49
1567	3	Icterus Baltimore	3.80	.56	.92	.36
2964	3	Icterus Baltimore	3.85	.77	1.07	.30
2299	3	Icterus Baltimore	3 85	.87	1.12	.25
2296	d'	Dolichonyx oryzivora	3.80	.98	1.42	.44
5741	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	4.00	1.20	1.40	.20
119	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	3.82	.78	1.23	.45
9854	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	3 53	.98	1.14	.16
284	3	Tyrannus carolinensis	4.30	.85	1.15	.30
113	3	Tyrannus carolinensis	4.60	.90	1.45	.55
1317	? :	Tyrannus earolinensis	4.25	.76	1.10	.34
4009	3	Tyrannus carolinensis	4 60	1.35	1 62	.27
10107	₹	Hedymeles ludoviciana	4.20	,90	1.05	.15
590	ď	Hedymeles ludoviciana	4 ()()	,90	1.25	.35
9935	3	Hedymeles ludoviciana	4.00	.60	1.06	.40
1456	ੈ ਹੈ	Sialia sialis	3.75	1.00	1.10	.10
1945	3	Sialia sialis	3.90	1.03	1.10	.07
333	ੋ	Sialia sialis	4 07	1.30	1.30	.00
5606	ੋ	Sialia sialis	4 05	1 25	1.40	.15
10292	3	Sialia sialis	3.90	.95	1 15	.20
256	- 2	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3,37	.55	.50	-,05
1790	5	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3.75	.55	.70	+.15
5353	3	Galcoscoptes carolinensis	3.55	.35	.57	+,22
10014	3	Galco-coptes carolinensis	3.85	.70	.75	+.05
2274	3	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	3.75	.67	.70	+.03

Variation in the relative Length of the Primary Quills. — From the great stress laid upon the relative length of the outer primaries by descriptive ornithologists in determining genera and species, one would be led to expect but a slight amount of variation in this respect in specimens of the same species. On the contrary, however, it is soon found, on giving special attention to this character, that a considerable amount of individual variation in this regard really exists. That the wing formula, so generally introduced of late years into specific diagnoses, is in a great degree unreliable as a specific character, is sufficiently shown by the subjoined table (Table F, p. 206) of the relative proportions of the primaries. The comparison, extended in the table to only a few species has been carried to scores of others with similar results.

In general, in species of the *Oscines* which have the second primary usually the longest, it is sometimes the first and sometimes the third that is the longest. In those which have the third ordinarily the longest, the second and third, the third and the fourth, or the second, third, and fourth are frequently equal. In those in which the first (or the second when the first is very short) is intermediate to the second and fourth or to the third and fifth, it may be equal to or longer than the second or third, or only equal to the fourth or fifth.

Variation in the Form of the Tail, and in the Number of the Rectrices. — Individual variation in the form of the tail is often quite marked. In species with the tail deeply forked, different specimens vary considerably in respect to the depth of the fork. Those with the tail rounded and much graduated differ greatly in respect to the amount the middle feathers exceed the outer ones in length. In species with a normally nearly even tail, the tail is sometimes distinctly emarginate, and sometimes as distinctly rounded in different specimens of the same species.

In regard to the number of rectrices, in those groups in which the number exceeds twelve, as in the Rasores, the Lamellirostres, etc., the number is frequently variable. The rectrices of the common ruffed grouse (Bonasa umbellus) are usually eighteen in number, but an examination of numerous specimens shows that the number varies from sixteen to twenty. The usual number in Tetrao canadensis is sixteen, but the number varies from fourteen to eighteen. In Cupidonia cupido, and in other species of grouse, similar variations also occur. They are also frequent in the Anserinæ. In Bernicla canadensis, for example, the usual number of rectrices is eighteen, but the number

Table F. — Variation in the relative Length of the Primaries.

	M. C. Z.	Species.	Longest.	2d in Length	3d in Length.	4th in Length	5th in Length	6th in Length	7th in Length	Sth in Length.	9th in Length.
-	3289	Turdus fuscescens	4 3	3	2 2	5 5	6	7 7			
	6764 8837	Turdus fuscescens Turdus fuscescens	41	4 2	5	6	7	8			
	8849	Turdus Pallasi	3 5	3	5	6	2	7	,		
	5197	Turdus Pallasi	4	5	3	6	2	7			
	8205	Turdus Pallasi	4	3	5	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 6 \\ 1 \end{array} \right\}$	7	8			
-	8206	Turdus Pallasi	4	3 } 5 }	6	2	7	8			
	10698	Myiarchus crinitus	3	4	2	5	6	1	7		
	10699	Myiarchus crinitus	3	3	4 2	5	6	1	7 8		
	8166	Myiarchus crinitus	3)		2	3		75			
	10700	Myiarchus crinitus	4}	2	5	6	1	7	8		
	10701	Myiarchus crinitus	3	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 2 \end{array} \right\}$	5	6	1	7	8		
	12420	Tyrannus carolinensis	2	3	1	4	5 5	6			
	4612 6457	Tyrannus carolinensis Tyrannus carolinensis	2	3	1 1 1	1 5	6	7			
	4816	Contopus borealis	2	1	3	4	5	6			
	6665	Contopus borealis	2	3	1	4	5	6	7		
	6938 6932	Sayornis fuscus Sayornis fuscus	3,	2)	6	5	7	8	9		
1	5364	Lophophanes bicolor	4 }	5 5	6	3	7	8	9	2	1
	5248	Lophophanes bicolor	5	4	6	7	3	8	9	2	i
		Lophophanes bicolor	${5 \atop 4}$	7	3	8	9	2	1		
	5080	Dendræca coronata	2 3	3 2	1	4	5 5	6			
	5176 6678	Dendræca coronata  Dendræca coronata	3	$\left\{\begin{array}{c}2\\2\\4\end{array}\right\}$	4	1 5	6	7			
			21								
	3412	Dendræca coronata	3 3 2	4	1	5	6	7			
	10533	Dendræca coronata	$\begin{bmatrix} 1\\3\\4 \end{bmatrix}$	5	6	7	8	9			
	$5056 \\ 5057$	Dendræca striata Dendræca striata	2	1 2	3	4 4	5 5	6			
	3390	Dendræca striata	2	1 3	4	5	6	7			
	6675	Dendræca striata	2	3	1	4	5	6	7		
	10958 10963	Pinicola enucleator Binicola énucleator	3	4 2	2 4	5	1 5	6	7		
	10960	Pinicola enuclentor	3	2	i	4	5	6	7		
	10962	Pinicola enucleator	3 }	4	1	5	6	7	8		
	8114	Pinicola cnucleator	3	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 4\\2 \end{array} \right\}$	1	5	6	7	8		
	4843	Ampelis cedrorum	2	3	1	4	5				
	4633 4844	Ampelis cedrorum Ampelis cedrorum	1 2	2	3	4 4	5 5				

varies from fourteen to twenty. Specimens with sixteen are tolerably frequent. Yet one of the principal characters urged as separating the B. Hutchinsii from the B. canadensis is the possession of two more feathers in the tail by the latter than the so-called B. Hutchinsii is assumed to have. In Bernicla brenta the usual number is sixteen, but in different specimens they vary from fourteen to eighteen. A greater, or less amount of variation in the number of the feathers of the tail is more or less common to numerous other species of the duck tribe. An odd number is even quite frequent, one half of the tail having normally one more feather than the other.

Variation in the Relative Length of the Tarsus and Toes. — A common feature in modern generic and specific diagnoses is a statement of the ratio the length of the tarsus bears to the length of the middle toe or to the hallux, and the relative length of the hallux to the outer or inner toe, as though we had here constant structural proportions. The following table (Table G) shows that such is not the case, the varia-

Table G. - Relative Length of Tarsi and Toes.

M. C. Z. No.	Sex.	Species.	Tarsus.	Middle Toe.	Outer Toe.	Hallux
5858	3	Galcoscoptes carolinensis	1.08	1.04	.77	.75
2273	3	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	1.15	.98	.70	.70
10356	?	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	1.00	1.00	.70	.73
5857	3	Galcoscoptes carolinensis	1.18	1.08	.70	.75
2229	3	Galeoscoptes carolinensis	1.07	.93	.68	.67
5605	8	Sialia sialis	.77	.77	.57	.58
1456	3	Sialia sialis	.74	.84	.62	.65
5766	3	Sialia sialis	.83	.80	.56	.60
1883	3	Sialia sialis	.80	.91	.77	.65
1946	3	Sialia sialis	.80	.84	.77	.61
1881	3	Sialia sialis	.77	.85	.56	.72
1771	3	Pipilo crythrophthalmus	.98	.95	.73	.80
1399	2	Pipilo crythrophthalmus	1.05	1.05	,80	.78
350	3	Pipilo erythrophthalmus	1.05	1.12	.76	.84
1476	ਰ	Pipilo erythrophthalmus	1.10	1.03	.75	.78
2985	3	Pipilo erythrophthalmus	1.13	1.00	.80	.80
9854	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	.98	(~1.17	.83	.82
5585	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	1.15	1.27	.98	.93
9894	₫	Dolichonyx oryzivora	1.00	1.00	.83	.81
10219	3	Dolichonyx oryzivora	1.03	1.25	.98	.76
2320	3	Icterus Baltimore	.83	.68	.88	.72
9793	3	Icterus Baltimore	1.02	.85	.70	.70
1567	d'	Icterus Baltimore	.97	1.00	.75	.80
10025	?	Tyrannus carolinensis	.67	.73	.53	.54
10027	3	Tyrannus carolinensis	.80	.85	.55	.61
10028	2	Tyrannus carolinensis	.70	.87	.53	.57
5546	3	Tyrannus carolinensis	.70	.80	.60	.60

tion being as great between different specimens of the same species as between different species of the same genus, and even of different genera. The variation in the length of the toes is often due to an increase or a decrease in the length of the nail, but by no means rarely to variations in the length of the phalanges themselves. already stated, and as appears from the table, toes of less than the average length accompany tarsi of the average or of more than the average length, and toes of more than the average length accompany tarsi of medium or less than the medium length. In compiling the above table the specimens mentioned have been selected in each case from a series of only twenty specimens of the species to which they respectively belong, and represent the longest and shortest tarsus, middle toe, outer toe, and hind toe met with in each series, and also the greatest and least amount of difference in these several elements. They are all taken from Tables II to Q (see pp. 210-219), which serve to show the usual range of variation, in respect to size and proportions, in ten species.\*

Individual Variation in other Parts.—In addition to the instances already mentioned, individual variation of a similar character and equal extent occurs in the relative size of other parts. The length of the bill, for instance, is often compared to the length of the head, or to that of the tarsus in specific diagnoses. Table G¹ (see next page) serves to show the individual variation in respect to the proportion of length to alar extent ordinarily met with in specimens of the same species.

To show more fully, however, the exact nature and extent of what may be considered as purely individual variation, tables of detailed measurements of about twenty specimens of each of a number of species are herewith appended (Tables H to Q). Care has been taken to not only select specimens of the same sex, collected at the same locality, and as nearly as possible at the same season, but also such species as find their northern limit so near the locality at which they were taken as to obviate the complication of individual with geographical variation, which would result if the range of the species extended far to the northward of the locality in question. In general, the specimens are all from Eastern Massachusetts, and

<sup>\*</sup> Icterus Baltimore, Dolichonyx oryzivorus, Pipilo erythrophthalmus, Sialia sialis, Galeoscoptes carolinensis, Pyranga rubra, Geothlypis trichas, Harporhynchus rufus, Tyranmus carolinensis, Hedymeles ludoviciana.

Table G<sup>1</sup> — Individual Variation in the Proportion of Length to Alar Extent.

M. C. Z. No.	Orig. No.	Sex.	Species.		
5056	668	9	Dendræca striata	5.45	9.70
	777	Q.	Dendræca striata	5.50	8.68
5087	848	3	Passerenlus savanna	5.50	9.13
	981	3	Passerculus savanna	5.83	7.75
		3	Passerculus savanna	6.00	8.27
	1987	8	Cardinalis virginianus	9.00	11.50
	2394	9	Cardinalis virginianus	8 00	11.75
9901		3	Doliehonyx oryzivorus	6.65	11.50
2295		3	Dolichonyx oryzivorus	7.50	11.50
	2340	3	Mimus polyglottus	9 60	14 25
	2374	9	Mimus polyglottus	9.75	14.00
	2371	9	Mimus polyglottus	9.80	13 00
5757		3	Turdus Swainsoni	7.25	12.15
2930		3	Turdus Swainsoni	7.75	11.20
1829		3	Turdus Swainsoni	6.90	11.20
307		2	Turdus Swainsoni	7.24	11.00
9691		3	Turdus Pallasi	7 00	10.50
145		3	Turdus Pallasi	7.00	11 40
5756			Turdus Pallasi	7.38	11.05
	314	3	Turdus Pallasi	7.38	12.33
	363	3,	Turdus Pallasi	7.23	11.94
	26	o*	Turdus Pallasi	6.80	11.28
	367	3	Turdus fuscescens	7.81	13.70
	495	3	Turdus fuscescens	7.87	11.91
	551	3	Turdus fuscescens	7.00	11.95
	112	3	Parus atricapillus	5.50	8.12
4946	268	9	Parus atricapillus	5 00	8.60
11714	114	9	Parus atricapillus	5.75	7.88
95		ð	Agelæus phæniceus	9.00	15.10
93		♂	Agelæus phænieeus	9 20	14.40
5723		♂	Agelæus phæniceus	8.45	14.45

from within a short distance of Cambridge. A very few are from Southern Maine and from the Connecticut valley at Springfield; but the general faunal character of all these localities is essentially the same.\*

In addition to the measurements given in these tables, several others are sometimes taken by collectors, as the relative posterior extent of the outstretched feet and the wing, as compared with the tail. As they are, however, among the most variable of proportions, and are likewise among the most difficult measurements to take with accuracy, they have been here neglected.

<sup>\*</sup> In consequence of the small size of these pages, it has been found impracticable to include the names of the localities, the date of collecting, and the name of the collector in the tables, as would have been desirable.

Table H. - ICTERUS BALTIMORE Daud.

	Width.	.33	.35	.32	.34	.35	.35	.35	35.	.35	.34	£	.35	1	.33	£6.	338	38	.33	.35	.37
	Meight.	£5.	889	.35	33.7	.33	÷::	.37	25	.35	355	.34	.37	1	33	.34	∞ ∞	.40	.35	.35	.37
Bill.	Gonys.	14.	1.	.50	52	.46	∞ <del>†</del>	84.	.50	œ#.	:53	.52	12:	1	.50	.45	77.	.50	.50	.47	.50
	Commissure.	7.7	-1	<u>æ</u> .	- 17	.46	£	20	98.	17	£	20.	1-	1	97.	200	7	₩.	1	38.	 
	Culmen.	.76	2.6	200	122	.73	.80	-1	.7	12	.85	00	30	1	.75	-1	-15	38.	1	08.	:75
	Head.	1.62	1.58	1.62	1.63	1.60	1.60	1.60	1.63	1.55	1.60	1.58	1.62	1.50	1.62	1.60	1.55	1.62	1.58	1.60	1.53
	Inner Toe.	.65	99.	99*	55	69.	89.	1 69	00	-13	07.	.67	ر. د د	89.	89.	.61	.65	.67	£	57.	다. 다.
	Outer Toe.	.67	.70	97.	.7.	07.	07.	.70	08:	65	.73	02.	67.	71	57	£9°	.68	.67	02:	012	27.
	Middle Toe.	68.	28.	.85	:95	.93	99	œ.	1.00	.90	.86	.90	88.	88.	36	00.	38.	08.	. 86.	96.	.90
	Hind Toe.	33	.70	.67	69.	.65	07.	.70	10	.70	23	07.	07.	89.	65	89.	07.	.79	.70	.70	.73
	Tarsus.	96.	1.03	.93	.91	8.	:87	- 06:	76.	06.	06.	16:	.95	83	06:	98.	16.	.95	.95	06:	.98
pu	Extent of Tail beye Lower Coverts.	1.40	1.33	1.40	1.65	1.15	1.18	.38	1.40	1.20	1.10	1.30	1.97	1.95	1.50	1.35		1.37	1.40	1.65	1
pro	Extent of Tail beyon Upper Coverts.	1.50	1.67	1.52	1.77	1.37	1.85	1.63	1.53	1.45	1.55	1.43	1.58	1.30	1.57	1.67		1.58	1.54	1.87	1
	Extent of Primaries be Outer Secondaries	.97	1.07	1.06	1.12	.93	1.03	.95	9.5	**	1	96	1 00	.95	1.07	200	1 03	8.	.90	.95	1
	Extent of Primaries by Inner Secondaries	07.	97.	.57	.87	.86	\$0.00 \$0.00	.68	.56	09.	1	89.	.85	1-	-1	65	06:	.67	77.	00	1
	Tail.	2.90	2.95	2.88	3.10	5.85	3.00	3.00	3.00	9.70	9.90	2.97	21 22 32	2.7.5	3.00	2.95	2.96	2.95	2.85	3 00	3.00
	Wing.	3.70	3.70	3.64	3.85	3.54	3.75	3.72	3.80	3.45	3.60	3.75	3.68	3.60	3.85	3.75	3.78	3,83	3.75	3.55	3.83
	Alar Extent.	11.75	09'11	11.20	11.90	10.40	11.30	11.50	11.75	11.00	11.50	11.90	11.00	11.50	11.90	11.75	11.75	11.75	11.75	11.75	12.00
	Sex, Length.	7.45	7.50	7.20	8.00	00 %	7.55	7.50	7.60	7.50	7.40	7.60	(1.+C)	7.30	11.0	7.80	7.55	7.55	7 65	7.50	7.65
	Sex. ]	50	50	*>	*0	6	50	~		r.	<b>"</b> 0	5	50	40	÷	50	50	50	*5	5	50
	M. C. Z. Number.	1332	9793	1333	5588	1886	2733	2962	1567	1334	1566	2993	388	2320	2964	2290	2499	2290	2319	9885	2500

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Wing. Tail. Wing. Tail. Wind. Wind. Middle Outer Inner Incomplex. Outer Secondaries beyond Context Secondaries beyond Context Secondaries beyond Extent of Primaries beyond University 2.86 1.20 1.21 1.10 1.00 1.05 1.37 1.37 1.37 1.37 1.37 1.37 1.37 1.37		Width.	.36	17 10	.37	36.	36	70,	0+.	350	75.	000	000	5.00	10.		9 6	) O.	90.	500	950	£5.
Wing. Tail.  Extent of Primaries beyond arises.  3.87 2.56 3.93 1.27 1.10 1.00 1.05 3.87 1.37 1.00 1.00 1.05 3.87 1.37 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.0		Height.	.36	.37	بر بر	36.	98.	20,000	12.	0.00	700	000	000	55.	555	o e	ئن. م	55.	36	.39	:35	.37
Wing. Tall.  Wing. Tall.  Wing. Tall.  Wing. 1 al.  Extent of Primaries beyond arises.  Batent of Primaries beyond as 3.75 2.86 3.91 1.27 1.00.  Batent of Tarsus and a conductives.  Batent of Tarsus and a conductive beyond as 3.71 2.80 3.90 1.12 3.87 1.12 3.77 1.00.  Batent of Tall beyond as 3.71 2.77 3.80 1.32 3.71 3.72 1.37 3.75 3.75 3.75 3.75 3.75 3.75 3.75 3	Bill.	Conys	75.	:35	.33	.33	:35	cs.	.36			CS:	040	70	5.	0.50	89	.33	č.	e.: ao	5.5	£5.
Wing.         Tail.         Extent of Primaries beyond Universes.         Too.         Toe.         Toe. <td></td> <td>Commissure.</td> <td>.63</td> <td>.65</td> <td> </td> <td>.69</td> <td>. 68°</td> <td>09.</td> <td>63</td> <td>09.</td> <td>9 6 6 7</td> <td>.62</td> <td>.64 -</td> <td>09.</td> <td>:63</td> <td>c9.</td> <td>69.</td> <td>÷9.</td> <td>99.</td> <td>.64</td> <td>09.</td> <td>.69</td>		Commissure.	.63	.65		.69	. 68°	09.	63	09.	9 6 6 7	.62	.64 -	09.	:63	c9.	69.	÷9.	99.	.64	09.	.69
Wing.  Tall.  Extent of Primaries beyond  3.77 2.68 3.87 2.80 3.00 1.05 3.77 1.00 1.00 1.05 3.75 2.68 3.87 2.80 3.00 1.00 3.27 3.80 3.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.0		Culmen.	09.	65	1	.69	.62	09:	09.	.57		09.	.62	.50 00 00	75.	oc i	10.	09.	09:	.62	09:	09:
Wing.         Tail.         Partent of Primaries beyond Inner Secondaries.         Tail.         Tail.         Toe.         <		Head	1.32	1.37	1.37	1.35	1 37	1.34	1.38	1.35	1.40	1 37	1.37	1.36	1.33	1.36	1.33	1.35	1.36	1.35	1.33	1.35
Wing.  Tall.  2.75  2.68  3.87  2.268  3.87  2.268  3.87  2.268  3.89  3.80  2.25  3.80  3		1	.80	10.	Σ.	.87	.85	00	08.	94.	00	တ္		<u></u>	œ.	8.	£	œ.	00	£.	.76	£8:
Wing.         Tall.         Tall.           3.7.7         2.68         3.87.7           3.87.7         2.68         3.87.7           3.87.7         2.68         3.87.7           3.87.7         2.68         3.87.7           3.87.7         2.88         3.87.7           3.87.7         2.88         1.20           3.87.7         2.88         1.20           3.80         2.66         3.97           3.65         2.68         3.90           3.65         2.56         3.90           3.65         2.57         3.80           3.53         2.57         3.80           3.53         2.57         3.80           3.55         2.57         3.80           3.55         2.57         3.80           3.50         1.10         3.80           3.50         1.20         3.80           3.50         1.00         3.87           3.50         1.00         3.87           3.50         1.00         3.87           3.60         1.00         3.87           3.70         1.00         3.87           3.80         1.20 <t< td=""><td></td><td>Outer Toe.</td><td>77.</td><td>57.</td><td>.87</td><td>.93</td><td>.85</td><td>91.</td><td>200</td><td>.70</td><td>.75</td><td>80°</td><td>68.</td><td>88</td><td>:8:</td><td>ŝ</td><td>£</td><td>88.</td><td>00</td><td>.s</td><td>.76</td><td></td></t<>		Outer Toe.	77.	57.	.87	.93	.85	91.	200	.70	.75	80°	68.	88	:8:	ŝ	£	88.	00	.s	.76	
Wing.  Tall.  Tall.  Battent of Primaries beyond 3.75 2.68 3.87 2.268 3.87 2.268 3.87 2.268 3.87 2.268 3.69 3.60 3.60 3.60 3.60 3.60 3.60 3.60 3.60		Niddle Toe.	1.12	1.17	1.28	1.57	1.18	1.12	1.13	1.07	1.10	1.17	1.12	1.13	1.20	1.27	1.23	1.20	1.17	1.00	1.25	1.13
Tail   San Section   Tail   San Section   Tail   Section   Tail   San Section   Tail   San Section   Tail   Section   Tail   Section   Tail   Section   Tail   Section   Tail   San Section   Tail   Tail   Section   Tail			.87	.92	.95	86.	66.	83.	.92	53.	98.	883	90	.87	8.	.95	.87	90		883	86.	.95
Wing.         S. 7.7         Pail.         Pail.           3.87.7         1.2         1.2         1.2           3.87.7         2.8         3.8.7         1.2           3.87.7         2.8         3.8.7         1.2           3.87.9         2.80         3.90         3.80           3.65         2.56         3.90         3.90           3.53         2.57         3.8         3.8           3.55         2.57         3.8         3.8           3.53         2.57         3.8         3.8           3.53         2.57         3.8         3.8           3.50         2.72         3.8         3.8           3.50         2.72         3.8         3.8           3.50         2.72         3.8         3.8           3.80         2.73         3.8         3.9           3.80         2.72         3.8         3.9           3.80         2.82         3.9         3.9           3.80         2.82         3.9         3.9           3.80         2.82         3.9         3.8           3.80         2.82         3.9         3.8           3.80 <td></td> <td>Farsus</td> <td>1.05</td> <td>1 07</td> <td>1.12</td> <td>1.15</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1 00</td> <td>1.10</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1.08</td> <td>86.</td> <td>1.05</td> <td>1</td> <td>1.05</td> <td>1.10</td> <td>1.04</td> <td>1.05</td> <td>1.07</td> <td>1.00</td> <td>1.03</td> <td>1.10</td>		Farsus	1.05	1 07	1.12	1.15	1.00	1 00	1.10	1.00	1.08	86.	1.05	1	1.05	1.10	1.04	1.05	1.07	1.00	1.03	1.10
Wing.  3.7.7  3.6.4 2.45  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.26  3.8.7 2.27  3.8.8 2.27  3.8.9 1.20  3.8.0 2.72  3.8.1 2.27  3.8.1 2.27  3.8.2 1.27  3.8.3 1.23  3.8.3 2.57  3.8.4 1.20  3.8.0 2.73  3.8.5 2.47  3.8.6 2.82  3.8.7 2.27  3.8.6 2.82  3.8.7 2.27  3.8.8 2.47  3.8.9 2.47  3.8.	pu	Lower Coveres.	1.00	1	06.	.83	.90	. 08.	08:	06.	.87	.85	.95	£	1.00	<u>.</u> 99	.90	.95	16.	1 00	1.05	1.05
Wing. Tall.  3.75 3.84 2.85 3.87 2.86 3.87 2.86 3.87 2.86 3.87 2.86 3.87 2.87 3.67 2.86 3.87 2.87 3.67 2.88 3.89 3.70 2.73 3.71 2.73 3.70 2.73 3.70 2.73 3.89 3.90 3.70 2.73 3.89 3.90 3.70 3.80 2.71 3.80 2.7	pı	Extent of Tail beyon Upper Coverts.	1.10	08'	.95		.93	1	}	.95	.95	1.03	1.07	.97	86.	1.15	1.10	1.10	1.08	06	1.23	1.00
Wing. 3.77 3.864 3.87 3.87 3.87 3.87 3.80 2.66 3.70 3.55 3.70 2.75 3.70 2.75 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80	puoß	Extent of Primaries be, Outer Secondaries.	1.27	1.20	1.30	1.40	1.33	1.23	1.33	1.25	1.20	1.14	1 35	4.40	1.42	1.37	1.35	1.35	1.40	1.32	1.33	1.43
Wing. 3.54 3.64 3.64 3.64 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80 3.80	puos	Extent of Primaries beginneries.	93	00	06	97	1.05	20,1	1.03	00 01	200	86.	1.03	1.20	.98	86.	.97	1.00	1.05	.95	96.	1.08
		Tail.	89 6	2.45	2.80	2.66	2.73	2.57	9.68	2.53	2.50	2.57	0.78	9.75	2.75	2.73	2.85	5.47	2.67	9.70	2.75	2.82
		Wing.	3 75	3.64	3 87	3.80	3.71	80	3.65	3.70	3 55	3.53	3.75	4.00	3.80	3 90	3.86	30,5	3 90	200	200	3.85
		Alar Extent.	11.50	11 00	11.80	11.55	11.50	11.65	11 75	11.50	11.20	11.15	11.80	11.65	11.50	11.75	11.90	11.90	19.15	11 75	12.00	11.35
Sex. Length.  1.35			7 70	7.00	7.30	2000	7.50	7.95	7.35	6.65	7.20	08.9	7.70	7.15	7.15	7.35	7.95	7.10	7.95	05.9	7.55	7.45
**************************************		Sex.	1	o *c	ר כ	0 %	0 %	5 %	ר" כ	o *c	) *c	, *c	, K	5 %	, °c	· *c	5 6	) <sup>1</sup> (	7	) <sup>5</sup>	o *c	0, 40
N. C. Z. Number. 2293 10342 10342 10342 10342 2995 11994 2295 11996 2296 2296 9893 1482 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9899 1882 9890 1882 980 980 9800 9800 9800 9800 9800 980			9000	10949	10042	1004:0 55.05	9995	0110	17.	0401	380	9854	8666	5741	2296	9893	9492	1489	9686	0807	10919	5744

Table J. - PIPILO ERYTHROPHTHALMUS Vieillot.

																			_	_	
	Width.	.37	.37	.34	.35	.38	.33	.30	.35	:35	.35	.35	:35	.37	325	.35	.35	.42	.35	.39	.35
	Height.	.37	.40	구.	39	.34	.40	.38	:35	.35	.37	.35	.35	.32		388	.34	7	.37	34:	.37
Bill,	Gonys.	ì	04.	04.	:37	.34	04.	.36	53.7	.37	.35	:35	.49	.37	33.	.38	33.88	.37	35	.37	.37
	Commissure.	.67	:73	.68	51.	-67	99.	.70	2.0	27	.70	97:	:13	:33	89.	61.	99.	:13	65	£.	.67
	Culmen,	09.	96.	.60	09.	.53	.53	.55	.57	.53	09.	.56	.55	.62	.57	.59	.55	09:	.53	09:	09.
	Head.	1.37	1.47	1.50	1.50	1.48	3.45	3.46	1.46	1.50	1.49	3,40	1.50	1.50	1.45	1.50	1.45	1.50	1,45	1.50	1.40
	Inner Toe.	.82	.80	88.	17	- 1	£.	17	17.	.80	00	00.	89.	.7.	.73	213	9	E.	.C.	8.5	.80
	Outer Toe.	*8.	.85	∞ ∞	30		30	20	00	08:	£	æ	97.	.7.5	.80	30	08:	£8:	77.	£.	.83
	Middle Toe.	1.12	1.05	1.08	1.03	1.10	1.00	1.00	1 05	1.00	1.08	1.04	1 04	1.30	.95	1.08	1.04	1.05	1.12	1.07	1.00
	Hind. Toe.	92.	20	17	10	.80	.80	08:	.80	10	8.	-12	£.	08:	2	œ - 1	0x.	ã.	-12	.78	.75
	Tarsus	1.05	1 03	1.05	1.10	1.12	1.07	1.08	1.05	1.13	1.06	1.07	1 05	1.10	86:	1.10	1.08	1.06	1.08	1.10	1.09
pu	Extent of Tail beyo	9 95	2 15	2.27	2.18	2.13	1.85	3.5	2.15	9.00	5.40	2.20	2.15	9.50	2.85	2.17	2.30	2.18	1 93	2.05	5.06
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Upper Coverts.	2.05	2.25	9.35	25 23 23	5.60			-	2.23	2.40	2.58	2.20	9.20	2.35	2.30	2 53	2.52	0.58	2.25	1
eyond eyond	Extent of Primaries b Outer Secondaries	.43	.50	84.	.45	.58	.20	.50	1	.59	.55	.47	.53	14.	.50	57	.45	.53	.55	50	.47
	Extent of Primaries b Inner Secondaries	333	04.	.43	45	.53	.30	.t.		.35	.45	14.	.45	.30	:35	04.	04.	.43	.46	.50	38
	Tail.	3.35	3.70	3.90	3.40	3.70	3.48	3.75	3.57	3.65	3.70	3.85	3.68	3,45	3.70	3.65	3.80	3.75	3 60	3.93	8.70
	Wing.	3.20	3.43	3.60	3.20	3.45	3.17	3.50	3.35	3 43	3.50	3.57	3.54	3.22	3 38	3.43	3.54	3 55	3.34	3.68	3.30
	Alar Extent.	10.50	10.65	11.00	10.30	10.25	10.60	10.70	10 00	11.05	10.50	12.25	11.20	10.45	10.85	10.80	11.15	11.15	10.20	13.00	10.25
	Sex. Length.	7.80	8.95	8.00	7.80	8.25	8.10	8.15	7.75	8.35	8.25	8.55	8.25	8.00	1.15	7.90	8.25	8.50	7.50	8.20	8.15
	Sex.	10	0"	50	10	50	*0	50	0	60	60	10	0	50	<b>"</b> C	°0	70	50	50	50	50
	M. C. Z. Number.	350	1366	1543	1476	1397	1491	349	1399	2985	2962	4009	1783	1612	1771	1784	81	83	10151	9696	84

# Table K. — Stalta Stalts Huld.

Width.	9	30.	÷ c	5.00	5.5	e e	000			88	35	.35	.35	1	30	3.4	3.5	0.00	1 10	. 5. 4. 5.
Height.	0.	07.	0 1 0	12:	c 00	06	06	06	07.	20	<u>«</u>	07	8		17	t ·	9	α ! –	9	.18
Gonys.	06		9	7 0	200	308	30			.34	.27	.35	.30	355	3.	35	30	000	i	.30
Commissure.	1 1	: [	92	1 :	ã	2	î L-	02.	00	<u>8</u> .	.76	98.	11.		98.	ã	-1	2.0	7.0	17
Culmen.	9	25.0	25.0	2 2	533	.50	64.	.56	55	55	*48	.55	.47	ŀ	.55	25	45	10	6.5	:42
Head.	2	27	1	1.50	1.50	1.48	1.35	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.42	1.53	1.50	1.53	1.50	1.4.	1.50	10	10	1.45
Inner Toe.	09	55	65	000	.50	09.	.55	.50	.62	.58	15.	09.	79.	.53	.56	09.	69.	555	7.C	.62
Outer Toe.	6.8	67.	6.1	2	.61	.65	65	.56	89.	.63	09.	.65	.58	.58	19.	.63	89.	09	99	.65
Middle Toe.	87	SS	2	200	20.	16:	36.	.85	.8.	:8:	æ.	₹.	.7.7	£	08.	:83	88.	83	08.	.87
Hind Toe.	.63	.56	09	09	77.	.77	.85	.67	09.	.62	.55	65	:57	.55	.57	09.	09.	09:	96.	09.
Tarsus.	.75	.77	77	87	.80	.80	.76	17	52:	-1		4	-1	œ !~!	.76	7.8	98.	.80	.8:3	.83
Extent of Tail bey Lower Coverts.	1.20	1.04	1.05	1.05	1.13	1.15	1	1.08	1.03	1.08	1.23	.95	2	06:	1 23	1.18	1.07	1.05	1.12	
Extent of Tail bey Upper Coverts	1.30	1.56	1.27	1.25	1.33	1.20	1	1.20	1.17	1.50	1.37	1.15	1.08	-15	1.58	1.27	1.25	1.20	1.20	-
Extent of Primaries Outer Secondari	1.20	-1.	1.26	1.20	1.20	1.26		1.13	1.12	1.25	1.30	0 1	1.25	1.25	1.17	1.40	1.30	08.1	1.20	1.30
Extent of Primaries Inner Secondari	1.00	1.03	1.20	1.10	1.03	1.17	.95	86.	1.03	1.15	9.	00.	0	1.10	1.05	1.25	1.30	1.15	1.00	1.15
Tail.	2.50	2.60	5.60	2.50	2.58	2.56	5.60	2.43	21 c	77.0	2.50	0.40	2.30	2.63	63	2.68	2.63	2.50	7 48	2.55
Wing.	4.00	3 90	4.10	3 87	4.03	4.07	3.90	20.50	3.87	4.00	3.90	3.70	0,000 0,000 0,000	4.03	3.90	4.05	4.07	3.85	3.85	3.95
Alar Extent,	12.30	12.20	12.25	11.35	12.10	12.55	67.11	69.H	00 3	12.40	12.10	01.11	12.00	12.25	08.1	11.65	01.1	12.25	15.00	11.75
Length.	7.00	6.75	7.00	6.10	6 85	6.85	6,45	0.70	0.30	0.75	07.0	00.0	0.70	0 0 0	6.65	00.9	0+9	2 00 2	08.9	6.75
x ex	60	6	9	5	°0 '	5 5	0 ^	0 6	0 5	o s	0 %	0 %	o 5	0 *	5.	, c	o d	o	·o	50
M. C. Z. Number.	2331	1945	2378	2479	9761	1883	10292	1881	200001	10220	10201	0041 2002	6700	50/02	09/0	2000	3333	9760	9976	17
	Extent of Primaries  Extent of Primaries  Dipper Corerts  Extent of Tail bey  Height.	New Length, Ahar Wing, Tail. Middle Datent, Wing, Tail. High Middle Outer Inner Secondaria Coverites. Too. 1230 4,000 1250 1.00 1.20 1.20 1.20 1.20 1.20 1.20 1.2	New Length         Alar Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Him arties.           Tail.         Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Too.         Too.	New Length   Alar   Wing. Tail.   Indian   Ind	New Length, Extent. Wing. Tail. maries. To. Tarsus. Hind Middle Outer Inner Head.  Extent. Wing. Tail. maries. To. To. To. To. To. To. To. To. To. To	New Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail. maries         Tail. maries         Too.         Too.<	Nex. Length, Extent.         Alar Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         Him arties.         Toc.         Toc.	Nex. Length, Extent. Wing. Tail. Hardwest Length Extent. Wing. Tail. Hardwest Corrected and Total Length Extent. Wing. Tail. Hardwest Corrected and Total Length Corrected and Total Lower Corrected and	New. Length, Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Interference of Tail below.         Trail.         High Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Interference of Tail below.         Tree.         T	New Length, Extent. Wing. Tail. Interference of Taxons. Higher Corrections. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc	Nex. Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         High per Covering.         Thind Middle Outer Inner Head.         High per Covering.         Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc.	Nex. Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         Higher Secondarial Extent.         Timer of Primaries.         Ti	Sex. Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         Higher Correction of Primaries.         True.         True. <t< td=""><td>Nex. Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         High accordants         Middle Outer         Inner         Head.         Hongardies           c         7.00         12.30         4.00         2.50         1.00         120         77.56         12.80         4.00         12.00         1.8         1.</td><td>New Length Balar         Alar Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         High of Primaries.         The Correct Tarsus.         High of Extent.         The Correct Tail of Primaries.         The Correct Tail of Extent of Correct Tail of Extent of Ext</td><td>Ack. Length, Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Figure 1.         Total Description of Primaries and Covering and Cover</td><td>Abar         Ahar         Wing.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Himsteen on the primaries.         Toe.         Toe.</td><td>Alar Longth, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail. Size on the content of Primaries         Hind Middle Outer Timer Toc.         Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc.</td><td>  New Longth   Extent   Wing. Tail.                                      </td><td>Aix         Aix         Min.         Tail.         Wing.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Middle Outer         Tone.         &lt;</td></t<>	Nex. Length, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         High accordants         Middle Outer         Inner         Head.         Hongardies           c         7.00         12.30         4.00         2.50         1.00         120         77.56         12.80         4.00         12.00         1.8         1.	New Length Balar         Alar Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail.         High of Primaries.         The Correct Tarsus.         High of Extent.         The Correct Tail of Primaries.         The Correct Tail of Extent of Correct Tail of Extent of Ext	Ack. Length, Extent.         Wing.         Tail.         Figure 1.         Total Description of Primaries and Covering and Cover	Abar         Ahar         Wing.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Himsteen on the primaries.         Toe.         Toe.	Alar Longth, Extent.         Wing. Tail.         Tail. Size on the content of Primaries         Hind Middle Outer Timer Toc.         Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc. Toc.	New Longth   Extent   Wing. Tail.	Aix         Aix         Min.         Tail.         Wing.         Tail.         Tail.         Tail.         Middle Outer         Tone.         <

Table L. — Galeoscoptes carolinensis Cab.

	Width.	.37	.37	.38	.38	.37	.37	.37	.39	1	.36	.36	.37	.35	.36	.32	.37	.35	.33	.37	.37
	Helgint.	.23	-24	-24	.27	.25	.24	£2:	-24	1	.23	.23	.25	.26	†?:	.24	.23	7.23	.21	.23	.22
Bill.	Gonys.	.45	.43	.40	.45	.45	.43	.45	.47	.43	45	.45	.50	.45	.46	.47	94.	44.	.46	.48	.37
	Commissure.	1.00	.98	.92	1.00	1.00	1.00	96.	.95	.92	.95	.93	.97	.97	1.00	86.	1.00	96.	£6.	.97	.93
	Силтеп.	.80	.73	.65		+	C.	-100	80	02.	.72	.73	87.	.80	.75	.75	.76	.73	.80	.67	.63
	Head.	1.75	1.90	1.67	1.80	1.75	1.75	1.73	1.70	1,65	1 68	1.70	1.76	1.75	1.75	1.70	1.75	1.75	1.75	1.72	1.62
i	Inner Toe.	57.	.72	5.	1.74	.70	İ	2.0	.64	.65	.70	1.	07.	.68	.73	71.	1.5	.70	67.	.67	.70
	Outer Toe.	1.7	.76	.76	72.	+1.	.75	+1.	.67	.70	.73	.73	.73	17	11.	-74	.75	.75	12	.70	.75
	Middle Toe.	1.04	1.06	1.03	1.10	.98	96.	1.03	.93	1.05	1.00	1.05	1.00	.97	1 00	1.04	1.08	1.07	1.05	1.00	1.03
	Hind Toe.	1.5	.70	.73	.71	.70	07.	25	.68	2.	07.	69.	2.	.68	.70	.71	.70	.7.5	17.	99.	99.
	Tarsus	1.08	1.10	1.10	1.19	1.15	1.10	1.10	1.07	1.15	1.00	1.08	1 12	1.10	1.06	1.10	1.18	1.05	1.13	1.10	1.05
puo	Extent of Tail beyo	2.02	1.85	1	1.95	1.85	1.87	2 05	2.00	ļ	1	1.75	1.20	1.60	1	1	1.82	-	2.00	1	1
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Upper Coverts.	2.20	2.50	-	2.20	j	2.10	2.40	2.35	1	1	2.40	2.40	1	}	-	I	1	2.50	1	1
	Extent of Primaries b	.57	.70	.55	.75	.65	.62	.67	.62	1	.65	07.	02.	.50	09.	1	.52	I	.45	.53	09.
el.ouq	Extent of Primaries b	.35	.55	42	07.	8.4.	.45	.58	.50	1	.53	.65	.67	.55	.47	1	94.	1	.53	.40	.55
	Tail.	3.75	3.85	3.70	4.10	3.65	3.68	4.10	3.90	3.35	3.57	3.87	4.00	3.55	3.70	3.80	3.78	3.63	3.95	3.67	3.45
	Wing.	3,55	3.75	3.35	3.85	3.40	3.60	3.75	3.65	3 25	3.35	3.62	3.75	3.37	3 55	3.75	3.42	3 50	3.63	3.40	3.40
	Alar Extent.	11.35	11.75	10.50	11 25	11.25	10.80	11.75	10.75	10.50	11.00	11.45	11.85	11.25	11.40	11.50	10.75	11.20	11.25	10.90	10.75
	Sex. Length.	8.75	8 75	7.80	8.75	8.50	8 40	9.00	8.65	8.00	8.35	8.80	9.00	8.25	8.80	8.85	8 73	8.62	8.80	8.70	8.50
		~	~	€.	2	~	~-	~	~	г.	۲.	~.	~-	3	2.	2.	~.	?	6.	۶.	cu.
	M. C. Z. Number.	5858	1790	10132	10014	2273	234	257	2229	2734	10356	1754	2274	256	1638	2281	5857	235	1481	254	2986

Table M. — TYRANNUS CAROLINENSIS Temm.

	Width.			† E	2 10	- 25	500	1	77	17	7	94.	45	94.	64.	.50	:43	946	4.5	or.	.45
	.tdgisII		27 6	00.	1 3	1.	30	30	000	1.6	1.01	.28	27	03.	97:	66.	27	86	30	50.	25.
Bill.	Gonys.		† I	7 1	7 9	- 10	13	3	9	.50	.50	04.	.46	.37	87.	4.5	.37	.50	45	00	:45
	Commissure,	3	3 6	200	060	13	0.05	86	26	1.05	1.05	00.1	1.05	.90	1.0.1	1.05	.95	00.1	00	0.7	- 06
	Culmen.	000	000	1 6	17	ã	80	+1.	7.0	08:	00	.67	08.	65	85	ã.	.73	83	80	8	57
	Head.	1 54	1.07	1 66	1.58	1.71	1.73	09.1	1.58	1.68	1.72	1.63	1.68	1.57	1.68	1.73	1.63	1.68	1.70	1.75	1.63
	Inner Toe.	25	0 30	200	.53	.57	.50	.56	.50	.53	99.	5.5	.65	.55	.58	09.	.53	.55	- 09.	.63	09.
	Outer Toe.	63	7 19	99	.57	09.	.55	09.	1:0:	09.	69	09.	07:	.62	.65	.64	09.	538	99.	.57	69:
	Middle Toe.	9	12	1-	:82	08.	77.	11.	57	7.	.85	27:	.85	oc : 1	22	1-	200	1,	8	38.	.77
	Hind Toe.	50	55.	55	.53	09.	.54	.53	.53	.55	27	-67	.58	.57	.57	.51	15.	.55	.62	.58	99.
	Tarsus.	10	200	02	07.	.70	.80	07.	.67	07.	.70	222	00.7	~	-	-73	.75	0/.	97.	07.	<u> </u>
puo.	Extent of Tail bey Loner Coverts.	087	1.30	1.46	1.50	1.36	1.38	1.40	43	1.57	1.73	1.47	1.20	07:	7	1.45	1.10	1.68	1.30	1.37	1.44
рпо.	Extent of Tail bey Upper Coverts.	1.50	1.70	1.80	2.7	1.62	1.77	1.71	1.80	1.77	1.73	1.70	1.55	1.55	× 1	1.77	1 68	1.75	1.83	1.75	1.97
beyond es.	Astronical of Primaries Isotophia Secondaries	1.40	1.43	1.53	1.48	1.56	1.40	1.44	1.22	1.38	1.30	1.15	1 45	1.10	1.62	1.15	1 22	1.43	1.47	1.45	1.40
pe).oud	Extent of Primaries Inner Secondari	1.00	128	1.05	1.06	1.03	1.03	.93	96:	.90	06:	 	.90	97.	1.35	:33	000	:02	1.05	86.	1.00
	Tail.	3.95	3 20	3.50	3.50	3,43	3.25	3.33	3.15	3.25	3.55	3.15	3 20	2.93	3.30	3.25	3.25	3,30	3.54	3 47	3.45
	Wing.	1.37	4.63	4.67	4 55	4.6.3	4.45	1-1-1	4.17	4.42	977		4.60	07.7	4.60	7	4.20	4.50	1.83	4.5%	4.60
	Alar Extent.	13,50	14.25	14.20	14.25	14.15	9 :	13.50	13,0.)	13 75	2.30	13.50	01.4	00.51	(1.4.1.)	13.00	13.25	3.80	14.80	14.25	13.50
	ex. Longth.	8.00	8.23	1.8.	 0.%	×.1.5	20.0	07.7	00.7	0.7.7	00.0	00.0	33	1 0	100	000	2	2	2 to	8.65	8.30
	Sex.	~.	- ;	~-	~		~ :	-	-	٠. ٥	٠. ٥		~	. ~		. ~	·· c		~	2	· -
	M. C. Z. Number.	1071	10027	10026	10053	9100	<del>+</del> :	2112	07001	10000	62001	# C	1914	1000	2007	1910	5101	(0.11	8901	N 50	4003

Table N. — Pyranga Rubra Vieillot.

	Width.	ස ග	.37	.36	04.	04.	04.	.39	1	.36	다. 다	38	01.	.37
	.3dgi9II	.33	.35	.33	.35	:35	.37	.36	I	.35	.37	.33	.35	ಜ್
Bill.	Conys.	44.	.45°	.45	.40	€.	.47	.45	1	.40	.45	왁	.43	C. +.
	Commissure.	133	.75	.75	.76	.13	.76	.75	1	:13	.73	07:	17	17
	Culmen.	.58	.58	.62	.64	.65	.63	.63	1	.57	65	÷9.	65	.65
	Head.		1.53	1.48	1.50	1.48	1.52	1.52		1.48	1.46	1.38	1.50	1.50
	Inner Toe.	.45	.50	74.	.57	.53	.59	.51	.50	.53	£¢.	.56	.53	80
	Outer Toe.	.53	.57	.53	.57	.57	.58	.53	.55	.55	.56	.56	.57	.55
	Middle Toc.	7.5	07.	.67	08.	.80	97	.76	67.	.75	67.	.70	.70	97:
	Hind Toe.	.59	.60	99.	09.	.57	.57	.58	.53	528	.60	55,	.55	.53
	Tarsus.	17	SE.	.73	98.	89.	125	97.	-1	00	07.	19	57.	.75
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Lower Coverts.	-	1.05	.83	1.13	9.1	1.00	1	1.33	×.	1.12	1.60	1.05	1 10
pα	Extent of Tail beyo Upper Coverts.		1.50	1.23	1.41	1.25	1.35	1	1.25	1.45	1.12	1.50	1.33	1.50
	Extent of Primaries be Outer Secondaries	1.13	1.25	1.12	1.15	1.25	1.30	-	1.20	1.00	1.17	1.20	1.05	1.23
puos.	Extent of Primaries be Inner Secondaries	08.	:8	1.	9.5	.95	1.07	1.00	.95	.85	80.	06.	.83	1.07
	Tail.	9.69	9.75	2.63	2.55	2.73	2.73	2.85	2.75	2.77	2.50	2.64	2 55	2.75
	Wing.	3.57	3.75	3.65	3.70	3.80	4.00	3.85	3.87	3.17	3.60	3.80	3.70	3.85
	· Alar Extent.	11.75	11.30	11.30	11.30	11.60	11.75	11.75	11.60	11.00	11.30	10.75	11.25	10.65
	Sex. Length.	10,130	06.9	7.95	100	1.95	7.30	7.30	7.20	7.00	6.75	6.75	06.9	7.00
		r <sub>y</sub>	ا هر	1	1	. 4	. %	, %o	50	<b>"</b> 0	R-1	20	50	%
	M. C. Z. Number.		10300	6666	9795	10119	589	10366	10388	10133	1834	190	833	1642

Table O. — Hedymeles Ludovicianus Cab.

	Width.	.45	.47	13	94.	.45	.50	£.	54.3	.45	545	2 <del>1</del>	7	.43	.50	17	1	.48
	Height	.54	.55	.50	12.	90.	09.	.55	.55	.51	.53	53	£C:	.54	.55	523	1	.50
Bill,	Gonys.	.43	87.	45	.45	84.	.50	04.	.45	++-	.45	:43	.45	:45	.45	940	1	.45
	Commissure.	00	8.	.75	.77	20	ж ж.	æ.	.81	:75	-1	02:	85	17.	?!	1-	-	8
	Спітеп.	7.5	17.	.73	.73	07:	.75	.75	.70	99.	07:	99.	.73	07.	89	7.5		7.5
	Head.			1.53	1.55	1.55	1.58	1.54	1.55	1.50	1.52	1.42	1.50	1.55	1.50	1.58	}	1.57
	Inner Toe.	.70	37.	.62	7.	07.	.55	09.	.53	95.	:9:	19.	.58	.65	09	.57	7	09.
	Outer Toe.	.75	7	.67	7.5	.75	.65	.65	.65	.63	.67	89.	89.	71.7	.65	.67	202	.73
	Middle Toe.	.75	174	.67	.75	-12	.65	.65	.65	.63	.67	89.	89.	1:	.65	.67	.78	.73
	Hind Toe.	.70	07.	07.	.70	.67	7.5	.70	09.	.67	.65	.67	.67	.65	89.	.70	ã9:	07:
	Tarsus.	.92	:6:	06:	x.	200	æ.	08:	06:	30.	38.	₹.	18	66.	90	£.	07.	98.
puo	Extent of Tail bey Lower Coverts.	1.00	1.24	1.40	1.15	.95	1 00	1.00	86.		1.43	21	<u>∞</u>	1,35	1.10	1.22	00.1	1.10
puo	Extent of Tail beyouts.	1.25	1.55	1.50	1.45	1.28	1.30	1.20	1.24	1.36	1.40		1	1.70	1.05	1.40	1.25	1.05
s' selond	Extent of Primaries I	1.17	1.25	1.13	1.15	1.06	1.24	00.1	.97	1.10	1.07	1.00	1.00	1.15	70 [	1.05	1.07	1.05
s. selond	Extent of Primaries I Inner Secondarie	08.	90	:82	.93	09*	1.06	07.	<u>2</u>	955	ĝ.	1-1-	€	.75	ô.		06:	.90
	Tail.	3.05	3.00	2.95	3.05	3.05	3.05	2.75	88. 88.	02:3	-1	58.5 5.85 5.85	3.08	3.00	2.93	3.00	15.85i	2.93
	Wing	3.87	4.00	3.83	4.15	4.00	4.25	55. 55.	3.83	3 86	3.85 5.85	3.95	4.00	4 1.5	3.97	4.00	4.05	4.50
	Alar Extent.	12.25	12.30	11.75	12.50	11.90	12.50	08.11	12 00	12.10	11.50	15.50	11.90	12.90	2.15	19.75	12 00	11.75
	Sex. Length.	7 50	7.75	7.75	8:30	7.55	21 22 20	7.15		7.50	7.15	1.83		8.10		8.10	-1	7.65
		50	<b>5</b> 0	'o '	6	0 "	5	0 5	0 "	- °	y,	'o '	0 1	6	9	50	50	°0
	M. C. Z. Number.	1438	590	1216	2000	9935	9580	2518	1065	1547	7.	9581	2591	5595	5945	9934	853	10107

Table P. — Geotherpis trichas Cab.

	Tideh.	55	.27	26.	.26	£2.	.97	97	5.57	65 65	27	288	1	10 10	.26	.28	ଞ୍ଚ	6.	.23	Ť6.	£2:
	JugioII	.17		.17	<u>x</u>	.15	91.	.17	.18	.18	$\frac{\infty}{\cdot}$	-1	.15	.18	.13	.15	.15	<del>†</del>	.15	91.	.15
Jani.	Conys.	13.	08.	.30	330	52.	18.	£.	±5.	32	65	35	82.	32	.31	.30	25	.30	:32	:35	1.27
	Commissure.	.57	53	69.	.67	.55	558	.57	.57	99.	09.	.65	15.	.60	09.	ξ. 3.	.57	.57	.59	.57	.56
	Силтеп.	:45	17	24.8	.55	££.	on T.	:43	17	99.	000	55	17.	X.T.	:43	.43	87.	.48	64.	.48	++.
	Head.	1.20	1.20	1.17	1.25	1.13	1.28	55.	1.22	<u>x</u>	1 22	1.26	1.16	1.22	<u>~</u>	1.15	1.25	1.15	1.20	1.23	1.15
	Inner Toe.	.51	.53	87.	27.0	.53	15.	23	.53	15.	± ∞	553	<del>+</del> +	.52	55.	74.5	10.	.50	15.	10.	.50
	Outer Toe.	55	÷2:	.50	.55	.54	19.	55	.55	:53	20.7	55	94.	:53	.53	1.4.	553	5.0	.53	.55	.52
	Middle Toe.	89.	.7.5	89.	-15	.73	71	2	17	17	.68	10	.63	ñ	202	99.	î,	99.	.70	57.	.67
	Hind Toe.	.55	.53	.53	ÇÇ.	.53	55	.53	55.	.50	17	55	.51	£G.	111	.50	84.	.51	. 50	87.	.59
	Tarsus	30	08.	17	+1-	X.	-1	30	. 1 -1	+1.	21	77.	1017	20,1	21 22	.79	ã.	97.	.76	20	1.
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Lower Coverts.	-		91.	19.	1	1.00	07.	ž.	1	1			07.	l	1	1	1	l	1	1
pu	Extent of Tail Leyo Upper Coverts.	.92	I	1.04		1	120	1	1.06	1	1	1	1	.97	1	1	1	1	1		1
	Extent of Primaries be solubuosed rates	64.	1	21	:35	:::	£5.	.35	1	1	.37	04.	I	.38	1	1	1	١	l	1	1
	Extent of Primaries becondaries	33.	1	.36	.35	.25	26	71	I	1	.33	.35	1	33	1	1		I	1	1	1
	Tail.	2.00	2.07	2.05	33.	2.05	2.00	1.95	5.10	9.10	2.10	2.17	200	2.08	28.5	2. 2. 1.	2.05	1.85	2,00	2.02	1.95
	Wing.	5.10	2.20	2,25	2.12	2.37	2 20	2.18	5.50	2.57	2.13	2.32	1.95	2.27	2 2 2 3	2.03	2.13	2.05	2.25	2.15	5.10
	Alar Extent.	2 00	1.5.1	7.25	7.20	6.75	6.75	7.10	6.45	7.25	6.75	7.50	6 30	7.30	6.75	6.75	67.9	6 85	7.00	6.90	08.9
	ex. Length,	5 00	5 17	5.25	5.15	4.65	5.25	5.25	. X. X.	5.37	5.10	5.63	1.60	5.37	x +	7 X 7	5 05	00 9	5.20	5.33	5.10
	Sex.	*	6	3	e.,_	5	8~,	r,	·_	٠,	0	·5	~	<b>1</b> 0	~	0	0	~	N	6	50
	M. C. Z. Number.	9976	358	1808	2534	9775	1809	2002	8286	7515	330	14:4:4	1561	2396	2361	2127	6996	9836	2398	1445	2436

# Table Q. — Harporitynchus Rufus Cab.

											_				_	_	_		
	Width.	.45	14.	.38	.43	77.	.40	.43	C+.	1	0+.		04.	.37	386	.38	.36	0+:	
	Teight.	.35	.58	.27	.29	72.	28	.27	30	.30	5.	1	101	.27	25	52	3. 30.	68.	
Bill,	Gonys.	.70	09.	97.	() ()	.65	89.	.67	5	7	.67	.65	7.5	.70	.67	27	~ 13	.68	
	Commissure.	1.25	1.24	1.33	1.34	1.28	1.35	1 333	1.35	1.35	1.23	1.25	1.58	1.33	1.26	1.32	28	1.30	
	Спршев.	1.13	1.00	1.06	1.05	1	1.03	1.12	1.06	1 05	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.04	00.	1.05	1.05	.94	
	Head.	2.30	2.15	2.30	2.25	2 18	2.26	2.52	2.30	2.25	2 15	2.23	-	2.23	1	2.23	2.25	1	
	Inner Toe.	.80	.77	08.	37	.80	.70	8.5	21.8	.73	.75	85	₹&.	20	-1-	00	.79	.75	
	Outer Toe.	.85	8.	98.	.78	.00	08:	06.	90	.75	32.	.85	.90	12	130	92.	8.	.83	
	Middle Toe.	1.25	1.25	1.17	1.22	1.25	1.17	1.28	1.95	1.25	1.23	1.23	1.25	1.30	1 24	1.25	1.30	1.27	
	Hind Toc.	.93	.90	.84	.87	.93	.87	.92	98.	67.	:8:	£	æ	.85	£.	12.	.85	.85	
	Tarsus.	1.42	1.27	1.33	1.42	1.36	1 25	1.35	1.32	1.25	1.30	1 30	1.20	1.92	1.27	1.35	1.24	1.35	
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Lower Coverts.	3.20	2.95	2.75	2.95	3.20	2 65	2.95	3 05	1	1	İ	1	1	1	1		1	
pu	Extent of Tail beyo Upper Coverts.	1	3.15	3 13	3.35	3.60	1	3.17	3,38	-		1	1	1	1	1		1	
puose	Extent of Primaries be outer Secondaries	.65	.60	99.	.68	09.	65	.56	.55	l		1	-	1	1	1	1	1	
	Extent of Primaries be Inner Secondaries	.50	.43	82	27	.47	50	.36	35	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	l	
	Tail.	5.05	4.60	4.78	4.95	5.18	4.86	4.93	5.00	4.50	4.59	5.00	5.10	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.30	5.20	
	Wing.	4.95	3.90	3.80	3.95	4.15	3.95	4.00	4 15	4.50	4.07	4.16	5.00	4 11	4.95	4.10	133	4.15	
	Alar Extent.	14 00	19.75	19.55	13.30	13.95	12.90	12.80	13 35	13.50	13.00	13.30	13 00	13,35	13.55	13.25	13.35	13.00	_
	Sex. Length.	1.85	10.55	11.00	11.25	11.50	10.85	11.10	10.85	12.11	11.41	11.31	11.30	11,35	11.60	11.50	11.75	11.60	-
	Sex.	~		. ~	. ~	. %	~	. %	~	50	50	0+	0+	· %	*0	10	50	6	
	M. C. Z. Number.	:759	1695	937	10350	1670	2585	1439	1067	8887	8886	8888	8888	8885	1688	9668	2889	9688	
						_					_		-	-	-				_

Individual Variation in the Size and Form of the Bill. — That considerable variation occurs in the size and shape of the bill, in specimens of the same sex and species living together at the same locality, is evident from a glance at some of the preceding tables of measurements. The variation in this organ is further illustrated in the accompanying plates (Plates IV – VIII), in which are given figures of the bills of several specimens of each of a number of species. Much greater differences are here shown to exist in cospecific specimens of the same sex and from the same locality than occur between those supposed to be distinct, of which comparative figures of the bills have been published with a view of demonstrating their specific diversity. In only a few groups in fact, and mainly in the long-billed Grallæ, is the bill generally admitted to be too variable to afford an important basis for the discrimination of species.

The principal points of variation in the form of the bill consist in variations in its general size, without corresponding variations in the general size of the individual, and in the details of its form in regard to thickness and length. There are also other variations in respect to the emargination or dentation of the terminal portion, especially in the vast group of the insectivorous species, and in the "festooning" of the bill in many of the hawks.\* In respect to the size of the bill, it is a noteworthy fact that birds specifically and sexually identical vary in such a way that specimens much below the average size possess bills above the average size for their respective species, and, conversely, that specimens above the average size have bills much smaller than the average for their respective species, the general proportions of the bill in each case being essentially the same. In such cases, with the increase or decrease in length, there are corresponding differences in the thickness of the bill, both in the vertical and transverse directions. In other cases with the increase in length there is no corresponding increase in thickness, such a differentiation thus resulting in a relatively attenuated form of the bill. In other cases the bill is shortened without a corresponding decrease in its thickness, from which results a short, thick, or robust bill. The variation in thickness is again sometimes relatively greater in the vertical

<sup>\*</sup> In respect to this point, see Dr. Henry Bryant's paper on "Variations in the Plumage in Buteo borealis auet. and B. Harlani Aud.?" (Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VIII, p. 107 et seq., 1861, where the variation in this feature is especially noticed.

than in the transverse direction, and sometimes the reverse, thus giving in some cases a deep, narrow bill, and in others a broad, depressed bill. In the latter case the differences are especially important, as will be more fully shown later. In regard to the tooth-like indentation near the tip of the bill in so many of the insectivorous birds, it is found that in some species which usually have it strongly developed, specimens occasionally occur with the indentation nearly or quite obsolete. Again in other cases where this feature is usually but slightly developed, some specimens have the notch at the tip of the bill exceedingly prominent. Similar variations occur in regard to the development of the so-called "festoon" of the upper mandible in the hawks, as Dr. Bryant has already sufficiently shown.

The greatest range of individual differentiation in any given organ occurs, as would be naturally expected, in those species which have that organ more than ordinarily developed, and also in species of a low grade of structure. In the long-billed Grallæ both these conditions exist, and it is in such genera as Numenius, Gambetta, Limosa, Scolopax, Philohela, and Gallinago, that the maximum of bill variation is seen. It is less marked in the song-birds, though in many members of this group the variation is by no means small. In the typical woodpeckers, on the other hand, which have the bill especially adapted to a peculiar function, that of digging into wood, the variation is scarcely appreciable, since any considerable variation from its usual form would seriously impair its efficiency. In the semi-frugivorous and terrestrial Picidæ, however, we again meet with the usual range of variation.

In the accompanying plates illustrative of variation in the bill, representatives from the higher types of the Oscines have mainly been chosen, several representatives from widely different families having been selected. Plate IV, figures 1 and 1a, 2 and 2a, give a view of the bills of two specimens of the common king-bird (Tyrannus carolinensis), from Eastern Massachusetts, which differ from each other as much as the bills of different genera sometimes do. One of them, as will be seen, is so much narrower and deeper than the other as to give very different proportions and outlines. The skulls of these two specimens vary in the same manner as do the bills, the one having a broad, flat skull, and the other a narrow, high one. Two specimens of Myiarchus crinitus, one of which is from South Carolina and the other from Western New York, differ as much from each other, and in nearly the

same way, as do those of the king-bird. Similar and nearly as great variations occur also between different specimens of Contopus borealis, C. virens, Empidonax minimus, E. flaviventris, Suyorius fuscus, and in several species of the South American Tyrannidæ. But between these two extremes are found in other specimens nearly every possible degree of gradation.

Figures 3 and 3a to figures 7 and 7a (same plate) represent different forms of the bill in *Troglodytesaëdon*. Between these specimens there are great differences both in respect to absolute size and to general form, greater than would be deemed necessary by most ornithologists for the differentiation of species. These examples are all from Florida, and essentially from the same locality. Other specimens in the Museum come between these extremes in such a way as to show the inconstancy of all these forms. The variation in color, which is considerable in this species, does not accord with the variation in the bill, specimens exhibiting the extremes of color as often having the bills alike as otherwise, and, conversely, those with bills alike differ widely in color.

Figures 8 and 8a to 11 and 11a (same plate) indicate the variability of the bill, especially in respect to length, in Massachusetts specimens of Sciurus noveboracensis. The first corresponds essentially with, and unquestionably is, an example of the so-called Sciurus ludovicianus, which, in all probability, is but the darker colored, longer-billed southern form of S. noveboracensis. This species varies also remarkably in color, but the variation in color, as in the case of Troglodytes aëdon, and as is commonly the case in other species, does not accord with the variation in the bill, some of the long-billed specimens being in color almost undistinguishable from some of the short-billed ones, while some of those with medium bills present the extreme degrees of variation in respect to color.

Figures 12 and 12a to 14 and 14a (same plate) represent the bills of three male specimens of *Mniotilta varia* from the vicinity of Cambridge, which present as great differences as modern ornithologists would ordinarily deem sufficient, if the specimens had come from Mexico instead of from Massachusetts, to warrant their recognition as types of three distinct species. The correspondingly great variations in color in this species have already been adverted to (p. 190). The bill, however, in specimens presenting extreme forms of color variation, unfortunately for ultra-divisionists, may be either of the ordinary form

or of either of the forms figured, or of any intermediate form, as exemplified by the specimens of this species in the collection of the Museum. Figure 15 and 15a and 16 and 16a (same plate) are accurate representations of the bills of two Massachusetts males of Dendræca strata. The differences between these specimens, though so great, are not greater than occur in different cospecific examples of several other species of this genus contained in the Museum.

Massachusetts specimens of Certhia familiaris differ even more in the form of the bill than do the specimens above figured of either Troglodytes aëdon or Mniotilta varia. They also present a similar range of color variation in the plumage, and one equally at variance with the variation in the bill.

Figures 19 and 19a, 20 and 20a (same plate), show how widely two Florida specimens (both males) of Pyranga æstiva vary in respect to the size of the bill, the specimens in question differing but little in general size. If these figures are compared with the figures recently published of the bills of certain supposed species of Pyranga,\* they will be found to vary more than some of the latter do, and indicate how unsatisfactory the nature of species must be when based mainly upon differences in the bill. Other cospecific specimens of Pyranga in the Museum exhibit great difference in the size, form, and position of the tooth-like processes of the upper mandible, and in the color of the bill,—differences that have been regarded as specific characters. The color of the bill in many species of birds, in fact, varies greatly in specimens of the same species taken at the same season, and generally in those taken at different seasons; yet it is a character that has been relied upon for the distinction of species.

Figures 1 and 1a. 2 and 2a, 4 and 4a, and 5 and 5a, Plate V, illustrate variations in the bill in Massachusetts representatives of Ægiothus linarius. Figures 3 and 3a, and 5 and 5a, are drawn from specimens from Arctic America, the first being an original specimen of the Æ. fuscescens Coues ex auct., and the other a similar specimen of the Æ. exilipes Coues. Figures 7 and 7a to 10 and 10a, inclusive (same plate), represent variations of the bill in male specimens of Chrysomitris tristis, a species allied to Æ. linarius. It will be seen that the two series are nearly parallel in respect to the amount and character of the variations in the bill. Figures 11 and 11a and 12 and 12a indicate similar variations in an-

<sup>\*</sup> Proceed. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., June, 1869, pp. 130 - 133.

other allied species, the Chrysomitris pinus, and figures 13 and 13a to 15 and 15a, inclusive (same plate) similar variations in another species (Curvirostra americana), of the same sub-family. In the latter case the specimens are also all males, and all from the vicinity of Cambridge, they having been killed in fact from the same flock. In the Ægiothus group numerous so-called "species" have been described by different writers, six or seven of which were recognized by Dr. Coues a few years since in his monograph of that genus.\* A considerable number of these species have been generally looked upon as equivocal, and the exact number in the group and their distinctive characteristics have been a matter of much uncertainty. Recently the writer above referred to has again revised the group,† and arrives at the conclusion that if more than one species exists, all the forms previously recognized by him as species are valid species. I can readily grant this alternative, being fully convinced that the genus consists of but a single known species, which has a circumpolar distribution. The alleged specific distinctions have consisted in differences in general size, in the relative size of the bill, the length of the tarsus, wing, and tail, and in color. Some of these differences are doubtless climatic and local, while others may be due to age, but the greater part I believe to be to a great degree purely individual, inasmuch as they are paralleled in allied species, whose standing has not been and cannot reasonably be questioned. But the special consideration of the variations presented by the Egiotha and similar groups will be reserved till after the facts relating to geographical variation have been presented, since they can then be more appropriately discussed.

Figures 16 and 16a to 18 and 18a, inclusive (Plate V), represent the bills of three male specimens of *Passerculus savanna*, from different localities on the Atlantic coast. The specimen represented in figures 18 and 18a, has the bill of minimum size, being in bulk less than half that of the one represented in figures 17 and 17a.‡ Figure 17, it will be observed, corresponds nearly with the so-called *P. sandwichensis* § of

<sup>\*</sup> A Monograph of the genus Ægiothus, etc., Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. XII, p. 373, 1861, Vol. XV, p. 40, 1863.

<sup>†</sup> On variations in the plumage of the Legiothi, Ibid., Vol. XXI, p. -, 1869.

<sup>†</sup> Other specimens received from Grinnell, Iowa, from Professor II. W. Parker, since the above was written, have bills still smaller than any of those here figured.

<sup>§</sup> Baird's Birds of N. Amer., p. 444, 1858.

the Pacific coast, and figure 17 with the so-called *Passerculus alaudinus*,\* also of the Pacific coast.

Plate VI, although designed more especially to illustrate local variation, indicates to some extent the individual variation existing in  $Agelaus\ phaniceus$ . Figures 1 and 1a represent the average type of the bill in this species in Massachusetts, and figures 3 and 3a, and 4 and 4a, unusually long and unusually short forms of the bill found at the same locality. Figures 2 and 2a, 5 and 5a, and 6 and 6a, represent a similar series from the St. John's River, Florida. All the specimens of the two series are adult males.

Plate VII represents similar variations of the bill in Quiscalus purpureus. Figures 1 and 1a, 3 and 3a, 4 and 4a, and 6 and 6a, represent the average and the extreme types of the bill met with in Massachusetts males. The latter also represents an inflexed type of bill, a modification seen in many species, it being especially common in the Quiscali and other genera having the bill of a similar form. It is unmistakably an individual peculiarity, evidently depending mainly upon age, and resulting from the upper mandible outgrowing and overhanging the lower. In Quiscalus purpureus such specimens are more or less frequent at probably all localities, they having been received at the Museum from Maine, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Florida, and Illinois, and I have seen them from the West Indies. It often gives rise to the name inflexirostris, which is found so frequently a synonyme. † The figures of the bills of four females of Sturnella ludoviciana (Plate VIII), from Florida, indicate the character of the bill variation exhibited by different individuals of this species at the same locality, independently of any variation attributable to sex. Figures 5 and 5a, and 6 and 6a (same plate) show that like variations occur in Colaptes auratus, the figures being drawn from two Massachusetts females.

Similar comparisons, with similar results, might be made with scores of other species, but the above illustrations will doubtless suffice to show that individual variation in the form of the bill is not only great, but that it exists in groups having a high grade of structure. Other groups might have been chosen in which the individual variation in the form of the bill, as already stated, is far greater than in the instances above

<sup>\*</sup> Bonaparte, Comptes Rendus, Vol. XXXVII, p. 918, 1853.

<sup>†</sup> Concerning Quiscalus inflexirostris Swainson, see below (Part IV), under Q. purpureus.

cited. The *Grallæ* have already been referred to as presenting remarkable examples of bill variation. In some of the *Anatidæ*, however, it is scarcely less, whilst it is especially great among many of the *Longipennes*. Hence some authors evidently attach too high importance to the exact form of the bill in these groups.

All the illustrations referred to above have been drawn, with one or two exceptions, from fully adult specimens. One of these is a specimen of *Passerculus savanna* (Plate V, fig. 18), which is a bird of the year, killed in Labrador in August, before it had quite completed its first moult. Another is the smallest billed specimen of *Chrysomitris tristis* (Plate V, fig. 10), which is also evidently a bird of the year. The other is an autumnal specimen of *Dendræca striata* (Plate IV, fig. 15). They all, however, would be ordinarily considered as adult in size.

# VARIATIONS IN THE SIZE AND FORM OF THE BILL, WING, ETC., RESULTING FROM AGE.

In the foregoing remarks on the variations in general size, in proportions, and in the form of different parts, exclusive reference has been had to adult specimens. It is easy, however, to confound difference depending upon age with those strictly resulting from individual differentiation. The form of the bill is especially subject to variation by age in specimens that upon casual inspection would seem to be full-grown In long-billed birds the bill increases in length for several months after the bird is full-fledged, and even after it has once moulted. In short- and thick-billed birds, the bill increases considerably in thickness as well as in length after the individual seems to have acquired its adult size and proportions. As a general rule, then, "birds of the year" possess a relatively shorter and thicker bill than those fully adult, or three or four years of age. In old age an abnormal elongation of the upper mandible occasionally occurs, especially in species in which the tip of the upper mandible is decurved and projects slightly beyond the lower, as in Corvus, Quiscalus, Virco, Turdus, Larus, etc. Since, however, great differences occur in the form of the bill in specimens of the same age, in birds of the year as well as in those unquestionably adult, it is sometimes difficult to determine how much of the difference in certain cases is to be considered as due to age and how much to individual variation.

The wing also varies considerably in form with age. In many of the song-birds, at least, and also in the raptorial birds, the wing becomes more pointed with the second and third moultings of the remiges. Birds of the first year hence have, even after the flight feathers are fully grown, a shorter and more rounded fore-wing, as a general rule, than birds of two or three years of age. These differences of course result from variations in the relative length of the primaries, the outer primaries being the last to acquire their ultimate proportions, as they are also the last primaries to be renewed in the annual moult. similar change with age occurs in the form of the inner point of the wing, or that formed by the inner secondaries. These, like the primaries, are subject to a gradual increase in length for a time with each moult, they likewise being the latest of the secondaries to acquire their mature size, as they are also the last of the secondaries changed in each normal moult. Thus, through the gradual elongation of the outer primaries and the inner secondaries, a slight change is produced in the general form of the wing. It is, however, only slight, and since some young birds have as pointed wings as any of the same species which are fully adult, and some adult birds have wings as much rounded as the full-grown young, the rule is subject to many exceptions. The sexes of the same species also often differ similarly with the young and old in respect to the form of the wing. This is more especially the case in those species in which the female is much smaller and much duller colored than the male, the structural inferiority of the female to the male being thus evident in various features.

While the wing may be regarded, as already stated, as generally smaller and more rounded in the younger individuals, it not unfrequently happens that the specimens having the greatest alar extent are immature birds. This has been particularly noticed in the eagles and hawks, as well as in some of the gulls, in which it is so frequent as to have attracted the attention of numerous observers.\* The feathers of the wings and tail are not only longer, but they are also broader, and hence in the expanded wing present a greater resisting surface to the air. Two explanations of this fact present themselves. First, in the cases referred to, the birds may have been born at a very northern locality, whence only the younger birds ever descend so far south. Second, the greater lack of power in the muscles of flight in the young birds, as

<sup>\*</sup> See American Naturalist, Vol. III, 1869, p. 517.

compared with those fully mature, may be counterbalanced by a relatively larger supporting surface in the wings and tail. Whatever the explanation may be, the facts seem to be unquestionably as above stated.

Other variations in the plumage and in other characters depending upon age, but which are liable to be confounded with individual differentiation, might be cited, but none seem to be of sufficient importance to require a special description.

## GENERAL REMARKS ON INDIVIDUAL VARIATION.

After the preceding remarks on this subject, I should perhaps state expressly what I regard to be the bearing of the facts above discussed, otherwise I might be understood as in a great measure discarding the majority of the characters used in the diagnoses of species and genera. Nothing, however, is further from my purpose. What I urge is simply this: that the extent of purely individual variation is far greater than has usually been recognized, and that as a result numerous strictly nominal species have found their place in our systems, from naturalists having mistaken these differences for true specific characters. Individual variation, however, is so complicated with geographical variation, that the general bearings of the whole subject will be deferred till the end of the discussion of the latter topic.

As regards the general cause of individual differences in animals, it is too evidently constitutional to allow of any other hypothesis, and akin to that seen in domestic animals, and which in man gives to each individual his unlikeness in temperament and physical structure to all other men. While individuality is so patent and so universal in the human species, and scarcely less so in domesticated animals, it is one of the most surprising facts in zoölogy that so many naturalists should have entertained the idea that there is an almost total absence of it in feral animals, and that the description of a single specimen will suffice for that of its species. Practically, however, this has been the fact, and eminently so with that large class of "species hunters," who have not inaptly been characterized as "closet naturalists"; for to this class and not to the field naturalists are we mainly indebted for the long lists of synonymes that form so vexatious a burden to zoölogical science.

Certain secondary causes that share in producing individual variation

are doubtless more or less obscurely traceable. Among these are certain circumstances attending the time of hatching, as well as, of course, the vigor of the parent. Not unfrequently the first attempts of birds to rear their brood are unsuccessful, from their eggs or young being destroyed by their enemies. Persisting, however, in their efforts, it is late in the season before their brood is fledged, several sets of eggs or young having been previously destroyed. The birds of such broods are found to be smaller and paler colored than those hatched earlier in the season. In cases where several broods are reared each year, as a general rule the birds of the earlier brood seem in all respects the most perfect and vigorous. Various other causes operating during their infancy doubtless more or less affect their general size, their proportions, and colors when mature. Food has doubtless much to do with variation in color, though but few facts bearing upon this point have been yet recorded. Professor Agassiz informs me, however, that many years since, in Switzerland, he raised many Pyrrhula vulgaris, and found that by feeding them on the seeds of hemp the red on the breast changed to black. The well-known fact that certain brightly colored birds, as the purple finch (Carpodacus purpureus) and the crossbills (Curvirostra), change, when kept in eages, from bright red to dull olive with their first moult, and never again, or at least so long as kept in confinement, regain their original color, shows how susceptible the color of birds is to the influences of food and artificial conditions of life.

### CLIMATIC VARIATION.

Climatic variation involves as completely all parts of the animal as does individual variation. It is more marked, however, in some features than in others. The three most prominent phases of climatic variation in birds are the following: variation in general size, variation in the size and form of the bill, variation in color.

Climatic Variation in Size. — Variation in the size of individuals of the same species with differences in the latitude and altitude of their respective places of birth is a fact already so well known as to be quite generally recognized; hence any demonstration of such a variation is in the present connection unnecessary. A few tables of comparative measurements of New England and Florida specimens given in Part IV serve to illustrate its general character and extent. Similiar illustrations are abundantly afforded by the tables of measurements published in Pro-

fessor Baird's Birds of North America,\* in the text of which work frequent reference is made to the differences in size between northern and southern specimens of the same species. The same author also subsequently called attention to the subject, and explicitly announced a general law of geographical variation in size; namely, a gradual decrease in size in individuals of the same species with the decrease in the latitude and altitude of their birth-places.†

In some species, and throughout some entire families, climatic variation is more marked than in others; generally, however, it is very appreciable, and amounts, in respect to size, not unfrequently to from twelve to twenty per cent; of the average dimensions of the species.

Climatic Variation in the Bill. — The climatic variation in the size of the bill is, in general, inverse to that of the general size of the individual. In some species, as in the Sittæ and the typical members of the Picidæ, I have as yet been unable to trace an independent variation in the size of the bill to that of the body; but in many species there is not only a marked relative increase in the size of the bill to the southward, but, in some, an absolute increase, especially in its length.

- \* Pacific Railroad Explorations and Surveys, Vol. IX, Birds. By Professor S. F. Baird, with the co-operation of Mr. John Cassin and Mr. George N. Lawrence. 1858. Subsequently republished under the title of "The Birds of North America," with an Atlas of one hundred plates.
- † Proc. Phila. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. XI, p. 300, November, 1859. Also in Am. Journ. Sci. and Arts, 2d Ser., Vol. XLI, p. 190, March, 1866.
- † Variation in size with differences in habitat is by no means confined to birds. In mammals it is well known to be as great, if not greater, than among birds. In some wide-ranging species of mammals there appears to be a double decadence in size, a diminution to the northward, in those non-migratory species whose habitats extend into the arctic regions, as well as a diminution to the southwards of the point where in general the maximum of size is attained,— as I have elsewhere had occasion to remark. (Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., Vol. I, p. 199.) But in these exceptional cases of a decline in size to the northward, the cause of such a decline must result from climatic conditions the reverse of those producing the decline at the southward,— from the excessive rigor of the arctic climate instead of from the enervating influence of warm temperate and sub-tropical latitudes.

In the case of reptiles, the larger representatives of a given species are generally found at the North, as has also been observed to be the case with the edible marine and fluviatile fishes. (I am credibly informed that this is markedly the case with the codfish and the halibut.) In some groups of crustacea and mollusca the same fact has been repeatedly observed; but in insects, as in plants, the increase in size is generally to the southward, as is especially noticeable in the diurnal Lepidoptera. In plants, however, the increase is a purely vegetative one, the northern representatives of a given species being generally far the most prolific, in proportion to the size of the plant, near the northern limit of their respective habitats.

An increase in the length of the bill is most frequent in long-billed species, while in short-billed ones the increase is in general size, without material change in its proportions. With the increased length and slenderness of the bill there is in many cases also a tendency to greater curvature.

An increase in the length of the bill is quite marked in the genera Quiscalus, Agelæus, Geothlypis, Troglodytes, Seiurus, Harporhynchus, Guleoscoptes, etc. Quiscalus purpureus and Agelæus phæniceus afford good illustrations of geographical variation in the size and shape of the bill. Notwithstanding that the northern specimens are the larger, the southern ones have, in the average, bills as long, though slenderer, than the northern, and occasionally even longer. These differences are shown to some extent in Plates VI and VII, where the figures of the bills of Massachusetts and Florida specimens of these species are given side by side. In Plate VI, figures 1 and 1a represent the bill of an average Massachusetts male A. phæniceus, and figures 2 and 2a the bill of an average Florida male of the same species. The latter, while much less thick, is fully as long as the former. Figures 4 and 4a represent the shortest bill of a considerable series of Massachusetts specimens, and figures 6 and 6a the shortest or thickest bill of a similar series of Florida specimens. Figures 3 and 3a give the longest bill of the Massachusetts series, and figures 5 and 5a the longest of the Florida series, the specimens being in each case adult males. Plate VII, figures 3 and 3a represent the bill in average Massachusetts males of Quiscalus purpureus, and figures 2 and 2a that of average Florida specimens, while figures 1 and 1a, and 4 and 4a, show respectively the longest and the shortest bills of a considerable series of Massachusetts specimens. Figures 5 and 5a are from a New Jersey specimen, and figures 6 and 6a from a Florida specimen, the latter showing an inflection of the upper mandible more or less frequent in the various species of Quiscalus. The figures, as in the previous plate, were all drawn from adult males. In each of these species the average difference in the bills of Florida and Massachusetts birds is as great as is frequently considered to be sufficient to constitute specific differentiation, and between the extremes, especially of A. phæniceus, even subgeneric. Yet specimens from intermediate localities resent such a gradual and complete transition between the two forms as to render their specific identity unquestionable.

A similar difference between Massachusetts and Florida examples,

with a gradual transition from the one to the other, through specimens from intermediate localities, is seen in Troglodytes aëdon, Geothlypis trichas, and Sciurus noveboracensis. In Pipilo crythrophthalmus, Ortyx virginianus, Corvus americanus, and Cyanura cristata the bill is appreciably larger in the Florida than in the northern form. In Corvus americanus this difference was long since noticed by Professor Baird, the larger bill of South Florida specimens having led him to recognize a variety floridanus of this species, based chiefly on this difference.\* The same author has also referred to the larger size of the bill in Florida specimens of Ortyx virginianus.†

In some species individual variation is so great that it is unsafe to draw conclusions respecting geographical variation from the examination of a small number of specimens. This is notably the case in Sturnella ludoviciana, in which the bill varies greatly in size and form, as does the bird in general bulk, at all localities. In the average, however, Florida specimens of this species seem to have a relatively longer and slenderer bill than those from the Northern States.

As already noticed, variation in the bill is not equally marked in all species, but it occurs in too many to admit of the supposition that the numerous cases wherein it is clearly marked are exceptional, or that it does not follow a general law of geographical variation. The observations above detailed are based on specimens collected on the Atlantic eoast, from New England southward to Florida, and refer exclusively to species breeding within that range. But specimens of species which breed entirely to the northward of this range, collected during their semi-annual migrations, corroborate the law already stated, namely, an increase in the size of the bill to the southward in specimens of the same species from different breeding stations. In the Anatidæ and  $Tring\alpha$ , which breed far to the northward and pass the winter in lower latitudes, it is noticeable that, while those which arrive first in the fall, and those which return north latest in the spring, are smaller than those that arrive later and depart earlier, they have, nevertheless, relatively larger bills. This has been especially noticed in species of Fulix, Berniclo, Actodromas, and Macrorhamphus. Professor Baird has also referred to the larger size of the bill of the southern representatives of Lagopus albus as compared with those from further north,

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of North America, p. 568, 1858.

<sup>†</sup> Am. Journ. Sci. and Arts, 2d Ser., Vol. XLI, p. 191, 1866.

"those from Eastern Labrador and Newfoundland," he says, appearing "to have decidedly broader, stouter, and more convex bills than those from the Hudson's Bay and more northern countries."\* In the writings of various authors on the birds of Southern Mexico, Central America, Southern Asia, and Northern Africa, frequent mention is incidentally made of the larger size of the bills of southern representatives of northward ranging species. Although such statements record what have been apparently regarded as only isolated facts, their frequency indicates that the increase in the size of the bill to the southward is not confined to the birds of Eastern North America, nor exclusively to those of temperate and sub-tropical countries, but that it is a general geographical law, similar to that of the variation with locality in the general bulk of the individual.

Geographical Variation in Color. — Geographical variation in color in birds may be regarded as of two kinds, which may be termed, from their different geographical relations, latitudinal variation and longitudinal variation. The first is coincident with differences in latitude, and the second with differences in longitude. Both are due, however, to climatic peculiarities, and are hence, strictly speaking, climatic. The latitudinal is perhaps at present the best known, and will be first considered.

(a) Latitudinal Variation. — In those species of North American birds whose breeding range extends over a wide range of latitude, the southern-born specimens are, as a general rule, appreciably darker or brighter, or more intensely colored, than northern-born ones of the same species; in many instances the difference being so great as to impress even the casual observer. Dark colored birds, like the Quiscali, Agelæus phæniceus, etc., become blacker towards the southern limit of their respective habitats, where those with metalic reflections have the iridescence more intense and of a darker hue, greenish and bronzy reflections changing to purple. The slaty, ferruginous, and olive tints, and the various shades of red and yellow of others, become also far more intense. In species barred transversely with dark and light colors, the dark bands, as a general rule, become broader, and the light ones narrower. Those with white spots on a black ground have the spots reduced in size and number, the smaller ones becoming obsolete. White bars on the wings and terminal white spots on the tail feathers

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of N. Amer., p. 634.

are also of less extent in southern specimens. There hence results, as already observed, a generally darker aspect in the plumage of the southern representatives of wide-ranging species; the bill and the feet also usually sharing in the general accession of coloring matter in the integuments. The difference in color between the extremely northern and the extremely southern representatives of a given species is often so great that, taken in connection with other differences, as in general size and in the size and form of the bill, the two extremes might be excusably taken for distinct species, especially if viewed aside from the connecting series between the two types formed by specimens from successively intermediate points, which beyond question show their specific identity.

As in the case of climatic variation in the bill and in general size, the variation in color differs greatly in degree in different species. Climatic difference in color is particularly striking in Agelæus phæniceus. In the males the black is greatly intensified and more lustrous at the South, and the red on the shoulders becomes equally heightened. Instead of the light red shoulder-patch, bordered externally with whitish or pale yellowish-whitish, seen in Massachusetts specimens, the shoulder-patch in the Florida males is of a brilliant dark red, with a rich cream-colored or orange-yellow border. While the differences in the bills of the two types might in extreme cases be taken as indicative of different sub-genera, the difference in color is as great as occurs between the northeastern type of A. phæniceus, and either the so-called A. tricolor or A. gubernator of the Pacific slope, or between any of these inter se. Quiscalus purpureus also affords a similar example of climatic variation, as well in color as in the bill and general size. In the males the change in general tint is in the black becoming more intense at the South, and the iridescence being dark purple or bluish instead of bronzy or greenish. The change in the females is as great as that in the males. At the North their plumage is nearly lustreless brownish-black, but at the South it becomes nearly as black as that of the northern males, and has considerable iridescence, so that the northern collector, judging from color alone, would at first be likely to mistake the southern females for males.

In Ortyx virginianus, through the increased breadth of the transverse bars of black at the South, on the dorsal as well as on the ventral surface, the general aspect of the plumage is very much darker in Florida

specimens than in New England ones. In Sturnella ludoviciana the yellow of the ventral surface in Florida specimens is far more intense than it is in northern ones; the slate color of Galeoscopies carolineusis is correspondingly darker, and the ferruginous of Harporhynchus rufus is much redder. In Centurus carolinus not only are the black transverse bars on the back broader and darker, but the red on the head and abdomen becomes more extended and lustrons. In Picus pubescens the white spots on the wings become smaller and fewer, with a greater tendency to black streaks on the sides of the breast, a variation in the direction of P. Gairdneri and P. Harrisi, as will be noticed at length in the remarks on P. pubescens and P. villosus in Part IV. Similar differences occur between northern and southern specimens of Picus borealis, which are so great as to have led Mr. Cassin to regard the southern type as specifically distinct from the northern. Similar differences to those above described occur between northern and southern specimens of Thryothorus ludoricianus, Troglodytes aëdon, Geothlypis trichas, Coluptes auratus, Buteo lineatus, and various other species, as will be described more in detail in Part IV.

The climatic variation in respect to the relative size of the white spaces on the rectrices and primary remiges may be illustrated by a single example. In northern specimens of *Pipilo erythrophthalmus* the terminal white spots of the tail feathers are found on the *four* outer feathers of each side; but in Florida-born ones they occur on only the *three* outer feathers on each side; and are correspondingly reduced in length. The white area on the tail of Florida specimens hence has only about the extent that would be presented in northern specimens if the outer pair of feathers were removed. The extent of the white space at the base of the primaries is correspondingly reduced in size in the southern type.

Extending the examination to northern species, it is found that similar color differences with the latitude of the birthplace are of frequent occurrence. In Bernicla brenta and Bernicla canadensis the smaller southern-born birds are, as a general rule, considerably darker than the larger northern-born ones. The same is true of Fulix marila and Bucephala americana, the so-called Bucephala islandica being the larger northern type of B. americana, in which the white markings on the wings and head occupy a somewhat larger area. It is altogether probable also that the so-called Anser frontalis holds a similar relation

to A. Gambeli (= A albifrons?), and the Anser cærulescens to the A. hyperboreus, though by some the former has been regarded as the young of the later. In Larus argentatus the southern specimens are not only smaller, with the "mantle" somewhat darker, but as a general rule the white spots at the tips of the first and second primary quills are more restricted.

The changing of the pelage to white in winter in certain northern mammals, and of the plumage in certain birds, as the ptarmigans, correlates perfectly with these geographical differences in color; and since in some species of mammals only the northern representatives change to white in winter, while the southern ones are of the same color throughout the year, this seasonal change seems evidently to come under the above-stated general law of geographical or climatic color variation, namely, a gradual increase in color to the southward in individuals of the same species.

A comparison of Florida birds with West India specimens of the same species shows that the difference between them in color (and, it may be added, in size and other general features) are generally not greater, and in some cases far less, especially between Cape Florida and Cuba specimens, than obtains between Florida and Massachusetts examples, and that it is of precisely the same character. West Indian specimens of course differ more from Massachusetts examples of the same species than the latter do from others from East Florida, yet by means of the South Florida specimens, which differ but slightly from the Cuba type, a gradual transition is evident from the extreme northern to the extreme southern forms. Of late many Jamaiean, Porto Rican, and Cuban forms have been regarded, by many writers, as specifically distinct from their representatives in the Northern States, and in many cases they might well be so regarded, were there not a succession of intermediate forms connecting them, - a fact which seems to have been hitherto overlooked. The earlier writers considered the Ortyx, the Sturnella, the Strix, the Circus, several of the Buteos, etc., of the West Indies as specifically identical with the Ortyx virginianus, Sturnella ludoviciana, Strix flammea, Circus hudsonius, Buteo borealis, etc., of the United States, and doubtless justly, notwithstanding that the comparison of specimens reveals certain relatively slight but constant differences in color and size, and to some extent in other features.

(b) Longitudinal Variation. - In comparing the birds of the Atlantic States with specimens specifically identical from the interior of the continent, one is soon struck with the brighter colors of the latter, and especially with a tendency, in many species, to more ferruginous tints, and to melanism in others. In comparing again the birds of the Mississippi valley with those of the Pacific slope, especially that portion north of the fortieth parallel, a similar difference is also noticeable, the extremes of color variation in truly continental species being met with (especially to the northward of this parallel) at the Atlantic seaboard on the one hand, and the Pacific on the other, between which there is a gradual and, with an exception soon to be noticed, a uniform increase in intensity of color to the westward. This tendency to more ferruginous and melanic colors to the westward is especially marked in Falco peregrinus,\* Accipiter fuscus, Circus hudsonius, Buteo lineatus, Buteo borealis, Archibuteo lagopus, Hypotriorchis columbarius, Otus vulgaris, and other species of Strigidæ, Tetrao canadensis, Bonasa umbellus, Bernicla canadensis, Bernicla brenta, Larus argentatus, Parus atricapillus, Carpodacus purpureus, etc., etc. The western representatives of Melospiza melodia, Passerella iliaca, Junco hyemalis, Pipilo erythrophthalmus, Parus hudsonicus, etc., differ mainly from their Eastern congeners in their more ferruginous or darker colors, according to the species.

While the general tendency from the East westward is thus to darker or deeper colors in specimens of the same species, and in representative species of the same genus, the rule is not without exceptions, nor is the transition quite uninterrupted. On the arid sterile plains the representatives of not a few, and probably of most, species are much lighter colored than their relatives either to the eastward or to the westward. Also at the southward on the Pacific slope there is not the tendency to deeper colors seen farther to the northward, specimens from Northwestern Texas, New Mexico, much of the Colorado basin and Lower California, being lighter than others of the same species from Northern California, Oregon, and Washington, an explanation of which will be suggested later.†

In comparing again the European representatives of circumpolar species with their representatives in Eastern North America, a difference

<sup>\*</sup> For the synonymy and other remarks on these species, see Part IV.

<sup>†</sup> See below, p. 239 et seq.

similar to, but hardly so great as, that between the Atlantic and Pacific coast examples of indentical species is likewise seen, the American being in general several shades darker than the European. In certain cases there is also a difference in the markings, as in some of the hawks, in which in the European the transverse bars are broader and better defined, and the longitudinal ones less so than in the American. is illustrated in Astur palumbarius and A. atricapillus, in Accipiter nisus and Ac. fuscus, etc. In many instances the only tangible differences between so-called representative American and European species consists in the darker, brighter, or intenser color of the American, the differences being oftentimes less than that between specimens of the same species from the Atlantic States and the Mississippi valley, or between those from the Mississippi valley and the Pacific coast. Not unfrequently, however, are American and European specimens so nearly alike, even of species that have rarely been considered as identical, that without a knowledge of the locality whence they came it would be impossible to confidently refer them to the one species rather than to the other.

There are also indications of various local differences in color in specimens specifically identical within the larger areas above considered, and which are in a measure exceptional to the general law of a westward increase in color. The data at hand are at present too few either to limit these exceptional areas or to indicate to what extent they are exceptional. They appear, however, to be coincident with peculiar climatic conditions, the exact nature and extent of which are likewise imperfectly known.\*

Variation in the Length of the Tail and in other Characters.—At certain localities, and more especially to the southward, there are well-known instances of an increase in the length of the tail, without an appreciable modification of other parts. Marked examples of this are seen in Icteria virens, Harporhynchus rufus, and Minus polyglottus, as has been pointed out by Professor Baird and other writers,† each of which species has a western long-tailed variety. The Quiscalus macrura is also little else than a long-tailed variety of Q. major. A tendency is seen to this variation in Geothlypis trichas at the southward,

<sup>\*</sup> See on this point below, p. 239 et seq.

<sup>†</sup> See especially Prof. Baird in Amer. Journ. of Science and Arts, 2d Series, Vol. XLI, p. 191.

while it seems to be a marked characteristic of many of the birds of Lower California. The tendency in southern forms to an elongation of the tail seems, however, less general than the southward decrease in size and the increase in color, or the tendency to an elongation of the bill.

Among other local variations may be mentioned the white instead of a red iris in the South Florida representatives of *Pipilo erythrophthalmus*; the yellow instead of a black bill in the magpies of the coast of California; the white basal half of the feathers of the neck of the raven of Southwestern Texas and Mexico, by which it is chiefly distinguished from the common species; the greater continuation anteriorly of the superciliary stripe in the western forms of *Zonotrichia leucophrys*, by which alone it is distinguishable from the eastern form; the white frontlet of one of the western forms of the *Parus atricapillus* group, etc. There appears frequently to be also a locally greater development of the foot in western and southern forms of wide-ranging species, and occasionally an exceptional increase in general size under identical isothermes.

Causes of Climatic Variation. — The facts respecting climatic variation are at present too imperfectly known to be fully explained. There are, however, certain peculiarities of climatic variation, especially in color, coincident with certain meteorological peculiarities of the regions where they occur, that demand attention. The increase in color to the southward, especially the tendency to darker tints above shown to be so general, coincides with the increase in the intensity of the solar rays to the southward, and in the humidity of the climate. The southward increase in depth of color and in iridescence in birds specifically identical coincides also with the general increase in brilliancy of color in birds, taken as a whole, in the lower latitudes (as well as in insects and animals generally), the maximum being reached in the tropics.

The longitudinal variation, or the westward increase in color, seems to be also coincident with the increased humidity to the westward, the darker representatives of any species occurring where the annual rainfall is greatest, and the palest where it is least. This coincidence is clearly illustrated in the birds of the United States, where the darkest representatives of a species, as a general rule, (indeed without exception so far as known to me,) come from regions of maximum annual rainfall, and the palest from those of minimum annual rainfall. In the Northeastern States the amount of rain is only one half to two thirds

what it is in the Northwestern States, while on the Great Plains it is less than one half what it is in the Northeastern States. In the lower part of the Mississippi basin and in the Southeastern States it is much greater than to the northward under the same meridians. Within the tropics, in America and Asia at least, the humidity, as well as the intensity of the solar rays, reaches the maximum, as does the intensity of color in both birds and other animals. In Europe, as is well known, the birds from near the Scandinavian coast, where the annual rain-fall reaches forty inches, are darker than in Central Europe, where the yearly rain-fall is only half this amount. So much darker, in fact, are the Scandinavian forms, that by some writers they have been regarded as specifically distinct from their representatives in Southern Germany, the Scandinavian forms of circumpolar species being as dark as their Eastern North American allies. There is again a striking parallelism between the relative humidity of Western Europe and Eastern North America, and the relative depth of color in the representatives of circumpolar species living in these two countries, the rain-fall of the latter region being double that of the former, and the birds of darker and livelier colors. As already intimated, this coincidence is not confined to the birds of these different regions, the same correlation of livelier, brighter, deeper tints with increased humidity being also exhibited by the mammals of these various districts, the Europeo-North American species being higher colored, as a general rule, in Eastern North America than in Europe, as the western forms of the continentally distributed American species are often higher colored than the eastern.

It is a most striking fact that the birds, and even the mammals and reptiles, of the almost rainless districts of Lower California, the Gila and Colorado' deserts, are almost all so much paler in color than their relatives of the better-watered neighboring districts, that many of them have been described as distinct species, and the others referred to as strongly marked varieties, they all being characterized to a greater or less degree by a faded or bleached aspect. The birds and mammals of the arid plains of the middle region of the continent exhibit also the same bleached appearance, but in a somewhat less degree.

I had long suspected that hygrometric conditions had much to do with local variations in color in individuals of the same species, but I was not a little surprised when I came to compare the known areas

most prolific of dark and light local forms with rain-fall charts, — which may be assumed as indicating relatively the hygrometric conditions of different regions, — to find the distribution of the light-colored races so strictly coincident with the regions of minimum mean annual rail-fall, and the dark forms with those of maximum mean annual rain-fall, as seems to be the case.

Humidity has hence apparently far more to do with climatic variation in color than solar intensity, though the latter has undoubtedly an influence upon color. The occurrence of a light-colored race of Arvicola riparius on Muskeget Island and the sandy sea-beaches of the coast of Massachusetts shows clearly that the intense light caused by reflection from a sandy surface tends to the diminution rather than to an increase of color in animals, and even plants, since the foliage of the latter in arid districts so commonly assumes a dull grayish tint. The capture on Muskeget Island last season (July, 1870), by Messrs. Maynard and Brewster, of two pairs of the short-eared owl (Otus brachyotus) with the color of the plumage so pale as at first to suggest their being albinos, is additional evidence of the bleaching effect of strong light upon the colors of animals. Such facts render it doubtful whether the increased intensity of the light in the tropics has really much to do with the brighter colors of tropical birds and insects, and suggest that humidity alone may be the principal agent in producing this accession of color.

In regard to the cause of other climatic variations, certain other facts are naturally recalled. In the remarks on the climatic and faunal peculiarities of East Florida,\* attention was called to the less degree of vivacity and energy exhibited by the southern as compared with the northern members of the same species, and the general higher physiological development of essentially extra-tropical species in the temperate portions of their habitats. Is it hence improbable that the southward deterioration in size seen in such species is directly related to the enervating influence of increased heat? And why is it that so large a proportion of the birds pre-eminently singing-birds are found in temperate latitudes?

In the increased size of the bill and tail to the southward, especially of the former, we have a fact somewhat parallel to what is not unfrequently seen in mammals. The ears, for example, of the arctic representatives of species ranging to warm-temperate latitudes are smaller at the northward than at the southward, as is seen in the native dogs, the foxes, and the wolves, and in the arctic races of man. The expianation generally given of this seems possibly applicable to the beaks of birds, namely, a greater activity in the circulation of the blood in the peripheral parts of the body in the temperate latitudes.

# Species, Varieties, and Geographical Races.

The foregoing remarks on individual and geographical or climatic variation necessitates a brief consideration of the character of species, varieties, and races, and the propriety of applying binomials to such forms as can be clearly shown to be connected by intergrading links with others previously known. As preparatory to what follows, it seems proper to refer briefly to the origin of the excessive synonymy with which our descriptive ornithological works are burdened.

Ornithological synonymes may be arranged, as regards their origin, under four primary heads, namely: (1) Those arising from the description of immature and adult birds of the same species for different species, (2) from authors mistaking sexual for specific differences, (3) individual variation for specific differentiation, and (4) climatic differentiation for specific. A fifth source of error, and one which has given rise to a large class of synonymes, results from a combination of the causes indicated under (3) and (4).

Synonymes arising from the first two causes mainly preceded the others in regard to the relative frequency of their occurrence, especially so far as regards the birds of this continent. During the previous century, and the first two decades of the present, our birds were mainly described by European naturalists, who had no acquaintance with them in life, and whose resources often consisted of single and imperfect specimens received from chance travellers, without any indication of their sex or age. Later they were studied by resident naturalists, by whom the mistakes of their predecessors in this respect were to a great extent corrected. The laws of sexual and age variation becoming gradually known, errors from this source were soon far less frequent than in earlier times. When at a comparatively recent date critical comparisons were made of specimens from distant localities before regarded as specifically identical, it was found that occasionally distinct species had been confounded. Such results led in the end to undue importance

being attached to trivial differences, so that assumed species were frequently based solely on either individual or climatic variation, but oftener on both combined.

As the rage for describing new species increased, differences seemed alone to be sought; and so long as a given species was usually deemed sufficiently represented, even by the best ornithologists of the day, by a single pair,\* the subject of individual and climatic variation was necessarily almost wholly neglected, the custom of many naturalists being to describe species from single specimens, as though all the representatives of a species were cast after an unvarying pattern. As the number of specimens of well-known species increased in our large museums, it was soon seen that some of the supposed most reliable diagnostic features were subject to considerable variation. The collections brought together from various parts of the continent by the Pacific Railroad surveying parties and from other sources, and the reports published thereon, formed the beginning of a new era in the history of the ornithology of North America, and in ornithological science. The facts thus disclosed in respect to geographical range, and individual and climatic variation, opened new fields of inquiry. Old theories and blind adherence to authorities, however, still impeded progress and led to frequent inconsistencies, which only time and further investigations could correct. Hence has gradually dawned the fact of the existence of a range of individual variation previously unsuspected, and of general laws of climatic variation, the full scope of which, as bearing upon the character of species, is yet to be determined.

Nearly half a century since it was discovered that the North American representatives of what were then commonly regarded as circumpolar species could not in all cases longer be regarded as identical with the European. Further comparisons showed that in most cases of the supposed circumpolar distribution of species, specimens from the Old World and the New could be more or less readily distinguished, yet the differences were in most cases slight, more or less inconstant, and not unfrequently due more to differences in the latitude whence the specimens came than to other causes. Yet a precedent for specific

<sup>\*</sup> Not many years since amateur ornithologists were kindly informed, by one of the leaders in the science of ornithology, that his collection of the birds of a certain country, numbering over two thousand species, required for their convenient storage a space equal to only about one hundred cubic feet, the specimens averaging less than two to a species!

separation in such cases having been established by recognized authorities, it was followed till all the land-birds and a large proportion of the water-birds of the two continents were separated, in many cases, it would appear, on purely theoretical or geographical grounds.\* When the comparison was carried to specimens of continentally distributed species from distant localities, differences between these were also detected, and the theory of specific diversity assumed, till the Pacific representatives of such species were separated from the Atlantic ones, and in like manner the southern from the northern, and those of particular areas, as insular, peninsular, and interior basins, from the others. In some cases such separations were of course properly made, but a high percentage of such forms are now found to intergrade through specimens from the intermediate localities.

Not a few of the species of our faunal lists have been based on, and are still only known from, single specimens, and often on differences manifestly within the range of individual variation; others represent local races, which only appear distinct when extremes alone are considered, the intermediate stages being unknown or ignored. The increase of synonymes from this fruitful source appears to have not yet culminated, a large proportion of the "new species" now annually described being but slight local differentiations of previously known specific forms, from which they often differ only in being a little smaller, a rittle darker or brighter colored, and in the individual peculiarities of the single specimens on which some of them are based. In many cases this process of ultra subdivision has furnished stepping-stones to later generalizations; in too many other cases it has been in its results only unmitigatedly injurious.

So large a proportion of the commonly recognized species are virtually nominal, or rest on a false basis, it is not surprising that in the reaction consequent upon a fuller knowledge of the birds of this continent, which has already commenced, the reality of species should be to some extent ignored. Whether, however, species are considered as entities or only as arbitrary inventions, convenience demands some established definition of them.

\* Audubon, writing in 1838 (Orn. Biog., Vol. IV, p. 608), refers to the Prince of Musignano (by whom a large part of the circumpolar and cosmopolitan species were separated into numerous assumed species) as "having altered his notions so far as to seem desirous of proving that the same species of birds cannot exist on both the continents"; and there seems to have, been good reason for the remark, only instead of proving them distinct, he in most cases merely assumed them to be so.

Not a few naturalists have hence adopted the test of intergradation, which seems a reasonable and an unobjectionable one. The question of species and of specific synonymy is thus simplified to this: that whenever two forms which have both received names are found to intergrade, the more recent name shall become a synonyme of the older. Some, however, still urge that every recognizable form, however closely allied to others, and even intergrading, should be recognized by a binomial epithet, and that whether we call them species, or varieties, or races, or simply forms, that such names are none the less convenient expressions for certain facts. It seems to me, however, that there are insuperable objections to this course; for however distinct the extreme geographical forms of a species may be, a vast proportion of its representatives are intermediate to them, and could never be but doubtfully referred to the one rather than to the other. Ordinarily, for instance, in the birds of the Atlantic slope, the representatives of a given species at the extreme north of its breeding range almost always differ very tangibly from its representatives at the extreme southern limit, sometimes more, sometimes less, according to the species. Those living only a little to the northward of the middle region differ less from the extreme southern type than the extreme northern type does, and those a little to the southward of the middle region differ still less from the southern type, and are quite distinguishable from the extreme northern form. In other words, in species ranging from Southern Labrador or Northern New England to Florida, of which there are numerous unquestioned instances, specimens from Southern New England differ somewhat from the more northern ones; those from Southern New England from those of Southern New Jersey and Eastern Maryland, and these latter from those of Georgia and Florida. It hence depends entirely upon individual predilection whether two, three, or four "species" or "binomial forms" shall be recognized; and in either case there is the same difficulty in disposing of the intermediate types. Again, specimens from the Mississippi valley differ more or less from their relatives from the Atlantic coast, the central plains, and the Pacific slope. Here again similar difficulties are encountered. Hence it is necessary to decide between recognizing a single binomial form, with a considerable but definite range of climatic variation, or three, or six, or nine, or even more, which cannot be rigidly defined, and between each of which will always be found a greater or less proportion of intermediate types,

doubtfully referable to one of the binomial forms rather than to another. Another important objection may be urged against giving binomial names to intergrading forms. In faunal and nominal lists of the species of a large or continental area, scarcely distinguishable forms take equal rank with the most distinct congeneric species. For instance, in a list of the birds of North America, Turdus Aliciæ and Turdus Swainsoni, Turdus Auduboni and Turdus Pallasi, stand side by side with Turdus mustelinus and Turdus fuscescens, though in the former cases Turdus Aliciæ and T. Auduboni are founded at best on slight, and in the one case on inconstant individual or local differences, while in the latter no two congeneric species need be more distinct. In the one case only experts can distinguish the forms, and frequently they only by an actual comparison of specimens, and then too frequently but doubtfully, while in the other case a casual observer need not mistake them. The names alone give no clew to their real character, and are hence in a great measure meaningless when separated from the most explicit diagnoses, and whose affinities can frequently only be settled by the arbitrary criterion of locality. But it is urged that cognizance should in some way be taken of these differences; and "How can they be better recognized," it may be asked, "than in the way proposed?"

As already shown, and as I trust a large proportion of ornithologists are willing to admit, these local forms occur in accordance with recognizable laws of climatic variation, similar variations with locality occurring, to a greater or less extent, in all species having nearly the same geographical range. Eventually, then, will not the recognition of these laws be sufficient, and should not a statement of the tendencies to variation with locality, and the degree to which it is developed, be embraced in the specific diagnosis of each species as a part of its specific description? Is not this, in fact, actually essential to the proper characterization of a species? The average characters being given, a line or two would suffice for a statement of its variations, both geographical and individual. Then only in one case where now there are hundreds would there be instances of doubtful identification. Till within a very recent period, perhaps, no other course could have been pursued than that of giving binomial names to each apparently distinct form, however slightly it may have differed from others previously known. In many cases, indeed, the differences between strictly intergrading geographical forms are very great, - greater, indeed, if they were not thus serially connected, than would be deemed necessary for specific separation; and so long as the extr mes only were known, no one could have regarded them otherwise than as well-defined species. But the time has already come, it seems to me, for a different and a more philosophic method, and that to further increase synonymy by giving new names to slightly different local forms of the same species is worse than useless.

It is important, in this connection, to observe that the species occurring at any point on the Atlantic coast, or on the Pacific coast, or in the Mississippi valley, or on the Great Plains, in short, at any restricted locality, have, as compared with each other, with scarcely an exception, an unequivocal character; they are based on differences that place them beyond controversy. It is not so, however, when we compare the species of distant localities with each other, whether the localities differ in latitude or longitude. In such cases we constantly meet with controverted species. At the South are species admitted as doubtfully distinct from others found farther north; at the West, those holding the same relation to others of the East; while at intermediate points either both the disputed forms occur with greater or less frequency, or there is a gradual transition of the one into the other, neither form being typically represented. This is evidently what should be expected to occur, if what has been said above in respect to climatic variation be correct, and is evidently a suggestive and important fact. Is the theory of hybridization, so often appealed to in such cases, necessary to explain these facts? and is it, in fact, true? By uniting the intergrading forms, the number of species occurring at any single locality is not essentially reduced, but such a union would considerably reduce the total number recognized, as well as the number usually assigned to the several continents, as at present not a few are repeatedly counted.

The many facts bearing upon individual and geographical variation, presented in the foregoing pages form but an imperfect exposition of the subject. They are, nevertheless, eminently suggestive of interesting results, and the conclusions above deduced I can but believe will be only the more fully confirmed by further research. Additional details are given in the general remarks embraced in Part IV, where various facts merely hinted at above are more fully presented, and an application is made in many cases of the pinciples deducible from them.

As previously stated, individual and geographical variations are in

some cases difficult to distinguish. They can be satisfactorily investigated only from extensive suites of specimens taken from the same locality in the breeding season, and sufficiently extensive suites of this character are, with rare exceptions, still wanting. In specimens taken during migration it is difficult to determine what share of the variation is due to birthplace and what to individuality. Whilst, however, the variations noticed cannot be always traced with certainty to their origin, their bearing upon the general subject of variation within specific limits is in no way vitiated. In considering hypothetical species, it is frequently clearly evident that they are based in part upon slight and tolerably constant climatic differences, and in part and sometimes wholly upon the individual peculiarities of the single specimen upon which the original description of the species was based; in part, too, upon seasonal differences, and upon characters of immaturity. It seems to me that in the numerous closely allied species of the \( \mathbb{Z}\) giothus group, to cite a case in point, some are based in part upon one and in part upon other of these differences of a single circumpolar species. As already shown, the bill in different specimens of L. linarius varies greatly in size, yet an examination of a considerable series of specimens of several of its allies shows an amount of variation in the bill closely approximate to that seen in the specimens of the various assumed species of Zegiothus. Much of the variation in color seen in the flocks of Ægiothi that visit the Northern States in winter is due to age, yet it has been taken as characteristic of different species. These birds only visiting us in winter, those inhabiting widely distant localities in the breeding season are probably then more or less associated. The light-colored specimens are doubtless in part old or fully mature birds, or inhabitants in summer of more northern districts than the browner or more fulvous ones, a large portion of which, however, are unquestionably young birds. The short-billed ones have also relatively longer setw at the base of the bill, which, by concealing a large portion of it, give it the appearance of being shorter than it really is. Analogy would lead us to infer that those with the shorter and more heavily clothed bills have a more northern habitat than the others.

The persistency with which nominal species when characterized by "authorities" are retained in our literature is not a little remarkable. If specimens from the original localities cannot be found to exactly fit the descriptions, the diagnosis is slightly amended to suit examples that

somewhat approach them, and the name retained. In other cases the species is retained without its character being questioned, the name and the original description being copied by succeeding writers, till the species becomes traditionally accepted without its claims to recognition having been critically examined.

Another noteworthy coincidence in regard to nominal species is the fact of their most frequent occurrence in obscurely known groups, which obscurity usually results from the difficulty of obtaining specimens of the forms in question, — either from the remoteness of their habitat, their scarcity, or the peculiarities of their habits, — or from preconceived notions of the intimate relationship of the species of such groups.

Since the above was put in type, I have for the first time met with some important and timely remarks by an eminent English botanist concerning variation within specific limits in plants, which are so appropos to what has been said above in regard to individual and climatic variation in birds, and contains, moreover, such judicious strictures on various practices indulged in by botanists, and of which zoölogists are equally guilty, that a short abstract of them forms a fitting conclusion to the present paper. Says Dr. J. D. Hooker, in the introductory essay to his "Flora Novæ-Zelandiæ" (Part I, pp. xii, xiii, xv, 1853):—

"Some naturalists consider every minute character, if only tolerably constant or even prevalent, as of specific value; they consider two or more doubtful species to be distinct till they have been proved to be one; they limit the ranges of distribution, and regard plants from widely severed localities as almost necessarily distinct; they do not allow for the effects of local peculiarities in temperature, humidity, soil, or exposure, except they can absolutely trace the cause to the effect; and they hence attach great importance to habit, stature, color, hairiness, period of flowering, etc. These views, whether acknowledged or not, are practically carried out in many of the local floras of Europe, and by some of the most acute and observant botanists of the day; and it is difficult to overestimate the amount of synonomy and confusion which they have introduced into some of the commonest and most variable of plants. . . . . In working up incomplete floras especially, I believe it to be of the utmost importance to regard dubious species as varieties, to take enlarged views of the range of variation in species, and to weigh characters not only per se, but with reference to those which prevail in the order to which the species under consideration belong; and to resist steadily the temptation to multiply names; for it is practically very difficult to expunge a species founded on an error of judgment or observation. The state of the British flora proves not only this, but further, that one such error leads to many more of the like kind; students are led to overestimate inconstant characters, to take a narrow view of the importance and end of botany, and to throw away time upon profitless discussions about the differences between infinitely variable forms of plants, of whose identity really learned botanists have no doubt whatever. There is, further, an inherent tendency in every one occupied with specialties to exaggerate the value of his materials and labors.

"To the amateur these questions are perhaps of very tritling importance, but they are of great moment to the naturalist who regards accurately defined floras as the means of investigating the great phenomena of vegetation; he has to seek the truth amid errors of observation and judgment, and the resulting chaos of synonomy which has been accumulated by thoughtless aspirants to the questionable honor of being the first to name a species. The time, however, has happily passed when it was considered to be an honor to be the namer of a plant; the botanist who has the true interests of science at heart not only feels that the thrusting of an uncalled-for synonyme into the nomenclature of science is an exposure of his own ignorance and deserves censure, but that a wider range of knowledge and a greater depth of study are required to prove those dissimilar forms to be identical, which any superficial observer can separate by words and a name."

The above remarks are as strictly applicable to zoology and zoologists as they have ever been to botany and to botanists. The present state of ornithology, and the tendency the majority of ornithologists have to multiply species on improper grounds, find here a fitting rebuke.

### PART IV.

List of the Winter Birds of East Florida, with Annotations.\*

### TURDIDÆ.

# 1.† Turdus migratorius Linné. Robin.

Seen daily, sometimes in considerable flocks, till about the first of March, after which time few were observed. It was shot by me at

\* An asterisk (\*) prefixed to the name of a species indicates that it is a constant resident; an obelisk (†), that it is a winter visitor.

Jacksonville, April 1st, but according to general report it does not breed in the State.

In this species the females are commonly supposed to be paler colored than the males, which is undoubtedly usually the case, but specimens as brightly colored as any I ever saw proved on dissection to be females, and other specimens as palely colored as any I ever met with have likewise proved on dissection to be males. This shows the importance of determining the sex in all cases by dissection, and not from external appearances. It also indicates a wide range of variation in color in the present species, as great as is seen between typical representatives of the so-called Turdus Swainsoni and T. Aliciæ, and which is, moreover, of the same character, namely, simply a variation in intensity.

### 24 Turdus Swainsoni Cabanis. OLIVE BACKED THRUSH.

Turdus nunor Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 817, 1788; in part only. — Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., II, 7, pl. lxiii, 1807; in part only. — Bonaparte, Gcog. and Comp. List, 1838.

Turdus solitarius Wilson, Am. Orn., V, pl. xiii, fig. 2; not the text.

Turdus nanus Audubon, Birds of Amer., III, pl. cxlvii; \* not the text. — Samuels, Am. Nat., II, 218, 1868

Turdus olicaceus GIRAUD, Birds of Long Island, 92, 1843-44. Not the T. olicaceus of Linné

Turdus Swainsonii Cabanis, "in Tschudi's Fauna Peruana, 188, 1844 - 46." —
 Baird, Birds N Am., 216, 1858. — Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 2, 1862. —
 Allen, Proc. Essex 19st., IV, 56 864. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 19, 1864. — Allen, Mem. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist, I, 514, 1868. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 128, 1869.

Turdus Aliciæ Baird, Birds N. Am., 217, 1858. — Coues and Prentiss,
Smithsonian Rep., 1861, 405. — Coues, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XIV,
217, 1861. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 21, 1864. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil.
Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 128, 1869.

Merula Wilsonh Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., I, 182, 1831.

Merula olivacea Brewer, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 191, 1844.

Rare. Given on the authority of Mr. Boardman, who writes me he obtained one specimen at Enterprise, February 18th, and another at St. Augustine, in the same month. The greater part pass the winter farther south.

\* The plates in "Birds of America" are too poorly colored, as is well known, to be recognizable representations of the species whose names they bear, including all those representing wood-thrushes, they having but little resemblance to those of the folio edition. The figures of "Turdus nanus," Turdus solitarius, and Turdus mustelinus, might all pass for the Turdus Swainsoni, so far as the color of the dorsal surface is concerned.

In my "Catalogue of the Birds of Massachusetts," \* published in 1864, I first advanced the opinion that the so-called Turdus Aliciæ Baird was the paler form of T. Swainsoni. To this view other writers have taken exception. Professor Baird, in his "Review of American Birds" (p. 21), summarily disposes of the matter by presuming that I had not seen what he called T. Alicia. In 1868, in my "Notes on the Birds of Iowa, Illinois," etc.,† I again reviewed the subject, having in the mean time examined some twenty specimens sent out by the Smithsonian Institution to different scientific institutions, labelled respectively, "Turdus Alicia," "Turdus Alicia?" "Turdus Alicia? hybrid?" "Turdus Swainsoni," "Turdus Swamsoni?" "Turdus Swainsoni? hybrid?" After having exammed these authentic specimens of the bird in question, and also large numbers of Massachusetts examples of what I called Turdus Swainsoni, - among which are a considerable number that correspond in every particular respectively with the typical, authentic specimens of "Turdus Swainsoni" and "Turdus Alicia" of Baird, the larger number, however, being intermediate in character between them, and agreeing with specimens sent out from the Smithsonian Institution as "T. Swainsoni!" "Turdus Alicia?" "Turdus Alicia? hybrid?" etc., — I state in this paper that the opinion I had previously expressed in respect to Turdus Swainsoni and Turdus Aliciæ was fully confirmed. In this paper I discussed at some length the variations presented, not only by this species, but by Turdus Pallasi and Turdus fuscescens, and the character of their supposed allies, T. Auduboni, T. nanus, and T. ustulatus, and their supposed respective habitats. I gave also some details in respect to the variations in general size, form of the bill, proportions of the primary quills of the wing, etc., as well as in color, and concluded that Turdus Alicia was based on simply individual variation in color, the other differences, as of size, form of bill, etc., supposed at first to characterize it, being rarely coincident with the variations in color, they occurring as frequently in the one type of coloration as in the other. Turdus nanus and Turdus ustulatus I also deemed to hold the same relationship to T. Pallasi and T. fuscescens that T. Alicia does to T. Swainson. Though described as exclusively western, I stated I had found specimens in Massachusetts that accorded with them in every particular. After having given the subject still further attention, I am but the more fully confirmed in these opinions.

Dr. Coues, thus far one of the most strenuous advocates of the validity of these nominal species, in a somewhat recent paper of his,‡ after stating

<sup>\*</sup> Proceedings of the Essex Institute, Vol. IV, p. 56.

<sup>†</sup> Memoirs of the Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 507.

<sup>‡ &</sup>quot;A List of the Birds of New England," Proceedings Essex Institute, Vol. V, p. 267, 1868.

that he had shown the T. Aliciæ to be "a very common eastern bird, having a range of habitat as extensive as, and nearly identical with, that of T. Swainsoni," says, in referring to my earlier remarks on this subject, that they "illustrate very fully the well-known seasonal and other variations to which T. Swainsoni and T. fuscescens are subject," and adds that I appear to have been "autoptically unacquainted" with T. Aliciæ at the time of writing them. In respect to this supposition of Dr. Coues, I will merely add that one of the numerous specimens considered by me to typically represent the supposed T. Aliciæ has been sent to the Smithsonian Institution, and pronounced by Professor Baird himself to "typically represent the T. Aliciæ."

The measurements given below of this species and the two following indicate the average size and the usual range of variation in this respect in these species as represented in the Atlantic States. These measurements embrace twenty-four specimens of *Turdus Swainsoni*, nearly fifty of *T. Pallasi*, and about forty of *T. fuscescens*, nearly all of which are from New England, and by far the greater part from Eastern Massachusetts.

The following is the range of variation in the series of twenty-four specimens of *T. Swainsoni*: Length, 6.62 to 7.75; alar extent, 10.75 to 12.65; wing, 3.47 to 4.30; tail, 2.40 to 3.40 (4.00?); tarsus, 1.02 to 1.27. The average dimensions are as follows: Length, 7.17; alar extent, 11.65; wing, 3.86; tail, 2.88; tarsus, 1.15.

# Measurements of New England Specimens of Turdus Swainsoni.

M. C. Z. No. Collector's Number. Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
2877	Springfield, Mass.  """"""""""""""""""""""""""""""""""	May 14, '63 May 14, '63 May 27, '61 May 27, '61 May 25, '63 May 29, '63 May 29, '63 May 14, '63 May 30, '62 May 30, '62 May 30, '62 May 30, '62 May 20, '63 May 21, '63 May 21, '63 May 22, '63 May 24, '69	J. A. Allen  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""	6.75 6.62 6.75 6.98 7.06 6.92 7.06 7.06 7.10 7.25 7.35 7.25 7.75 7.12 7.10 7.24 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00 7.0	11 90 11 40 12 50 11 40 12 00 11 10 11 20 11 20 11 20 11 37 12 15 12 65 11 00 11 00 11 00 11 50	3 19 3.80 3.80 4.30 2 4.30 4.10 3.65 5.55 5.80 3.95 5.93 4.10 4.10 4.10 4.10 4.10 4.10 4.10 4.10	2.78 2.78 3.40 2.86 3.40 2.86 3.40 2.86 3.40 2.86 3.47 3.47 3.40 3.47 4.47 3.47 4.47 4.47 4.47 4.47 4.47	1.12 1.11 1.10 1.20 1.13 1.10 1.05 1.05 1.17 1.10 1.17 1.14 1.16 

### 3.† Turdus Pallasi Cabanis. HERMIT THRUSH.

Turdus solitarius Wilson, Am. Orn., V, 95, 1812. Not the figure (pl. xliii, 2), which is of T. Swainsoni. Not T. solitarius Linné. — Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 17, 1838. — Audubon, Synop., 91, 1839. — Ibid., Birds of Amer., III, 29, pl. exlvi, 1841.

Turdus minor Bonaparte, Obs. on Wilson's Nomenclature, Journ. Phil. Acad., IV, 33, 1824. — NUTTALL, Man. Am. Orn., I, 346, 1830. — AUDUBON, Orn. Biog., I, 303, pl. lviii, 1831. — IBID., V, 445, 1839. — Gambel, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III, 113, 1846. — Giraud, Birds of Long Island, 90, 1843-44.

Turdus Pullasi Cabanis, Wiegm. Archiv, I, 205, 1847.—Baird, Birds N.
 Am., 212, 1858.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 2, 1862.—Baird, Review
 Am. Birds, Part I, 14, 1864.—Allen, Meni. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 514,
 1868.—Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 128, 1869.

Turdus nanus Audubon, Orn. Biog., V, 201, pl. eccexix, 1839 (T. minor on the plate). — Ibid., Birds of Am., III, 32, 1841. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 213, 1858. — Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 2, 1862. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 15, 1864. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 129, 1869. — Cooper and Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 4, 1870.

Turdus Audubonii Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 16, 1864. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 129, 1869.

Merula solitaria Swainson, Faun. Bor. Amer., II, 184, pl. xxxvii, 1831.— Brewer, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 191, 1844.

Merula silens Swainson, Faun. Bor. Amer., II, 186, 1831. — Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 2, 1862.

#### Common. Last seen about March 25th.

As already observed in the remarks under Turdus Swainsoni, I regard the Turdus nanus of authors as identical with T. Pallasi, The assumed differences are slight and inconstant, and seem to be principally individual variation in color. Although of late supposed to be exclusively western, representing on the Pacific slope the T. Pallasi of the Atlantic and Central States, Audubon's original specimen came from Pennsylvania, though he subsequently received it from the valley of the Columbia River. In his "Synopsis" he gives its habitat as "Columbia River. Accidental in the United States." His description of its color is identical with that he gives of T. Pallasi (T. solitarius Aud.), even the words used being almost entirely the same throughout each description. In size, however, he gives T. nanus as being one inch less in length and one inch less in extent than T. Pallasi. Since Professor Baird, in 1858, recognized the T. nanus as a valid species and its habitat as "Pacific coast of North America to the Rocky Mountains," and restricted the T. Pallasi to "Eastern North America to the Mississippi River," the validity of T. nanus has been generally accepted. Professor Baird himself, however, speaks of it in this work

as though it was in his opinion doubtfully distinct, and observes that, "if really distinct, is so closely allied to T. Pallasi as to render a separation of the two exceedingly difficult." The T. Pallasi was formerly recognized as inhabiting California by good authorities. Dr. Gambel, in his "Remarks on the Birds of Upper California," etc.,\* after stating that "the dwarf thrush of Audubon was founded upon specimens from the Atlantic States, and no doubt upon the true hermit thrush," remarks: "An examination of specimens of the T. minor [=T, Pallasi] from the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North America shows no difference in any way, except that perhaps the western one is somewhat smaller, yet the difference is scarcely appreciable. From the measurement of many western specimens I found its length to be  $6\frac{1}{4}$  inches, and the extent of wings 101 inches; the tail, wings, and relative length of quills the same as in our eastern one, and, in fact, I think it can in no possible way be distinguished as specifically different." California specimens, however, seem to average a little smaller than New England ones, so that the T. nanus seems best entitled to recognition of any of the several disputed forms of this group.

The habits of *T. nanus*, as described by Dr. Cooper, are exactly like those of the *T. Pallasi* of the East, except in regard to the situation of its nest, his account of its nest and eggs according exactly with those of *T. Swainsoni*, and not at all with those of *T. Pallasi*, its nearest ally.†

The Turdus Auduboni of Baird, of the Rocky Mountains, I have already also referred to T. Pallasi, from average specimens of which it differs only in being slightly larger. My reasons for this opinion have been given with sufficient detail elsewhere. ‡

It is difficult to reconcile the account given by Wilson,  $\S$  and corroborated by Audubon,  $\|$  of the breeding habits of this species with what is now known of the distribution in the breeding season of this group (subgenus Hylocichla) of thrushes. The account given by these authors of the situation and structure of the nest is applicable to only T. Swainsoni, which, as well as the T. Pallasi, is not known to breed so far south by several hundred miles as the localities they give. The only species which may probably breed there is the T. fuscescens; but this species does not nest on trees. To determine to which species of thrush these authors refer

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. III, p. 14, October, 1844. Also Journal Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 2d Series, Vol. I, p. 41, 1847.

<sup>†</sup> According to Professor A. E. Verrill, the *T. Pallasi* nests on the ground, and lays "bright-blue" eggs. *Proc. Essex Inst.*, Vol. III, p. 145.

<sup>†</sup> Mem. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 512.

<sup>§</sup> Am. Orn., Vol. V, p. 91.

<sup>||</sup> Orn. Biog., Vol. I, p. 303: Birds of America, Vol. III, p. 30

as breeding in this manner on the Lower Mississippi would solve an interesting problem.

The following table will indicate the average size of *Turdus Pallasi* in the Atlantic States. The extremes in size of forty-six specimens are as follows: Length, 6.50 and 7.65; alar extent, 10.00 and 12.25; wing, 3.30 and 3.90; tail, 2.47 and 3.17; tarsus, 1.12 and 1.33. The average dimensions of these specimens are as follows: Length, 7.04; alar extent, 11.17; wing, 3.79; tail, 2.72; tarsus, 1.15.

Measurements of Specimens of Turdus Pallasi.

M. C. Z. No. Collector's Number. Sex	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
9835   -	Norway, " """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """	June —, '64 June —, '65  Apr. 20, '62 Apr. 14, '62 Oct. 21, '63 Oct. 17, '63 Oct. 22, '63 Oct. 17, '63 Oct. 29, '63 Nov. 10, '69 Nov. 22, '69 Nov. 10, '69 Nov. 10, '69 Nov. 10, '69 Nov. 12, '67 Oct. 19, '68 Apr. 25, '68 Apr. 25, '68 Apr. 25, '70 Apr. 18, '88 Oct. 16, '88 Oct. 16, '88 Oct. 16, '88 Apr. 25, '70 Apr. 28, '70 Apr. 28, '70 Apr. 28, '70 Apr. 28, '70 Apr. 25, '70 Apr. 2	G. A. Boardman J. G. Rich A. E. Verrill  S. I. Smith  C. E. Hamlin  G.  H Mann  G.  J. G. Shute J. A. Allen  G.  G. J. Maynard  G.  G. J. Maynard  G.  G. J. Maynard  G.  G. J. A. Allen  G.  G.  G.  G.  G.  G.  G.  G.  G.  G	$\begin{array}{c} 6.98 \\ 6.88 \\ 6.80 \\ 7.25 \\ 6.80 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.80 \\ 7.25 \\ 6.80 \\ 6.80 \\ 7.25 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.87 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.87 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.87 \\ 7.21 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.83 \\ 7.21 \\ 7.27 \\ 7.00 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.83 \\ 7.21 \\ 7.21 \\ 7.20 \\ 6.650 \\ 6.6$	10.00 10.30 10.30 10.30 10.50 11.50 11.50 11.00 10.77 11.20 10.50 11.30 11.40 11.30 11.40 11.30 11.40 11.50	$\begin{array}{c} 3.68 \\ 3.68 \\ 3.69 \\ 3.$	2.687.229.836.608	1.17 1 16 1.15 1.17 1.12 1.12 1.15 1.17 1.07 1.18 1.18 1.18 1.17 1.18 1.18 1.11 1.18 1.11 1.18 1.19 1.19

4.† Turdus fuscescens Stephens. Wilson's Thrush.

Turius mustelinus Wilson, Am. Orn., V, 98, pl. xliii, 1812. (Not T. mustelinus Gmelin.)

Turdus fuscescens
 Stephens, Shaw's Gen. Zoöl., X, i, 182, 1817. — G. R.
 Gray, Gen. Birds, 1849. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 214, 1858. — Sclater,
 Cat. Am. Birds, 2, 1862. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 17, 1864. — Allen,
 Mem. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 514, 1868. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad.
 Nat. Sci., XXI, 127, 1869.

Turdus Wilsonii Bonaparte, Obs. on Wilson's Nomenclature. — Nuttall, Man. Am. Orn., I, 349, 1832. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 362, pl. clxvi, 1834. Ibid., V, 446. — Giraud, Birds L. Island, 89, 1843-44.

Turdus ustulatus Nuttall, Man. Am. Orn., I, (2d ed.) 400, 1840. — Baird,
Birds N. Am., 215, 1858. — Ibid., Rev. Am. Birds, I, 18, 1864. — Ridgway, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XXI, 127, 1869. — Cooper & Baird,
Orn. Cal., I, 5, 1870.

Merula minor Swainson, Fann. Bor. Am., II, 179, pl. xxxvi, 1831. Merula Wilsonit Brewer, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 191, 1844.

Not common, the greater part passing the winter in the tropics. A few specimens were taken by Mr. Boardman at Green Cove Springs, February 20th and 22d. I did not meet with it.

The considerable variation in color exhibited by different specimens of this species have perhaps been already sufficiently adverted to. It may be added that some of the brightest colored specimens of this species proved on dissection to be females, as well, also, as some of the palest. As in *T. migratorius*, *T. Swainsoni*, etc., these variations in color do not depend entirely upon sex, age, nor season. The latter, however, doubtless has much to do with it, as has also age, as already explained; \* but the variation is in the main strictly the result of individual differentiation.

Dr. Cooper says † that in habits this species is the "exact counterpart of T. nanus," the resemblance extending to the situation and structure of the nest, and also to the color of the eggs. In this connection it may be remarked that it is not a little remarkable that the eggs and nests of both the so-called T. ustulatus and T. nanus should so exactly coincide with those of T. Swainsoni (which breeds where the other species are said to), when the birds themselves are scarcely distinguishable respectively from T. fuscescens and T. Pallasi, both of which nest on the ground and lay unspotted eggs, while T. Swainsoni nests in trees and lays spotted eggs. The nests and eggs I have seen purporting to be those of T. ustulatus and T. nanus (and also of T. Aliciw) were so closely like those of T. Swainsoni,—not differing more from those of this species than those of the same species usually differ,—as to at once raise the suspicion in my mind that they might all be really those of T. Swainsoni, and that they may have been in some accidental way wrongly identified by the collector.

<sup>\*</sup> In Part III, pp. 193 et seq.

<sup>†</sup> Ornithology of California, Vol. I, p. 5.

In the following table are given the measurements of forty specimens, some twenty-five of which were taken in Massachusetts during the breeding season. The extremes of the series are as follows: Length, 6.95 and 7.87; alar extent, 11.05 and 12.70; wing, 3.55 and 4.16; tail, 2.63 and 3.02; tarsus, 1.06 and 1.18. The average dimensions are as follows: Length, 7.38; alar extent, 11.83; wing, 3.82; tail, 2.88; tarsus, 1.13.

Measurements of Specimens of Turdus fuscescens.

M C. Z. No. Collector's Number. Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
2272	Waterville, Maine  """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """ """	June 2, 62 June 2, 62 June 2, 62 June 2, 62 June 3, 62 June 4, 60 June 4, 60 June 4, 60 June 5, 68 May 15, 68 May 15, 68 May 16, 68 May 18, 68 May 29, 68 May 22, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 June 4, 62 May 29, 68 May 29, 68 May 29, 68 May 25, 68 June 4, 62 June 4, 62 May 29, 68 May 29, 68 May 29, 68 May 25, 68 May 25, 68 May 25, 68 May 25, 68 May 26, 68 May 27, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 28, 68 May 29, 68 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 18, 68 May 18, 68 May 18, 68 May 29, 68 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 29, 62 May 18, 68 May 18, 68 May 18, 68 May 29, 68 May 29, 68 May 18, 69 May 29, 68	C. E. Hamfin	7.12 7.39 7.53 7.40 7.39 7.50 7.50 7.45 7.12 7.70 7.70 7.70 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50	11 25 11 190 11 140 11  140 140 140 140 140 140 140 140	3 90 3 79 3 83 3 83 3 83 3 83 3 83 3 83 3 83 3 8	2.87.4 2.88.8 2.87.2 2.93.3 2.	1.10 1.18 1.16 1.13 1.12 1.10 1.13 1.19 1.10 1.11 1.11 1.11 1.11 1.11 1.11
2938 2938 — 1431 — — 1432 — — 2801 — — 143 — — 144 — — 146 — — —	Maiden, 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44	May 29, '63 May 29, '62 May 22, '62 May 22, '62 June —, '61 June —, '61 June —, '61	D. Higgins	7.65 7.15 7.52 7.35 7.25 7.26 7.26 7.45	11 50 11 50 11 80 11 75 11 90 11 72 11 75 11 40 11 75	3.85 3.75 3.93 3.76 3.68 3.72 3.78 3.63 3.69	2.99 2.93 3.00 2.89 2.73 2.78 2.76 2.68 2.80	1 15 1.14 1 15 1.10 1.15 1.12 1.15 1 11 1.12

### 5.\* Harporhynchus rufus Cabanis. Brown Thrush.

Yery abundant. The specimens examined were smaller and much brighter colored than any I have seen from the Northern States. Commences nesting the last week in March.

# 6.\* Galeoscoptes carolinensis Cabanis. Cat-Bird. Abundant. Smaller and darker colored than at the North. Som

evidently remain and breed. Audubon states that none breed so far south as South Carolina, and that few remain so far north as Florida in winter; but Dr. Coues, in his "Synopsis of the Birds of South Carolina," gives it as abundant and resident in that State.

### 7.\* Mimus polyglottus Boie. Mocking-Bird.

Common. Contrary to my anticipations, I failed to hear this bird sing during my three months' stay in Florida, except in a few instances near Jacksonville early in April, at which time they were nesting, although everywhere more or less common. It was more frequent along the borders of the forest and about clumps of bushes in the pine barrens than in the hummocks. It differed from its relatives, the brown thrush and cat-bird, in avoiding the denser thickets, which are the favorite resorts of the latter. The resemblance of the mocking-bird to the loggerhead shrike, in mode of flight and general appearance, which must strike every observer, has been properly referred to by Dr. Coues. †

Different specimens of the mocking-bird from Florida differ considerably from each other in intensity of color, some being much darker than others, and in the extent of the white on the outer tail feathers, and also in the length, thickness, and curvature of the bill. Some have the commissure but slightly curved and the tip of the bill moderately depressed; others have the commissure much arched and the tip much decurved. Several specimens before me from Cape Florida are smaller than those from the St. John's River, with longer, slenderer, and more curved bills. There seems to be as much difference between specimens from South Florida and the Middle States, as between the numerous so-called species of the West Indies, which, many of them at least, are searcely more than local forms of the original or first-described M. polyglottus.

The following measurements of forty-four Florida specimens of this species indicates its usual range of variation in size and proportions. The extremes of this series are as follows: Length, 9.25 and 11.00; alar extent, 13.00 and 14.75; wing, 4.00 and 4.75; tail, 4.10 and 5.15. The average dimensions are as follows: Length, 9.91; alar extent, 13.69; wing, 4.28; tail, 4.87.

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. XII, p. 113.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Synopsis of the Birds of South Carolina," Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. XII, p. 113, October, 1868.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Mimus polyglottus.

Si   Fig.   Si   Si   Si   Si   Si   Si   Si   S								
5124	M. C. Z. No. Original No. Sex.	Locality	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent	Wing.	Tail.
	5118	Enterprise, " Hawkinsville, "  " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	Jan. 21, 688 Mar. 15, 69 Mar. 15, 69 Mar. 14, 69 Mar. 14, 69 Mar. 10, 68 Mar. 10, 68 Jan. 30, 63 Dec. 31, 68 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 13, 69 Feb. 16, 69 Feb. 17, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 13, 69 Feb. 17, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 14, 69 Mar. 14, 69 Mar. 14, 69 Mar. 17, 69 Mar. 17, 69 Mar. 18, 69 Mar. 11, 69 Mar. 18, 69 Mar. 8, 69 Feb. 17, 69	C. J. Maynard	9.75 10 00 10 60 9.85 10.12 10 30 10.00 10.20 11.00 10.15 9.75 10 20 9.80 9.50 9.75 10.30 10.15 10.00 10.15 10.00 10.15 10.00 9.75 10.30 9.75 9.30 9.60 9.75 9.30 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.50 9.5	14 00 14 35 14 15 14 75 14 00 14 75 14 00 14 10 14 00 14 10 13 25 13 75 14 00 13 50 13 50	4 50 4 25 4 4 50 4 4 80 4 26 4 4 80 4 26 4 80 4 4 80 4 26 4 80 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 25 6 4 4 80 4 4 10 5 8 4 10 4 10 6 8 10 6	4.70 4.60 4.75 4.75 4.10 4.45 4.75 4.10 4.95 5.15 4.75 4.75 4.75 4.75 4.75 4.75 4.75 4.7

### SAXICOLIDÆ.

### 8.\* Sialia sialis Haldemann.\* Blue-Bird.

Common. In this species the smaller size of the Florida specimens, as compared with those from Massachusetts, is very marked, as is also the greater intensity of color.

### SYLVIADÆ.

### 9.† Regulus calendula Lichtenstein. Ruby-crowned Kinglet.

Abundant. One of the most numerous of the winter birds. Chiefly confined to the swamps and hummocks.

# 10.† Regulus satrapa Lichtenstein. Golden-Crested Kinglet.

Not common. A single pair was collected by Mr. Maynard at Jacksonville in January.

\* Sialia sialis Haldemann, Trego's Geography of Pennsylvania, p. 77, 1843.

— Baird, Birds of N. Am., 222, 1858. See American Naturalist, Vol. III, p. 159, 1869.

11.\* Polioptila cærulea Sclater. Blue-gray Gnatcatcher. Common. Generally seen in the same situations as R. calendula.

#### PARIDÆ.

12.\* Lophophanes bicolor Bonaparte. Crested Titmouse. Common.

13.\* Parus atricapillus Linne. Black-capped Titmouse. Chickadee.

Parus atricapillus Linne, Syst. Nat., I, 341, 1766. — Wilson, Am. Orn., I, 137, 1808. — Bonaparte, Obs. Nom. Wils. Orn., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., IV, 254, 1825. — Rich. & Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 226, 1831. — Audubon, Birds Am., II, 146, pl. exxvi, 1841. — Cassin, Ill. Birds Cal. I, 17, 1853. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 390, 1858. — Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 13, 1862. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 80, 1864.

Parus palustris NUTTALL, Man. Orn., 241, 1832.

Parus carolinensis Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 341, 1837; V, 474, pl. clx, 1839.
Audubon, Birds Am., II, 152, pl. exxvii, 1841.
Cassin, Ill. Birds Cal., I, 17, 1853.
Baird, Birds N. Am., 392, 1858.
Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 14, 1862.
Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 81, 1864.

Parus septentrionalis Harris, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., II, 300, 1845.— Cassin, Ill. Birds Cal., I, 17, 80, pl. xiv, 1853.—Baird, Birds N. Am., 389.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 14.—Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 82.

Parus meridionalis Sclater, Proc. Lond. Zool. Soc., 1856, 293. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 392. — Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 14. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 81.

Parus occidentalis Baird, Birds N. Am., 391, 1858.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 14, 1862.—Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 81, 1864.

Pacıla atricapilla Bonap., Consp. Av., 230, 1850.

Pacila carolinensis Bonap., Ibid.

Seen by Mr. Marcy at Jacksonville, where also specimens of it were collected by Mr. Maynard. Not observed by any of us up the river. Audubon speaks of having found it abundant in the Floridas in the winter of 1831 and 1832, and "breeding in the swamps as early as the middle of February."\*

The common titmouse (*P. atricapillus*), although not more subject to geographical variation than many other birds, is one of the species in which such differences were first detected, though not recognized at the time as such. Audubon, in 1833, upon returning to Charleston, South Carolina, from a visit to the Eastern States, the British Provinces, and Labrador, noticed a considerable difference in size between the examples of this bird he met with at the North, and those of the lowlands of the

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of America, Vol. II, p. 153.

Carolinas. Though no other difference was appreciable, he and his friend Bachman thought this was sufficient to warrant the description of the southern form as specifically distinct from the northern. He accordingly thus separated them in the second volume of his "Ornithological Biography." But if the black-capped titmice of the Carolinas, the lower parts of Virginia, Maryland, and Southern New Jersey are distinct from those of Massachusetts, on precisely the same grounds are those of Massachusetts distinct from those of Northern Maine. Even the titmice of Massachusetts are not just the same in winter that they are in summer, those which breed here doubtless mainly going south in winter, while their place is filled by others that spend the summer more to the northward. This at least is what the slight average difference in size between summer and winter specimens seems to indicate. But the Carolina titmouse (P. carolinensis) has been recognized as valid by most subsequent writers, and in accordance with the principle upon which this supposed species was admitted, several others have been added by other authors.

The titmice from the middle, elevated regions of the continent, in accordance with a general law of geographical variation among both birds and mammals, are a little larger than those of either the Mississippi valley or the Pacific coast, and have also, apparently, a relatively slightly longer tail and paler colors, — variations which occur in a number of other birds that have a similar distribution. The titmice of this region form the Parus septentrionalis of authors. Specimens labelled "Parus septentrionalis," collected near Chicago, have been received at the Museum of Comparative Zoology from the Chicago Academy. They do not differ, however, from numerous others collected in Massachusetts, though the true P. septentrionalis, or the black-capped titmice of the Rocky Mountains, does have a slightly longer tail than those from the other parts of the continent.

Those which occur on the Pacific slope of the continent, though forming the *P. occidentalis* of authors, are admittedly the same in size and general appearance as the *P. atricapillus* of the Atlantic States, this species having been introduced to the world with the following suggestive remarks: "It is rather a hazardous undertaking to add another to the list of North American black-capped and throated titmice; but if we have three good species now, instead of one, then the present is equally entitled to specific distinction with *carolinensis* and *septentrionalis*,"

The *P. meridionalis* was first made known from a single specimen from Mexico, and of which very few specimens seem to have been recognized as belonging to it. The original type certainly recalls only a worn summer specimen of the common titmouse, though its darker color may be due to

its southern habitat. Towards the end of the breeding season specimens of *P. atricapillus*, more especially females, have the plumage, particularly that of the lower surface of the body, much darker than in fall and winter, simply from the wearing off of the rufous and ashy extremities of the feathers, July specimens generally differing much in color from winter ones.

In respect to P. carolinensis, as already observed, the only difference urged as distinguishing it from P. atricapillus is that of its smaller size. Yet this difference is so slight that it is admitted that if P. carolinensis and P. atricapillus were "separated by a wide interval of locality, it might be a question whether it [P. carolinensis] might not be a variety. As, however," it is urged, "both are found together in the Middle States, and preserving together their characteristics, there will be little risk in considering them distinct." Since the larger birds are, in the main, either northern or occupy the elevated regions of the Alleghanies, the two forms must necessarily be found associated together, especially in winter, through their migrations. Unfortunately, in the work where this group has been most elaborately considered,\* but two examples of each are cited, with a statement of their measurements; the two of P. atricapillus being from Carlisle, Pennsylvania, and the two of P. carolinensis from Washington, D. C. From the annexed table of measurements of P. atricapillus from Massachusetts and Maine, it will be seen that a few are small enough to be regarded as belonging to the P. carolinensis. There is, also, a larger amount of seasonal difference in the color and general character of the plumage than has been either admitted or suspected, as well as in size. who has previously written on this group appears yet to have compared many specimens of these supposed two species, or to have examined a sufficiently large number of either to become aware of the wide differences that exist between specimens from the same locality.

Variations similar to those assumed to specifically distinguish P. carolinensis from P. atricapillus occur in P. hudsonicus between specimens from localities quite distant in latitude. Dr. Bryant has already called attention to such differences in the P. hudsonicus, and at the same time proposed for the southern "variety" the name of "P. hudsonicus var. littoralis." Concerning this variety and the general subject in question, he remarks as follows: "The specimens of Parus hudsonicus from Yarmouth [Nova Scotia] and those from the Hudson Bay territory present as great, if not greater, differences in size than exist between P. carolinensis and P. atricapillus, and in color, between P. septentrionalis and P. atricapillus. I am inclined myself to consider P. atricapillus, septentrionalis, meridionalis, and occidentalis as varieties of one species; but, if they are considered as specifically distinct, there can be little question of the propriety of

<sup>\*</sup> Baird's Birds of North America.

separating the Yarmouth bird from those found in the Hudson Bay territory."\*

In the following table of measurements of twenty-seven specimens, all taken within ten miles of Cambridge, and all but two in December and January, the extremes of size are as follows: Length, 4.70 and 5.75, both specimens being females; alar extent, 7.50 and 8.60, both specimens being also females; wing, 2.33 and 2.63, also both females; tail, 2.15 (female) and 2.67 (male); tarsus, .62 (male) and 77 (female). The average size of these specimens is as follows: Length, 5.38; alar extent, 8.37; wing, 2.47; tail, 2.50; tarsus, .70. The females average a little smaller than the males, but the difference is only slight.

The largest specimen of the group of black-capped and black-throated titmice cited by Professor Baird† measures as follows: Length, 5.75; alar extent, 8.37; wing, 2.75; tail, 2.86 (Parus septentrionalis, from the Black Hills, Neb., Sm. Inst. No. 8827). A specimen of the P. carolinensis, cited by the same author, measures as follows: Length, 4.62; alar extent, 7.00; wing, 2.50; tarsus, .60 (Sm. Inst. No. 706, from Washington, D. C.). So far as the length of the wing and tail are concerned, specimens are fre-

Measurements of Mussachusetts Specimens of Parus atricapillus.

M. C. Z. No.  Collector's Number. Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
11703 52 2 11704 86 6 7 11705 87 6 7 11705 89 6 7 11707 94 7 7 11711 103 6 11710 101 6 11710 101 6 11710 101 6 1170 97 97 97 97 11712 105 9 11709 97 97 97 11712 105 9 11709 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97 97	Cambridge, Mass.  """"""""""""""""""""""""""""""""""	Dec. 10, 63 Dec. 14, 69 Dec. 14, 69 Dec. 14, 69 Dec. 17, 69 Dec. 17, 69 Dec. 17, 69 Dec. 20, 69 Dec. 20, 69 Dec. 20, 69 Dec. 20, 69 Dec. 21, 69 Dec. 21, 69 Dec. 17, 69 Dec. 21, 69 Dec. 21, 69 Dec. 17, 70 Jan. 7, 70 Jan. 7, 70 Jan. 7, 70 Jan. 7, 70 Jan. 13, 70 Jan. 20, 70 Jan. 21, 68 Apr. 21, 69	Wm. Brewster  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44	5.38 5.25 5.00 5.02 5.02 5.02 5.02 5.02 5.02	8.12 2 8 12 2 8	2.62 2.55 2.04 2.50 2.55 2.62 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.43 2.55 2.44 2.55 2.55	2.67 2.37 2.50 2.30 2.43 2.50 2.43 2.43 2.43 2.25 2.37 2.42 2.25 2.31 2.42 2.25 2.31 2.42 2.25 2.31 2.42 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.25 2.31 2.31 2.31 2.31 2.31 2.31 2.31 2.31	.75 .62 .75 .75 .75 .75 .69 .69 .77 .75 .68 .69 .77 .76 .68 .77 .76 .68 .77 .76 .76 .76 .76 .76 .76 .76 .76 .76

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. IX, p. 368, April, 1865.

<sup>†</sup> Birds of North America, p. 390.

quently taken in Massachusetts (and of which I have measurements before me) that are considerably smaller than this one from Washington, or than any given in the above table.

#### SITTIDÆ.

- 14.\* Sitta carolinensis *Gmelin*. White-breasted Nuthatch. Common; especially in the pineries.
- 15.\* Sitta pusilla Latham. Brown-Headed Nuthatch. Common in the pineries; rarely seen elsewhere.

#### TROGLODYTIDÆ.

16.\* Troglodytes aëdon Vieillot. Common WREN.

Troglodytes aëdon Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., II, 52, pl. cvii, 1807. — Bonaparte, Richardson & Swainson, Audubon. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 367, 1858. — Ibid., Rev. Am. Birds, I, 138, 1864. — Maynard, Naturalist's Guide, Part II, p. 95, 1870.

Troglodytes fulvus, Nuttall, Man. Am. Orn., I, 422, 1832.

Troglodytes americanus Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 452, pl. elxxix, 1834.— Baird, Birds N. Am., 368.—Ibid., Rev. Am. Birds, I, 141.

Troglodytes Parkmani Audubon, Orn. Biog., V, 310, 1839. — Perbd, Birds N. Am., 367. — Ibid., Rev. Am. Birds, I, 140.

Troglodytes sylvestris Gambel, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III, 113, 1864. Sylvia domestica Wilson, Am. Orn., I, 129, pl. viii, fig. 3, 1808.

Abundant, occurring everywhere. It keeps so closely concealed that it is difficult to shoot, except when on the wing. Both this and the Carolina wren are exceedingly quick in their movements, and if they are watching the collector when he is about to shoot at them, they are pretty sure to dodge the charge; although he finds the bushes and foliage where the bird sat riddled by the shot, he usually searches in vain for the specimen he is sure he ought to have killed. When approached in old grassy fields or pine openings, they will allow one to almost tread on them before attempting to get away, and then, instead of taking to wing, often seek to escape by running off like a mouse beneath the grass. The term "house" wren, usually applied to this bird, is decidedly a misnomer, since it frequents the fields the thickets, and even the forest, as much as the vicinity of houses. In the wilds of Florida, where human habitations are few, there is nothing whatever in its habits to suggest this name.

The "wood wren," Troglodytes americanus of Audubon, I am sure is only the brighter colored form of T. aëdon; in size or proportions there is nothing, though the contrary has been claimed, to distinguish them. Specimens equally large and equally small occur in each state of plumage, in which the same general range of variation in proportions is presented. There is also an intergradation in color, and no observable difference in habits. Both forms were common in Florida; both also occur in New England, whence Audubon obtained the first specimen of his supposed new species. Andubon admits that it "can hardly be distinguished in description" from the house wren. The large size assumed by him as characterizing it may be readily accounted for by the fact of his obtaining his first specimens at Eastport in Maine, which is the extreme northern limit of the habitat of this species.

The following measurements of fifteen Florida specimens indicates the usual range of variation in respect to size and proportions found in specimens from the same locality. The extremes of this series are as follows: Length, 4.30 and 5.10, both specimens being females; alar extent, 6.10 and 6.95, both specimens being males; wing, 1.90 and 2.44; tail, 1.30 and 2.40; tarsus, .50 and .68; bill, .47 and .60 (.80?). The differences between these extremes, it will be noticed, are very great, considering the small size of the bird. The average dimensions are as follows: Length, 4.89; alar extent, 6.61; wing, 2.05; tail, 1.80; tarsus, .52.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Troglodytes Aëdon.

M. C. Z. No. Collector's Number. Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.	Bill.
10681 1900 3	Jacksonville	Jan. 1, '69	C. J. Maynard	4.70	6.60	2 44		.50	.47
1912 3	46 *	Jan. 1, '69	14.	5.00	6.50	-2.00	1.70	.57	.50
1956	66	Jan. 3, 69	44	5.00	6.75	2.05	1.75	.65	.50
10682 1967 3		Jan. 3, '69	44	4.75		2.05	1 95	.55	.52
—— 1968 <sub>3</sub>	6.4	Jan. 3, 69	4.6	4.50	6.50		1.65	.61	.50
2790 g 2576 g	4.6	Mar. 20, '69	4.6	5.65	6.95		1.64	.54	.51
	Dummitt's	Mar. 10, '69	44	5.00	6.50	-2.10	-2.00	.62	.50
- 4 3	Jacksonville	Mar. 29, '69	4.6	4.60	-6.10	-2.00		.61	.60
2033 ·	4.6	Jan. 5, '69	4.6	5.70	6.75	2.10	1.75	.60	.80
1979 9			44	4.30	6.50	-2.00		.60	.56
2588 ♀	Dummitt's	Mar. 11, '69	4.6	5.00	6.70	1.90		.65	.50
5178	Hibernia	Jan. 20, 69	J. A. Allen	5.20	6.75	2.03		.65	.60
5179	**	Jan. 20, 69	44	4.75	6.50	2.00	1.65	.67	.55
F001	Hawkinsville	Mar. 10, '69	44	5.00	6.50	2.00	-		
5361		Mar. 10, '69	4.4	4.87	6.75	-2.00	_	.68	-

# 17.\* Thryothorus ludovicianus Bonaparte. CAROLINA WREN.

Common. Rarely seen outside of thickets.

In few species is the difference in color between northern and southern specimens greater than in this. Florida specimens have the reddish-brown

of the dorsal surface many shades deeper than Maryland ones, and the under surface strongly rufous. The tail and wings, besides being much darker, have the dark bars black, they being deep black on the tail, and consequently far more conspicuous. The crissum, however, is lighter than in the Maryland specimens, with the black bars broader. The Florida specimens have also a much longer bill, they closely agreeing in every particular with the so-called Thryothorus Berlandieri of Northeastern Mexico, the Florida specimens even possessing the interrupted black bars on the sides of the body said to occasionally characterize that species as distinguished from the T. ludovicianus. The differences between Florida and Maryland specimens of T. ludovicianus in the length of the bill, as well as in color, are very striking. They are paralleled, however, in Harporhynchus rufus and in other species. The T. Berlandieri hence appears to be only the smaller, darker form of T. ludovicianus, — the Mexican homologue of the Florida representatives of this species.

The *Thryothorus Bewickii*, from what is known of its range, doubt-less occurs as a resident bird in Florida, but is probably rare there, as it generally is elsewhere.

18.† Anorthoura hyemalis Rennie. WINTER WREN.

Rare. — Boardman.

19.† Cistothorus stellaris Cabanis. Short-Billed Marsh Wren.

Rare. Enterprise, February. — Boardman.

The Telmatodytes palustris doubtless also occurs as a winter resident.

### MOTACILLIDÆ.

20.† Anthus ludovicianus Lichtenstein. TITLARK.

Common. Several were usually seen in company, but along the river I saw no large flocks. According to Mr. Maynard, however, they occurred in large flocks in the "old fields" away from the river.

#### SYLVICOLIDÆ.

21.† Mniotilta varia Vieillot. BLACK AND WHITE CREEPER.

Not uncommon throughout the winter, but much more numerous in March.

22.† Parula americana Bonaparte. Blue Yellow-backed Warbler.

Occasional during the winter months, but very numerous after the 1st of March, soon after which time they were in full song.

# 23.† Helminthophaga celata Baird. Orange-Crowned Warbler.

"Enterprise, 15th of February. Rare." — Boardman.

### 24.\* Dendræca pinus Baird. PINE WARBLER.

Abundant. Is much on the ground at this season, as it sometimes is at the north in spring; on the whole, however, it is much less terrestrial in its habits than is *D. palmarum*. In full song in February.

### 25.† Dendræca palmarum Baird. YELLOW REDPOLL WARBLER.

Extremely abundant. Probably the most numerous of the winter birds in East Florida, where it is more or less common in all situations. Exceedingly terrestrial in its habits, being generally seen hopping along the ground or fallen timber. At the 1st of April they had considerably decreased in numbers, but many were at that time observed at Jacksonville.

There is some indication that the males and females, and possibly the adult and young, frequent separate districts at this season. When at Jacksonville in January I saw only males; on the Upper St. John's, in February and March, only females or immature males; but these were in excessive abundance, as were also the males at the earlier date around Jacksonville. Is it not probable that the old males either do not go quite so far south as the females and immature males, or that the species was already on its way north? As is well known, the males in the species of this family, as probably in most other birds, precede the females in their journey northward.

# 26.† Dendræca coronata Gray. Yellow-crowned Warbler.

More or less common till the 1st of April, and probably some remained still later. During the last half of March they began to moult, but at the end of the month a large part were still in winter dress. The same remarks in respect to moulting apply also to *D. palmarum*.

### 27.\* Dendræca dominica Baird. Yellow-throated Warbler.

Seen at Jacksonville in January, but much more abundantly up the river in February and March. March 5th I found them in great numbers in the cypress and maple swamps near Lake Munroe, at which time the spring migration had commenced.

### 28.\* Dendræca discolor Baird. PRAIRIE WARBLER.

Abundant at Jacksonville, April 1st, and occasionally seen at earlier dates. This species is undoubtedly resident in Florida the whole year.

- 29.† Seiurus aurocapillus Swainson. Golden-Crowned Wagtail. Not common. A few were seen in February, as well as later.
- 30.† Seiurus noveboracensis Nuttall. Water Wagtail. Rare. Found at Dummitt's by Mr. Maynard in Februrary.
  - 31.\* Geothlypis trichas Cabanis. MARYLAND YELLOW-THROAT.

Abundant. Though somewhat brighter colored throughout, they differ mainly from the northern type in the greater breadth of the black facial band. There is but little difference in general size, that is, so far as I have had an opportunity of observing; occasionally a Florida example has a bill considerably longer than the average in northern examples, but this does not appear to be a very constant difference between the southern and northern specimens. It would probably be more marked in specimens from South Florida.

Other species of this family were seen in March that are not to be reckoned as winter residents. Among them are the following: Dendræca maculosa, D. virens, and D. pennsylvanica, Euthlypis canadensis, Setophaga ruticilla, and Helminthophaga ruficapilla, all of which began to appear on the Upper St. John's, near Enterprise, about the middle of March, and most of them were also seen later at lower points on the river. Helmitherus vermivorus and H. Swainsoni were taken at St. Augustine, by Mr. L. L. Thaxter, in April.

### HIRUNDINIDÆ.

32.† Tachycineta bicolor Cabanis. WHITE-BELLIED SWALLOW.

More or less numerous, but observed at irregular intervals. Large flocks were seen near the St. John's River in January. It probably does not breed in Florida.

33.† Cotyle riparia Boie. BANK SWALLOW.

Not observed by either Boardman, Maynard, or myself prior to the last of March, but Mr. Audubon saw it in immense flocks "in winter," first at St. Augustine, and afterwards in other parts of the State.\*

The Stelgidopteryx serripennis was seen about Jacksonville the first week in April, and specimens of it were obtained. Several pairs were seen flying about some bluffs a few miles below the town, apparently with the intention of selecting breeding-places.

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of America, Vol. I, p. 187.

### VIREONIDÆ.

- 34.† Lanivireo solitarius Baird. Solitary Vireo.
- Rather common. In full song early in March.
  - 35.\* Vireo noveboracensis Bonaparte. WHITE-EYED VIREO.
- Common. In full song in March.
  - 36.† Vireosylvia olivacea Bonaparte. RED-EYED VIREO.
- "A few all winter." Boardman. Common after the 1st of March, on the Middle St. John's.

The Yellow-throated Vireo, Lanivireo flavifrons, was quite common early in March, and is undoubtedly a winter resident in South Florida.

### AMPELIDÆ.

37.† Ampelis cedrorum Baird. CEDAR BIRD.

Common. Perhaps resident.

### LANIIDÆ.

38.\* Collurio ludovicianus Baird. LOGGERHEAD SHRIKE.

Lanius Iudovicianus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 184, 1766. — Bonaparte, Nuttall, Audubon. — Gambel, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III, 200, 1847.

Lanius garrulus BARTRAM, Travels, 289, 1791 (no description).

? Lanus ardosiaceus Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 81, pl. li, 1807. — Bonaparte, Obs. on Wils. Nomenc., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III. 358, 1824.

Lanius carolinensis Wilson, Am. Orn., III, 57, pl. xxii, fig. 5, 1811.

Lanius excubitoroides Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, pl. xxxiv, 1831.

Lanius elegans Swainson, Ibid., 122. — Nuttall, Man. Am. Orn., I, 2d ed., 287, 1840. — Gambel, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., I, 261, 1843.

Lanus mexicanus Brehm, Cab. Journ. für Orn., II, 145, 1854. — Sclater, Catal. Am. Birds. 46, 1861.

Collurio ludovicianus Baird, Birds of N. Am., 325, 1858. — Allen, Amer.
Nat., III. 579, 1869. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 443, 1866.

Collurio excubitoroides Baird, Birds N. Am., 337. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 445. — Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 138, 1870.

Collurio elegans Baird, Birds N. Am., 328. — Baird, Rev. Am. Birds, I, 444.
Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 140, 1870.

Not very numerous.

I have already referred to the questionable distinctness of the so-called C. excubitoroides from the present species.\* Further examination of the

<sup>\*</sup> See a series of articles in the "American Naturalist," entitled "Notes on some of the Rarer Birds of Massachusetts," Vol. III, 1869.

subject has only confirmed me in the opinion that they are not distinct, and that in all probability the *C. elegans* of California should also be referred to the *C. ludovicianus.*\*

### TANAGRIDÆ.

The *Pyranga æstiva* became common on the Lower St. John's April 1st to 5th, but was not observed previously. *P. rubra* was not seen at all.

A considerable number of specimens of this species (*P. astiva*) in the Museum, from the Atlantic States, present great differences in the size of the bill in respect to vertical and lateral thickness, as well as in the position and distinctness of the "tooth" of the bill, and in the curvature of the commissure, as indicated by the accompanying figures (Plate IV, figs. 19, 20). They also vary greatly in intensity of color, both of the bill and plumage, as do different specimens of *P. rubra* from Massachusetts. Hence species based solely on such distinctions should be accepted, if at all, with great hesitancy.†

### FRINGILLIDÆ.

39.† Chrysomitris tristis Bonaparte. Yellow Bird.

Common throughout the winter, and as numerous the first week in April as earlier.

I am sure I heard the notes of the Pine Finch (*Chrysomitris pinus*), but as I obtained no specimens of it and do not find it reported by others, I do not include it in the present list. It is not improbable that this species and the Purple Finch (*Carpodacus purpureus*) are occasional winter visitors.

\* Since writing the above I have met with the following observations on this group, made by Dr. Gambel, in his "Remarks on the Birds observed in Upper California" (Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. III, p. 200, 1847): "In the shrikes we are presented with a group of birds closely allied to each other, and undergoing such changes in plumage as renders them difficult to discriminate. Although examined with great care by Swainson in the Fauna Boreali-Americana, yet he appears to have laid too much stress upon characters subject to great variation, as size, relative length of quills, and color. . . . The relative length of quills in the surikes is an uncertain character, and differs very much according to age. In the young of this species the second quill is generally much shorter than the sixth, but in the adult equals and may even exceed the sixth in length: the proportion of the third, fourth and fifth to each other is also exceedingly various, and indeed in each wing of the same bird it is very common to find the proportions of the quills differing very materially. This I have found to be the case in the European and both American species [ colluro ludoricianus and C. borealis]."

† See some remarks on the "Umformty red species of Pyranga," in Proceed. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sciences, p. 127. June, 1869.

### 40.† Passerculus savanna Bonaparte. Savanna Sparrow.

Emberiza sandwichensis GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 875, 1788.

Emberiza arctica Latham, Ind. Orn., I, 414, 1790.

Emberiza chrysops Pallas, Zool. Rosso-Asiat., II, 45, pl. xlviii, fig. 2, 1811.

Fringilla savanna Wilson, Am. Orn., III, 55, pl. xxii, fig. 2, 1811.

Passerculus savanna Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List., 33, 1838.—Baird, Birds N. Am., 442, 1858.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 112, 1862.

Passerculus alaudinus Bonaparte, Compte Rendu, XXXVII, 918, 1853.—
Baird, Birds N. Am., 446, 1858.— Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 112, 1862.—
Coues, Proc Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XVIII, 84, 1866.— Coues, Proc. Essex Inst., V, 281, 1868.— Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 181, 1870.

Passerculus authinus Bonaparte, Compte Rendu, XXXVII, 919, 1853.—
Baird, Birds N. Am., 445, 1858.— Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 112, 1862.—
Cooper & Baird, I, 183.

Passerculus sandwichensis Baird, Birds N. Am., 444, 1858.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 112, 1862.—Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 180.

Abundant, especially on the savannas, where it was the principal sparrow seen.

This species, like all the sparrows, varies considerably in color with the season of the year. Fall specimens, and especially the young of the year, have the vellow superciliary stripe very indistinctly defined, it being in numerous cases entirely obsolete. The general plumage is also much browner, with the streaks on the dorsal surface suffused and obscured with ferruginous, and those below, as in fall specimens of Melospiza melodia, bordered with the same tint. Different individuals also vary considerably in the breeding season, some being much graver above than others; the superciliary line varies from bright vellow to grayish white, with the yellow either entirely wanting or limited to a slight wash on the part anterior to the eye. This grayer plumage and faded condition of the superciliary stripe is more especially seen towards the end of the breeding season. The spots below also vary so much in size as to give very different aspects to the plumage of the lower surface of the body in different specimens. In some they form little more than a narrow line along the middle of the feathers of the breast and sides of the body; in others they are quite broad, occupying relatively a much larger surface; occasionally, also, they are aggregated on the lower part of the breast, forming a large conspicuous patch, as distinct as is ever seen in Melospiza melodia. The general size of the bird also varies considerably, as is indicated in the accompanying table of measurements, and the bill is subject to very marked variations in respect to length, size, thickness, and slenderness, as substantiated by a series of nearly one hundred specimens now before me, including some thirty specimens taken at Ipswich, Massachusetts, in the breeding season,

These specimens are separable to some extent into several series, which may be based either upon difference in general size, the character of the bill, or upon coloration; but these several kinds of variation fail to corroborate each other. If separated upon differences in size, the two or more series thus separated embrace every combination of the other differences; and similar incongruities result when the separation is made upon differences in coloration or other characters. Yet the Massachusetts specimens present among themselves differences as well marked and of the same character as is assumed to distinguish several of the so-called species from the Pacific coast, that have been proposed and adopted by different authors.

Alexander Wilson was the first naturalist who gave any adequate description of the species in question, though the Emberiza sandwichensis of Gmelin unmistakably refers to this bird, and this name having been given long before that of Wilson, should, in accordance with the rule of priority, supplant Wilson's more euphonious and familiar one of savanna. The first supposed species recognized by modern writers after the well-known one of Wilson was the P. alaudinus, described by Bonaparte in 1853, in his notes on the Delattre collection,\* from a specimen from California. He says it is not easily distinguished from P. savanna, but differs from it in being smaller, with the bill shorter and slenderer, and in wanting the vellow superciliary line.† Professor Baird redescribed it in his Birds of North America in similar language, and cites under it five specimens, which came respectively from Brownsville, Texas; Tamaulipas, Mexico; Petaluma, Cal., and Shoalwater Bay, W. T. He remarks respecting it as follows: "This species, if really distinct from P. savanna, differs in the rather smaller size, although the difference is not great, and in the considerably paler colors. The superciliary stripe shows a very faint trace of yellow, especially anteriorly near the bill. In some specimens, as 4342, there is none at all." Bonaparte, in his paper just eited, added another "new species" from Kodiak, Alaska, which he called Passerculus anthinus, and described as follows: "Passerculus anthinus, Bp., ex Kadiak, Am. Ross. Simillimus præcedenti, sed rostro etiam graciliore et capite flavo induto; subtus albo-rufescens magis maculatus." He says it is still smaller and has the bill slenderer even than the other, and that it appears to live farther north. Professor Baird also redescribes this species, and is much more explicit in his account of it. He says: "Similar to P. savanna, but smaller. . . . . Breast and upper part of belly thickly spotted with sharply defined sagittate brown spots, exhibiting a tendency to aggregation on the

<sup>\*</sup> Compte Rendu, Tome XXXVII, p. 918.

 $<sup>\</sup>mathfrak t$  " Passerculus alawdınus, Bp., ex Wils., mais plus petite sans jaune aux sourcils et à bec plus court et plus effilé."

middle of the belly," etc. He adds: "This species is the smallest of its group, and differs from all in the much greater amount of spotting on the under parts. The streaks, indeed, extend over the whole breast and upper part of the abdomen, instead of being mainly confined to the jugulum." It differs, he says, from *P. alaudinus* "in the strong shade of yellow on the head, the much darker tints above, and the thick crowding of larger and better defined spots beneath, with a faint tinge of reddish." He refers to it three specimens from San Francisco, Benicia, and Petaluma, California.

In 1858 Professor Baird added still another species of Passerculus to those previously recognized, through the redescription of the original type of this group, the Emberiza sandwichensis of Gmelin, based upon Latham's Sandwich Bunting \* and Pennant's Unalaska Bunting. † The name Sandwich, as Professor Baird has remarked, refers not to the Sandwich Islands, but to Sandwich Sound, on the northern coast. To this species Baird judiciously refers the Emberiza arctica of Latham ‡ and Vigors, § and the E. chrysops of Pallas, | Professor Baird's description of it is as follows: "Almost exactly like P. saranna, but half an inch larger, with much larger bill. Length, 6.12; wing, 3.00; tail, 2.55. Habitat, northwestern coast, from the Columbia River to Russian America." He also further observes: "This species is extremely similar to the P. savanna, and is only distinguishable by its greater size and more western locality. The tail feathers also are rather more acutely pointed. There is also a greenishyellow shade on the top and sides of the head, brighter than is seen in P. savanna. The bill is considerably larger and longer, measuring .51 of an inch above instead of .44." To this is referred one specimen from "Russian America," one from Fort Steilacoom, W. T., and three from Shoalwater Bay, W. T., three of which measure as is indicated in the abovequoted description, and the other nearly three fourths of an ineh less.

In respect to size, then, it appears that the so-called *P. sandwichensis* is the larger, the *P. savanna* the next in size, *P. alaudinus* the third, and *P. anthinus* the smallest. So, at least, it is claimed; but from the measurements published in Birds of North America, a female of *P. savanna* from Carlisle, Pa. (No. 780), is, with one exception (No. 4340, from Brownsville, Texas), the smallest of the specimens of this genus of which measurements are there given; two others from Pennsylvania are below the average of *P. alaudinus*. No. 10,203, from Russian America, referred to *P. sandwichensis*, is scarcely larger than an average *P. savanna*. The

<sup>\*</sup> Latham's Synopsis, Vol. II, p. 202, 1783.

<sup>†</sup> Pennant's Arctic Zoology, Vol. II, Species No. 229, pp. 320, 368.

<sup>†</sup> Indian Ornithology, Vol. I, p. 414, 1790.

<sup>§</sup> Zoology of the Blossom, p. 20, 1839.

<sup>||</sup> Zeographia Rosso-Asiatica, Vol. II, p. 45, pl. xlviii, fig. 1, 1811.

accompanying series of measurements shows that specimens occur in Massachusetts as large and as small as any specimens of the genus of which measurements are given by Professor Baird.

In respect to the geographical distribution of these different supposed species, it will be observed that of the three West Coast species, the larger, P. sandwichensis, is northern, and the others, P. alaudinus and P. anthinus, southern, which perfectly explains the difference in size that occurs between them.\* In respect to P. alaudinus and P. anthinus, one is only the paler colored and the other the brighter colored form of the common savanna sparrow as represented in the Pacific States; the three supposed species together forming a series similar to what is seen when a large number of specimens of this bird from the Atlantic States are compared. In other words, the characters whereon these species are based are evidently only individual differences. The P. alaudinus is the form with narrow streaks and generally paler tints, or that having a minimum intensity of color; the P. anthinus is that with the brighter tints, or with the maximum intensity of color, the greater breadth of the streaks, and the rufous suffusion below correlating with the generally brighter tints. Aside from this normal range of variation referred to at length in Part III as obtaining in all species, there is that of season to be taken into account, as the fading of the superciliary stripe and the grayer aspect of the plumage above towards the end of the breeding season, through the natural wearing and bleaching of the plumage, † and also the rufous suffusion and greater amount of color characteristic of the renewed plumage in fall. It will be noticed that authors report the occurrence of all the western species either actually at or near the same points,‡ while P. savanna was not until recently supposed to occur on the Pacific slope of the continent. § But one of the others have been announced from the plains as far east as Nebraska, and from Brownsville, Texas. ¶

In respect to the habits of these supposed species, there is nothing attributed to the western one that is not equally applicable to the eastern bird. Dr. Coues, it is true, says that in Southern California *P. anthinus* seemed confined to the moist salt grass and sedgy weeds of the sea-shore

<sup>\*</sup> Since the above was written, Mr. Dall has given, not only P. savanna and P. sand-vichensis, but also P. alaudinus and P. anthinus in his list of the birds of Alaska. (See Frans. Chicago Acad. Sciences, Vol. I, pp. 283, 284.)

<sup>†</sup> See Part III, p. 193.

<sup>‡</sup> See Professor Baird, "Birds of North America," Dr. Coues, "Notes on the Birds of Arizona Territory," and Cooper's Ornithology of California.

<sup>§</sup> It has recently been reported by Mr. Dall as common in Alaska.

<sup>||</sup> P. alaudinus, Sclater's Catalogue of American Birds. p. 112.

<sup>¶</sup> P. alaudinus, Baird, in Birds of North America, p. 446.

itself. "When with difficulty it was flushed, its flight was," he remarks, "very rapid and irregular; and it would alight again almost immediately, and run with great celerity among the roots of the thick grasses. It was then exceedingly difficult to procure." All of which is quite true of P. savanna when frequenting the salt marshes, which form its most favorite resort in Massachusetts. "P. alaudinus," he says, "was common two or three miles away from the coast, but on the sea-shore itself I never found one mixing with P. anthinus; it is a bush-and-weed rather than a grass species." P. savanna also frequents similar localities. Mr. Dall, under P. anthinus, has also accurately indicated the habits of the eastern Passerculus. Under P. savanna, however, he mentions a fact in respect to the breeding habits of this species I have never before seen mentioned as characterizing any of the Passerculi, namely, its nesting in bushes. I have met with many nests of the eastern savanna sparrow, and have always found them placed on the ground, usually in a tuft of grass.

To recur again to the series in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, I may add that while some of the Ipswich specimens, taken late in June, have a decidedly yellow superciliary stripe, none have it so bright as it is usually in spring specimens; in a considerable proportion it is very pale, and in Nos. 4700, 10668, etc., it is grayish-white, with no perceptible trace of yellow. No. 5099, and some others, have the spots on the breast and sides very narrow, occupying but a small share of the surface; on the other hand, in No. 5088, as also in several others of the series, the spots are so broad as to occupy more space than the enclosing white portion. In other specimens, taken at a different season of the year, the "rufous tinge" surrounding the spots referred to in the above-quoted description of P. anthinus is very marked. There is likewise great difference in the color of the upper surface in different specimens. In some the black central spots of the interscapularies are so broad as to give to the dorsal aspect a very dark tint; in others, taken the same day at the same locality, they are so restricted that the general aspect of this surface is gray. The bills of the different specimens vary as much in length and robustness as they are represented to do in the two extremes in this respect in the western bird. Some of the long-billed ones have the bill slender; others have it thick and stout. Occasionally one has the upper mandible projecting considerably beyond the lower, but only in cases where it is abnormally developed. A specimen from Fort Bridger, Utah (No. 11115 of the Smithsonian Catalogue), in the Miseum, labelled Passerculus alaudinus at the Smithsonian Institution, is of this character, the upper mandible being very much abnormally developed and decurved, and projecting much beyond the lower.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibis, July, 1866, 268.

In short, while not denying that there may be a slight average difference between eastern and western specimens, as I know there is between those of the Central Plains and those of the Atlantic States, I cannot allow that it is at all sufficient to substantiate a specific difference. On the contrary, I am confident that the above-named supposed species of the Pacific States are based chiefly on individual variation perfectly parallel with that seen in a large series of specimens from the Atlantic, States. No one, in fact, seems to have felt very confident that any of them were distinct from the eastern P. savanna. Dr. Coues has even repeatedly expressed his belief that Passerculus alaudinus is not permanently distinct from that species. "In a large series of the latter," he says, "shot about Washington, I have found fully as great differences as I have ever detected in comparing the eastern with the western forms."\*

Dr. Cooper also refers as follows to the close resemblance of the P. alaudinus to the P. sandwichensis. He says, "I think it very doubtful whether these specimens (which measure larger than the dimensions given by Baird, though otherwise agreeing) are anything more than a southern form of P. sandwichensis, though collected near San Diego. . . . Baird considers it almost identical with P. savanna of the east, and says that P. sandwichensis differs from that species in its larger size. Spring specimens have the superciliary stripe more decidedly yellow, so that there only remains a more slender bill to distinguish this from P. savanna, and the larger size (characteristic of northern specimens generally), with darker hues, from P. sandwichensis." † Respecting P. anthinus Dr. Cooper remarks, "This species appears better marked, as compared with P. savanna, than the preceding [P. alaudinus and P. sandwichensis], although I am not entirely satisfied that it is different." ‡

The following measurements of twenty-six specimens (fourteen males and twelve females), all taken at Ipswich during June and July, 1868, and measured before skinning, indicates the range of individual variation presented by this species. The extremes are as follows: Length, 5.20 and 6.00, both males; alar extent, 7.61 and 9.75, both females; wing, 2.44 and 2.95; tail, 1.64 and 2.25; tarsus, .75 and .88. The average dimensions are: Length, 5.20; alar extent, 8.79; wing, 2.70; tail, 1.96; tarsus, .84. The following are the extremes of the series of measurements of the western Passerculi, given in Birds of North America: Length, 5.00 (P. alaudinus Tamaulipas, Mex.) and 6.12 (P. sandwichensis, Fort Steilacoom, W. T.); alar extent, 8.50 and 9.37 (same specimens); wing, 2.50 and 2.95 (same specimens); tail, 2.00 and 2.57 (same specimens). It thus appears that

<sup>\*</sup> Ibis, July, 1866, p. 289.

<sup>†</sup> Ornithology of California, Vol. I, p. 182.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., p. 183.

specimens taken in the breeding season in Massachusetts, overlap in two out of the four measurements given, all the so-called western species, while specimens taken in Massachusetts at other seasons, vary still more than the specimens cited in the following table.

Measurements of Massachusetts Specimens of Passerculus savanna, taken in the Breeding Season.

M C. Z No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
5086 8 5087 8 5091 8 5092 8 5096 8 5084 8 5084 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5096 8 5097 8 5097 8 5096 8 5097 8 5097 8 5096 8 5097 8 50	111 200 448 852 33 34 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35	Ipswich  (1)  (1)  (1)  (1)  (1)  (1)  (1)  (1	June 12, '68 June 13, '68 June 14, '68 June 14, '68 June 15, '68 June 17, '68	Allen & Maynard	5.76 5.65 5.50 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.70 5.7	8.32 9.15 9.10 9.25 9.15 9.25 9.15 9.25 9.25 8.95 8.95 8.95 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90 8.90	2 2 5 5 5 5 2 6 6 3 4 2 6 6 5 2 2 2 5 5 5 5 6 5 6 3 4 2 6 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	2.07 2.00 1.85 2.07 2.00 2.10 1.95 2.06 2.00 2.10 2.25 1.90 2.25 1.90 2.05 1.85 2.05 1.85 2.05 1.85	.85 .85 .85 .87 .88 .80 .93 .93 .93 .93 .80 .75 .85

## 41.† Poocetes gramineus Baird. GRASS FINCH.

Abundant, especially in and about the old fields. The most numerous sparrow in East Florida in winter.

## 42.† Juneo hyemalis Sclater. Snow Bird.

"Common in January." — Boardman. Not seen by either Mr. Maynard or myself. Probably of somewhat irregular occurrence so far south.

43.† Spizella socialis Bonaparte. Chipping Sparrow.

Common. A large proportion of those seen were young birds.

44.\* Spizella pusilla Bonaparte. FIELD SPARROW.

Common. More numerous than the preceding species (S. socialis). They appeared to be breeding at Jacksonville the first week in April.

The songs of the males were so different from those of the northern bird that the species was almost unrecognizable by me from its notes.

- 45.† Zonotrichia albicollis Swainson. White-throated Sparrow. Generally more or less common.
  - 46.† Melospiza melodia Baird. Song Sparrow.

Not numerous. At least comparatively few were seen.

47.† Melospiza palustris Baird. SWAMP SPARROW.

Common, frequenting the hummocks and swamps.

48.† Passerella iliaca Swainson. Fox-colored Sparrow.

A single specimen was seen by Mr. G. A. Boardman at Enterprise. None were seen by Mr. Maynard or myself.

- 49.† Ammodromus maritimus Swainson. Seaside Finch.
- "Abundant at Fernandina." Boardman.
- 50.† Ammodromus caudacutus Swainson. Sharp-tailed Finch.
- "Abundant, with the preceding." Boardman. Although I have marked as winter visitors both these species of Ammodromus, they may be resident.
  - 51.† Coturniculus Henslowi Bonaparte. Henslow's Sparrow.

Stated by Audubon to be abundant in winter on the grassy pine barrens of Florida.\*\*

52.\* Peucæa æstivalis Baird. Pine-wood Sparrow.

Fringilla æstivalis Lichtenstein, Verzeich. Doubleder Zool. Mus. der königl. Univ. zu Berlin, 25, 1823.

Fringilla Bachmani Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 366, pl. clxv, 1834.

Fringilla æstiva Nuttall, Man. Orn., I, 2d ed., 568, 1846.

Peucæa Bachmani Audubon, Syn. Am. Birds, 112, 1839.

Peucæa astivalis Cabanis, Mus. Hein., 132, 1850.

Zonotrichia Cassinii Woodhouse, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1852, 60.

Peucæa Cassinii BAIRD, Birds N. Am., 485, 1858.

Common, but confined to the pine woods.

The twenty-two specimens, collected by Mr. Maynard's party and myself, now in the Museum, present considerable differences. Several are so different in color from most of the others as to almost have the appearance of being a different species, the general color of the upper

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of America, Vol. III, p. 76.

parts being rufous instead of gray. These are all females, the others being males. But the males differ greatly in color, few of our sparrows being more variable in this respect than the present species.

The following measurements of twenty-two Florida specimens indicate quite a constancy in size, much greater than in color. The extremes of this series are as follows: Length, 5.75 and 6.20; alar extent, 7.60 and 8.30; wing, 2.17 and 2.55; tail, 2.25 and 2.68. Average: Length, 5.88; alar extent, 8.99; wing, 2.40; tail, 2.49.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Peucæa æstivalis.

M. C. Z. No.	Collector's Number.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
5377 5393 5425 5426 5426 5429 5429 5429 5429 10617 10618 10620 10624 10623 10625 10621	5377 5393 5425 5426 5427 5428 521 21 24 27 28 36 67 72 68 67 73 651 45 39 45	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	Hawkinsville	Mar. 13, 60 Mar. 15, 63 Apr. 2, 63 Apr. 2, 63 Apr. 2, 69 Apr. 2, 69 Apr. 2, 69 Apr. 3, 69 Apr. 3, 69 Apr. 3, 69 Apr. 4, 66 Apr. 7, 69 Apr. 16, 69 Apr. 16, 69 Apr. 16, 69 Apr. 15, 69	J. A. Allen  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44	6.00 5.85 5.90 5.90 5.90 5.80 5.80 5.80 5.75 5.75 5.75 6.00 6.00 6.00 6.20 6.00 6.10 5.80	8.20 8.05 8.30 7.85 7.85 7.75 8.00 8.00 8.00 8.00 8.15 8.10 8.10 8.00	88.4.5.5.4.4.5.1.4.5.8.4.5.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4	2 50 2.30 2.40 2.50 2.50 2.50 2.50 2.55 2.65 2.55 2.55 2.56 2.56 2.56 2.56	.76 .75 .76 .70 .76 .76 .67 .66 .65 .70 .75 .70 .75 .70 .75 .70 .75 .70 .75 .70 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75

53.\* Cardinalis virginianus Bonaparte. Cardinal Bird.

Exceedingly numerous. Their clear, musical, loud call-note was heard everywhere, this being the most noisy bird of the forest.

None of the specimens I have seen from Florida are as large as those from the Middle States. The colors of the former are also somewhat brighter, especially in the females, in which the brownish-yellow of the lower parts is not only much deeper, but a large proportion have the breast and middle of the abdomen strongly tinged with bright red, giving a very different appearance from northern females.

The following measurements of fifty-eight specimens shows the amount of variation in size in specimens from the same locality. The females, it will be seen, average a little smaller than the males, but the sexual difference in this respect is not very great. The range of variation, which is much less in this species than in many, is as follows: In the males: Length, 7.75 to 9.10; alar extent, 11.00 to 11.78; wing, 3.50 to

3.85; tail, 3.40 to 4.20; tarsus, .62 to .80. In the females: Length, 7.50 to 8.75; alar extent, 10.70 to 11.75; wing, 3.25 to 3.85; tail, 3.40 to 4.10; tarsus, .62 to 75 Average size of the males: Length, 8.46; alar extent, 11.43; wing, 3.63; tail, 3.87. Average of the females: Length, 8.27; alar extent, 11.27; wing, 3.53; tail, 3.77.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Cardinalis Virginianus.

No.	Collector's Number.			1			Ħ		
Z	, H H					Length.	5		
Z.	2 4	×	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	to l	×	2	:::
G.	3 =	Sex.	Locanty.	Date.	Conector.	5		Wing.	Tail.
0	동문	32				ĭ	T.	-	
M.	54						Alar Exten		
				7 00 100				0.55	4.50
5164	5164	+03,462,9,Q,40	Hibernia	Jan. 30, '69 Jan. 30, '69	J. A Allen	8.60	11.45	3.55	4.10
5165	5165	3	4.6	Jan. 30, 69		8 45	11.70	3.65	3 83
5163	5163	ď	1.5	Jan. 30, 69	"	8 45	11.50	3.60	4 10
5167	5167	3	"	Jan. 30, 69 Jan. 30, 69	64	8.75	11.50	3 55	3 95
5189	5189	9	1.1	Feb. 3, 69 Feb. 3, 69		8.60	11.25	3 50	3 95
5192	5192	2	1.1	Feb. 3, 69	11	8.75	11.75	3.50	4.10
5193	5193	8	4.4	Feb. 3 '69	11	8.45	11.35	3.60	3 83
5230	5230	+	Volusia	Feb 12 '69		8 15	11.60	3.30	3.78
5311	5311		Enterprise	Feb. 12, 69 Mar. 1, 69 Mar. 1, 69	11	8.75	11 60	3.60	3 90
5312	5312		Lifetpiloc	Mar. 1, 60		8.50	11.35	3.40	3 78
		1, T	66	Man. 1, 00			11.50	3.58	4.15
5347	5347	g		Mar. 4, 69		9.10	10.70		
		¥	Hawkinsville	Mar. 13, 69	4.6	7.75		3 25	_
- 101	- 10	ď	Jacksonville	Mar 31, '69	46	7.75	11.15	3.55	
5424	5424	d	6.6	Apr. 2, 69		8 50	11.50	3 65	3.90
		9		Apr. 2, 69	4.6	S.55	11.10	3.55	1.00
	1955	¢3666666666666666666666666666666666666		Apr. 2, 69 Apr. 2, 69 Jan. 2, 69 Jan. 5, 69	C. J. Maynard	9.00	11.50	3.65	4 30
	1987	3	1.6	Jan. 5, '69	11	9.00	11.50	3 85	4.05
10706	1988	3	1.6	Jan. 5, 69		8.50	11 51	3 75	4.20
10707	1989	2	4.6	Jan. 5, 69 Jan. 5, 69	66	8 50	11.45	3.75	3 50
	2003	.2	4.4	Jan 10 '69	4.6	8 05	11.60	3 75	4 15
	2041	2	1.6	Jan. 10, 169 Jan. 7, 69	66	8.00	11.00	3 75	4.00
	2430	0,	Dummitt's	Feb 21, 69	66	8 00	11.25	3.50	3.40
	2418	J,	Dummittes	P. b 90 'cu	16		11 10	3.50	3.90
	0002	l G	11	Feb. 22, 69 Feb. 7, 69 Feb. 9, 69		8 75			
	2583	ರ್	66	Feb 7, 69		8 60	11.00	3.65	4 10
	2537	3		Feb. 9, 69		8.70	11.50	3 65	4.00
10709	2447	0	66	Feb. 24, 69		8 00	11.56	3.60	3 60
10709	2337	8		Feb. 16, 69 Feb. 25, 69 Feb. 16, 69	11	8.50	$-11.50^{\circ}$	3 60	3.80
	2328	3	6.6	Feb. 25, '69		8.25	11 50	3 50	3.80
10710	2338	3	6.6	Feb. 16, '69	4.6	8.50	-11.50	3 60	3.80
10713	2393	3	6.6	l Feb. 16 '69	- 44	8 50	-11.50	3 65	3.65
	2324	3	6.6	Feb. 25, 69 Feb. 25, 69 Feb. 25, 69	14	8.60	11.50	3.50	3.50
	2339	2	6.6	Feb. 25, *69	4.4	8.75	11.78	5 65	3.90
	2338	とうらいいかい		Feb. 25, '69	16	8.40	11 50	3 60	4 10
	2335	0	6.6	Feb. 17, '69 Feb. 17, '69 Feb. 17, '69 Mar. 10, '69	66	8.00	11 50	3 60	3 90
	2364	0,	6.6	Feb 17 '69	44	8.50	11.50	3 60	3 60
1	2363	C,	6.6	Pob 17 160	66	8.50	11.50	3 60	4 00
	2000	C.	66	Non 10, 90	4.6	8 15	11.18	3 60	3 40
	2533	3		Mar. 10, 69	4.6				3 95
10716	2535	ੋ	44	Mar. 4, 69 Feb. 25, 69 Jan. 9, 69		8 40	11 00	3 57	
	2459	3		reb. 25, 69		8 50	11.50	3 75	3 95
	2008	Y	Jacksonville	Jan. 9, 69		8.25	11.25	3 S5	3 \$5
	2042	Y		Lan 6 69	11	8 75	11 24	3.50	3.70
	2334	2	66	Jan. 11, 169 Mar. 10, 169 Feb. 24, 169 Feb. 11, 169	16	8 00	11 00	3 40	3.40
	2579	9	Dummitt's	Mar. 10, '69	4.6	7.75	10.75	3.40	3 95
	2337	Ý	4.6	Feb. 24, '69	6.6	7.50	11 00	3.30	3 50
	2594	Q	6.6	Feb. 11, '69	- 64	8.50	11 10	3.50	3.91
	2595	Į ģ	4.6	Feb 11, '69	6.6	8.50	11.05	3.50	3.85
	2334	Ô	4.6	Feb 24, 69 Feb 24, 69		8.75	11 75	3 67	4.00
	2415	it	1.1	Feb. 20, 69	64	8.00	11.10	3.50	3 50
	2394	10	4.6	Feb 16, '69	- 44	8.00	11.75	3.30	3.55
10716	2324	E	4.6	Fob 15 260	4.	8.50	11,50	3.70	1 10
10110	9.159	I E	6.6	Eab 95 20	11	9.10	11 15	3 75	3 65
	2458	1 X	4.6	Feb. 15, 69 Feb. 25, 69 Feb. 17, 69	4.6			3 60.	3 70
	2336	¥		Feb. 11, 69	4.6	8.50	11.50		
	2474	¥		Feb. 16, 19	41	8.00	11 25	3.15	3 55
40444	2475	¥		Feb. 26, 69 War. 1, 69	64	8.00	11 00	3.40	3 75
10117	2489	C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+C+		Mar. 1, 69		8.05	11 15	3.61	3 40
10715	2488	Ÿ	e c	Mar 1 '69	64	8.50	11 20	3 (30)	4.00
10714	2427	P	1.6	Mar. 4, 69	6-	8 20 8 50	11.25	3 55	3 60
	2013	9		Feb 11, '69	4.0	8.50	11.50	3.75	3.90
		,							

## 54.\* Pipilo erythrophthalmus Vieillot. CHEWINK.

Exceedingly numerous.

Mr. C. J. Maynard detected an interesting local race or variety of this bird at Dummitt's. Besides having the irides yellowish-white instead of red, there is less white at the base of the primaries, less skirting the secondaries, and much less on the tail. The whole bird is also smaller. The white on the tail generally extends only to the three outer pairs of feathers; in the common northern form it extends over the four outer pairs, and on the first is much more extended than in the Florida one. The tail of the common form, with the outer pair of feathers removed, would resemble, in respect to the distribution and extent of the white, that of the Florida bird. The song of this bird, as I heard it at Jacksonville in April, is quite different from that of the northern bird, it being ordinarily only about half as long, and uttered with much less spirit. As is well known, the song of the towhe, or chewink, at the north consists of two parts, nearly equal in length but otherwise quite different. In the Florida bird the last half is almost entirely omitted. According to Mr. Maynard, this variety is almost the only one occurring on Indian River, and of which he brought home some forty or more specimens. I found also one among half a dozen I shot at Jacksonville in January. In April, among a few towhes exposed in eages for sale in the market, were several of this kind. There is probably a large proportion of northern birds among the *Pipilones* of Northern Florida in winter, while probably in summer the majority are of the southern type above described, as are those of Middle and Southern Florida, doubtless, at all seasons.

Had this form been discovered ten, or even five years since, it would probably have been regarded by most ornithologists as entitled to specific rank, and not as a local race of *P. erythrophthalmus*, as it evidently is. Indeed, there are many species still on our lists that are far less entitled to rank as species than this, but which, though at first only provisionally adopted, have become traditionally established as valid species.

The two tables of measurements of specimens of this species given below, with Table J (p. 212), show the difference in size that obtains between Massachusetts and Florida specimens. The first table embraces twenty-nine specimens (nineteen males and ten females) of the white-eyed Florida type; the second table embraces sixteen specimens (ten males and six females) of the common northern type from Eastern Massachusetts; the measurements of twenty other Massachusetts males having been also already given in Table J, on p. 212. The following are the extremes of the two series. Northern type, males: Length, 7.50 and 8.80; alar extent, 10.00 and 12.25; wing, 3.17 and 3.90; tail, 3.30 and 3.93;

Measurements of Specimens of Pipilo Erythrophthalmus from Indian River, Florida.

M. C. Z. No. Collector's Number	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
10722 247 	616999917696657787878787899999999999999999999999	Dummitt's  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44  44	Peb. 26, 69 Peb. 26, 69 Mar. 5, 69 Mar. 5, 69 Mar. 5, 69 Mar. 7, 60 Mar. 12, 69 Mar. 12, 69 Mar. 12, 69 Peb. 22, 69 Peb. 20, 69 Peb. 20, 69 Peb. 18, 69 Peb. 17, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 1, 69 Mar. 11, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Mar. 2, 69 Peb. 18, 69 Peb. 20, 69 Mar. 11, 69 Mar. 11, 69 Mar. 11, 69 Mar. 10, 68 Mar. 2, 69 Peb. 18, 69	C. J. Maynard	8.10 8.00 8.00 8.30 7.20 8.30 8.50 8.50 8.00 7.72 7.72 7.75 7.75 7.75 7.75 8.00 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50 7.50 7	10.25 10.50 10.00 10.20 10.20 11.00 10.20 10.50 10.50 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55 10.50 10.55	3.25 3.20 3.00 3.25 3.42 3.45 3.50 3.25 3.10 2.80 2.92 3.00 3.05 3.00 3.05 3.00 3.05 3.00 3.00	3 60 3 63 3 63 3 63 3 65 3 57 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50 3 50	1.00 .95 1.00 .90 1.00 1.01 .87 .95 .95 .90 .80 1.09 .90 .90 .90 .90 .90 .90 .90 .90 .90

# Measurements of Specimens of Pirilo Erythrophthalmus from Eastern Massachusetts.

M. C. Z. No.	Collector's Number.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
4616 4615 4725 4726 4724 4617 4618	384 414 415 430 439 1008 1329 1330 1295 496 527 555 1028 1328	200000	Newton Weston " Newton Waltham " Weston Newton " " " Waltham " " Weston Newton " " " Weston Newton "	May 6, 68 May 9, 68 May 9, 68 May 11, 68 May 13, 68 May 13, 68 May 14, 68 May 16, 68 Sept. 21, 68 Sept. 21, 68 Sept. 17, 68 May 15, 68 May 16, 68 May 16, 68 May 20, 66 July 22, 68 Sept. 21, 68 Sept. 21, 68	C. J. Maynard	8.30 8.25 8.20 8.25 8.45 8.35 8.50 8.50 7.60 8.25 8.25 8.25 8.20 8.20 8.20 8.20 8.20 8.20 8.20 8.20	11.65 11.41 11.50 10.45 11.76 10.55 10.56 11.00	3.30 3.35 3.45 3.65 3.51 3.46 3.41 3.55 3.55 3.55 3.25 3.35 3.35	3.60 3.64 3.49 3.76 3.55 3.46 3.70 4.00 3.75 3.35 3.36 3.36 3.36 3.36 3.36 3.36 3.3	1 10 1 00 1 00 1 00 1 100 1 100 1 105

tarsus, .98 and 1.13. Southern type, males: Length, 7.20 and 8.50; alar extent, 9.50 and 11.30; wing, 2.80 and 3.50; tail, 3.25 and 3.90; tarsus,

.80 and 1.09. The females in both cases average a little smaller than the males. The average dimensions of thirty northern males are as follows: Length, 8.19; alar extent, 11.32; wing, 3.43; tail, 3.66; tarsus, 1.06. Of nineteen southern males: Length, 7.88; alar extent, 9.88; wing, 3.13; tail, 3.56; tarsus, .94. The measurements given in the two preceding tables were all taken by Mr. Maynard from fresh specimens.

Other species of Fringillidæ that from their general distribution one naturally expects to meet with in East Florida in winter, but which, so far as I can learn, have not yet been met with there, are the Yellow-winged Sparrow (Coturniculus passerinus), Black-throated Bunting (Euspiza americana), Indigo Bird (Cyanospiza cyanea), and the Non-pariel (C. ciris). Specimens of the latter, collected at Cape Florida in winter, have been received at the Museum, and it was taken in April at Jacksonville and St. Augustine by Mr. Thurston and Mr. L. L. Thaxter.

#### ICTERIDÆ.

## 55.† Molothrus pecoris Swainson. Cow Blackbird.

Not numerous. Sometimes seen in small parties by themselves, but more frequently associating with the red-wings and grackles.

## 56.\* Agelæus phæniceus Leillot. Red-winged Blackbird.

Abundant. Apparently chiefly Florida born birds seen, especially in February and March. The sexes were usually in separate flocks.

The differences in respect to size and color between Florida and New England specimens usually seen in individuals of the same species from these localities are very marked in the present species, especially in respect to color. In no group, in fact, is it generally more so than in the Icteridae.

In the Florida red-wings the general form is slenderer and more delicate, the bill relatively longer and more pointed, and the general color more intense and lustrous. The difference is particularly marked in the shoulder-patch, in which the red of its anterior portion is darker, approaching bright orange, and the posterior part, which in the northern bird is usually pale cream-color, whitish, or even nearly pure white, is orange-yellow,—very nearly as in the A. gubernator of the Pacific States. The difference in color, size, and especially in the form of the bill, is much greater than the differences existing between many currently received species of North American birds, and it is surprising that the two forms have not been specifically separated. I can only account for it on the supposition that specimens from Florida and the Gulf States have not fallen

into the hands of the assiduous species hunters. As remarked in Part III (p. 234), Florida and New England specimens are as different from each other as are the so-called Agelieus phæniceus of the Northeastern States, the A. tricolor and the A. gubernator from each other.

Specimens of A. phæniceus from Louisiana I find correspond very nearly in every respect with the specimens from Florida. I have also before me one specimen from Maine with the shoulder-patch as highly colored, and with nearly as long a bill as is found in the specimens from Florida.

Plate VI shows the average form of the bill in Florida and Massachusetts specimens, and the annexed table of measurements the difference in general size. They also illustrate individual variation.

The following measurements of seventy specimens of this species from Massachusetts (forty males and thirty females), eighteen specimens from South Carolina and Florida (eleven males and seven females), and thirteen specimens from California (four males and nine females), exhibit, besides the average size and the individual variation at the same locality (especially in the case of those from Massachusetts), several interesting facts in respect to geographical variation. While the northern specimens (see the summary of these measurements given below) are somewhat larger than the southern ones, the latter have the longer head (including the bill), and also the longer bill. The height and width of the bill at the base remaining essentially the same in both, the southern ones have the bill relatively more attenuated. The difference in this respect is more striking than the measurements given seem to indicate. The California specimens closely resemble those from Florida, not only in respect to size, but in regard to the size and form of the bill, and also in respect to color; these, as well as the Florida ones, belonging to the southern type. As previously remarked, they bear a much closer resemblance to the Florida form in every respect than to that found in New England.\*

The individual variation in this species seems to be very great everywhere, the variation in specimens of the same sex from the same locality being fully fifteen per cent of the average size at that locality.

\* The affinities of Ageleus gubernator and A. tricolor with A. phæniceus are acknowledged to be exceedingly close. Professor Baird cites, in his Birds of North America, one specimen of the A. phæniceus from San José, California, and five from Fort Steilacoom, W. T. He also cites specimens of A. gubernator from Petaluma and San Francisco, Cal.; but Dr. Cooper regards this species as "limited to the interior of the State" (California), while those found along the coast, he says, clearly resemble the eastern bird. (Ornithology of California, Vol. I, p. 264.) From the close resemblance, already alluded to, of both the A. gubernator and A. tricolor to A. phæniceus, and their occurrence mainly in the hot valleys of California and the region more to the southward, I can scarcely doubt that these forms, especially A. gubernator, are the southern smaller, brighter colored, more attenuated billed western homologues of the similar eastern form from Florida and the Gulf States.

## Measurements of Northern Specimens of AGELEUS PHENICEUS.

No.	0	n .						.	nt.					Bill.	
Z. Z	0	Number.	, M	T . 114		Det	Callacter	Length	Alar Exten	Wing.	æ	Head.	d 1	ا د	-
0.5	1	1 1	Sex.	Localit	у.	Date.	Collector.	eng	国	F.	Tail.	Hes	Culmen	Height	Width.
M.	3	δŽ						ĭ	lar				T]n	Iei	Wi
		-		Voscalhone'	Ma		Mr Becker	0.40	14.90	1.65	2 80	1 00	.87	.45	.37
127 957	4		0	Vassalboro'. Waterville,	, Me.	June 20, '64	C. E. Hamlin		14.75				.87	46	.40
35	<del>)</del> 1		3	Malden,	Mass.	1859	D. lliggins	9.35	14.75	4.67	3 75	1 76	-86	.47	.40
		-	3	66	44	44	66	9.15	GG. 48	4.55	3.50	1.75	.80	.50	.37
35	12	=	3 3	"	"	66		9.20	$\frac{14}{14.50}$	4.70	3 66	1.82 1.80	.89	.47 50	38
	33		2	44	6.6			9 20	14.40	4 50	3.45	1.85	.88	.45	40
5	14	-	33	6.6	66	46	66	9.00	14.25	4.60	3 55	1.76	.90	.50	.38
3.	95	_	3	66	44		"	9.00	$15.10 \\ 14.55$	4 65	3.65	1.53	95 84	.50	.40
35	10	= ,	3	6.6	44	6.6	"	8.40	14.10	4.50	3.40	1.60	.75	46	.40
572	27	- 1	37	Concord,	44	66	H. Mann	8 58	13 95	4 50	3.46	1.78	.92	.48	.40
572	23	_		66	"			8 45	14 45	4.55	3 35	1.75	.84	.43	45 38
572 572	754	_ !	3	44	6.6	66	66	9.00	14.25 14.51	4.54	3.33	1.89	.85	.47	.39
572	26	-	3	4.6	6.6	64	44	9.20	14.95	4.75	3.75	1.80	.87	.44	38
1 012	20)	-	3	44	13	44	66	9 05	15.00	4.86	3.86	1 84	.88	.44	.37
572 572	2Z -	_	3	66	6.6	4.6	66	9.70	$\frac{14.88}{14.50}$	4.65	3.65	1.74	83	.46 .43	.40 38
572	25		3000	44	"	46	44	9.85	14.25	4.73	3.76	1 85	.93	.43	.35
572	28	_	0	66	66	14	66	9 25	14.50	4.60	3.81	1.78	.98	.44	.33
578 1009	16 16	_	000	Ipswich, Springfield,	6.6	June 14,'68		9.15	14.62 14.50	4 70	3 78	1.79	92	48 44	.38
167	4	_	3	Springfield,	6.6	June 26, '62	4.6	9.00	14.00	4.59	3.42	1.62	87	45	.40
167	75	-	3	44	66	June 26,'62			15 00				.93	46	43
178	82	_	00		"	July 12,'62 July 12,'62			$\frac{14.50}{14.60}$				.97	.45	37
62	26.	_	3	Auburndale		Mar. 23, 57	S. Tenney	9 62	15.35	4.87	3.77	1.85	.91	.43	40
102	22	_	0	Wenham,	4.6	May '61	J. Bartlett	19.25	15.00	4.67	3.55	1.84	.89	.48	.43
-	-	114		Newton,	66	Mar. 13, 68	C. J. Maynard	8.75	14.83	4.70	3.53	_	-	-	-
		$\frac{180}{214}$	3		6.6	Mar. 28, 68 Apr. 11, 68	44	8.90	15.00 14.85	4 60	3.52	_			
-		$\frac{214}{251}$	3	Weston, Newton,	6.6	Apr. 18, 68	116	9.52	15.00	4.82	3 80	_	_	-	_
-		302	3	Newton,	66	Apr. 23, 68			15.00			-	-	-	-
		$\frac{323}{352}$	3	Weston,		Apr. 25, 68	6.6		15.00 15.10				_	_	_
_		371	3	Newton,	4.6	May 5,'68	6.6	9.00	15.00	5.00	3,90	_	_		-
-			3	6.6	66	May 1,68	66	9.50	15 25	4 92	3.85	-	-	-	-
-		417	12	Weston, Newton,	44	May 1, 68 May 5, 68 May 1, 68 May 9, 68 Mar. 23, 70	4.6	9.50	$\frac{15}{15.00}$	4.90	3 56	_			_
984	48	_	Ò	Milltown,	мe,		U.A.Doardman	8.00	12.50	3.95	3.05	1 57	.73 .79	.38	32
984	14	-	19	6.6	- 66			8 00	$12 \ 50$	4 08	3 10	1.54	-79	.4()	.30
39		_	ŧ	Malden,	Mass.	1853	D. Higgins		$\frac{11.75}{12.30}$				.72	.42	33 35
(	97	_	Ŷ.	1.6	66	e L	6.6	7 35	11.75	3 63	2.80	1 55	-70	.40	.37
40	12	-	9	6.6	66		46	8 55	13.55	4.26	3.15	1.66	.75	44	.41
35	18, 18	_	Y-Q	44	44	46	4.6	8.05 7.75	$\frac{13.50}{12.10}$	3.74	3 10	I 67 I 58	-11	.43	36 33
40	13	_	+0+0+0+0+0+0+	4.6	6 6		4.6	7 42	11 55	3 87	2.73	1 62	.72 .73	.37	35
35	37	-	9	66	66	66	4.6	7 50	$\frac{11}{11} \frac{55}{25}$ $\frac{11}{12.50}$	3.70	2.98	1 58	76	34	33
30	15 19 !		÷	66	44	- "	6:	7.40	12.50 $11.50$	9.11	2 68	1.50	70 75	.38	38 43
578	30:	_	0	Concord,	6.6		II. Mann	7.75	12.50	3.50	3.02	1.54	.70	.40	.33
161	11	_	9	Springfield,	4.6	July 15,162	J. A. Allen	7.50	12.00	3.73	2.90	1.68	79	.40	34
165	39	-,	3	44	6.6	June 26, 62 June 26, 62	4.6	7 65	$\frac{11.75}{11.82}$	3.67	2.82	1.54 1.60	.70	38 .40	.37 38
167	13	=	÷	66	6.6	June 26, 62 June 26, 62	4.6	7.75	12.82 $12.00$	3.77	2.85	1 57	.75 .78	.38	37
167	79	-	0+0	44	6.6	June 26.162	46	8.00	12 25	3.79	3.00	1 55	.74	.39	36
165	3()	350	÷	Wester	44	June 26, 62	G I Mannand		12.10			1 53	.78	38	-
		850	9+0+	Weston, Ipswich,	44	June 15, 68	C. J. Maynard	7.45	$\frac{12.61}{13.60}$	4 00	3 05	_			
_	_	891	Ŷ	Essex,	4.6	June 17, 68	46	8,00	12.35	4.00	3.00	_	-		-
-		893	0+0	4.4	6.6	June 11, 68	46	7.75	12.54	3.90	2.90		-	- 1	-
		.093 .075	Ť	Waltham,		Aug. —, '68 Aug. —, '68	- 66	7.45 7.67	12.37 12.30	3 85	$\frac{2.75}{2.85}$			_	_
	-1	096	Ý	66	6.6	Aug. —, 68	4.6	7.50	1240	3.95	2.72		_	_	_
-		097	7	Newton,	44	A uc. —. '68	64	7 75	12.20	3.71	2.80	_	-	-	-
_		095	OF	Waltham, Weston,	6.6	Aug. —, 68	6.6		$\frac{12.00}{12.10}$			-	_		_
		830		Newton,	66	Aug. —, 68 June 8, 69	4.6		12.10					_	=
	_		_												

## Measurements of Southern Specimens of AGELÆUS PHŒNICEUS.

	M C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality		D	ate,	Collector.	Length.	Al. Ext.	Wing.	Tail.	Head.	Cul.	Bill.	Wid.
1	4126	_	3	Charleston, S	5. C.	_		L. Agassiz	9.55	14.75	4 75	3.65	1.90	1.00	.45	37
1	4127	_	3	4.6	6.6	_		4.4	8 80	14 30	4 50	3.55	1.74	.87	.47	.40
	4128	-	13	4.6	4.4	-		4.6	9.45	14.50	4.60	3 72	1.80	.90	.50	-40
	4129	-	13	4.4	6.6	-		6.	9.05	13.50	4.37	3.45	1.78	-85	.43	.42
-	4125	_	3	6.6	46	_		6.6	9.05	14.12	4.42	3 35	1.94	.95	.46	.35
			3	Hawkinsville	Fla.			J. A. Allen		13.60			-	_	-	
1		1923	3	Jacksonville,	44	Dec.	31, 69	C. J. Maynard	9 10	14 90	4 75	3.58	-	-		
	10565			4.6			31, 69			14 80					_	
	10561			6.6	44		31, 69			14 15				-	_	
				Dummitt's,	64		8, 69			14.20				-	-	
1	0573			6.6	64		24, 69			14.00				1	-	-
	5153	_	2	Hibernia,	66		30, 69		7 65	12.60	3.85	3.05	-	-	-	-
1		-	Q	6.6	44		30,769		7.85	12.50	3.90	3 07	-	_		
1	5155	-	Ò	66			30, 69		7.80	12.85	_	3 20		_	~_ '	-
	4141	_	0				30, 69		8.00	12.25	3 80	3 05	_	-	-	
	5209	_	9	Welaka,	4.6		8, 69	66	7 65	$12 \ 50$	3 75	2 80	_	-	_	-
	5208	_	0	"	EE	Feb.	8,*69	6.6	7.50	11.85	3 63	2 75	-		-	
j	5210	-	Ŷ	4.6	6.6	Feb.	8, 69	4.6	7.65	12.55	3.95	- !	-		-	

## Measurements of California Specimens of AGELÆUS PHENICEUS.

M. C. Z. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Al, Ext.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
5885	3	San Francisco, Cal.	Winter '59 - '60	A. Agassiz	8.50	14.98	4.83	3.50	1.63
5884	3	11 11	Winter '59 - '60	ii	8.75	15 05	4 95	3 35	1.74
556	3	66 66	Winter '59 - '60	6.6	8 60	14 55	4.47	3 09	1.90
2188	of.	Gulf ofGeorgia, W.T.	Sept. —, *60	6.6	8.71	13.50	4.45	3.26	1.75
5889	9	San Francisco, Cal.	Winter '59 - '60	6.6	7.58	12 80	4.03	2.73	1.63
5893	Ó	66 66	Winter '59 - '60	6.6	7.55	12.35	3.95	2.47	1.46
5887	9	66 66	Winter '59 - '60	6.6	7.81	12.80	4.25	3 86	1.54
5890	Ó	66 66	Winter '59 - '6)	4.4	7.50	12.75	3 94	2.47	1.56
5856	Ý	66 61	Winter '59-'60	T. G. Carv	7.82	12.77	4 04	2.62	1.56
2075	Ò	66 66	Winter '59 - '60	"	8.29	13.27	4.32	3.00	1.62
2074	Ŷ	44 44	Winter '59 - '60	4.6	8.18	13.25	3.85	2.95	1 67
2078	Ŷ		Winter '59-'60	4.6	8.50	13.00	4.15	3 10	1 65
5888	9	66 66	Winter '59 - '60	A. Agassiz	7.25	12.25	3 90	3.71	1.50

# Summary of the above Measurements of Specimens of AGELÆUS PHENIÇEUS.

Locality.	Sex.	No. of Specim's.		Length.	Al. Ext	Wing.	Tail.	Head.	Culmen	Height.	Width.
Massachusetts South Carolina and Florida California	+00,+00,+00,	40 28 11 7	Aver. Aver. Aver. Aver.	9.16 7.53 9.02 7.73 8.64	14.71 12.24 14.41 12.44 14.52	4 69 3.86 4.62 3 83 4.67	3.63 2.93 3.61 2.99 3.30	1.79* 1.57† 1.83 — 1.75	.88* .75† .91‡	.46* .395† .46‡ —	.39* .357† .39‡.
Massachusetts {	\$ 50000+	9 40 40 28 28	Aver. Max. Min. Max. Min.	7.83 9.85 8.40 8.55	12.70 15.35 13.95 13.55 11.25	4.00 5.00 4.43 4.26 3.63	2.99 3.90 3.12 3.15 2.65	1.57 1.94* 1.60* 1.68} 1.48†	.97* .75* .82† .70†	.50* .43* .44† .37†	.45* .33* .43† .30†
South Carolina and Florida	+0+00°C	11 11 7	Max. Min. Max. Min.	9.55 8.25 8.00 7.50	14 90 13.60 12.85 11.35	4 80 4 34 3 90 3.63	3.90 3.35 3.20 2.75	1.94‡ 1.74‡ —	1.00‡ .85‡	.50‡ .43‡ —	.35‡
California {	+0+0d° d°	7 9 9	Max. Min. Max. Min.	8.50 8.50 7.25	15.05 13.50 13.27 12.25	4.95 4.45 4.32 3.85	3.50 3.09 3.86 2.47	1 90 1.63 1.67 1 46	_	=	_

 <sup>29</sup> specimens.

<sup>† 19</sup> specimens.

<sup>‡ 5</sup> specimens.

#### 57.\* Sturnella ludoviciana Swainson. Meadow Lark.

Alauda magna Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 167, 1758. — Wilson, Am. Orn., III, 20, pl. xix, 1811.

Sturnus ludovicianus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 290, 1766. — Bonap., Journ. Phil.
 Acad. Nat. Sci., IV, 180, 1824. — NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I, 147, 1832.
 — AUDUBON, Orn. Biog., II, 216, 1834.

Sturnus collaris Wagler, Syst. Avium, I, 1827.

Sturnella ludoviciana Swainson, Fann. Bor. Am., II, 282, 1831.—Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 1838.—Audubon, Synop. Am. Birds, 148, 1839.—Cabanis, Mus. Hein., 192, 1851.—Sclater, Cat. Am. Birds, 139, 1862.—Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 23.

Sturnella magna Swainson, Phil. Mag., I, 436, 1827. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 535, 1858. — Allen, Mem. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 496, 1868.

Sturnella collaris VIEILLOT, Analyse, 1816.

Sturndla hippocrepis Wagler, Isis, 1832, 281.—Lawrence, Ann. N. York Lyceum N. Hist., VII, 266, 1860.—Sclater, Ibis, 1861, 79.—Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 24.

Sturnella neglecta Audubon, Birds of Am., VII, 339, pl. eccelxxxvii, 1843.— Baird, Birds of N. Am., 537, 1858.— Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 23.

Sturnella mexicana Sclater, Ibis, 1861, 79. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 24.

Sturnella meridionalis Sclater, Ibis, 1861, 79. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 24.

## Abundant. Found chiefly in the moister parts of the pineries.

Somewhat smaller than in the Northern States, but in most eases with longer and larger bills, brighter colors, and a quite different song. The latter somewhat resembles that of the western meadow lark, but is still as distinct from it in its general character as it is from that of the New England bird. The present species has a wide geographical range, throughout the greater part of which it is resident. The Alleghanian fanna forms its northern limit, from which it mostly retires during winter. To the southward it extends to Cuba and the other larger West India Islands, throughout most of Central America, and to the elevated parts of Northern South America. It ranges westward over the elevated arid plains of the middle of the continent to the Pacific. As might be expected, it is not quite uniform in its characters at all points. The main differences, however, consist merely in the lighter color of those from the plains, and the smaller size of those from the south. The former constitute the Sturnella neglecta of Audubon and most other writers since his time. In Cuba it is the S. hippocrepis of Wagler and others, and the Mexican and Guatemalan form is the S. mexicana of Sclater, and the South American form the S

meridionalis of the same author. Yet the distinctions between them are trivial, all of these so-called species having been generally looked upon as doubtfully distinct from the S. ludoviciana of the United States, especially the three last named. The S. collaris of Vieillot has very generally been referred by subsequent writers to the S. ludoviciana. The main distinctive feature of the S. neglecta has been its song, — a very doubtful basis on which to found a species. The Florida specimens are intermediate in size and other characters between the Cuban and New England representatives of this species. As already remarked, the song of the Florida birds is as widely different from that of the New England bird as the song of the latter is from that of the western ones. Concerning the affinities of S. neglecta I have already remarked.\* Concerning those of the other supposed species, I may well borrow the appropriate remarks of the late Mr. Cassin, who observes in respect to them, in his "Study of the Icteridae,"† as follows:—

"This bird [Sturnella ludoviciana] is nearly related to the next four species of this genus [S. neglecta, S. hippocrepis, S. mexicana, S. meridionalis, equally in structure and in colors, and it would be difficult to deseribe by positive characters either species of this group, so as to insure recognition absolutely, or without comparative characters being given. . . . . No other genus or sub-genus of this family presents so many species of such uniformity of structure and similarity of color, and there are, assuredly, few such in the kingdom of birds." Under S. neglecta he further remarks in respect to the transition that is so apparent between it and S ludoviciana: "In the central regions of North America it is possible that a hybrid race between the two species may be produced, to be referred with about equal propriety to either." S. hippocrepis, he says, is very nearly related to S. mexicana, "and can searcely be distinguished from it by any characters which seem to be reliable." He thinks it to be somewhat more distinct, however, from S. neglecta. Mr. Lawrence had previously remarked that the S. hippocrepis is somewhat smaller than S. ludoviciana of the United States, and that he "thinks it is specifically distinct"; although he adds, "it would be difficult to point out any reliable differences in coloration, especially of the upper plumage, as individuals even of the same species are very variable." He says, further, that specimens of it from Jalapa, Mexico, differ "only in the pectoral band appearing broader in the Mexican bird, and the tertials much shorter than the primaries, but this last may not be a reliable character." In the

<sup>\*</sup> See Memoirs of the Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 494, 1868.

<sup>†</sup> Proceedings of the Phil. Acad. Nat. Sciences, 1866, p. 23.

<sup>‡</sup> Annals of New York Lyceum of Nat. Hist., Vol. VII, 266, 1860.

following year, however, Mr. Sclater separated the Mexican bird from those of Cuba and the United States, under the name S. mexicana, and also the South American under the name S. meridionalis. Mr. Cassin says of the latter: "Very nearly related to the preceding (S. hippocrepis), if distinct, and I give it, at present, as a species provisionally only. . . . . The colors of the upper parts seem to be less clearly defined, and of a slightly different style and pattern from the preceding, and it may bear about the same relation to that species (S. hippocrepis) that S. neglecta does to S. ludoviciana. Such relation I hold to be rather probable from the specimens now at hand."

Having given the views of the describers of these several "species," I may add that I have seen examples of each, and do not question that they should all be referred to one. As is evident from the above-quoted remarks, these different species gradually pass into each other,—the S. magna into the S. neglecta, the S. neglecta into the S. mexicana, and the S. mexicana into the S. hippocrepis, which is their exact geographical relation.

In regard to the Florida specimens, as compared with New England ones, the most striking differences consist in their smaller size and much brighter colors, especially of the ventral surface.

The following tables of measurements indicate the individual and sexual differences in size, and also the difference in size between specimens from the Northern States and from Florida.

## Measurements of Northern Specimens of Sturnella Ludoviciana.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Al. Ext.	Wing	Tail.
4862	416	3	Newton, Mass.	May 8, '68	C. J. Maynard	10.75	16.59	5.13	3.50
2002	1100	3	Waltham, "	Aug. 6, 68	66	10 20	16.30	4.98	2 90
4863	1134	8	16 16	Aug. 19, '68	6.6	10.25	15.85	4.80	2.92
	2696	ਰ	Newton, "	May 15, '69	44	10.75	16 75	5.00	3 35
	2698	8	66 66	May 15, '69	4.6	11.00	17.00	5 15	3.35
	1700	8	Waltham, "	Aug. 6, 68	4.6	10 20	16.30	4.98	2.90
	4045	3.	Newton, "	Aug. 2, '69	6.6	11 00	17.00	5.00	3 40
	4061		16 66	Aug. 2, '69	44	11.00	16.00	4.80	3.35
	2728	ğ	11 11	May 15, 69	4.6	9.75	-15.00	4.55	2 65
362		+O+O+O+O	Malden, "		D. Higgins	9.25	13.50	4.17	2.50
363		Q			44	9.58	14 00	4.35	2.90
364		1	4.6 (6		4.6	10.50	15.33	4.82	3 11
365		3	66 64		+ 6	10.35	15.65	4.83	3 13
366		8	16 66		( (	10.00	15 05	4.75	3 14
367	_	3	14 44		6.6	10.75	15 50	4.82	8 30
568		300	66 66		. 44	8.90	14.00	4.35	2.60
569		3	4.6 46		6.6	9.50	15.68	5.00	3 05
9764		Ŷ	Evanston, Ill.		O. Marcy	9 25	13 92	4 15	2 82
9765		0+0+	44 66		61	9.75	14.65	4.50	3 10
9766		3	66 66		6.6	10.00	15.50	4.74	3.15
2646		9	Lawn Ridge, "		K. Butler	9 60	14 75	4.55	2 84
4042	_	3	Concord, Mass.		F. C. Brown	10 25	16.00	4.77	2.83
4102		0	66 66			10.33	15.65	4.67	3.08

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Sturnella Ludoviciana.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No	Sex.	Locality.	D	ate.	Collector.	Length.	Al. Ext.	Wing.	Tail.
	2057	3	Jacksonville	Jan.	20, '69	C. J. Maynard	9.55	15.60	4.50	2.85
1	2817	3	Dommitt's	May	15, 69	66	10.20	15 10	4.50	3 20
	2816	3	4.6	May	15, '69	44	10 00	15.15	4 60	2 95
5335		3	Enterprise	Mar.	4, 69	J. A. Allen	9.75	14 75	4.50	
5336	_	3	"	Mar.	4, 69		9.85	15.20	4.40	2.89
5337		3	46	Mar.	4, '69	4.4	9.70	14.80	4 45	2 82
5368		3	Hawkinsville	Mar.	12, 69	6.6	9 75	15.00	4 50	3.05
5339	_	3	6.6	Mar.	12, '69	6.6	9.50	14.75	4.25	4.83
5371			44	Mar.	12, 69	4.6	10.00	15 75	4.50	3.07
-		g	Volusia	Mar.	17, '69	6.6	8.75	13.75	4.05	-
5370		Ô	Hawkinsville	Mar.	12, 69		8.90	14 15	4.10	2.65
5372		Ó	4.6	Mar.	12, 69	44	9.50	14 65	4.20	2.90
5125		Ō	Jacksonville	Jan,	19, 69	44	8.75	14.25	4.20	2.70
	2072	ō	4.4	Jan.	20, 69	C. J. Maynard	8.75	14 00	4.40	2.50
	2070	0+0+0+0+0+0+	4.6	Jan.	20, 69	6.	8.50	13 55	3.90	2.55
	2070	o o	6.6	Jan.	20, 69	66	8.75	13 00	4 (10)	2.55
	2068		6.6	Jan.	20, 69	44	9.25	14 75	4 50	2.80
	2069	Ō		Jan.	20, '69	4.6	8.76	14 25	4 20	2 40
	2071	0+0+0+0+0	44	Jan.	20, 69	44	9 00	14.00	4 30	2 80
-	2051	Q	6.6	Jan.	20, 69	4.6	9.50	14.75	4.65	2.50
	2791	Q.	6.6	Apr.	15, '69		9 05	14 00	4 10	2.58

The following is a tabulated summary of the two preceding tables: —

No. of Speci- mens.	Sex.	Locality.		Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
15	-	Northern States	Average	10.43	16.30	4.91	3 16
8	Q	6.6	Average	9.55	14 43	4 29	2.82
8 15	ð	4.6	Maximum	11.00	17.00	5.15	3 50
15	3	6.6	Minimum	10.00	15.05	4 74	2.83
8	Ŷ	4.4	Maximum	9.75	15.65	4.55	3.10
8 9 12	Ģ	4.6	Minimum	8.90	13.50	4.15	2.50
9	ď	Florida	Average	9.81	15 70	4.47	2.85
12	Ŷ	"	Average	8.93	14.09	4 22	2 57
9	ď	4.5	Maximum	10.20	15.75	4.60	3.20
9	00	44	Minimum	9 50	14.75	4.25	2.82
9 9 12	Q	4.4	Maximum	9.50	14.75	4 65	2.90
12	Ŷ	4.4	Minimum	8.50	13.00	3.90	2.40

## 58.† Scolecophagus ferrugineus Swainson. Rusty Grackle.

Abundant. Occasionally met with in large flocks.

## 59.\* Quiscalus purpureus Cassin. Purple Grackle.

Gracula quiscula Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 165, 1766. — Wilson, Am. Orn., III, 44, pl. xxi, fig. 4, 1811.

Gracula barita Linné, Syst. Nat., 165, 1766. — Ord, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., I, 253, 1818.

Gracula purpurea Bartram, Travels, 289, 1791. (No description.)

? Oriolus ludovicianus GMELIN, Syst. Nat., 387, 1788.

Quiscalus baritus VIEILLOT, Nouv. Dict., XXVIII, 487, 1819. — BAIRD, Birds North Amer., 556, pl. xxvii, 1858. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 405.

Quiscalus versicolor Vieillot, Nonv. Dict., XXVIII 488, 1819. — Bonaparte, Swainson, Nuttall, Audubon, Baird.

Quiscalus purpureus Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 403.—Riddway, Ibid., 1869, 133.

Quiscalus purpuratus Swain., Lardner's Cab. Cyclop., 299, 1838 (female).

? Quiscalus lugubris Swain., Lardner's Cab. Cyclop., 299, 1838.—? Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 408.

Quiscalus inflexirostris Swain., Lardner's Cab. Cyclop., 300, 1838. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 407.

Quiscalus crassirostris Swain., Lardner's Cab. Cyclop., 355, 1838. — Gosse, Birds of Jamaica, 217, 1847.

Quiscalus aglieus Baird, Amer. Journ. Sci. and Arts, XLI, 87, 1866. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 404. — Ridgway, Ibid., 1869, 135.

Quiscalus aneus RIDGWAY, Ibid., 134.

Quiscalus mexicanus Cassin, Ibid., 1866, 408.

Quiscalus Gundlachii Cassin, Ibid., 406.

Quiscalus brachypterus Cassin, Ibid., 406.

Quiscalus niger Cassin, Ibid., 407.

? Quiscalus rectirostris Cassin, Ibid., 409.

Chalcophanes quiscalus Wagler, Syst. Avium, 1827. — Cabanis, Mus. Hein., 197, 1851.

Chalcophanes baritus Wagler, Syst. Avium, 1827. — Cabanis, Mus. Hein., 197, 1851

Very abundant everywhere. Flocks containing many hundreds were frequently met with.

As already remarked in Part III, few species present such marked climatic variations as the present, or better illustrate the three principal laws of geographical variation already enumerated; namely, a decrease in general size from the north southward, and at the same time an increase in the length and slenderness of the bill, and an increase in the intensity and brilliancy of the color of the plumage. Far to the north, as in Labrador, the colder parts of Canada, and Northern New England, the bill is shortest and thickest, the size of the bird at its maximum, and the colors of the plumage least brilliant, with the metallic reflections of a light tint, tending to green rather than to blue. In Southern New Jersey the change from the northern type is already considerable; even between summer specimens from Calais (Maine) and Eastern Massachusetts there is an appreciable difference. In the lowlands of South Carolina and Georgia the divergence from the northern type is still greater, and it goes on rapidly increasing in Florida, especially in South Florida, the maximum of divergence from the northern type being attained in the West Indies. In East Florida, while the general size of the bird is less than in New England, the bill is considerably longer, much slenderer and much more decurved, as is shown by the accompanying figures (Plate VII). The

change in color is equally marked. Not only do the reflections become much darker at the south, but form prismatic bars across the interscapularies and the feathers of the rump, especially in the South Atlantic States. In South Florida and the West Indies these prismatic bars, in some specimens at least, seem to lose their distinctness, evidently through the continued darkening or increased intensity of the general color. The difference in size between Florida and Massachusetts specimens is considerable, especially between those from South Florida and Massachusetts. Those from the West Indies are still smaller; and in comparing specimens of these with others from Northern New England, the difference is so striking that it seems impossible at first to believe that both can belong to the same species, yet a gradual transition between the two, through the individuals inhabiting the intermediate region, fully proves it. Even between-Florida and New England specimens the difference is so great that, were there no transition from one to the other, the two extremes might well be regarded as not only valid species, but as well-marked ones. Being familiar with the so-called Quiscalus aglæus before visiting Florida, through specimens in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy from Cape Florida, I had no doubt that it was a species distinct from the Q. purpureus. But a subsequent study of these birds in Florida, and an examination of specimens from various points between Florida and Northern Maine, and also from the West Indies, has forced me to the conclusions indicated in the above table of synonymes.

The purple grackles of the Mississippi Valley have recently been separated as specifically distinct from those of the Atlantic States, under the name Q. eneus, Q. purpureus being retained for the latter. The range of Q. purpureus is given as "Atlantic and Gulf? States, north to Nova Scotia, west to the Alleghanies." The New England type, however, is entirely referable to the Q. eneus, as defined by its describer. The same writer also follows some of his predecessors in separating those of South Florida from the Q. purpureus, under the name of Q. agleus. But Cape Florida specimens differ but little — being, in fact, scarcely distinguishable except in size — from those from the St. John's River.

Mr. Cassin, in one of his latest papers,\* took fhe ground that each of the larger West India Islands has a distinct species of this group, peculiar to itself. That these forms, many of them evidently difficult of recognition, should be distinct species is quite contrary to general principles. These islands are generally separated by a distance of rarely more than a hundred miles; yet a near ally of these "species," the Q. purpureus (or Q. aneus as recently restricted), is admitted to range from the Gulf of Mexico

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;A Second Study of the Icteridæ," Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, pp. 403 - 417.

to the arctic regions, so that those that breed farthest north make annually a journey of fully a thousand miles to reach their breeding-grounds. As I have already observed, individuals of species possessing a very northern habitat usually present a great uniformity of character, while those of species ranging farther to the southward are more variable; also that within the warm-temperate and tropical latitudes, islands but slightly separated from each other or the mainland, and peninsulas which, like Florida, are almost insular in their geographical relations, present each peculiar modifications of species ranging throughout not only all of them, but portions of the adjoining continents, which render the individuals from these different localities more or less readily distinguishable. This results partly, doubtless, from the isolation of these different districts, partly from the more sedentary habits of birds in warm countries, as compared with those of cold latitudes, and partly from the greater tendency to variation in species inhabiting tropical and sub-tropical countries.

In the subjoined tables measurements are given of thirteen males and eight females from the Northern States, and of twenty-three males and seven females from Florida, of which the following is a tabulated summary:—

No. of Speci- mens.	Sex.	Locality.		Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
13	2	Northern States	Average	12.63	17.73	5.66	5.30
8	Ö	4.6	Average	11.45	15.76	4.94	4.49
13	7	64	Maximum	13.50	18.43	6.05	6.00
13	2		Minimum	12.00	17.00	5.20	4.58
8	) Q	"	Maximum	12.05	16.30	5.20	4.85
8	Ý	4.6	Minimum	10.90	15.38	4.60	4.10
23	ति	Florida	Average	12.19	16.64	5.42	5.22
7	9	"	Average	11.12	14 86	4.75	4 55
23	3	4.6	Maximum	13 00	17.80	5.75	5.50
23	ਰੈ	66	Minimum	11.00	15.25	5.00	4.55
7	9	44	Maximum	11.75	16 75	5.00	4.77
7	1 0		Minimum	10.25	13.75	4.50	4.45

Measurements of Northern Specimens of Quiscalus purpureus.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
1234		ਨੀ	Red River, B. A.		S. H. Scudder	12.50	17.50	5.65	5.68
_	187	18	Watertown, Mass.	Apr. 3, 68	C. J. Maynard	12.50	17.80	5.77	5.20
	186	3	44 44	Apr. 3, 68	66	12.45	18 25	5.85	5.30
	185	3	46 46	Apr. 3, 68	66	12 80	17.53	5.57	5.43
		8	11 11	Mar. 28, 68	6.6	12.80	18.10	5.86	5.50
I —	3097	3	Ipswich, "	Aug. 28, '69	4.4	13.10	18 00	5.85	5 60
9768	-	8	Evanston, Ill.		O. Marcy	12.40	17.75	5.62	5.07
9770		3	66 ' 46		"	12.25	17.05	5.42	4.87
2643	_	8	Lawn Ridge, "		K. Butler	12.50	17.25	5.60	5.20
1401		3	"		6.6	13.50	18.43	6.05	6.00
1871	-	3	Springfield, Mass.	July 29, '62	J. A. Allen	12.48	17.25	5.50	5.00
1874		3	11	July 29, '62	4.6	12.12	17.00	5.20	4.58
2574		3	64 66	July 29, '62		12.77	17.50	5.68	5.50
1602		0+0+0+	46 46	July 12, 62	44	11 47	15.75	5.00	4.37
1873		9	66 66	July 29, 62		10.90	15 45	4.75	4.10
9769		2	Evanston, Ill.		O. Marcy	11 30	15 38	4.60	4.25
9767	_	Ŷ	11 ' 11		44	11.48	15 67	4.95	4 40
9598	_	3	Waterville, Me.		C. E. Hamlin	11 50	16.00	5.00	4.65
2284			16 16	May 3, 62		11.40	16.00	4.98	4.46
2271		9	11 11	June 9, '62	6.6	12.05	16.30	5.20	4.85
2501		9	Lynn, Mass.		S. Jillson	11.50	15.50	5.05	4.85

Measurements	of Florida	Specimens	of Quiscalus	PURPUREUS.
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M C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex	Locality.	Date		Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
Z	2583 23449 2470 2471 10335* 10336* 10340* 10341* 10342*	andadadadadadadadadada	Locality.  Welaka  Hawkinsville  ""  Enterprise  ""  Cape Florida  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""	Feb. 6 Feb. 18 Feb. 18 Feb. 18 Feb. 18 Feb. 20 Mar. 5 Mar. 5 Mar. 5 Mar. 5 Mar. 5 Mar. 22 Mar. 10 Apr. 10 Apr. 12 Apr. 15 Apr. 15 Apr. 22 Apr. 22 Apr. 29 Mar. 9	, '69 , '88 , '58 , '58 , '58 , '58 , '58 , '58	J. A. Allen  ""  ""  ""  ""  C. J. Maynard  ""  ""  G. Wurdemann  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""  ""	12.75 12.40 12.80 11.75 13.00 11.50 12.85 12.37 12.37 12.40 11.50 11.50 11.50 11.50 11.75 11.50 12.60 12.60 11.75 11.50 12.00 11.75	17.80 16.87 17.10 17.00 17.60 16.75 16.87 17.38 16.60 17.50 17.50 17.50 16.75 16.25	5.65 5.50 5.50 5.50 5.50 5.50 5.50 5.50	5.20 5.00 5.37 4.87 5.40 — 5.25 5.25 5.25 5.50 5.50 5.55 5.12 5.00 5.50 5.00 5.00
10601 5263 6853	2342 2344 2468 ————————————————————————————————————	O+O+C+O+O+O+O	Hawkinsville Cape Florida	Apr. 22, Apr. 22	169 169 169	J. A. Allen G. Wurdemann	11.50 11.00 11.50 11.45 11.00 11.12 10.25	15.50 15.50 16.00 15.25 14.50 14.50 13.75	5.00 5.00 4.50 4.85 4.50 4.75 4.75	4.77 4.40 4.60 4.55 4.45

The specimens from Cape Florida are considerably smaller than those from the St. John's River; but the same difference occurs in other species between specimens from these two localities. The Cape Florida specimens of *Quiscalus purpureus* differ from others from North Florida also in having a relatively longer, slenderer, and more decurved bill, but not appreciably in color.

#### 60.\* Quiscalus major Vieillot. BOAT-TAILED GRACKLE.

Abundant. Particularly numerons along the St. John's River. According to Dr. Bryant they breed about the first of April. He says that about Lake Monroe some of the birds, as late as the 6th of April, had not commenced laying, "though the majority had hatched, and the young of others were almost fledged." † He notes also their sandpiperlike habit of running along the edge of the water. At Lake Dexter I observed great numbers of them walking on the floating aquatic plants.

The females of this species present very singular variations in color. Of four specimens collected at Lake Dexter, in March, one is pale ashy-

<sup>\*</sup> Smith. Inst. No. Copied from Baird's Birds of North America, p. 557.

<sup>†</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VII, p. 9, January, 1859.

brown below, on the throat and breast nearly white, and dull dusky-brown above; while another is deep reddish-brown below and proportionally darke, above, and the others are intermediate to these.

Between the two extremes there is more difference than usually obtains between valid congeneric species. The series of twenty-four males, on the other hand, are quite uniform in color, there being only a slight difference in its intensity and in the prevailing tint of the iridescence.\*

The average dimensions of the thirty-three specimens of which measurements are given below are as follows:

Length (males): 16.51; alar extent, 22.48; wing, 7.19; tail, 7.00.

Length (females): 12.95; alar extent, 17.94; wing, 5.67; tail, 5.11.

The individual variation is as follows.

Males, length, 15.50 to 16.80; alar extent, 21.10 to 23.50; wing, 6.25 to 8.35; tail, 6.25 to 7.60.

Females, length, 12.10 to 13.40; alar extent, 17.25 to 18.25; wing, 5.25 to 5.95; tail, 4.75 to 5.69.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Quiscalus Major.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	D	ate.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5272		3	Blue Springs	Feb.	21, '69	J A. Allen	16.00	22.15	7 25	6.80
5252		3	Enterprise	Mar.	1. 69	6.6	16.25	22.50	7.15	7 15
5283		8	"	Feb.	22. '69	66	16.25	21.75	7.15	7.10
5332		3	6.6	Mar.	4. '69	- 66	15.50	22.00	6.85	6.70
5333		3	6.6	Mar.	4. '69	4.6	15 75	22.30	7.20	6.85
5334		3	4.6	Mar	4, '69	4.6	15 60	21.85	7.00	
5407		3	Hawkinsville	Mar.	15, '69	66	16 00	23 00	7.00	7.00
5243		3	4.6	Feb.	18, '69	44	15 75	22.25	7.30	
5408		13	4.6	Mar.	15, 69	44	16 50	22 50	7.30	7.15
5244		8	4.6	Feb.	18, 69	44	17 30	23.50	7.80	
5409		3	4.6	Mar.	15, 69	44	16 00	22 75	7 15	7.00
5410		3	4.4	Mar.	15, '69		16 00	22.75	7.20 7.50	6 90
5411		d*	4.6	Mar.	15, '69	44	16 35	22.50	7.50	- 40
-		3	6.6	Mar.	15, '69		16 50	23 25	7.25	7.40
	2408	3	Dummitt's	Feb.	19, 69	C. J. Maynard	16 50	23 00	7 40	7.10
10607	2405	3	6.6	Feb.	19, '69	44	16.75	23.50	7.50	7.25
	2406	ď	6.6	Feb.	19, 69		17 50	23.00	8.35	7.60
l —	2345	3	6.6	Mar.	17, 169	46	16.00	21 10	6 75	6.60
10610	2585	3	66	Mar.	9, 169		16.90	23 00	7.70	7.50
	2409	8	1	Mar.	9; 169	44	16.25	22 00	7 00	7.20
I —	2586	3	6.6	Mar.	9, 169		16 75	22.00	7.00 6.90	7.00
	2399	3		Mar.	9, '69		15.75	22.00	7.25	7.00 6.75
	2431	3	66	Mar.	9, 169	.6	16.00	22.25 20.75	6.50	6.50
	2404	8	46	Mar	9, 169	- 44	16.17	22 30	6.25	6 25
1000	2345	400	46	Feb.	16, '69		16.50 13.00	17.50	5.85	5.60
10609	2563	1 4		Mar.	9, 169		13.00	18.25	5.80	5 00
-	2313	¥	46	Mar.	9, 169		13.00	18.25	5.95	5.25
	2464	l ¥	1	Mar.	9, '69	J. A. Allen	13.00	18.25	5.85	4.75
5290		0+0+0+0+0+0+0+0	Enterprise	Feb.	25, 169	J. A. Allen	12.75	17.50	5.50	5.00
5331	_	X		Mar.	4, '69 23, '69	66	13.00	18.05	5 60	5 20
5412		I X	Lake Dexter	Mar.	23, 169	6.6	12 10	17.25	5.25	5.00
5413		1 X	11	Mar.	23, 69	6.	12 50	17.60	5.45	0.00
5414		¥		MIRC.	20, 09		12 00	17.00	0.40	

<sup>\*</sup> For a very full biography of this species, see an article by Dr. Elliott Coues in the Ibis. Vol. VI, pp. 367-378, 1870.

The present species is hence not only remarkable for variation in size between specimens of the same sex, but especially so for its sexual variation in size, the sexual difference in this respect being greater than in any other species of insessorial bird with which I am acquainted, and it is rarely, if ever, exceeded in any group.

#### CORVIDÆ.

#### 61.\* Corvus americanus Audubon. Common Crow.

Corvus corone Wilson, Am. Orn., IV, 79, pl. xxv, fig. 3, 1811. — NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I, 209, 1832.

Corvus americanus Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 317, 1834. — Baird, Birds N. Am., 566, 1858.

Corvus americanus var. floridanus BAIRD, Ibid., 568, 1858.

Corvus minimus Gundlach, Cabanis's Journal für Ornithologie, IV, 97, 1856.

### Everywhere abundant.

In the average, while the general size of Florida specimens is smaller than New England ones, the bill is somewhat larger. As is well known, the crow is exceedingly variable in the size and shape of its bill even in specimens collected from the same flock. There is, however, an appreciable average difference in the size of the bill, as in general size, between northern and southern examples. This was some time since observed by Professor Baird in comparing a single specimen from the southern point of the Florida peninsula with others from the Northern States, and so strongly was he impressed by it that he thought if his Florida specimen did not represent a distinct species, it did at least a distinct variety, and as such he characterized it, calling it Corvus americanus var. floridanus. He at the same time referred to the little crow of Cuba, described by Dr. Gundlach as Corvus minutus, to which he said it was more nearly allied than either are to C. americanus. I have no examples of the latter, but from descriptions of it see no reason why it should be regarded as other than the extreme southern form of C. americanus.

## 62.\* Corvus ossifragus Wilson. Fism Crow.

Abundant. Perhaps rather more numerous than the common crow.

## 63.\* Cyanurus cristatus Swainson. Blue JAY.

Very abundant and unsuspicious. It frequents the towns, where it seems half domestic.

The same difference occurs in this species between Florida and northern specimens in size and shape of bill as has been already pointed out in

respect to Corvus americanus, but it is far less marked than in Agelæus phæniceus, Quiscalus purpureus, and Sturnella ludoviciana. The brilliancy of its colors seems not much greater than in New England specimens.

The difference in size between northern and southern specimens is as follows: Average of eighteen Massachusetts specimens (eleven males and seven females): Length, 11.71; alar extent, 16.87; wing, 5.13; tail, 4.89. Average of eleven Florida specimens (proportion of males and females nearly the same as in the previous case): Length, 10.98; alar extent, 15.11; wing, 4.75; tail, 5.00. The maxima and minima of the eleven males from Massachusetts are as follows: Length, 12.25 and 11.35; alar extent, 17.50 and 16.30; wing, 5.50 and 5.00; tail, 5.65 and 4.25.

## Measurements of Specimens of Cyanura Cristata.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
	34	8	Newton, Mas		C. J Maynard	11.62	16.30	5.32	5 06
_	90	3	66 66	Feb. 5, '68	44	11.35	17.00	5.00	4.78
_	94	3	" "	Feb. 8, 68		12 00	17.00	5.00	5.00
I —	93	0	4 11	Feb. 8, '68	44	11.55	17.20	5.25	4.80
_		0	11	Feb. 21, '68	44	12 00	16.80	5.00	5.00
_	687	o <sup>3</sup>		May 28, '68	- "	12.16 12.25	17 00 17 25	5.45	5.40
10000	1667	o d		E. L. 05 150	l .	12.25		5.65	5 65
12393 12392	_	੍ਹੇ	Springfield, "	Feb. 25, '70 Feb. 25, '70	Irving Allen	11.50	17.20 17.00	5.15	5.15 5.10
12352	_	0	4. (1	Feb. 25, 70		12.00	17.00	5.00	4 25
12385	_	0	66 66	Feb. 25, 70	64	12.00	17.50	5.50	5.40
12389	_	8	44 44	Feb. 25, '70	4.6	12.00	17 00	4.40	4.45
12392	_	18		Feb. 25, 70	4.4	11 00	16 50	4.33	4 80
12391	_	*0-0+0+0+0+0+0+0+0+	44 44	Feb. 25, '70	66	11 00	17.00	5 25	4 75
12386		1 0	61 66	Feb. 25, '70	14	11.50	17 00	5.50	5.15
	33	,	Newton, "	Oct. 25, 67	C J. Maynard	11.40	16.32	5 30	5 30
4875	688	Į į	"	May 28, '68	41	11.62	16 53	4 75	4.77
	1685	ΙŞ		Nov. 4, '65	: 4	11.75	16 00	5.20	4.35
10733	1951	3	Jacksonville, Fl	. Jan. 2, '69		11.15	16.00	5.00	5.00
10734	1973	2000	44 44	Jan. 3, '69	14	11.00	15 50	4.80	4 80
10731	1974	Ŷ	6, 66	Jan. 3, '69	6.6	11 00	14.75	4.00	4.80
5522	_	?	Blue Springs, "	Feb. 21, '69	J. A. Allen	10.75	15.75	4 20	_
5128	_	?	Jacksonville, "	Jan 21, '69	4.6	10.75	15.50	4 70	5.12
5190	_	3	Welaka, "	Feb 3, '69	14	10.70	15.60	5.10	5.10
	-	3	Enterprise, "	Mar. 1, '69	"	11.00	15 75	5 00	- 1
	_	?		Mar. 4, 69	44	10 70	15.15	4 50	- 05
5348	-	2		Mar 4, 69	**	11.00	16.00	5.00	5.05
5162	_	1 ?	Hibernia,	Jan 30, 69	44	11.25	15 75	5.00	5.15
5163	_	?	**	Jan. 30, '69	**	11.50	15 50	5.00	

#### 64.\* Cyanocitta floridana Bonaparte. FLORIDA JAY.

Corvus floridanus Bartram, Travels, 291, 1791. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 444, pl. lxxxvii, 1831.

Garrulus floridanus Bonap., Am. Orn., II, 11, pl. 1x, 1828.

Garrulus carulescens Ord, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., I, 347, 1818.

Garrulus californicus Vigors, Zoöl. Beechey's Voyage, 21, pl. v. 1839.

Cyanocitta floridana Bonap., Consp. Gen. Avium, 377, 1850.

Cyanocitta superciliosa Strickland, Ann. & Mag. Nat. Hist., XV, 260, 1845.

Cyanocitta californica STRICKLAND, Ibid., 342.

Cyanocitta Woodhousei BAIRD, Birds N. Am., 585, 1858.

Numerous in the scrub, but does not appear to frequent the pine woods the hummocks or swamps. I saw none along the St. John's, except at Blue Springs, but they occur in numbers a few miles back from the river.

On comparing a number of specimens of the so-called Cyanocitta californica with numerous others from Florida, I find, as previous writers have observed, that the differences between them are very slight, and not so great as obtain between Florida and New England specimens of Pipilo erythrophthalmus, Agetæus phæniceus, and other species where there is no reason to question their specific identity. The so-called C. Woodhousei is described as, and is, intermediate in character between C. floridana and C. californica. The habitat of C. Woodhousei is also intermediate between those of the other two, but adjoins that of C. californica, to which it is most nearly allied. How great the interval is between the habitats of C. floridana and C. Woodhousei I have not been able to accurately determine. Bonaparte \* reported the former as being found in Louisiana and northward to Kentucky, and the latter occurs in Western Texas.

In the following measurements of twelve specimens of this species (six males and six females) the extremes are as follows: Length, 11.00 and 12.50 (both specimens being females); alar extent, 13.50 (female) and 15.00 (male); wing, 4.00 and 4.75 (both specimens females); tail, 4.25 and 5.35 (both specimens females). The average dimensions of these specimens are as follows: Length, 11.74; alar extent, 14.44; wing, 4.42; tail, 4.80. The females average slightly smaller than the males.

Measurements	of Florida	Specimens	of CYANOCITTA	FLORIDANA.
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M. C. Z.	Coll.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
10739	2480	3	Dummitt's	Feb. 22, '69	C. J. Maynard	11.50	14.50	4.30	4.35
	2377	3	4.6	Feb. 22, '69	46	12.00	15.00	4.45	4.75
	2421	3	6.6	Feb. 15, '69	4.6	12 00	15.00	4.75	5.00
10736	2326	3	6.6	Feb. 15, '69	66	12.00	14 50	4.50	4.60
	2329	3	4.4	Feb. 15, '69	4.6	11.50	14.25	4.50	4.25
	2379	Q	4.6	Feb. 22, '69	66	11.50	14.25	4.50	5.35
10737	2328	ġ	6.6	Feb. 15, *69		12.50	14.50	4 75	4.90
	2378	Ŷ	4.6	Feb. 15, '69	4.6	11.50	14.10	4.30	5.15
	2375	Ò	66	Feb. 15, '69		11 60	14 40	4.60	4.25
5271		Ý	4.6	Feb. 21, '69	J. A. Allen	11 00	13 50	4.00	5.35
5272		3	4.6	Feb. 21, '69	4.6	12.00	14.50	4.30	4.75
5523		-	6.6	Feb. 21, '69	4.6	11.75	14.80	4.20	_

#### TYRANIDÆ.

#### 65.† Sayornis fuscus Baird. Pewee.

Abundant all winter, and a few remain till into April.

The king-bird (Tyrannus carolinensis), the great-crested flycatcher (Myiarchus crinitus), and the wood pewee (Contopus virens) became

common the last week in March, as also, according to Mr. Boardman, the least flycatcher (*Empidonax minimus*).

Several specimens of the gray king-bird (*Tyrannus dominicensis*) were obtained by Mr. L. L. Thaxter at St. Augustine, about the first of May.

#### ALCEDINIDÆ.

## 66.\* Ceryle alcyon Boie. Kingfisher.

Abundant. As shy and distrustful here as in the more thickly settled parts of the country. Begins to breed very early. Mr. Maynard saw them forming their holes in the coquina rock, in the banks of the canal connecting Indian River with Mosquito Lagoon, the first week in February.

#### CAPRIMULGIDÆ.

## 67.\* Antrostomus carolinensis Gould. Chuckwill's Widow.

Abundant. Not observed till about the first of blarch, when its notes are usually first heard. Said by Audubon to be resident; which statement is confirmed by the testimony of old residents of the State.

## 68.\* Antrostomus vociferus Bonaparte. Whippoorwill.

Apparently not numerous in winter. I heard it once in February, and Mr. Maynard took it at Dummitt's in the same month. The inhabitants along the St. John's agree with Audubon that this species is also a winter resident.

The night hawk (Chordeiles popetue \* Baird) was collected at Jacksonville by Mr. Thurston as early as April 20th

\* Caprimulgus virginianus Brisson, Orn., II, 477 (in part).

Caprimulgus popetue Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 56, pl. liv, 1807.

Caprimulgus americanus Wilson, Am. Orn., V, 65, pl. exl, 1812.

Caprimulgus ( Chordeiles) virginianus Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 62, 1831.

Chordeiles virginianus Bon., Geog. & Comp. List, 8, 1838. — Gosse, Birds of Jamaica, 33, 1847.

Chordeiles sapiti Bonap., Consp. Gen. Avium, I, 63, 1849. — Cassin, Ill. N. Am. Birds, 238, 1855.

Chordeiles brasilianus LAWR., Ann. N. Y. Lyceum Nat. Hist., V, 114, 1851.

Chordeiles Henryi Cassin, Ill. N. Am. Birds, 239. - Baird, Birds N. Am., 153.

Chordeiles Gundlachii LAWR., Ann. N. Y. Lyc. Nat. Hist., VI, 167, 1856.

Chordeiles texensis LAWR., Ibid., 165. - BAIRD, Birds N. Am., 154.

Chordeiles minor Cabanis, Journ. für Orn., 5, 1856.

Chordeiles popetue BAIRD, Birds N. Am., 151.

This widely distributed species presents only the usual variations in size and color

#### CYPSELIDÆ.

The chimney swift (*Chætura pelasgia*) arrives about the last week in March. It was common at Jacksonville, April 1st.

#### TROCHILIDÆ.

The ruby-throated humming-bird (*Trochilus colubris*) became common about March 1st. Some probably spend the winter in South Florida.

#### PICIDÆ.

## 69.\* Campephilus principalis Gray. IVORY-BILLED WOODPECKER.

Picus principalis Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 173, 1767.

Campephilus principalis GRAY, Genera of Birds, 1840.

Campephilus Bairdii Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1863, 322. (West Indian form.)

Rather rare; at least far less numerous than most of the other species of woodpecker.

With only Florida specimens of this species before me, I am unable to give comparisons between them and specimens from other localities. According to the late Mr. Cassin, those found in Cuba differ from those of the Southern States, in being smaller, as would be expected, with very slight deviations in color-markings. He has, however, given to the Cuba race the name of Campephilus Bairdii, remarking that it appears to be "one of those singular insular species which have become well known to naturalists."

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Camperhilus Principalis.

M. C. Z. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5221	3	Volusia.	Feb. 12, '69	J. A. Allen	20.00	32.25	10.40	6.90
5222	त	4.4	Feb. 12, '69	66	19.50	32 50	10.25	6.90
5229	Ŷ	64	Feb. 12, 69	6.6	19.30	31.50	10.60	6.85
5354	d.	Enterprise	Mar. 5, 69	6.6	19.25	30.50	9,70	6.40
5399	1 0	Hawkinsville	Mar. 15, '69	6.6	19.50	31.50	10.25	6.75

seen in other species of our birds. Yet these variations have in the present case been mistaken as indicating numerous species. The southern representatives of it are appreciably smaller than the northern, and have the white markings on the wings more restricted, — variations that have already been pointed out in this paper as occurring in numerous others similarly distributed. Those from the central arid region of the continent are also lighter in general color than those from the eastern or western portions; also a common color variation in other species. The latter type forms the so-called Chordeiles Henryi; the southern ones have been variously characterized as C. sapiti, C. texensis, C. Gundlachii, etc., as indicated in the above-cited synonymes.

### 70.\* Hylotomus pileatus Baird. PILEATED WOODPECKER.

Abundant. Much smaller than at the north, but not otherwise appreciably different.

The average dimensions of fourteen Florida specimens (seven males and seven females) are as follows:—

Males, length, 17.48; alar extent, 28.07; wing, 9.21; tail, 6.82.

Females, length, 16.44; alar extent, 26.80; wing, 8.98; tail, 6.54.

The individual variation is as follows: -

Males, length, 17.25 to 17.75; alar extent, 27.50 to 28.50; wing, 9.00 to 9.50; tail, 6.20 to 6.75.

Females, length, 15.50 to 16.80; alar extent, 26.00 to 27.75; wing, 8.50 to 9.50; tail, 5.85 to 6.80.

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Hylotomus Pileatus.

M.C.Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5118		3	Hibernia	Jan. 30, *69	J. A. Allen	17.75	28.25	9.20	6.65
5203	_	3	Welaka	Feb. 7, '69	o. A. Atlen	17.25	28.00	9 00	6 50
5215		03	11 CIAKA	Feb. 10, '69		17.50	28.50	9.25	6.75
0210			Hawkinsville		66	17.25	27.50	9.50	
_		3							
	1937	ਰ	Jacksonville		C. J. Maynard	17.75	28.50	9.50	6.40
	2076	3	64	Jan. —, '69		17.25	27.75	9.00	6.20
	2543	ਰੋ	Dummitt's	Feb. 15, '69	66	17.60	28.00	9.00	6.45
	2334	Ŷ	6.6	Mar. 11, '69	6.6	15 50	26 40	8.70	5.85
	2602	Ŷ	6.6	Mar. 5, 69	44	16.60	27.75	9 00	6.75
5204		Į į	Welaka	Feb. 7, 69	J. A. Allen	16.75	26 25	8.50	6 75
5214		\$	11	Feb. 10, '69	66	16.35	26.75	9.15	6.60
5216		Į į	6.6	Feb. 10, '69	66	16.30	27.25	9.00	6.80
		1 X	1		66				
5274		2	Blue Springs			16 75	27 20	9 50	6.50
	_	1 4	[Hawkinsville]	Mar. 10, '69		16.80	26.00	9.00	

#### 71.\* Picus villosus Linné. HAIRY WOODPECKER.

Picus villosus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 175, 1767. — Forster, Philosoph. Transact., LXII, 383, 1772. — Wilson, Am. Orn., I, 150, pl. ix, fig. 3, 1808. — Audunon, Orn. Biog., V, 164, pl. ccccxvii, 1837. (Northern form.)

Picus leucomelanus Wagler, Syst. Av., No. 18, 1827. (Immature male.)

Picus Auduboni Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 306, 1831. (Immature male.)

— TRUDEAU, Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 404, 1837. (Immature male). — AUDUBON, Orn. Biog., V, 194, 1839. (Same as the last.)

Picus Martinæ Audunon, Ibid., 181, pl. eccexvii. (Very immature.)

Picus Phillpsii Audunon, Ibid., 186, pl. cecexvii. (Immature.)

Picus Harrisii Audubon, Ibid., 191, same plate. (Northwestern form.) — Baird, Birds N. Am., 87.

Picus septentrionalis NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I (2d Ed.), 685, 1840.

Picus rubricapillus NUTTALL, Ibid., 684. (Immature male.)

Picus Cuvieri Malmerbe, Mon. Picidæ, I, 85, pl. xxii, fig. 3. (Young female.)

Picus Jardinei Malherbe, Ibid., I, 85, pl. xxv, fig. 4, 5.—Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1863, 201.

Not numerous in Florida in comparison with the other species of Picidx.

The difference in size between northern and southern specimens of all the species of the *Picidæ* is greater than obtains in most other families of birds. So great is it in Picus villosus and Picus pubescens that it was in these species that such variations were first noticed. This difference is well pointed out by Professor Baird in his work on the North American Birds, and fully demonstrated in his table of measurements. On this ground he distinguished three varieties of P. villosus, — P. villosus major, occupying the northern and western portions of the continent; P. villosus medius, occupying the Middle States; and P. villosus minor, occupying the Southern States. Audubon regarded the two former as distinct species. In addition to these variations in size, my Florida specimens indicate a well-marked variation in color between the northern and extreme southern races, the Florida specimens differing from New England ones in having the white markings of relatively less extent, which gives to the plumage a considerably darker aspect. Through this variation there is an approach in the Florida examples of P. villosus to the so-called P. Harrisii of the Pacific coast and Rocky Mountain regions of the continent, and in the Florida examples of P. pubescens to the so-ealled P. Gairdneri, also of the middle and western regions of the continent. These, as is well known, differ respectively from P. villosus and P. pubescens almost solely in a general darker aspect, resulting simply from the relatively greater predominance of the black color of the plumage over the white markings in the western type; there being no change whatever in the general style of coloration, though some of the smaller white spots seen in the eastern are entirely obsolete in the western type. Under Picus Gairdneri Professor Baird thus describes these variations. "There is," he says, "the same series in specimens of Picus Gairdneri that were indicated under P. Harrisii. Thus the most northern from Washington Territory and Oregon have the under parts more brown, with faint black streaks, the white spots above smaller and less numerous. In specimens from California and farther east the white is purer, the spots more conspicuous." "The almost perfect parallelism," he further observes, "with appreciable differences between the markings of the northwestern and southeastern varieties of Picus Harrisii and Gairdneri, and their relationship to P. villosus and pubescens, is a remarkable fact in American ornithology, and may possibly indicate the necessity either of dividing the dark ones into a Pacific and Rocky Mountain series, or of considering all as variations of two species, a larger [P. villosus] and a smaller [P. pubescens], changing their character with longitudinal distribution." And he aptly adds, "Many other supposed species are involved in the

same consideration," \* Professor Baird in his account of these species, expressly refers to California specimens that have less white on the wings than the one form and more white than the other. † This with the color differences existing between Florida specimens and New England ones, similar in character to these, though less in degree, seems to confirm the necessity alluded to by Professor Baird of regarding the small spotted woodpeckers in question as forming only two species, — the *Picus villosus* and Picus pubescens, — with parallel and remarkable geographical variations. So great is the difference, however, between typical representatives of the two leading forms of each, that their discoverers, with too few specimens of each to enable them to detect the gradual passage of the one into the other, — a fact which now seems well substantiated, — were quite excusable in regarding them as distinct species. Several other supposed species, as indicated by the synonymes given above, and previously by other authors, have been based on phases of immaturity. The young of either sex often have the crown spotted with red or yellow, while the mature male alone has red on the head, and in which it is usually confined to a narrow occipital transverse band. In respect to the number, shape, position, and size of the white spots on the wings, however, there is always considerable variation in specimens from the same locality, these variations being dependent upon neither sex nor age.

Florida specimens of not only *Picus pubescens* and *P. villosus*, but of *Centurus carolinus*, *Sitta carolinensis*, and *Sitta pusilla*, often have the plumage of the lower surface of the body so much soiled and darkened by running over the blackened trees in recently burnt districts as to materially alter their appearance, so that they might almost be taken for distinct species, as previously noted by Audubon.‡

#### 72.\* Picus pubescens Linné. Downy Woodpecker.

Picus pubescens Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 175, 1766. — Wilson, Audubon, Bona-Parte, Nuttall, Baird, Cassin, etc.

Picus (Dendrocopus) pubescens Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 307, 1831.

Picus (Dendrocopus) medianus Swainson, Ibid. 308. (Described from N

Picus (Dendrocopus) medianus Swainson, Ibid., 308. (Described from New Jersey specimens).

\* Birds of North America, p. 91.

† In accounting for these intermediate forms, Mr. Cassin adopts the very convenient but, as it seems to me, uncalled-for and incorrect theory of hybridity, so often resorted to in similar cases. Under *Picus villosus*, he says that *P. villosus* and *P. Ilarrisii* probably associate in a region intermediate between the proper ranges of the two species, "and produce hybrids, which present difficulties to naturalists." Under *Picus pubescens* he makes similar remarks in respect to *P. pubescens* and *P. Gairdneri*. *Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci.*, 1863, pp. 200, 201.

1 Orn. Biog., Vol. II, p. 82.

Picus (Dendrocopus) meridionalis Swainson, Ibid. (Southern race.)

Picus Gairdneri Audubon, Orn. Biog., V, 317, 1839. (Northwestern form.) — BAIRD, Birds N. Am., 91, 1858.

Picus meridionalis Nuttall, Man.Orn., I, (2d Ed.) 690, 1840. (Not of Swainson). Picus Lecontei Jones, Ann. N. York Lyc. Nat. Hist., IV, 489, pl. xviii, 1848. (Three-toed specimen.)

Picus Turati Malherbe, Mon. Pic., I, 125, pl. xxix, fig. 5, 6. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1863, 202.

## Common. Much more numerous than Picus villosus.

The difference in size and color between northern and southern specimens has been sufficiently detailed under the previous species.

#### 73.\* Picus borealis Vieillot. RED-COCKADED WOODPECKER.

Picus borealis Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., II, 66, pl. exxii, 1807. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1863, 203.

Picus querulus Wilson, Am. Orn., II, 103, pl. xv, fig. 1, 1810. — Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1863, 203.

#### Common in the pineries.

Mr. Cassin regards the Carolina and Georgia representatives of this species as specifically distinct from the Pennsylvania ones. He says that they are as distinct and as easily recognized as are *Picus villosus* and *P. Harrisii*, which he of course regards as valid species. He assigns Vieillot's

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Picus Borealis.

M.C.Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	D	ate.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
10641	1919	9	Jacksonville	Dec.	31, '68	C. J. Maynard	8.40	14.20	4.75	3.52
10642	1920		1.6	Dec.	31 '68	4.6	8.30	14.20	4.76	3 62
10643	1921	Q, +0Q,	6.0	Dec.	31, 68 31, 68	6.6	8.30	14.80	4 80	3 56
	1922	3	64	Dec.	31, 68	4.6	8.50	14.50	4.75	3 69
10644	1923	3	4.4	Dec.	31, 68	4.6	8.20	14 45	4.75	3.39
	1924	। उ	6.6	Dec.	31. '68	66	8.50	15.00	4 80	3.32
10645	1925			Dec.	31, '66	4.6	8 50	14.75	4.85	3.60
	1971	Ÿ.	4.6	Jan.	31, 66 3, 69	46	8.50	15.00	4.85	3.50
10646	1972	Q, +CQ,	44	Jan.	3. '69	66	8.50	14 30	4.75	3.75
10631	29 30 31	3	6.6	Apr.	11, 69	4.6	8.00	14.75	4.90	3.45
10632	30	40400	6.4	Apr.	6, 69	6.6	8.50	15.00	4.90	3 35
10633	31	Ŷ	4.6	Apr.	6. 169	"	8.30	14 90	4.85	3 35
10634	41	3	6.6	Apr.	7, '69	"	8.15	14.50	4.70	3.25
10637	47	8	4.4	Apr.	8, '69	6.6	8.60	15.15	4.87	3.40
10638	48	3	4.6	Apr.	8, 69		8.50	15.00	4.95	3.46
10639	58	Ŷ		Apr.	13. '69	44	8.50	14 10	4.75	3.59
	49	+0+0+04	4.6	Apr.	8 169	66	8.50	14.15	4.85	3.49
10640	59	Ŷ	6.6	Apr.	12, 69	4.6	8.50	15.00	4.80	3.50
10636	44	_	11	Apr.	12, 69 7, 69	46	8.30	15.00	4.80	3.60
10635	43	9	4.4	Apr.	7. '69 .	44	8.35	14.60	4.60	3.60
	32	2	66	Apr.	3, 69 7, 69	4.6	8.30	14.90	4.85	3.50
· —	42	3	"	Apr.	7, 69	6.6	8.20	14 70	4 75	3 29
5116	_	2	44	Jan.	19, 69	J. A. Allen	8.50	15 20	4 40	3 30
5137		3	6.6	Jan.	25, '69	6.6	8.33	14.75	4.57	3.42
5375		3	Hawkinsville	Mar.	12, 69	16	8.55	14.55	4.50	3.40
5393		3	4.6	Mar.	15, 69	**	8.50	14.50	4.45	3 20
5394	****	00	4.4	Mar.	15, 69	64	8.25	14.50	4.40	3 15
5414	_	9	Volusia	Mar.	25, 69	+6	7.90	14.60	4.45	3.25

name borealis to the Pennsylvania type, and Wilson's name querulus to the more southern form. In recognizing two species of red-cockaded wood-pecker in the Atlantic States, Mr. Cassin differs from all previous writers. Having only Florida specimens, a series of twenty-two, before me, I cannot state from personal observation as to how they differ from northern ones. They appear, however, to be merely a little smaller and darker.

The average size of the twenty-eight Florida specimens of which measurements are given in the foregoing table is as follows: Length, 8.34; alar extent, 14.46; wing, 4.71; tail, 3.41.

# 74.† Sphyrapicus varius Baird. Yellow-Bellied Woodpecker. Common.

### 75.\* Centurus carolinus Bonaparte. RED-BELLIED WOODPECKER.

Picus carolinus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 174, 1767.

Picus griseus Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., II, 52, pl. exvi, 1807.

Centurus carolinus Bosap., Geog. & Comp. List, 40, 1838.

Abundant. The most numerous species of its family in Florida. Specimens in the Museum from Cape Florida, taken the 8th of May by Mr. G. Wurdemann, indicate it as resident throughout Florida, though considered by Audubon and others as only a winter visitant to this and the other Gulf States.

The Florida specimens are all very much brighter colored than others before me from Maryland, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, the Michigan specimens being the palest. Professor Baird has remarked, in regard to a specimen from Amelia Island, Florida,\* that it was not only very much smaller than northern ones, but had the white transverse bands on the back much narrower, the black ones being three times the breadth of the white ones, instead of twice, as in the northern specimens. These differences my large series from the St. John's River indicate as constant. A similar increase, in the breadth of the black bands over the white ones in southern specimens as compared with northern ones, in species banded transversely, is seen in numerous other species. It is well marked in Colaptes auratus (where the bands are dark and light brown), in Sphyrapicus varius, and, as I shall show more fully subsequently, in Ortyx virginianus. The extent and intensity of the red on the abdomen and head, and especially its brilliancy on the head, is much greater in the Florida specimens of C. carolinus. In this respect there is also a well-marked difference between Cape Florida specimens and those from the St. John's River, the Cape Florida ones being much the brighter. These seem to accord in every particular with

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of North Amer., p. 109.

the so-called *Centurus subelegans* of Lower California and Mexico. It is interesting to note that variations in color occur between the northern and southern representatives of *Centurus flaviventris* similar to those exhibited by northern and southern examples of *C. carolinus*. The southern forms of *C. flaviventris* were long since characterized by Wagler, Swainson, and Bonaparte as specifically distinct from the northern, under the names of *C. elegans*, *C. santacruzi*, etc., etc., which many authors still rank as species.

## 76.\* Melanerpes erythrocephalus, Swainson. Red-Headed Wood-

Rare in winter; said to be common in summer. I saw two only, about March 15th. Mr. Boardman also gives it as rare, while Mr. Maynard did not meet with it at all. Audubon speaks of its being very abundant in winter in Louisiana, and Dr. Coues gives it as resident in South Carolina; but it is certainly not common in winter in East Florida.

## 77.\* Colaptes auratus Swainson. Golden-Winged Woodpeckek.

Abundant.

Considerably smaller than at the north, with the colors much more intense, and the transverse black bars on the back relatively broader. The individual variations in this species, even at the same locality, are very considerable, especially in respect to the bill. Figures 5 and 6, Plate VIII, illustrate the variation in the form and size of the bill of two specimens from Massachusetts, both of which are females.

The following summary of the subjoined tables indicates the difference in size between Massachusetts and Florida specimens, and the individual differentiation in the same respect at each locality. The sexes seem not to differ essentially in size.

No. of Speci- mens.	Sex.	Locality.		Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
18	_	Massachusetts.	Average	12.45 11.66	19.94 18.82	6 24 5.84	4.35 4.40
11 18	_	Florida Massachusetts.	Average Maximum	13.00 12.00	20.75 19.00	6.60	4.70 4.00
18 11	_	Florida.	Minimum Maximum	12.75	19.75	6.25	4.85
11	-	"	Minimum	10.60	17.60	5.60	4.10

While the Florida specimens are considerably smaller than the northern in three of the measurements, the tail is actually longer in the Florida birds, and hence relatively much longer. In most of the species of which comparative tables of measurements are given in the present paper, there is a decided tendency to an elongation of the tail at the southward, the tail decreasing less in length than the wing or the general size.

Measurements of Mussachusetts Specimens of Colaptes Auratus.

M. C. Z. No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
	29	3	Watertown	Oct. 14, '67	C. J. Maynard	12.50	20.15	6.00	4.15
l	232	3	44	Mar. 17, 68	4.6	12.60	20.00	6.31	4.56
	252	Ŷ	Waltham	Apr. 18, '68	46	13 00	20.75	6.60	4.60
l	281	त	Newton	Apr. 21, '68	44	12.30	19.60	6.00	4.24
4880	280		6.6	Apr. 21, '68	6.6	12.25	19.90	6.25	4.62
	325	400	6.6	Apr. 25, '68	- 66	12.55	20.05	6.27	4.35
		3	4.4	Aug. 5, '68	44	12.67	19 80	6 10	4 00
4881	356	3	46	May 1, '68	- 11	12.00	19.00	6.10	4.10
	988	3	6.6	June 2, 68	6.6	12 00	19.45	6.10	4.25
5460	1011	ਰ	Waltham	Aug. 6, '68	64	12.50	19 90	6.20	4.05
	2902		Newton	June 12, 69	44	12.50	20.50	6.40	4 30
	4028	°00+	Waltham	Aug. 22, '69	6.6	12.50	20.00	6.25	4.70
	4029	3	Newton	Aug. 22, '69	44	13.00	20.60	6.25	4 70
1	4034	400	44	Aug. 26, '69	64	12.50	20.27	6.25	4 35
	2913	ð	- 66	June 30, '69	44	12.10	20.00	6 45	4.55
	2916	ਰ	4.6	June 22, '69	66	12.00	19.50	6.15	4.25
	2915	3	4.6	June 22, '69	46	12.50	19.50	6.25	4 20
	2939	3	6.6	May 1, '69	46	12 50	20.00	6.30	4.45

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Colaptes Auratus.

M.C.Z No.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
	2075	0	Jacksonville	Jan. 20, '69	C. J. Maynard	10.75	18.50	5.75	4.55
	2074	Ý	6.6	Jan. 20, '69	66	11.00	17.60	5 50	4.50
10612	2346	ĮΫ	Dummitt's	Feb. 16, '69	64	11.75	19.50	6.25	4.10
10614	2601	Įφ	44	Mar. 11, 69	44	12.00	19 00	5.90	4 60
10611	2584	Q	- 66	Mar. 9, 69	44	10.60	17.75	5.70	4.30
10613	2542	Ų.	4.6	Mar. 5, '69	"	12 75	19.10	6.00	4.85
10610	2385	13	44	Mar. 5, '69	44	12 00	19.20	6.00	4.25
5196		3	Welaka	Feb. 5, 69	J. A. Allen	12 20	19.10	5.85	4.30
5321		Ç:	Enterprise	Mar. 1, 69	6.6	11.50	18.75	5.60	4.15
_		9	Volusia	Mar. 25, 69	66	12.25	19.75	6.00	
-		13	66	Mar. 25, '69	6.6	11.50	18.75	5.65	

Of the eight species of woodpecker mentioned above as occurring in Florida in winter, all but one or two (Melanerpes erythrocephalus and Campephilus principalis) are numerously represented. Most of them are exceedingly abundant, the woodpeckers hence forming a conspicuous element in the bird-fauna of East Florida. All of them are resident, according to Dr. Coues, in South Carolina. Audubon, however, states that two of them (Sphyrapicus varius, Centurus carolinus) do not breed south of Maryland, but Dr. Coues gives them as resident the whole year in South Carolina.

#### PSITTACIDÆ.

## 78. Conurus carolinensis Bonaparte. CAROLINA PAROKEET.

Common. Hundreds are captured every winter on the Lower St. John's by professional bird-catchers and sent to the northern cities. Thousands of others are destroyed wantonly by sportsmen. Concerning

this needless slaughter Mr. Boardman thus writes: "The little parokeet must soon be exterminated. Some of our Enterprise party would sometimes shoot forty or fifty at a few discharges, for sport, as they hover about when any are shot until the whole flock is destroyed." From its habit of feeding upon the tender maize in autumn, it is sometimes somewhat injurious to the farmer, and for this cause many are also killed. It is also more or less hunted as a game-bird. It is well known that the parokeet formerly inhabited large portions of the United States where it is now never seen, and the cause of its disappearance has been deemed a mystery. Such facts as these, however, seem to render clear what its ultimate fate must be in the United States, — extermination.

I could learn nothing from the inhabitants in regard to the time, manner, or place of breeding of this species, even old residents professing total ignorance in regard to these points.

The following table of measurements of specimens of this species serves to indicate its average size and proportions in Florida. In mature specimens the sexual difference in color and size is very slight. Neither sex acquires its adult colors before the second or third year.

The average size of the nineteen specimens (six males and thirteen females) cited below is as follows: Length, 13.10; alar extent, 21.76; wing, 7.59.

The extremes are as follows: --

Length, 12.50 and 13.60 (both specimens females); alar extent, 21.10 (female) and 22.50 (male); wing 7.00 and 7.85. These specimens seem to indicate a tolerable constancy in general size and proportions.

Measurements of Florida Specimens of Conurus Carolinensis.

M. C. Z.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5205	ਰ	Welaka	Feb. 8, '69	J. A. Allen	13.25	22 00	7.70	6.05
5206		64	Feb. 8, '69	44	13 55	22.30	7.85	6.75
5207	8	46	Feb. 8, 69	6.6	12.90	21.50	7.45	6.10
5225	†	Volusia	Feb. 12, 69	6.6	13.00	21.75	7.00	5.80
5226	+C+O+O+O+O0	11	Feb. 12, '69	44	13 00	21.60	7.35	5.80
5227	†	6.6	Feb 12, 69	4.6	13.00	21.75	7 30	6.00
5223	Į į	4.4	Feb 12, '69	4.6	13 00	21.50	7.50	6.00
5294		Enterprise	Feb 25, 69	6.6	13 25	21.50	7.40	
5295	Ĭ Š	- 14	Feb. 25, '69	6.6	13 00	22.45	7 60	6.00
5296	+O+O	- 66	Feb. 25, 69	6.6	13.60	22 00	7.34	6.60
5297	उ	4.6	Feb. 25, '69	4.6	13.45	22.00	7.50	_
	3	Hawkinsville	Mar. 13, '69	4.4	13 25	22.50	7.75	_
	ਰ	46	Mar 13, '69	4.6	13.15	2I 25	7.50	_
	14040g	44	Mar 13, '69	44	12.50	21 35	7.30	_
	9	Orange Bluffs	Mar. 24, '69	4.6	12.85	21 75	7.40	-
	Ŷ	- 6.6	Mar. 24, '69	6.6	13.60	22.30	7.75	
	9	4.6	Mar 24, '69	66	13.05	21.10	7.50	_
	P	4.6	Mar. 24, '69	44	13.25	21.30	7.50	_
	9	44	Mar 24, '69	66	13.25	21.50	7.55	

#### VULTURIDÆ.

79.\* Cathartes aura Illiger. Turkey Vulture.

Vultur brasiliensis Brisson, Orn., I, 468, 1760.

Vultur aura Linné, Syst. Nat., I. 122, 1767. — Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 25, pl. 2 bis, 1807. — Wilson, Am. Orn., IX, pl. lxiv, fig. 1, 1814.

Cathartes awa Illiger, Prodromus, 283, 1811.—Bonaparte, Ann. N. Y. Lyc. Nat. Hist., II, 23, 1828.—Audubon, Orn. Biog., II, 296, pl. clii, 1835.—Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, I, 1838.—D'Orbigny, Voy. dans l'Amer. Merid., IV, iii, 38, 1844.—Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1849, 159.—Bonaparte, Consp. Gen. Av., I, 9, 1850.

Vultur jota Molina, Saggio sul stor. nat. del Chile, 1782.

Cathartes ruficollis SPIX, Av. Spec. Novæ, 2, 1824.

Vultar jota Molina, Sagg. sul stor. nat. del Chile, 235, 1782. — GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 347, 1788.

Cuthartes jota Bonaparte, Consp. Gen. Av., I, 9, 1850. — Cassin, U. S. Nav. Astr. Enp., II. 172, 1855.

Cathurtes septentrionalis Pr. MAXIMILIAN, Reise in das Nord-Amer., I, 162, 1839.
Cathartes Burrovianus Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sciences, 1843, 212.
— ? Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 6, 1858.

Abundant. Collect in large companies about the dead alligators so numerous in the St. John's River.

Both this species and the following (Carthartes atratus) paid us frequent visits at our camps at Enterprise and Hawkinsville, and whenever we left them they did not fail to gather up and devour the carcasses of the birds and mammals thrown away by us after skinning. We found them, in fact, rather troublesome neighbors, since on more than one occasion they proceeded, in our absence, to investigate the character of the specimens we had left in the sun to dry, and in a manner so unsatisfactory to ourselves that one of the party was frequently obliged to stay in camp to protect them while the others were away collecting.

Both this and the following species were represented as breeding late in the season, and as frequenting the palmetto swamps as well as some of the islands above Enterprise for this purpose.

The synonymy here given of the present and following species indicates clearly the confusion which several continental European authors have introduced through their descriptions of these species, to which attention has been previously called by Mr. Cassin.\* While a Vultur (or Cathartes) aura has been described by most authors who have written of the two species in question, the name aura has been applied sometimes to the one and

sometimes to the other, but when given to the true aura of Linné, Vieillot, and Wilson, the atratus of Bartram and Wilson has been cited as a synonyme, and the true atratus described under a new name. The name jota has likewise been repeatedly applied to both species by different authors, and in some cases even by the same author, as has been also the name brasiliensis. The description given by Linné in the twelfth edition of his Systema Naturæ, under V. aura, clearly refers to the V. aura of Wilson, of which the V. jota of Molina and Gmelin are synonymes; although some of Linné's synonymes may refer to the C. atratus of modern writers. Bonaparte, however, in both his Synopsis of the Birds of the United States and in his Geographical and Comparative List, strangely applied the name jota to the atratus of Wilson, in which he was for a time followed by other writers. By those who have regarded the South American representatives of C. aura as distinct from its North American ones, the name jota has latterly been applied to the supposed distinct South American representative of the supposed true or northern C. aura.

The distinctions between the so-called *C. jota* and *C. awa* seem, judging from the published accounts, to be by no means clear. Mr. Cassin, in his report on the birds of Lieutenant Gilliss's Expedition, says the *C. jota* "is apparently, or so far as ean be ascertained from prepared specimens, a more slender bird, and longer in all its measurements. The last character is particularly applicable to its wings."\* In his Illustrations of the birds of California and Texas, published the following year, he reverses this statement, and says: "The South American species [*C. jota*] is the smaller," and "is the more slender in all its members"; and adds: "All the specimens that we have seen have been of a more uniform clear black color." Having myself examined numerous specimens, both in Brazil and in Florida, I find the difference in the average exceedingly slight, and nearly as stated by Mr. Cassin in his later work; that is, the Brazilian are slightly smaller, and have the plumage appreciably darker.

Bonaparte, in his Conspectus, gives the jota of Molina as being simply smaller and with a shorter tail than aura of Linné. The differences are indeed very slight; they are, moreover, strictly in accordance with the well-known general laws of variation between specimens of the same species from northern and southern localities, and by no means indicate a diversity of species. Because formerly not known to occur in some of the West India Islands, it was at one time supposed by some that the habitats of the two supposed species did not meet, or that there was a region in Central and Northern South America where neither existed. As I have elsewhere stated,† this is a mistake, both this species and the C. atratus ranging from

<sup>\*</sup> U. S Naval Astronomical Expedition, Vol. II, p. 173, 1855.

<sup>†</sup> Memoirs Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. I, p. 500, 1868.

the middle and northern portions of the United States nearly to the southern extremity of South America; the *C. aura* also extending as much beyond the southern limit of the *C. atratus* in South America as it does to the north of it in North America.

The Cathartes Burrovianus of Cassin, described in 1843, from a single specimen from Mexico, is referred by Bonaparte, in his Conspectus, to C. jota, or to what I regard as the typical form of C. aura, and evidently with good reason. It differs from C. aura only in being smaller. I am therefore disposed to regard it as based on an unusually small specimen of that species. Though Dr. Gambel supposed he had seen it with the other species in Lower California, but two specimens seem to have been known to Mr. Cassin, one of which was from an unknown locality.

# Measurements of Florida Specimens of Carthartes aura.

M.C.Z.	Coll. No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5143		3	Jacksonville	Jan. 25, 69	J. A. Allen	27.50	72.50	22.50	11.10
5180		3	Hibernia	Feb. 1, 69	. 4	27.50	72.00	22.00	11.75
5187		3	4.6	· ·	4.6			21.00	12.00
10746	2541	Ŷ	Dummitt's.	Mar. 11, '69	C. J. Maynard	26.50	68.00	21.00	11.00
	2603	Ý	44	Mar. 11, '69	4.6		68.00	20.00	10.50
	2433	ģ	4.6	Mar. 10 <sup>5</sup> '69	4.6	27.50	72.00	21.75	11.25

#### 80.\* Cathartes atratus Swainson. BLACK VULTURE.

? Vultur brasiliensis aut mexicanus RAY, Synop. Meth. Avium, 10, 1713.

Vultur atratus Bartram, Travels, 289, 1791.

Cathartes atratus Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 6, 1831. — Audubon, Synopsis, 3, 1839. — Bonaparte, Consp. Gen. Av., I, 9, 1850. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal., Texas, etc., 58, 1854. — Cassin, Gilliss's U. S. Nav. Astr. Exp., II, 173, 1855.

Vultur jota Wilson, Am. Orn., IX, 104, pl. lxxv, fig. 2, 1814. (Not of Molina; not of Gmelin.)

Cathartes jota Bonaparte, Ann. N. Y. Lyc. Nat. Hist., H. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., H, 33, 1835. — Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, I, 1838.

Vultur urubu Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 53, pl. ii, 1807.

Cohartes urubu Lesson, Voy. autour du Monde, 614. — D'Orbigny, Voy. dans l'Amer. Merid., 1844.

Cathartes aura Spix, Av. Spec. Novæ, 2, 1824.

Cathartes brasiliensis Bonap., Consp. Gen. Av., I, 9, 1850.

Abundant. On the whole, probably about as numerous as the preceding, but the two species occur in different proportions at different localities, and at different times at the same locality. None were seen about Jacksonville during the two weeks I spent there in January, and none were met with for some distance up the river. Above Lake George it was generally common, and sometimes outnumbered the other species, as it did often at Hawkinsville during my stay there. The younger birds appear to be generally not so highly colored as the fully mature, nor to have the naked skin of the head and neck so rugose and corrunculated as the older. The differences in these respects are very considerable between individuals of the same flock.

A comparison of Florida specimens with Brazilian ones shows that the latter are slightly smaller than the former; in color or other general features they do not appear to differ. Most writers have regarded the South American as identical with the North American, but Mr. Cassin,\* apparently on the authority of Bonaparte,† says the South American bird "is the Vultur brasiliensis Ray," and that "it is considerably smaller, and otherwise guite distinct." But he only refers definitely to the difference in size. The year preceding the publication of these remarks, however, he gives C. atratus as inhabiting Chili.‡ In speaking of the Chili specimen, he says: "A single specimen in mature plumage and excellent condition is exactly identical in size and other characters with the common species [C. atratus] of the southern parts of North America." He adds: "It is the only specimen presenting this similarity that we have ever seen from South America, and is larger and in other respects different from the allied Cathartes brasiliensis, which is an inhabitant also of that division of this continent." C. atratus, he says, is "not abundant in Chili, though represented to be occasionally met with in the interior"; these larger individuals referred to being doubtless the birds that inhabit the more elevated districts. Whatever Mr. Cassin's Cathartes brasiliensis may prove to be, it remains unquestionable that the C. atratus is a general inhabitant of South America, and that Bonaparte's brasiliensis is merely the southern type of this species. The exact parallelism of its range on the two continents as compared with that of C, aura has already been alluded to.

The Painted or Sacred Vulture ("Vultur sacra"), § an apocryphal species described by Bartram || as inhabiting Florida, demands in this connection a passing notice. Though not identified by any succeeding author (by some, however, it has been referred to the king vulture, Sarcorham-

- \* Illust. Birds of Cal. and Texas, p. 58, 1856.
- † Conspectus Generum Avium, Tom I, p 9, 1850
- † U. S. Naval Astronomical Expedition, Vol. II, p. 173, 1855.
- § Travels in Florida, etc., p. 150, 1790.
- || Vultur sacra Bartram, Travels, pp. 150, 289, 1791. Vieillot. Nuttall, Man. Orn. I, 42.

Sarcorhamphus sacer Cassin, Illust. Birds of Cal. and Texas, 59, 1856.

See also BONAPARTE, Conspectus Gen. Av., I, 9.

phus papa), Bartram's account of it leads one to infer that he found it quite abundant. His description of it is given with satisfactory detail. He says it is "near the size of the turkey-buzzard, but his wings are much shorter, and consequently he falls greatly below that admirable bird in sail. I shall eall this bird the painted vulture. The bill is long and straight almost to the point, where it is hooked, or bent suddenly down, and sharp; the head and neck bare of feathers nearly down to the stomach, where the feethers begin to cover the skin, and soon become long and of a soft texture, forming a ruff or tippet, in which the bird, by contracting his neck, can hide that as well as his head; the bare skin on the neck appears loose and wrinkled, which is of a deep bright yellow color, intermixed with coral red; the hinder part of the neck is nearly covered with short, stiff hair; and the skin of this part of the neck is of a dun-purple color, gradually becoming red as it approaches the yellow of the sides and fore part. The crown of the head is red; there are lobed lappets of a reddish orange color, which lay on the base of the upper mandible. But what is singular, a large portion of the stomach hangs down on the breast of the bird, in the likeness of a sack or half wallet, and seems to be a duplicature of the craw, which is naked and of a reddish flesh color; this is partly concealed by the feathers of the breast, unless when it is loaded with food (which is commonly, I believe, roasted reptiles), and then it appears prominent. The plumage of the bird is generally white or cream color, except the quill feathers of the wings, and two or three rows of the coverts, which are of a beautiful dark brown; the tail, which is large and white, is tipped with this dark brown or black; the legs and feet of a clear white; the eye is encircled with a gold-colored iris; the pupil black.

"The Creeks or Muscogulgees," he continues, "construct their royal standard of the tail feathers of this bird, which is called by a name signifying the eagle's tail; this they earry with them when they go to battle, but then it is painted with a zone of red within the brown tips, and in peaceable negotiations it is displayed new, clean, and white; this standard is held most sacred by them on all occasions, and is constructed and ornamented with great ingenuity. These birds seldom appear but when the deserts are set on fire (which happens almost every day throughout the year in some part or other, by the Indians, for the purpose of rousing up game, as also by the lightning), when they are seen at a distance soaring on the wing, gathering from every quarter, and gradually approaching the burnt plains, when they alight upon the ground yet smoking with hot embers; they gather up the roasted serpents, frogs, and lizards, filling their sacks with them. At this time a person may shoot them with pleasure, they not being willing to quit the feast, and indeed seem to brave all danger."

Mr. Cassin \* refers the species described as above by Bartram to the genus Sarcorhamphus (S. sacer Cassin = Vultur sacra Bartram), believing it to be a valid species, and remarks that its identification "may be considered as one of the most important services to be performed in North American ornithology." It is related, Mr. Cassin continues, "to the king vulture (S. papa), but that species has a black tail, and in case of mistake or misprint in Bartram's description, it may be presumed, at any rate, to relate to an occurrence of that species within the United States.† There is no more interesting nor more singular problem in North American ornithology." Two years later, in Baird's Birds of North America, Mr. Cassin again refers to the subject, and says that "recent information renders it probable that this [ Vultur sacra Bartram], or a species different from the vultures just described [Cathartes aura, C. atratus, C. Burrovianus], is found about Lake Okechobee in Southern Florida, where it is called king buzzard. The verification of this statement by actual specimens would be one of the most important discoveries yet to be made in North American ornithology."

Although the description of Bartram's "Vultur sacra" accords more nearly with the Sarcoramphus papa than with any other known species, I cannot avoid the conclusion that it is in the main a purely mythical species, notwithstanding the high reputation for veracity generally accorded to Mr. Bartram. I mainly so regard it for the reason that Florida has of late been too often traversed by naturalists, and especially all the parts visited by Bartram, for a bird of so striking an appearance, and so numerous as Bartrain represented his V. sacra to be, to remain undiscovered if such a species exists there. While it nearly accords with the S. papa in size and general color, it is most radically different from this species, in the color of the tail, and in having a "large portion of the stomach hanging down on the breast, in the likeness of a sack or half-wallet." In the latter feature it is structurally widely different from any known American bird. It is mentioned as though it was an abundant species on, at least, the upper portion of the St. John's River, inasmuch as he speaks of large flights of them. As to the feathers of its tail being used by the Creek Indians for a royal standard, and to which feathers they give a "name signifying an eagle's tail," it seems to me more probable that they were really feathers of the white-headed eagle (Haliaëtus leucocephalus), since it is well known that the tail feathers of that bird are very generally used for this and similar purposes by the Indian tribes of this continent. whereas the tail feathers of so foul a bird as the vulture must in all

<sup>\*</sup> Illustr. of Birds of Cuba and Texas, p. 59.

<sup>†</sup> The S papa, a Central and South American species, appears to have not yet been seen north of Mexico.

probability be too ill scented to suit even the unfastidious taste of an Indian. As to Mr. Cassin's supposition that the word white in the description of the tail should perhaps read black, the context wholly forbids its probability. If thus changed the passage referred to would read, "the tail which is rather large and black, is tipped with this dark brown or black!" which makes simply an absurdity. Besides this, the tail is again mentioned in the following paragraph as being painted by the Indians, when used in their war standards, etc., "with a zone of red within the brown tips," and afterwards as being "displayed new, clean, and white." As to the information referred to by Mr. Cassin as having been received by him respecting a "king buzzard" existing in Southern Florida, it may be remarked that this is the name by which the caracara eagle (Polyborus tharus Cassin) is commonly known in Florida, and which is undoubtedly the bird of which, under the name of "king buzzard," Mr. Cassin had heard.

On the whole, it seems evident that Bartram's account of the Vultur sacra is a confused mixture either of pure fiction and truth, with the former largely in preponderance, or of the characters of several different species. The description would seem to have been mainly drawn from an example of Sarcoramphus papa that he may have somewhere met with, but with which he combined certain features of this or other species which he had only observed at a distance, and that he thus misjudged their exact character (as in respect to the strange external food-pouch) or else added them solely on popular, fabulous rumors. The flights of these birds, which he observed assembling over recently burned districts, I think must refer to the Polyborus tharus, which is well known to have this habit, while the tail feathers he speaks of as used by the Indians in their councils were more probably either those of the Haliaëtus leucocephalus or Polyborus tharus than of any species of vulture, since a white-tailed American vulture, I believe, is a bird thus far unknown. If the "V. sacra," then, is to be regarded as anything else than a myth, it should in all probability be identified with the S. papa, as already stated, and as was done by Bonaparte in his Conspectus.

#### FALCONIDÆ.

# 81† Falco peregrinus Linne Duck HAWK.

Falco perceptinus GMELIN, Syst. Nat. I, 272, 1788. — WILSON, Am. Orn., IX, 120, 1814. — BONAPARTE, JOHIN. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1st Ser., I, 342, 1824. — AUDUBON, Orn. Biog., I, 85, 1832; V, 365, pl. xvi. — NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I, 53, 1832.

Falco anatum Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, I, 1838. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, 86, 1853. — Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 7, 1858. — Allen, Proc. Essex Inst., IV, 153, 1865.

Falco nigriceps Cassin, Illust. Birds of Cal., 87, 1853. — Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 1858.

"One instance, St. Augustine, February, 1868." Boardman. Mr. Maynard found it rather common near Dummitt's, where he observed its peculiar manner of capturing the ducks. Also well known to occur in winter in Cuba and other of the West India Islands.

In 1838, Bonaparte, in his "Geographical and Comparative List," gave to the American peregrine or duck hawk the name Falco anatum. Previous to this time all writers had considered it, and it seems to me justly, as identical with the European peregrine, or F. peregrinus, — an opinion still held by many eminent ornithologists. Until about this date the peregrine falcon was believed to have a nearly cosmopolitan distribution, but since then the Australian and other supposed species have been separated from it on grounds that it now seems should be reconsidered. Among these supposed species is the Falco nigriceps of Cassin, first described in 1858, from specimens received from California and Chili. These first specimens were smaller, with the rufous color of the under parts in the young of a stronger tint than in the so-called F. anatum, they more resembling the African, Australian, and especially the Indian type of F. peregrinus. Specimens since obtained from farther north, however, fully equal those from Eastern North America, and the slight differences found to really exist between them seem to be by no means of specific value.

Formerly a difference in breeding habits was supposed to obtain between the American and European peregrines, the American peregrine being for a long time believed to breed in trees, whilst the European was well known to nest on eliffs. Recently, however, the American bird has been repeatedly found nesting in similar situations, but never yet in trees.\*

#### 82.† Falco columbarius Linné. Pigeon Hawk.

Falco columbarius Wilson and subsequent American writers generally.

Falco æsalon Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 35, pl. xxv, 1831. — Nuttall,
Man. Orn., I, 60, 1832.

Falco temerarius Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 381, pl. lxxv, 1832.

# "Frequent." Boardman.

<sup>\*</sup> For an account of the breeding habits and nesting-places of the American bird in the Atlantic States, see the author's papers in Proc. Essex Inst., Vol. IV, pp. 153 – 161, and American Naturalist, Vol. III, p. 514. The past summer (1870) its eggs have been received by Mr. C. W. Bennett from Vermont. Prof. S. S. Haldeman was not only the first naturalist who made known the fact of its breeding on cliffs, but of its breeding in the United States. See Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. I, p. 54, July, 1841.

Many of the earlier ornithological writers regarded, as is well known, a considerable proportion of the rapacions birds of North America as identical with species inhabiting the Old World. More accurate comparisons of specimens from the two continents, however, eventually revealed appreciable differences between them, and one after another of those of the American continent were regarded as specifically distinct from their Old World relatives; and now there is not one of the diurnal species that has not been separated by one author or another. The owls of the two continents, with two exceptions, have also been similarly separated. While in many of these eases there are appreciable differences that seem more or less constant, in the majority of instances there appears to be no just cause for the separation. Especially is this the ease in respect to Falco peregrinus (as already observed), Falco candicans, Archibuteo lagopus, Aquila chrysaëtos, Pandion haliaëtus, Otus vulgaris, Brachyotus palustris, Nyctale Tengmalmi, and Strix flammea, in all of which species the American birds have been specifically separated from the European. Buteo borealis, Astur atricapillus, and Falco columbarius present stages of plumage that are scarcely distinguishable from certain stages of respectively Falco asalon, Buteo vulgaris, and Astur palumbarius, and it is hence not strange that each of these European species have been described by many good authorities as occurring in the northern parts of North America. Certain styles of plumage presented by Falco columbarius, especially at northwestern localities, so strongly resemble common phases of F. æsalon, that one is readily puzzled to know whether to recognize the latter as also inhabiting North America, or whether, since these types imperceptibly grade into the so-called typical F. columbarius, all should not be regarded as forming a single species, since they differ essentially only in coloration, and never very widely. The specimens of F. asalon before me (all immature) mainly differ from average specimens of F. columbarius of corresponding age in being less ferrngineous, the style of coloring being the same in both.

# 83.\* Falco sparverius Linné. Sparrow Hawk.

Falco sparverius Linné, Syst. Nat., 128, 1766; and of subsequent writers generally.

Falco dominicensis GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 285, 1788.

Falco gracilis Swainson, Lardner's Cab. Cyc., 281, 1838.

Falco cinnamominus Swainson, Ibid., 281.

Falco isabellinus Swainson, Ibid., 281.

Falco sparreroides Vigors, Zool. Journ., III, 436, 1827.

Abundant. Breeds in March. As has been previously pointed out, though not observed by all writers, the sexes differ greatly in color, the

adult females being banded transversely above, much as the young birds are.

Florida specimens are considerably smaller than New England ones, the former being intermediate in size between the latter and the West Indian and South American representatives of this species, which have been regarded as distinct species, and to which various names have been applied by different writers. Audubon observes that he found this species in the Southern States, and more especially in Florida, so much smaller than the northern birds that he was at first inclined to consider them specifically distinct, but finally felt sure they were the same. The colors, as usual in other species, are generally brighter in the more southern examples. Wide variations in the color of the plumage in this species have been long recognized, but, as Mr. Cassin has remarked, "they do not appear to be constant, nor peculiar to any locality." \*

# 84 \* Accipiter fuscus Bonaparte. Sharp-shinned Hawk.

Falco fuscus Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 280, 1788.

Accipiter fuscus Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 5, 1838.

Astur fuscus Audubon, Syn., 18, 1839

Falco dubius Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 281, 1788.

Falco velox Wilson, Am. Orn., V, 116, 1812.

Falco pennsylvanicus Wilson, Ibid., VI, 13, 1812.

Accipiter striatus Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 42, 1807.

Accipiter fringilloides Vigors, Zoöl. Journ., III, 434, 1827.

Accipiter pennsylvanicus Rich. & Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 44, 1831.

Nisus Malfini Lesson, Traité d'Ornithol., I, 58, 1831.

Common. I was unable, however, to obtain specimens.

In this species, as in the hawks generally, but more especially in the group to which the present species belongs, there are wide variations in color and size, not only with age and sex, but independently of either. One of the most interesting features in the specimens before me, in respect to these variations, is the much brighter color of the several western and southwestern examples in the collection of the Museum, as compared with New England ones. In one from Cheltenham, Missouri, the color of the lower parts is nearly uniformly red; the transverse dark lines, which in adult eastern specimens usually occupy half the exposed surface of the feathers, and often more, being in this specimen almost obsolete. The tibial feathers are especially bright, while the tints are livelier throughout the plumage. Other specimens from Fort Steilacoom, received from the Smithsonian Institution, present nearly the same appearance. Although the western representatives of the present species yet await some enter-

<sup>\*</sup> Illust. Birds of California and Texas, etc., p. 93

prising divisionist to give them a distinctive name, they are interesting as indicating a rufous western race, corresponding with the Accipiter mexicanus form of the A. Cooperi, the Falco nigripes form of the F peregrinus, the Archibuteo ferrugineus form of the A. lagopus, and the western rufous forms of Buteo borealis and Circus hudsonius.\*

Although the Accipiter fuscus has always been regarded as closely related to the Accipiter nisus of the Old World, they have, with one or two exceptions,† been regarded by all authors as specifically distinct. The only distinctive difference between them, however, has been properly regarded as a slight difference in color, which difference is merely one of tint, the style of coloration being precisely the same in both. In the Museum of Comparative Zoology are several specimens of A. nisus from Germany and Switzerland, which represent both the adult and the young. The brown transverse markings on the lower plumage of the mature A. nisus are rather darker and broader than in most New England specimens of A. fuscus; but they still more closely resemble average New England specimens than the latter do any specimens of A. fuscus I have seen from the western parts of the United States. The western form of A. fuscus, as already stated, is brighter colored or more rufous than the eastern, while the eastern differs similarly from the European, the latter being much duller colored than the eastern form of A. fuscus. So closely, however, does one of the immature examples of .1. nisus resemble several of the immature New England specimens of A. fuscus, that, if their origin was unknown, few ornithologists would probably consider them as otherwise than specifically identical; especially if placed in a large series composed of both eastern and western specimens of the A. fuscus. As I have previously remarked, the transverse markings on the lower plumage in the adult stage are broader and more regular and distinct in A. nisus than in A. fuscus. This, it may be added, is also the only difference observable between A. palumbarius and A. atricapillus. Such a coincidence of parallel differences between Accipiter nisus and Accipiter fuscus, and between Astur palumbarius and A. atricapillus, is a point of much interest to any

<sup>\*</sup> For further remarks concerning the rufous western races of several of these species see the following pages.

<sup>†</sup> Prince Max zu Wied, in his "Beiträge zur Naturgeschichte von Brasilien," referred a hawk, probably of this species, of which he obtained a single immature male in Eastern Brazil, to the Falco nisus Linn. Respecting this species he observes: "Der Vogel dieser Beschreibung scheint von dem europaischen Sperber nicht abzuweichen. . . . . Dieser Sperber 1st mir selbst in Braslien nicht vorgekommen, allein Freireifs hat mir ein Exemplar davon mitgetheilt, welches in der Gegend von Camami, sudlich von Bahia, geschossen wurde. So viel ich von diesem einzigen Individuo urtheilan kann, so scheint es plentisch mit dem europäichen Nisus zu seyn, denn sowohl seine Verhaltnisse als sein Gefieder stimmen vollkommen überein." Vol. III, pp. 112, 114.

one interested in geographical color variations in animals; the more so, perhaps, from the two latter species being so intimately related as to have been at one time generally regarded as identical. Yet so far as can be judged from a limited number of specimens, Astur palumbarus differs more from A. atricapillus than Accipiter nisus does from Accipiter fuscus, which latter species have never been considered as identical.\*

## 85.\* Accipiter Cooperi Cassin. Cooper's Hawk.

Falco Cooperi Bonap., Am. Orn., II, 1, 1828.

Falco Stanleyi Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 186, 1831 (young).

Astur Cooperi Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 5, 1838.

Accipiter Cooperi Cassin, Illust. Birds of Cal., etc., 96, 1854.

Accipiter mexicanus Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 45, 1831. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 17, 1858.

Accipiter Gundlachi LAWR., Ann. N. Y. Lye. Nat. Hist., VII, 252, 1860.

#### Common.

Mr. Cassin has very properly indicated the variations in size and color commonly seen in this species in the following remarks: "Rather a difficult species to the ornithologists, on account of the great variations in its colors, and in size also. It is, in fact, unusual to find two alike in a dozen specimens."† Its relationship to Accipiter fuscus is of course well understood, it holding a similar relationship to that species that Picus villosus does to Picus pubescens, the essential difference between them being mainly a great difference in size. But the specific distinctness of A. mexicanus from it is not so clear. Being without authentic specimens of A. mexicanus, and having only New England specimens of A. Cooperi, ‡ I cannot speak confidently respecting the character and affinities of the former. According to authors, however, it seems to differ from A. Cooperi in being somewhat smaller and more highly colored. It is also more southern in its distribution. Hence these variations, being in accordance with the general laws of geographical variation in size and color, do not necessarily

<sup>\*</sup> In this connection I wish to cite some interesting variations in color presented by Massachusetts and Maine specimens of Astur atricapillus. Ordinarily this species has each feather below centred with a longitudinal dark shaft-line, with several transverse broader but somewhat irregular dark ashy-brown bars on a lighter ground. Some specimens, however, as one from Maine, have the transverse bars so narrow and broken that the lower surface presents a nearly uniform, minutely mottled appearance. Another specimen (from Springfield, Mass.) represents the opposite extreme, it having the transverse bars broad, regular, and quite far apart, so that its resemblance to average specimens of Astur palumbarius is very close. The color in this specimen is much darker throughout than is usual in this species.

<sup>†</sup> Illustrations of Birds of California, etc., p. 93, 1854.

<sup>‡</sup> Since the above was written, specimens have been received at the Museum from Jalapa, Mexico, from Sn. R. Montes-de-Oca.

imply a diversity of species; they only accord with what would naturally be expected to occur if A. mexicanus and A. Cooperi were known to constitute but a single species.\*

Accipiter Cooperi, as is well known, is not only closely allied in general structure to Buteo lineatus, but also in style of coloration in both the immature and adult stages. It may be fair, then, to test the value of the distinctive characters assigned to A. mexicanus by what obtains as geographical variations in size and color in Buteo lineatus Of this species I have fortunately a large number of specimens, including some from localities similarly separated to those whence A. Cooperi and A. mexicanus respectively come. In the case of Buteo lineatus there is no reason whatever to doubt that my specimens from Florida and New England are specifically identical. Yet the Florida specimens are very much brighter colored, and very much smaller; the difference in the length of the folded wing between two males, one of which is from Maine and the other from Florida, being two and one half inches, with corresponding differences in general measurements. This is relatively much greater than the difference in size between specimens of the so-called A. Cooperi and A. mexicanus. Similar variations in color and size to those between A. Cooperi and A. mexicanus also occur between northeastern and southwestern specimens of A. fuscus, the latter, as already noted under A. fuscus, being smaller than the former, and very much brighter colored; the difference in color between specimens from Maine and the State of Missouri being greater than is represented to occur between A. Cooperi and A. mexicanus, and of a parallel kind. In accordance with the evident inference that may be drawn from these facts, I provisionally include A, mexicanus among the synonymes of A. Cooperi. The A. Gundlachi of Cuba differs from the southern A. Cooperi in the way southern birds usually differ from the northern ones of the same species, that is, in being smaller and brighter colored, and in having the dark transverse bars on the under plumage increased in breadth at the expense of the alternating light ones.

#### 86.\* Buteo borealis Bonaparte. RED-TAILED HAWK.

Falco borealis Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 266, 1788. — Wilson, Am. Orn., VI, 75, pl. lii, fig. 2, 1812. — Rich. & Swain., Faun. Bor. Am. II, 50, 1831. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 265, pl. II, 1832.

Buteo borealis Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838. — Gosse, Birds of Jamaica, II, 1847. — Lembeye, Av. de la Isla de Cuba, 18, 1850. — Cassin, Syn. N. A. Birds (Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, etc.), 97, 1854. — Brewer, N. Am. Oology, 21, 1857. — Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 25, 1858. — Bryant, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., VIII, 109, 1861. — Allen, Memoirs Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., I, 499, 1868.

Bonaparte indeed long since cited A. mexicanus Swainson as a synonyme of A. Cooperi.

Falco leverianus GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 266, 1788. — WILSON, Am. O n., VI, 78, pl. lii, 1812.

Falco jamaicensis GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 266, 1788.

Falco aquilinus Bartram, Travels, 290, 1791.

Falco Harlani Audubon, Am. Orn., I, 441, 1831.

Accipiter ruficaudus VIEILLOT, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 47, 1807.

Buteo ferrugineicaudus VIEILLOT, Ibid., 32.

Buteo fulrus VIEILLOT, Nonv. Dict. Hist. Nat., IV, 472, 1816.

Buteo americanus VIEILLOT, Ibid., 477.

Buteo vulgaris Rich. & Swain, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 47, pl. xxvii, 1831.— Audubon, Syn., 5, 1839.

Buteo butcoides NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I, 100, 1832.

Falco buteo Audubon, Orn. Biog., IV, 108, 1838.

Buteo Swainsoni Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838.— Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal. Texas, etc., 98, 1854.—Brewer, N. Am. Oölogy, 24, 1857.—Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 476, 1870.

Buteo Harlani Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal., Texas, etc., 101, 1854. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 14. — ? Bryant, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., VIII, 115, 1861. — Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 473.

Buteo montanus Nuttall, Man. Orn. I (2d ed.), 112, 1840. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 26. — Coues, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1866, 43. — Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 469.

Buteo Bairdii Hoy., Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1853, 451. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 21.

Buteo insignatus Cassin, Birds Cal. and Texas, 102, pl. xxi, 1854.—Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 23.—Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 474.

Buteo calurus Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1855, 281. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 22. — Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 471.

Not apparently uncommon, but far less numerous than the next species.

The Buteoninæ, or the group of hawks to which the present and the two following species belong, is well known to embrace species more variable in color than those of any other section of the Falconidæ, although all the members of this family are more or less remarkable for individual and other variations of plumage. The present species, however, admitting for it the wide variation in this respect herein claimed, scarcely equals the immense range of color variation well known to characterize its near ally and representative in the Old World, the Buteo vulgaris auct. (Falco buteo Linné). Six specimens of this species in the Museum from Switzerland and Germany, received under the name Falco buteo, vary in color as follows: One is almost entirely black; another is nearly black throughout, with obscure narrow transverse bands of ferruginous on the

crissum and abdomen; another is mainly black, but varied below. bars of pale rufous and blotches of white; a fourth is also nearly black, overy dark brown, but considerably more relieved with white below than the last; a fifth is mainly white below, with longitudinal stripes of dark brown, and so nearly resembles a common immature stage of the American Buteo borealis that if placed together the most discriminating observer could not tell which specimen was the European or which the American one. The sixth is very light colored throughout, with only a few dusky longitudinal spots on the breast. This' specimen is also not readily distinguishable from certain common phases of B. borealis. Another specimen of B. vulgaris, in the La Fresnaye collection in the Museum of the Boston Society of Natural History, is still lighter than this, being nearly uniform whitish below, and very light colored, almost white above. The latter specimen and the first-mentioned dark specimen present as great differences in color as two specimens of one species can well be conceived to exhibit.

The variations presented by the American B. borcalis have already been fully detailed by the late Dr. Henry Bryant, in his "Remarks on the Variations of the Plumage of Buteo borealis auct., and B. Harlani Aud." \* He observes that the variation in plumage of the species of Buteo, common in the Atlantic States, "are so slight that it is not to be wondered at that the first specimens from other parts of the country, presenting as they did such extraordinary variations in color, should have been described as distinct species. At present, however," he continues, "the number of specimens known is so large that on careful examination it seems to me necessary to adopt one of two conclusions, namely, either to increase the number of species indefinitely, or to reduce them to a much smaller number than are now supposed to exist. As the Enropean buzzard, Buteo vulgaris, is well known to present the greatest variety of color, it seems to me more reasonable to adopt the last conclusion." † With the above opinions and remarks I in the main agree, but do not regard the variations presented by the Buteo borealis as by any means slight, even in the Atlantic States. Although instances of such excessive variation as are seen in the Central and Pacific States are apparently more rare in the Atlantic States, speci-

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VIII, p. 107, 1861.

<sup>†</sup> In respect to the variety of color in the *B. vulgaris*, Dr. Bryant makes the following quotation from Naumann's Natural History of the Birds of Germany (Vol. I, p. 347): "In the coloring of the feathers of the bird there prevails a most extraordinary difference, and one which is not often seen in other birds of prey. From the darkest uniform blackish-brown to the purest white, we find all the shades, and also both colors mixed and spotted, in such various ways that the countless transitions cannot be described; this difference is independent of age and sex." Many other European writers, it may be added, have made similar remarks in respect to its astonishing range of variation in color.

mens from Massachusetts now before me vary as follows: Some are nearly unspotted beneath, others, sparsely spotted, have the spots mainly restricted to the pectoral region; others, in which the spots are equally few, have them mainly accumulated on the abdominal region, while still others have them so numerous as to occupy the greater part of the lower surface, sometimes covering the abdomen in an almost unbroken broad band. They likewise vary in the amount of rufous tint in the plumage, in some it being very slight, while others are as strongly ferruginous as any of the California specimens (B. montanus) I have yet seen.

The Buteo borealis was first described by Latham in his "General Synopsis of Birds," \* in 1781, under the names of "cream-colored buzzard" and "American buzzard," the first name being applied to the young, † and the last to the adult stage of plumage. Pennant, in his "Arctic Zoölogy," ‡ also redescribes the immature bird as the "Leverian falcon," and to these several descriptions of Latham and Pennant, Gmelin, in his "Systema Nature," gave respectively the names Falco jamaicensis, F. borealis, and F. Leverianus. Some twenty years later the Buteo borealis was redescribed by Vieillot, in his "Histoire des Oiseaux de l'Amerlque Septentrionale," as Accipiter ruficaudus and Buteo ferrugineicaudus, both names evidently referring to the mature or nearly mature bird; and again ten years later, in the "Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle," as Buteo fulvus and B. americanus. Audubon, in 1831, figured and described a specimen from Louisiana under the name Falco Harlani. This specimen, which was finally sent to the British Museum, has been regarded by Mr. G. R. Gray and others as only a very dark-colored example of B. borealis.§ In the same year Richardson and Swainson reported the Buteo vulgaris, in their "Fauna Boreali-Americana," as an inhabitant of North America, and of which they figure an immature male. As already remarked, the B. vulgaris, in certain stages of plumage, is not readily distinguishable from B. borealis, so that the mistake is a perfectly excusable one. This form, however, was for some time currently received by most writers as a species distinct from the B. borealis, and to which the name B. Swainsoni was given by Bonaparte. In 1832 Nuttall described a Buteo buteoides, which, though referred by Bonaparte to B. lineatus, and by Cassin to B. pennsylvanicus, seems to me to much more nearly agree with B. borealis. In 1840 the same writer described a B. montanus, which was subsequently

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. I, pp. 49, 50, Nos. 30 and 31.

<sup>†</sup> Latham observes: "This beautiful specimen was sent to me from Jamaica by an intelligent friend and a good naturalist, who did not hint the least of its being a variety of the common buzzard [Buteo vulgaris auct.], which I should have otherwise suspected."

<sup>†</sup> Vol. II, p. 206, No. 101.

<sup>&</sup>amp; Cat. of Birds in British Museum.

referred by Bonaparte to his B. Swainsoni, but has since been recognized as a valid species by Cassin and other recent American authors. In 1853 Mr. P. R. Hoy described a Buteo Bairdii, and in 1854 Mr. Cassin added B. insignatus, in 1855 B. calurus and B. oxypterus, and in 1856 B. Cooperi. In 1861 Dr. Bryant made a revision of the group, then containing eight or nine species currently recognized by American ornithologists, and reduced the number of species to two, one of which he called B. borealis and the other B. Harlani; which latter, however, is not the Harlani of Cassin, and probably not the Harlani of Audubon.

Dr. Bryant, in the above-cited paper, describes in detail the leading variations presented by our red-tailed hawks, and the character of the numerous supposed species of this group that had then been recently described. He having at his command all the specimens of this group contained in the Museums of the Philadelphia Academy and the Smithsonian Institution, including the original types of Mr. Cassin's species, as well as the specimens in his own collection, his opportunities for investigating the subject were unusually favorable. The results of his examination of this material may be briefly stated in his own words. He says that after examining this large series of specimens, he found "that of all those belonging to Harlani, insignatus, Swainsoni, Bairdii, oxypterus, borealis, montanus, calurus, and perhaps Cooperi," could be "easily reduced to two very distinct groups, each of which is distinguishable by definite external characters, and in which the variations of plumage, though apparently so great, if the extremes of the series only are taken into consideration, can, it seems to me, be arranged in a series, in which the connecting of the different members may be readily traced. Of these two groups, or rather species, one, which should be called B. borealis, as the first described, consists of that species, montanus, calurus, Harlani, and probably Cooperi, and is characterized by a very muscular body,\* stronger and longer bill, longer and more powerful tarsi, and a more rounded wing, the fourth quill generally the longest, the fifth little if any shorter than the third, and the first always longer than the eighth. The other species, to which Harlani?, insignatus, Swainsoni, Bairdii, and oxypterus belong, is distinguishable by a more slender body, shorter and weaker tarsi, and a more pointed wing, the third quill generally the longest, the fifth considerably shorter than the third, and the first always longer than the eighth."

"On making the examinations which led to the conclusion above stated," he further observes, "I was struck by the small number of specimens in which all the feathers were equally developed, and when they were so, the variation in the proportions of the primaries, and of the wings and

<sup>\*</sup> Stuffed skins evidently afford rather unsatisfactory data for the determination of the relative muscularity of the body.

tail, in specimens of the same variety, was much greater than I had expected to find"; a result which indicates how unreliable such features are as specific distinctions, as I have already repeatedly remarked, and also, of course, the fallacy of the belief, so generally held, that they are really among the most trustworthy.\* After detailing some of the instances of variation in this respect in the specimens in question, he makes the following remarks on variations in other characters: "The variation in the number and shape of the tarsal scales is considerable, as is usual in birds of this order. The development of the festoon of the lower edge of the upper mandible, one of the principal generic characters, † varies particularly in B. montanus, the series of which is the largest, from a sharp, almost tooth-like process to an entire absence of it."‡

Dr. Bryant described each of the so-called species of the later authors, and generally several authentic specimens of each, showing the variations of color they present. B. montanus is the so-called "western red-tail," replacing, it is supposed, B. borealis in the western half of the continent, and differing from it in the main only in being more rufous or brighter colored. Some specimens, however, from California and Oregon are not appreciably different from others from the Atlantic States, and among them is one received at the Museum from the Smithsonian Institution labelled "B. borealis." B. calurus differs from these in being much darker throughout, and especially below. It has, however, according to Dr. Bryant, two varieties, one of which is much darker than the other. The B. Harlani of Cassin, Dr. Bryant says, "resembles very closely the dark variety of calurus, with the exception of its tail, which resembles montanus." Respecting the single known specimen of B. Cooperi, he says there is nothing in its coloration "that would make the supposition of its being a variety of montanus improbable." The tail presents the greatest dissimilarity and "has very much the appearance it would have in a semiadult of this species, if the color were partially washed out.' The tarsus, though long, he says is not longer than in some specimens of montanus; but observes that the scutellation of the tarsus presents certain peculiarities not seen in the others, there being but two rows of lateral scales instead of three or four, and two more than the usual number of transverse scales. § In respect to these supposed species he then observes: "After

<sup>\*</sup> See the remarks on this point in Part III.

<sup>†</sup> The italicizing is my own.

<sup>†</sup> On differences of this kind the several supposed species of the B. borealis group have been arranged in different subgenera!

<sup>§</sup> Since writing the above I have learned from Professor Baird that he is inclined to regard this specimen as "only an Archibuteo ferrugineus without feathers on the tarsus; at any rate, hardly a species." It is hence omitted in Cooper and Baird's "Ornithology of California," which has just appeared.

carefully examining the birds described above, I do not see, if Buteo borealis, montanus, and calurus are to be considered distinct species, that we can avoid increasing the number by separating from montanus two species, - one the dark Steilacoom variety, and the other that from Cape St. Lucas (which, by the way, is the most distinct variety that I have seen); from calurus, one species, the ferruginous variety from Fort Tejon; and adding to this group one species based on the adult Harlani of the Academy [Harlani of Cassin, not of Audubon], making in all seven species of this group. I have not included in this list the young Harlani of the Academy, which differs as much from the adult as from any other specimen of this group; or Cooperi," etc. After next describing in detail Buteo Harlani (B. Harlani of Bryant, not B. Harlani of Cassin, nor of Audubon), and its several varieties, which form the "species" B. insignatus, Swainsoni, and oxypterus of Cassin and the B. Bairdii of Hoy and Cassin, with several varieties under each, some of which he clearly shows are connecting links to others, Dr. Bryant concludes his paper with the following summary: "Taking color, therefore as a sufficient ground for specific distinction, we find that we have in the red-tailed group seven species, and in the other nine, which, with the young Harlani of the Academy, Cooperi, fuliginosus, albonotatus, lineatus, elegans, and pennsylvanicus, give a total of twenty-three species of this genus which are found in the United States."

But Dr. Bryant by no means admits color in this group to be a specific characteristic, and, as I have already remarked, in reducing the number of species of the red-tailed hawks to two, he takes general size and the proportions of the primary quills of the wing as the basis of distinction. He has accordingly given a table of comparative measurements and proportions of the two species, in which he has arranged, as he says and doubtless supposed, the larger specimens under B. borealis, and the smaller under B. Harlani. Size and the proportions of the quills, however, it seems to me, are equally arbitrary grounds for their separation, as an examination of his tables and descriptions evidently proves. It happens that in the first, or B. borealis series, nearly all the specimens are fully adult, as indicated by the tail being uniformly red, with a subterminal black band, - a stage of plumage which characterizes only adult individuals. In the second, or B. Harlani series, but one specimen (which does not appear in the table of measurements), is described that is not evidently somewhat immature, while the greater part of them are quite so.\* Respecting the so-called Buteo Bairdii, of which numerous specimens have been reported, some from quite eastern localities, Dr. Bryant

<sup>\*</sup> They have at least the tail numerously banded, as all immature B. borealis do have, and their general diagnosis is that of immature birds.

remarks that a single specimen in the Museum of the Philadelphia Academy is the only one he had seen "presenting the least appearance of adult plumage." In regard to the size of the specimens of the two series, adopting the length of the folded wing as the basis of comparison, — the best element in the tables available for comparison, in this respect, — the smallest and the largest specimens, measuring 370 and 438 millimetres respectively, occur in the *B. boreolis* series. The average length of wing in twenty specimens of *B. boreolis* is 409 millimetres, and in fourteen \* specimens of *B. Harlani* Bryant, 405. The difference of 4 millimetres is an amount too trivial to be of account, as the addition of a single specimen to either series might reverse the difference. Hence the impression possessed by Dr. Bryant of an average difference in size between the two series was evidently an erroneous one.

There hence remains but a single difference, that in respect to the form of the wing, or the relative length of the primaries, by which to distinguish the two series, which is at best one of doubtful value. My present opinion is that all the so-called species of these two groups may be safely referred to the original *Buteo borealis*, except the *B. oxypterus*, which should be undoubtedly referred to the *B. pennsylvanicus*.

#### 87.\* Buteo lineatus Jardine. RED-SHOULDERED HAWK.

Falco lineatus Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 268, 1788. — Wilson, Am. Orn., VI, 86, pl. liii, fig. 3, 1812. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 296, pl. lvi, 1832.

Buteo lineatus Jardine, Am. Orn., I, 1832. — Audubon, Syn., 7, 1839. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 28, 1858. — Verrill, Proc. Essex Institute, III, 141, 1862.

Falco hyemalis GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 274, 1788. — WILSON, Am. Orn., IV, 73, 1812. — NUTTALL, Man. Orn., I, 106, 1832. — AUDUBON, Orn. Biog., V, pl. lxxi, 1832 (young).

Buteo Cooperi Allen, Amer. Nat., III, 518, 1869.

Circus hyemalis Bonap., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1st Ser., III, 305, 1s Buteo deguns Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1855, 281. — Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am 28, 1858.

Very abundant. By far the most numerous species of the family.

Generally smaller and much brighter colored than New England specimens. The dark line along the shaft of the feathers below, especially on the throat and breast, is very distinct, in this respect and in the bright colors greatly resembling the so-called *Buteo elegans* of Cassin. *B. elegans*,

\* The B oxypterus, referred to the B. Harlani by Bryant, is very much smaller than any other specimen in either series, and it seems to me has decided affinities, in its small size as in other features, with the B. pennsylvanicus, as stated by Mr. Cassin, and it is hence excluded in my computation of the average length of the folded wing.

however, has been generally considered as the western representative of B. lineatus, but it differs from the latter only in being brighter colored, or in having the ferruginous of the under parts more intense. In this it resembles the western representatives of the B. borealis, Archibuteo lagopus, Accipiter fuscus, Circus cyaneus, Falco peregrinus, and other species of this family, the western specimens of which are ordinarily more rufons than the eastern, though in only a part of them have the eastern and western races as yet been separated as distinct species.

The considerable difference in size between specimens of this species from New England and Florida has led to the supposition that the former may be specifically distinct from the latter, or at least that they form well-marked varieties.\* The following measurements, however, show that specimens occur in Florida, in winter at least, nearly as large as average-sized New England specimens. But these may have been merely winter visitors, since two of the three specimens taken in February on the St. John's River are larger than any of the others, all of which were taken later in the season. Those taken by Dr. Würdemann at Cape Florida and Indian Key are also smaller than those from the St. John's River.

## Measurements of Florida Specimens of Buteo Lineatus.

M C.Z.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.		Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing	Tail.
5223	ਰ	Volusia	Feb.	12, '69	J. A. Allen	22.25	41.50	13.00	7.75
5224	8	4.6	Feb.	12, '69	6.6	20.00	39.50	12 25	7.50
5276	ਤੋਂ	Blue Springs	Feb.	21, 69	"	20.00	42.00	13.00	8.40
5310	3	Enterprise	Mar.	1, 69	- "	17.65	39.15	12.25	8.00
5331	2	44	Mar	1, 69	- "	17.75	40.25	12.30	7.50
5398	8	Hawkinsville	Mar.	15, '69	- 11	18.00	40.50	12 85	7.75
10744	2	Jacksonville	Dec.	31, '68	C. J. Maynard	19 20	41 50	12.60	8.50
10743	2	4.4	Jan.	11, '69	4.4	19.20	40.05	12.60	8.50
6899	ğ	Cape Florida	Apr.	5, '58	G. Würdemann		35.75	11.00	6 75
8630†	8	Indian Key	Aug	31, '57	44	17.50	37.00	11 20	
6898	_	44	Aug.	1, '58		15.50	34.50	10.50	7.15
8629†		4.6	Nov.	10, '57	44	17.75	40.00	12 00	
8631†	♂	4.6	Aug.	31, '57	6.6	17.50	37 00	11.10	-

#### 88.† Buteo pennsylvanicus Bonaparte. BROAD-WINGED HAWK.

Falco pennsylvanicus Wilson, Am. Orn., VI, 22, 1812.

Buteo pennsylvanicus Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838. — Audubon, Syn., 6, 1839. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal., Texas, etc., 100, 1854. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 29, 1858.

Falco latissimus Wilson, Am. Orn., VII, 22, 1812. (Later published copies.)

<sup>\*</sup> See Prof. A. E. Verrill in Proc. Essex Institute, Vol. III, p. 141, 1862.

<sup>†</sup> Smithson. Inst., No. (Copied from Cassin in Baird's Birds of North America, p. 28.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> Concerning the names *F. pennsylvanicus* and *F. latissimus* given by Wilson to this species, see Mr. Cassin's remarks, Illust. Birds of Cal., Texas, etc., p. 101.

Falco Wilsoni Bonap., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., III, 348, 1824.

Sparvius platypterus Vieillot, Encyc. Meth., III, 1273, 1823.

Buteo oxypterus Cassin, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 282, 1855. — Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 31, 1858.

"Common." — Boardman. Audubon, however, gives it as rare south of the Middle States, and it is not mentioned by Dr. Coues in his list of the birds of South Carolina. There is, however, a specimen in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy labelled as having been taken in Florida.

As previously observed, it appears to me that the *Buteo oxypterus* of Cassin, described from a single specimen taken at Fort Filmore, New Mexico, corresponds more nearly with the young of this species than with any known stage or form of *B. borealis*.

## 89.\* Circus cyaneus Boie. MARSH HAWK.

Falco cyaneus Linn., Syst. Nat. I, 126, 1766. — Bonap., Am. Orn., II, 30. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., IV, 396, pl. ccclvi, 1838.

Circus cyaneus Boie, Isis, 1822, 549. — Audubon, Synop., 19, 1839. — G. R. Gray, Gen. of Birds, I, p. 32. — Ibid., Cat. Brit. Birds, 17, 1863.

Falco hudsonius Linn., Syst. Nat., I, 128, 1766.

Falco uliginosus GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 278, 1788.

Circus uliginosus Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 37, 1807.

Falco uliginosus Wilson, Am. Orn., VI, 67, pl. li, fig. 2, 1812.

Buteo (Circus) cyaneus? var. americanus, Rich. and Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 55, pl. xxix, 1831.

Circus hudsonius Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 36, 1807. — Cassin, Ill. Birds Cal., Texas, etc., 108, 1854. — Brewer, N. Am. Ool., 42, 1857. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 38, 1858.

Circus variegatus Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 37, 1807.

Strigiceps uliginosus Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 5, 1838.

Strigiceps pygargus Bonap., Ibid.

Common about the savannas.

The present species has been considered by most writers as identical with the *C. cyaneus* of the Old World. It was first separated as a distinct species by Bonaparte in 1838, in his Geographical and Comparative List. Mr. Cassin also regarding it as distinct, this opinion has been generally adopted by recent American ornithologists. They seem to be, however, quite identical.

The same variation in color between eastern and western specimens is seen in this species that has been noted in others of this family, the young western ones especially being much brighter colored than the eastern.

The great variation in plumage attending differences of age and sex in this species have given rise to numerous synonymes, of which twenty are cited by Mr. G. R. Gray in his Catalogue of British Birds.

#### 90.\* Pandion haliaëtus Cuvier. Fish Hawk. Osprey.

Falco haliaëtus Linné, Faun. Succ., 22, 1735. — Wilson, Am. Orn., V. 13, pl. xxxvii, 1812. — Bonap., Ann. N. Y. Lyc. N. Hist., II, 26, 1828. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 415, pl. lxxxi, 1832. — Nuttall, Man. Am. Orn., I, 78, 1832. Pandion haliaëtus Cuv., Règ. An., I, 316, 1817. — Audubon, Synopsis, 12, 1839.

- G. R. Gray, Cat. Brit. Birds, 5, 1863. - Pelzeln, Ornithol. Brasiliens, 4, 1868. - Heuglin, Ornithol. Nordost-Afrika's, 54, 1869.

Falco arundinaceus GMELIN, Syst. Nat. I, 263, 1788.

Falco carolinensis GMELIN, Ibid.

Pandion carolinensis Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal, Texas, etc., 112, 1854. — Brewer, N. Am. Oöl., 53, 1857. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 44, 1858.

Falco cayanensis GMELIN, Syst. Nat. I, 268, 1788.

Aquila piscatrix Vieillot, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 29, 1807.

Pandion fluviatilis Savig., Descr. de l'Egypte, Hist. Nat., I, 96, 1809.

Pandion americanus VIEILLOT, Gal. des Ois., I, 33, 1828.

Pandion indicus Hodgson, Journ. As. Soc. Bengal, 366, 1837.

Abundant everywhere; especially so around the lakes of the Upper St. John's. Commences nesting in January. At Lake Monroe I counted six nests from a single point of view. Their nests were also frequent all along the river. They generally selecting a dead tree in which to build, and often those situated in cleared fields, their nests were conspicuous objects, and could usually be seen from a long distance. Even these harmless birds do not fail to attract the fire of the numerous sportsmen who visit this region in winter, some of whom are ignorant enough to believe that when shooting them they are killing "bald eagles."

Gmelin, in his "Systema Naturæ," described the present species not only as Falco haliaëtus, but he gave to it also the names F. carolinensis, F. arundinaceus, and F. cayanensis, apparently indicating under them, however, what he regarded as varieties rather than as distinct species. For many years, however, the common fish-bawk was generally regarded as having an almost cosmopolitan distribution. Bonaparte spoke of it in 1826, in his Synopsis of the Birds of the United States,\* as follows: "Inhabits almost every part of the globe near waters; much more common in North America than in Europe." Ten or twelve years later, however, he seems to

<sup>\*</sup> Annals of the N. Y. Lyceum of Nat. History, Vol. II, p. 26.

have changed this opinion, since in his Geographical and Comparative List of the Birds of Europe and the United States (to which paper, by the way, we are indebted for the separation of eight of the American species of raptorial birds previously considered identical with the European,\* embracing all thus separated up to the present time, except two †) he calls the American fish-hawk Pandion carolinensis, and gives its habitat as "America generally." Other authors have since separated the West Indian and South American as a third, the Asiatic as a fourth, and the Australian as still another. The numerous specimens in the Museum show that considerable variation obtains in color, size, and proportions among those recognized by authors as belonging to the P. carolinensis, much greater differences in color - the main ground on which they have been separated from the European - being presented among the Florida specimens alone than obtains in the average between Brazilian and New England specimens, or American and European. Generally the feathers of the breast are each centred with a broad longitudinal spot or stripe of brown, which spots sometimes cover the greater part of the breast; but they are often simply narrow lines, and are not unfrequently entirely wanting. Sometimes these spots are uniform darkbrown, at others suffused or broadly margined with ferruginous, and are oecasionally altogether of the latter color. In reuniting the American fishhawk with the osprey of the Old World, I but adopt the view always held by a large number of ornithologists, though by all American authors they have for the last fifteen years been commonly considered as distinct.

# Measurements of Florida Specimens of Pandion Haliaëtus.

M.C.Z.	Sex	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5268	3	Blue Springs	Feb. 21, '69	J. A. Allen	21.75	64.00	19.50	8.75
5298	2	Enterprise	Feb. 25, 69	44	24.25	68 75	20.25	10.00
5330	ਰ	"	Mar. 4, 69	+6	22.00	63.50	19.25	9.00
5356	2	Hawkinsville	Mar. 10, '69	44	20.75	63.00	18.75	8.60
5355	Ŏ	6.6	Mar. 10, 69	4.4	- 6		20.25	7.80
	Ö	44	Mar. 15, 69	4.6	24.25	66.25	19.00	
	Ţ	4.6	Mar. 15, '69	44	23.50	68 50	20.25	

## 91. Haliaëtus leucocephalus Savigny. White-headed Eagle.

Falco leucocephalus GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 255, 1788.— WILSON, Am. Orn., IV, 89, pl. xxxvi, 1811.— Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 58, pl. xxi, 1832; II, 160; V, 354, pl. cxxvl.

<sup>\*</sup> Pandion carolinensis from P. haliaëtus, Butætes (or Archibuteo as now called) Sancti-Johannis from B. lagopus; Buteo Swainsoni from B. vulgaris; Falco anatum from F. peregrinus; Astur atricapillus from A. palumbarius; Strigiceps (Circus as now called) uliginosus from S pygargus (cyaneus auct.); Otus americanus (or "Wilsonianus") from O. vulgaris; Nyctale Richardsoni from N. Tengmalmi; Strix pratincola from S. flammea.

<sup>†</sup> Aquila chrysaëtos, Brachyotus palustris.

Haliaëtus leucocephalus Savigny. — Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 3, 1838. — Audubon, Synop., 10, 1839. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal., Texas, etc., 111, 1854. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 43, 1858

Falco ossifragus Wilson, Am. Orn., VII, 16, pl. lv, 1813.

Aquila (Haliaëtus) leucocephalus Ricii. & Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., II, 15, 1832. Falco Washingtoni Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 58, pl. xi, 1831 (plate published 1827).

Falco Washingtoniana Audubon, Loudon's Mag. N. Hist., I, 115, 1828.

Haliaëtus Washingtoni Audubon, Synop., 10, 1839.— Cassin, Baird's Birds
N. Am., 42, 1859.

Common. Breeds in January and later. Very abundant on the Upper St. John's, and especially at Lake Monroe. Saw them repeatedly dive and catch their own fish, though usually depending upon robbing the fish-hawks for them. The same fact has been reported by other observers,\* although it was formerly supposed they never caught any fish themselves.

The large specimen of an eagle taken by Audubon in Kentucky, and figured and described by him as Falco Washingtoni, seems not to have been preserved; it is at least not known to be extant, and appears to have never been examined by any other naturalist. Audubon states that he altogether saw not "more than eight or nine" specimens, † and deemed it very rare. He does not appear, however, to have really examined but the one figured. Numerous local observers have reported it as occasional at different localities, and Mr. Cassin has doubtfully referred specimens to it taken in New Jersey. Nuttall believed the young were more or less common near Boston every winter, and considered it as "probably also indigenous to northern Europe, but confounded with the ordinary sea eagle." But, as remarked by Mr. Cassin, "No specimen precisely corresponding to Mr. Audubon's bird has been obtained since its discovery, and it has latterly been looked upon by naturalists, especially in Europe, as an unusually large specimen of the white-headed eagle." § The important point of difference between Audubon's bird and other representatives of this genus consists in the scutellation of the tarsi, which are covered in front with broad transverse scales, instead of with a great number of small irregular ones, as in other sea eagles. This, Mr. Cassin

<sup>\*</sup> WILLIAM COUPER, Massachusetts Ploughman, August 26, 1870. CHARLES H. NAU-MAN, on his own authority and that of Professor S. S. Haldeman, Ibid., September 24, 1870. HENRY REEKS, Can. Nat., Vol. V, No. 1, p. 43, 1870.

<sup>†</sup> Loudon's Mag. of Nat. Hist., Vol. 1, p. 116, April, 1828.

<sup>†</sup> Mem. Am. Acad., 1st Ser., Vol. I, p. 92, 1831.

<sup>§</sup> Illustrations of Birds of California, Texas, etc., p. 111, 1854.

has observed, is "a character quite unusual in any rapacious bird," \* though I do not see that in this respect it differs essentially from Buteo lineatus, B. pennsylvanicus, or Circus cyaneus, etc. Its other main point of difference from the H. leucocephalus is its greater size. Audubon described his bird as measuring "3 feet 7 inches in length," "10 feet 2 inches" in extent of wings, and the folded wing "32 inches." In this series of measurements there is no discrepancy between the different dimensions given - the proportions being exactly the same as in H. leucocephalus that might lead to the suspicion of a typographical or other accidental error, as some writers have suggested there may be in respect to the alar extent. It is, then, either a valid species or a large individual of II. lencocephalus, or a large immature II. albicilla. Since known specimens of H. leucocephalus sometimes nearly approach the supposed H. Washingtoni in size, it seems not unreasonable, on the whole, to regard it as really a remarkably large example of H. leucocephalus in immature plumage. Audubon describes his bird as breeding within the United States, and hence it is hardly probable it could have been the arctic H. albicilla, which has never, so far as known to me, been observed so far south at any season of the year. In reference to its fishing habits, supposed by Audubon to distinctively characterize it, it is now well known that the H. leucocephalus will oceasionally capture its own fish, instead of depending wholly upon robbing the fish-hawk for them.

Mr. Cassin further observes, † respecting the II. Washingtoni, that he believes it to be more nearly related to his II. pelagica, which he describes as "the largest of eagles," than to any other. In the same connection he judiciously remarks respecting the numerous apocryphal species of eagles on record as follows: "But there is no end to the accounts of strange eagles given by travellers and naturalists. Some of them may have reference to peculiar species which have in later times escaped attention, but the probability is they more frequently allude to accidental varieties, or that the authors describe from such reports as they had heard at second hand, or fell into error from insufficient personal observation," Many of these reports he alludes to in detail, including the reference by Captain Cook t to a "black eagle" with a "white breast" seen by him at Kay's Island, on the northwest coast of America. A specimen of the H. leucocephalus in peculiar (probably albinie) plumage in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, taken in Eastern Massachusetts, seems to indicate that the eagle of Captain Cook may have been but an unusual stage of coloration of the common white-headed eagle. The Massachusetts specimen

<sup>\*</sup> Baird's Birds of N. America, p. 42.

<sup>†</sup> Illust. Birds of Cal. and Texas, p. 36.

<sup>\*‡</sup> Cook's Voyages, II, 352, 1784.

above referred to has the general color of the under parts white, with most of the feathers centred with spots of dusky brown of varying size, but with a nearly uniform dusky brown patch on the middle of the breast. The interscapulars are also mainly white, and the general plumage above, except the wings, more or less varied with the same color. The tail below is mottled with irregularly shaped specks and spots of dusky or black on a white ground, and above with white on a nearly black ground, and tipped with dusky. The appearance of the under side of the bird at a distance yould be nearly uniform whitish.

Mr. Cassin having stated repeatedly that his Haliaëtus pelagicus (the Aquila pelagica Pallas\*) is the largest and most powerful of all known eagles,† I was greatly surpised, in critically studying his description, to ind it in every respect evidently far inferior in size to Audubon's bird of Washington, and seareely equalling the H. albicilla, as described by himself; the folded wing, in fact, of his H. pelagicus is one inch shorter than the folded wing of his H. albicilla, four inches shorter than the wing of the II. Washingtoni, as measured by Audubon, and two inches shorter than the folded wing of several different Massachusetts specimens of H. leucocephalus! The length he gives of "a skin from Behring's Strait"—the only specimen, he says, at that time in America — is "about 3 feet 8 inches," which exceeds by one inch only the length of Audubon's II. Washingtoni, as given by Audubon, doubtless from the fresh bird. But the length given y Mr. Cassin for his H. pelagicus is evidently too great, as, taken in coneetion with the other measurements of the same specimen given by Casin, if correct, it would indicate a bird of the most anomalous and improbable proportions. Mr. Cassin's erroneous conception of the gigantic size of his bird was doubtless formed from the length of his specimen, which if a flat or unfilled skin, as it probably was, must have measured several inches more than the natural length of the bird. While I do not 'n the least question the sincerity of Mr. Cassin's belief in the large size of his bird, I have felt it proper to call the attention of future investiga-

<sup>\*</sup> Zoographia Rosso-Asiatica, I, p. 343.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;The bird which is the subject of our present article is the largest and most powerful of the eagles." — Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, p. 32, first paragraph. "Even the famous condor of the Andes, the largest of vultures, scarcely exceeds him in size," etc. Ibid., p. 32, third paragraph. "The largest of all known eagles, and nearly related to II. Washingtoni (And.). It differs from the latter as described by Audubon in being generally larger," etc. Ibid., p. 38. "It is the largest of the eagles and appears to be related to the species immediately succeeding" (II. Washingtoni). Ibid., p. 110.

<sup>‡</sup> Pallas says of his Aquila pelagica, which Cassin makes identical with his H. pelagicus: "Caudæ 1' 1", longitudo alæ compositæ 1", 11", 2""; which dimensions do not indicate a bird larger than avarage examples of H. leucocephalus or H. albiculta.

tors of this group to this evident discrepancy of proportions in Mr. Cassin's description. An error in Mr. Cassin's figure also demands attention, which is doubtless due to an inadvertency of the artist. This consists in the scales on the front of the tarsus being arranged as Mr. Cassin says he never saw in any rapacious bird, namely, continued to the toes in broad, unbroken transverse plates, nearly as in Audubon's figure of the H. Washingtoni!

# 92.\* Polyborus brasiliensis Audubon. CARACARA EAGLE. "KING BUZZARD."

Milvus brasiliensis RAY, Synop. Method. Av. et Pisc., 17, No. 6, 1713.

Circus brasiliensis Brisson, Ornithologie, I, 116, No. 31, 1760.

Falco brasiliensis Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 262, 1788.

Fulco tharus Molina, Sagg. sul. Storia Nat. del Chile, 1782.

Polyborus tharus Cassin, Illust. Birds of Cal. and Texas, 113, 1856. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 45, 1858.

Polyborus vulgaris Vieillot, Nouv. Dict., V, 257, 1816. — Audueon, Orn. Biog., II, 350, pl. clxi (young).

Polyborus brasiliensis Audubon, Synop., 4, 1839. — Bonap., Consp. Gen. Av., 13, 1850.

"Frequent at Enterprise, associating with the vultures." — Boardman. The swallow-tailed hawk (Nauclerus furcatus) became more or less common early in March. I also saw a specimen of the Mississippi kite (Ictinia mississippiensis) at Hawkinsville, March 15th.

#### STRIGIDÆ.

## 93. Bubo virginianus Swainson. GREAT-HORNED OWL.

Strix virginiana Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 287, 1788. — Wilson, Nuttall, Audubon.

Strix (Bubo) virginiana Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 82, 1831.

Bubo virginianus Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 6, 1838.— Audubon, Synop., 29, 1839.— Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, 177, 1854.— Cassin, Baird's Birds of N. Am., 1858.

Strix bubo, var. magellanicus Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 286, 1788

Strix pythaules Bartram, Travels, 289, 1791.

Bubo ludovicianus DAUDIN, Traité d'Orn., II, p. 210, 1800.

Bubo pinicola VIEILLOT, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 51, 1807.

Strix (Bubo) arctica Swainson, Faun. Bor. Am., II, 86, pl. xxx, 1831.

Bubo sub-arcticus Hov, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., VI, 211, 1852.

Not apparently numerous. Mr. Boardman states that he saw only a single specimen, which was killed at Enterprise. I did not observe it you. II.

above Lake George, and only heard its notes a few times below. Mr. Maynard gives it as rather common about Jacksonville, and says he frequently observed it elsewhere.

Mr. Cassin has very properly remarked that different specimens of this widely distributed species vary materially in size and color, and states that after having examined a large number of specimens from many localities he beheved that they were all of one species. He thought, however, that four leading varieties, which he called atlanticus, pacificus, arcticus, and magellanicus, could be distinguished. I am not disposed to regard them, however, as by any means strictly geographical, since specimens have been taken recently in Massachusetts that typically represent each of them.\* While there are doubtless more or less well-marked local forms of this species, as of all other widely distributed species, many of the differences on which the different varieties have been based are probably only individual.

## 94.\* Scops asio Bonaparte. MOTTLED OWL.

Strix asio Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 132, 1767. — Wilson, Am. Orn., V, 83, pl. xliii, fig. 1, 1812. — Audubon, Nuttall, etc.

Scops asio Bonaparte, Geog. and Comp. List, 6, 1838. — Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, 179, 1854. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 51, 1858. — Allen, Amer. Nat., II, 327, 1868.

Strix nævia GMELIN, Syst. Nat., 289, 1788. — WILSON, Am. Orn., III, 16, pl. xix, fig. 1, 1812.

Bubo striatus VIEILLOT, Ois. Am. Sept., I, 54, pl. xxi, 1807.

Ephialtes choliba LAWRENCE, Ann. N. Y. Lyc. Nat. Hist., VI, 4, 1854.

Scops McCalli Cassin, Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, 180, 1854. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 52, 1858.

Scops Kennicotti Elliot, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1867, 69. — Ibid., Illust. Birds N. Am., pl. xi. — Baird, Trans. Chicago Acad. Sci., I, 311, pl. xxvii, 1869.

Specimens were procured by Mr. Maynard, by whom, and also by Mr. Boardman, it is reported as not unfrequent.

The remarkable differences in the color of the plumage this species presents has led many to suppose it embraced two well-marked species, the red stage being recognized as one and the gray or mottled as another. Gmelin described the red stage as Strix asio (which is the same as the Strix asio of Linné, and the Scops carolinensis of Brisson) and the gray stage as Strix navia. Wilson redescribed these different stages as distinct species. Bonaparte was the first to regard them as identical, he believing

the differences in plumage to be the result of age.\* The red he believed to be the young bird, and the mottled the adult, which opinion was also entertained by Audubon. During the last thirty years, however, they have been by some authors again regarded as distinct species; † by others ‡ the gray were regarded as the adult and the red as the young, while some have held the opinion that the difference in color was sexual. A general survey of the facts, either on record or known to me, show that the young birds are sometimes gray and sometimes red; that red young have sometimes red parents and sometimes gray; that the female is sometimes red and sometimes gray; and also that both sexes of a mated breeding pair of old birds are sometimes alike in color and sometimes different. Hence the opinion already advanced, § that this variation is dependent upon neither age nor sex, but is simply a case of irregular and somewhat remarkable individual variation of a single species, seems a well-founded one. But these different stages, though usually so different, are not always well marked, so that one is often at a loss to know whether to refer certain specimens to the red series or to the gray. In other words, specimens occur of every intermediate grade between the typically bright red stage and the typically gray stage.

I have already given my reasons for referring the Scops McCalli of Cassin to the common S. asia, of which it is merely the somewhat smaller southern type.§ It is also difficult to perceive wherein the Scops Kennicotti Elliot, known thus far from a single specimen, differs essentially from a common phase of S. asia.

- \* "Observations on the Nomenclature of Wilson's Ornithology," Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1st Ser., Vol. III, p. 357, 1824. "Synopsis of the Birds of the United States," Annals N. Y. Lyc. Nat. Hist., Vol. II, p. 36, 1828.
- † MICHNER, Dr. EZRA, "A few Facts in Relation to the Identity of the Red and Mottled Owls," Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1st Ser., Vol. VII, p. 53, 1834. Hoy, Dr. P. R., "Notes on the Ornithology of Wisconsin," Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. VI, p. 306, 1853; Ibid., Transact. Wisconsin Agr. Soc., Vol. II (1852), p. 344, 1853.
- † Cabot, Dr. S., Jr., "Observations on the Plumage of the Red and Mottled Owls," Journ. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. II, p. 126, 1838.
- § Allen, J. A., "Notes on the Red and Mottled Owls," American Naturalist, Vol. II, p. 327, 1868.

|| Since the above was written two adult specimens of this species have been received at the Museum from Dallas, Texas, one of which is of the mottled and the other of the red type of plumage. The specimen in mottled plumage, besides being generally darker throughout than northern specimens, has also the dark markings broader and blacker. The specimen in red plumage has the red more intense than it is in specimens of the northern red type. Both the Texas specimens are a little smaller than average New England specimens.

I have seen no specimens as yet from Florida, but from Mr. Cassin having referred a specimen from Indian River, (Fla.,) provisionally to his Scops Mc Calli, they would seem to differ but little from Texas specimens, resembling them, as would be naturally expected, more than northern ones.

## 95.\* Syrnium nebulosum Gray. BARRED OWL.

Strix nebulosa Forster, Trans. London Philos. Soc., LXII, 386, 424, 1772. — Wilson, Am. Orn., IV, 61, pl. xxxiii, fig. 2, 1812. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., I, 242, pl. xlvi, 1832.

Syrnum nebulosum Gould, Birds of Europe, I, pl. xlvi, 1832. — Audubon, Synop., 27, 1839. — Cassin, Illustr. Birds of Cal. and Texas, 184, 1854. — Brewer, N. Am. Oöl., I, 72, 1857. — Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 56, 1858.

Ulula nebulosa Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 7, 1838. — DONAP., Conspect. Gen. Av., I, 53, 1851.

Strix chichictli Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 296, 1788.

Strix acclamator Bartram, Travels, 289, 1791.

Strix fernandica Shaw, Gen. Zoöl., VII, 263, 1809.

Very abundant. The only species of owl at all common. Their ludicrous notes are heard at night everywhere, and not unfrequently during the day. At night they often startle the traveller by their strange utterances from the trees over his head.

The four Florida specimens of this species before me are several shades darker than New England specimens, one only of a considerable series of the latter being as dark as the lightest-colored Florida example. The Florida specimens are also a little smaller than the northern ones.

# Measurements of Florida Specimens of Syrnium Nebulosum.

M. C. Z.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
5241 5242 5299	000	Lake Dexter  "Enterprise Hawkinsville	Feb. 14, '69 Feb. 14, '69 Feb. 25, '69 Mar. 15, '69	T. Marcy	20.00 20.00 19.50 19.75	45.75 46.25 45.75 46.00	14 00 14.00 13 00 13.25	8 75 8.75 9.00

# 96.\* Otus brachyotus Boie. Short-Eared Owl.

Strix brachyotus GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 269, 1788. — FORSTER, Trans. Lond.
Phil. Soc., LXII, 384, 1772. — Wilson, Am. Orn., IV, 64, pl. xxxiii, fig. 3, 1812. — Bonap., Ann. N. Y. Lyc. N. Hist., II, 37, 1828. — Audubon, Orn. Biog., V, 373, pl. eccexxxii, 1835. — Rich. & Swain., Faun. Bor. Am., I, 75, 1831.

Otus brachyotus Boie, Isis, 1822, 549. — Audueon, Syn., 28, 1839. — Cassin,
 Illust. Birds Cal. and Texas, 182, 1854. — G. R. Gray, Gen. of Birds, I, 40.
 — Ibid., Cat. Brit. Birds, 27, 1863.

Otus palustris Breim, Vög. Deutschl., I, 124.

Brachyotus palustris Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 7, 1838.

Brachyotus Cassini Brewer, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., V, 321, 1856.— Brewer, N. Am. Oöl., I, 68, 1857.— Cassin, Baird's Birds N. Am., 54, 1858. "Quite common about marshes." - Boardman.

Specimens of this bird from Europe, in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, are not appreciably different from others from various parts of the United States. Neither do the habits of the European bird appear to differ from those of the American, as some have supposed. Dr. Richardson described its principal haunts in the Fur Countries as being "dense thickets of young pine-trees or dark entangled willow clumps, where it sits on a low branch, watching assiduously for mice." But it is now well known to more commonly frequent open fields and savannas, situations similar to those the European frequents.

An interesting state of plumage of this owl is exhibited by two pairs taken on Muskeget Island, Massachusetts, about July 1, 1870, by Messrs. C. J. Maynard and William Brewster, in which the color is so light as to almost suggest their being albinos. They are many shades lighter than the specimens of this species are from the interior, and show clearly, when taken in connection with the light race of Arvicola riparius (Arvicola Breweri Baird), also occurring on this small sandy island, the effect of the combined influence of an absence of shade and the increased light caused by reflection from the light-colored sand. The influence of similar circumstances is seen on a large scale in the birds and mammals of the Colorado desert and the arid peninsula of Lower California, and in less degree on the open arid plains of the middle region of the continent.

The long-eared owl, Otus vulgaris Fleming,\* may be expected, from its known distribution, to also occur in Florida.

#### 97.\* Strix flammea Linné. BARN OWL.

Strix flammea Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 133, 1767. — Wilson, Nuttall, Audubon (Orn. Biog.), Bonaparte (Synop.).

Strix pratincola Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 7, 1838. — Cassin, Brewer, and recent American authors.

Strix americana Audubon, Synop., 25, 1839.

Strix perlata Bonap., Consp. Gen. Av., I, 55, 1850.

Strix furcata Temm., Pl. Col., I, 432.

A specimen was taken by Mr. Thaxter at St. Augustine. Mr.

\* Strix otus Linné, Faun. Suec., 24, 1761.

Strix otus americana et mexicana Gmelin, Syst. Nat., I, 288, 1788

Strix of Wilson, Bonap. (Synop.), Nuttall, Audubon (Orn. Biog.).

Otus vulgaris Fleming, Bri ish Animals, 60, 1828. — Audubon, Synop., 28, 1839. — G. R. Gray, Gen Birds, I, 40; Cat Brit. Birds, 26, 1863.

Otus Wilsonianus Lesson, Traité d'Orn., I, 110, 1831. — Cassin, Brewer, and recent American authors.

Otus americanus Bonar., Geog and Comp. List, 7, 1838.

Maynard informs me it was said to be common, and that at Dummitt's a hollow tree was shown him in which a pair of these birds had bred for several years. Audubon also speaks of it as being common in Florida.

Respecting the numerous species of late recognized in the *Strix flam-mea* group of owls, Mr. Cassin has, with great propriety, remarked that naturalists have "established species on very slender characters."

As is well known, different specimens from near the same locality vary considerably in color and size, while specimens from different continents are frequently almost undistinguishable. From the considerable number of specimens I have seen from distant points, as Europe, the United States, South America, Southern Asia, the West Indies, Australia, and South Africa, I see no reason why the *Strix flammea* may not be regarded as having a nearly cosmopolitan distribution, which indeed seems to be the present opinion of several European ornithologists. Nearly the same variations in color appear to occur on each continent, the general color in specimens from near the same locality varying from yellowish rufous to pale fulvous, and the dusky spots from being large and conspicuous to nearly obsolete or entirely wanting.

#### COLUMBIDÆ.

98.\* Chamæpelia passerina Swainson. GROUND DOVE.

Common, especially about cultivated grounds.

99.\* Zenædura carolinensis Bonaparte. Mourning Dove.

Columba carolinensis Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 286, 1766.— Gmelin, Wilson, Nuttall, Audubon (Orn. Biog.).

Columba marginata Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 286, 1766.

Ectopistes marginellus Woodhouse, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. VI, 104, 1852.

Zenadura carolinensis Bonaparte, Consp. Gen. Avium, II, 84, 1854.

Zenædura marginellus BONAPARTE, Ibid., 85.

Abundant. Among its favorite resorts are the wild orange-groves, where it feeds on the seeds of the decaying fruit. Smaller than at the north, with the metallic tints much brighter and more bronzy.

#### MELEAGRIDÆ.

100.\* Meleagris gallopavo Linne. WILD TURKEY.

Meleagris galloparo Linné, Syst. Nat., 268, 1766. — Gmelin, Wilson, Bona-Parte, Audubon, Nuttall, Baird, etc.

Meleagris americana Bartram, Travels, 290, 1791.

Meleagris sylvestris VIEILL, Nouv. Dict., IX, 447.

Meleagris fera Vieill., Galérie des Ois., II, 10, pl. x, 1824.

Meleagris mexicana Gould, Proc. Lond. Zoöl. Soc., 1856, 61.—Baird, Birds N. Am., 618, 1858.—Cooper & Baird, Orn. Cal., I, 523, 1870.

Gallopavo sylvestris, Novæ Angliæ Ray, Synopsis, 51, 1713.—LeConte, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., IX, 179, 1857.

Common and even quite numerous in those sections where it is not too much hunted. Mr. Boardman informs me that very fat male birds often weight twenty-five to twenty-eight pounds, but that the average weight of the males is eighteen to twenty pounds, and of the females six to ten pounds.

## THE ORIGIN OF THE DOMESTIC TURKEY.

Although it had been for a long time previously vaguely conjectured that the domestic turkey did not originate from the common wild turkey of North America, it was not until about 1856 that it was fully asserted that such was not its origin. In a paper read before the Zoölogical Society of London, in April, 1856, Mr. John Gould, the well-known English ornithologist, assigned this bird to the list of those domesticated animals whose origin had become involved in obscurity. He refers, however, to the fact of its known introduction into Europe from Mexico about 1524, and to the belief, shared by all naturalists from Linné up to that time, that the domesticated turkey was derived from the wild turkey of North America. He also states that, "on account of the great differences which are met with among our domestic turkeys, and the circumstance that the wild turkeys recently imported from North America not readily associating or pairing with them," he had for some years entertained the opinion that the wild turkey of the United States was not the original of the domestic turkey. He also at this time described a single specimen of a turkey from Mexico as belonging to a species distinct from the wild turkey of the United States, to which he gave the name of Meleagris mexicana. It differed, however, but slightly from the northern bird, mainly in having more white on the upper tail coverts. Although he claimed that it was of larger size, his measurements indicate it to be only barely above the average, and considerably smaller than the larger specimens from the Northern States. In considering it as distinct from the common wild turkey, he seems to have been greatly influenced by the locality whence his specimen came; as he states that he hardly thinks it probable that the common turkey, "authors to the contrary, notwithstanding," ranges very far into Mexico, since it is found, he says, along the southern boundary of Canada, which is nearly two thousand miles from Mexico. He deems it unlikely that a bird inhabiting "the cold regions of Canada

should also be indigenous to the hotter country of Mexico, whence," he adds, "and not from North America, the turkey was originally introduced into Europe"; thus leaving it to be inferred that, in his opinion, the Mexican bird—his new species—was the ancestor of the domestic turkey. The facts in respect to the distribution of the wild turkey are briefly these: It exists in Canada only in the warmer portions of that country, and thence southward uninterruptedly throughout the table-lands of Mexico.

Dr. Henry Bryant, of Boston, in reviewing Mr. Gould's paper, a few months after its appearance, took exceptions to the views of that gentleman, and in referring to the two principal statements made by Mr. Gould, namely, that the wild and domestic turkeys were structurally different, and refused to breed together, Dr. Bryant thus observes: "How far climate and other influences may have affected the domestic variety in England I do not yet know, but with us neither of these two statements is correct. If it were not for the difference in the plumage it would be impossible in many cases to distinguish the two birds; and even with this aid it is sometimes very difficult to decide with certainty when the specimen is a female.... The wild turkey breeds here with the tame variety quite as readily as could be expected; wherever the wild turkeys are numerous, it is an ordinary occurrence for the tame hen to prefer the wild gobbler to the domestic ones. I have had in my own possession wild hens that bred with the tame gobblers, - a fact much stranger than that of the wild gobbler breeding with the tame lien. But the most satisfactory proof of their specific identity is that the offspring of mixed blood is known to be hardier and more prolifie than the domestic variety, — a fact which cannot be reconciled with their specific diversity." \*

Dr. Bryant's facts, with those of previous writers, seem amply sufficient to settle the question as to the origin of the domestic turkey; yet a few months later Major John LeConte, who probably at that time had not seen Dr. Bryant's remarks, published a paper entitled "Observations on the Wild Turkey, or Gallopavo sylvestris of Ray."† In this paper he took the ground that the tame turkey could not possibly have been derived from the wild turkey of the United States. And, if what he states in support of his opinion as facts were such, they would go far towards rendering his position a tenable one, but in reality they are but baseless, dogmatic assumptions, which not only ran counter to the then generally received opinion, but were squarely opposed to unquestionable evidence already on record. Major LeConte's opinions, notwithstanding

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VI, p. 158, March, 1857.

<sup>†</sup> Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. IX, p. 179, September, 1857.

that they were based on groundless assumptions, as an investigation of the subject fully proves, have been so generally entertained by subsequent authors, who have accepted his statements without investigating the facts for themselves, that a careful revision of the subject is now required. Major LeConte observes: "Whoever has compared the wild turkey of the United States with the domestic animal of the same genus must have observed that there existed very striking differences between them." While asserting that "these differences do not consist of slight and unimportant particularities, but in radical disagreements, which ought to remain unchangeable under all circumstances, and which form good specific characteristics," his sole point of distinction consists "in the possession by the tame bird of an enormous palear or dewlap," which he affirms, contrary to fact, is not possessed by the wild bird. \* He refers also to the conviction that had long existed in his mind, that the two birds — the wild and domestie - "were really distinct species." "More than fifty years ago," he says, "when I first saw a wild turkey, I was led to conclude that one never could have been produced from the other. I have mentioned this to many ornithologists, but no one would take the trouble to investigate the matter [!]," etc. It does not appear, however, that even with him this long-standing conviction had resulted from a thorough investigation of the subject, for he gives no detailed comparison of the two, and many of his statements are not simply erroneous, but diametrically opposed to facts previously well substantiated. He refers to the early introduction of the turkey into Europe, and to the fact that it was found by the first explorers of America in both the wild and domesticated state. He alludes also to Mr. Gould's above-cited paper, remarking respecting it that he was unable to determine whether Mr. Gould's supposed new Mexican species was the same as the M. gallopavo, or was the original of the domestic bird. He thought, however, that the Mexican was identical with the common wild bird. He then remarks: "I have before observed that the turkey was found domesticated among the nations of Central America. Now the bird which we have native among us has never been domesticated. All attempts to conquer its peculiar habits have failed, notwithstanding what has been said and written on the subject to the contrary. I DEFY ANY ONE TO SHOW A TURKEY, EVEN OF THE FIRST GENERATION, PRODUCED FROM A PAIR HATCHED FROM A WILD HEN.† We have every year in our market offered for sale birds of a very dark color, and in some degree resembling the wild species; but in every instance, by the presence of the palear, the imposition can be detected at

<sup>\*</sup> It is usually, however, either entirely absent in the wild bird, or present only in a rudimentary state.

<sup>†</sup> The italicizing in this extract is of course mg own.

first sight, and the cheat exposed. I have known the eggs found in the woods hatched by a domestic hen, the chickens brought up earefully, and rendered so tame and familiar as to eat out of the hand, and to show considerable pleasure whenever persons with whom they were acquainted approached them. Yet they never would associate with the domestic turkeys, studiously avoiding their company, and in little more than a year running off to the woods, and never again returning to the haunts of their infancy. I know," he continues, "that I shall be contradicted in this statement, and many quotations from authors brought forward against me. I repeat, contrary to the assertions of many others, That no one has ever SUCCEEDED IN DOMESTICATING OUR WILD TURKEY. I speak not only from my own personal observations, but from the undivided testimony of many southern gentlemen. The turkey of our own poultry-yards, which, when young, is difficult to bring forward, it was thought might be obtained of a hardier race by a new domestication; but every attempt has failed, nor can I find a single well-authenticated case of a mixed breed being obtained." One is certainly at a loss to know what the self-confident Major would call a well-authenticated case of a mixed breed of wild and tame turkeys, since he must have been familiar with Bonaparte's excellent account, derived mainly from notes furnished him by Mr. Audubon, of this bird given in the first volume of his continuation of Wilson's "Ameriean Ornithology." In speaking of the mixing of the wild and tame turteys, this author remarks as follows: "This crossing often occurs in counries where wild and tame turkeys are frequent; it is well known that they will readily approach each other; and such is the influence of slavery upon even the turkey, that the robust inhabitant of the forest will drive his degenerate kinsfolk from their own food and from their females, being generally welcomed by the latter and by their owners, who well know the advantage of such a connection. . . . . Eggs of the wild turkey have been frequently taken from their nests and hatched under the tame hen; the young preserve a portion of their uncivilized nature, and exhibit some knowledge of the difference between themselves and their foster-mother, roosting apart from the tame ones, and in other respects showing the force of hereditary disposition. The domesticated young, reared from the eggs of the wild turkey, are often employed as decoy birds to those in a state of nature." \*

Audubon, in his account of the Canada goose, also incidentally refers to the crossing of the wild and tame turkeys, in a manner that leads us to suppose that it was to his knowledge a matter of common occurrence. He says: "The crossing of the Canada goose with the com-

<sup>\*</sup> Nearly the same words are used by Audubon in his Ornithological Biography and in his Birds of America.

mon domestic species has proved as advantageous as that of the wild with the tame turkey."\* He also states, "My friend, Dr. Bachman, assures me that in a state of domestication the wild turkeys, though kept separate from tame individuals, lose the brilliancy of their plumage in the third generation, becoming plain brown, and having here and there white feathers intermixed "†

The assertions of Major LeConte are so fully controverted by previously recorded testimony that they might have been justly ignored, had they not received, as already observed, the sanction of eminent authorities, and thus have come to be more or less currently adopted. Among the first to give them support was Professor Baird, of the Smithsonian Institution. This gentleman, in his work on the "Birds of North America," published less than two years subsequently to Major LeConte's paper, eites LeConte's opinions and statements, and partially indorses them, though he had not, he says, specimens at hand of the domestic bird for comparison with the wild one. To the data for their distinction adduced by Major LeConte, he adds a statement from Bonaparte in respect to the difference in color between the domestic and wild bird; Bonaparte observing that the wild bird never has the whitish tip to the tail which distinguishes the domestic ones. Professor Baird also adds that the flesh of the two differs in color, that of the wild bird being "much darker." He adds that, upon the whole, it is exceedingly probable that they are specifically distinct. "If the dewlap," he says, "be characteristic of a species at present only known in captivity, then, as Major LeConte remarks, it should bear the name of M. gallopavo, as based by Linnæus essentially upon the description by Brisson of Gallopavo sylvestris, in which this dewlap is particularly mentioned. In this event our wild bird will be entitled to a new name," etc. Professor Baird concludes his remarks on this subject with the following ingenious theory, which has been to some extent accepted as a probably correct one. "In conclusion," he says, "I venture to suggest the following hypothesis, which, however, is not original with myself: That there are really three species of turkey, besides the M. occilata, a fourth species from Central America, entirely different from the rest. That one of them, M. americana, is probably peculiar to the eastern half of North America; another, M. mexicana, belongs to Mexico, and extends along the table-lands to the Rocky Mountains, the Gila, and the Llano Estacado; and a third is the M. gallopavo, or domesticated bird. That it is not at all improbable that the last was originally indigenous to some one or more of the West Indian Islands, whence it was transplanted as tamed to Mexico, and from Mexico taken to Europe about A. D. 1520.

<sup>\*</sup> Birds of America, Vol. VI, p. 190.

<sup>†</sup> Ibid., Vol. V, p. 55.

Finally, that the wild turkeys were probably completely exterminated by the natives, as has been the case with equally large birds in other islands, as the dodo and solitaire.\* This hypothesis," he continues, "will explain the fact of our meeting nowhere at the present day any wild turkeys resembling the domestic one.†... The entire subject is one of much interest, and deserves to be investigated thoroughly. It is quite possible that a careful examination of the external form and habits of the New Mexican bird may do much to throw full light on the whole question."

It is not surprising that a theory presenting to the imagination so many attractive features, and indorsed by authority so eminent, should have been currently received, as has this, by those who have not had the opportunity, nor perhaps the desire, to examine the subject for themselves. But, if I mistake not, it has also been accepted as at least a probably correct hypothesis by many ornithologists.‡ I have, however, already adduced evidence from Bonaparte, Bachman, Audubon, and Bryant sufficient to show, not only the erroneous character of Major LeConte's fundamental proposition, to wit, that the wild turkey of the United States has never been and never can be domesticated, but that such an hypothesis as the one above quoted is wholly uncalled for. As the whole question of the origin of the domestic turkey and its relationship to the wild turkey of the United States turns, however, upon the fact of the domesticability or non-domesticability of the common wild turkey, it may perhaps be proper to bring forward some recent testimony respecting this disputed point.

I have myself always been more or less familiar with the domestic bird, and with the fact that breeds exist which closely resemble the wild bird, and which their owners claimed were one fourth, one half, or one eighth

- \* Mr. Darwin, in referring to this gratuitous theory, refers to the fact of the deterioration of the turkey within the tropics, and very properly to the "improbability of a bird having long ago become extinct in these large and luxuriant islands, or of its ever having been aboriginally an inhabitant of the lowlands of the tropics." (Animals and Plants under Domestication, Am. ed., Vol. I, p. 353, note.)
- † But does it explain the frequent occurrence of domestic ones so closely resembling the wild ones as to be quite undistinguishable from them?
- † Dr. Cooper, who considers the western wild turkey specifically distinct from the wild turkey of the east, appears to believe that the domestic turkey originated from the wild turkey of Mexico. He says: "It is well known that at the period of the Spanish discovery the native turkey was widely domesticated in Mexico, and was introduced thence first into Europe, and thence into North America. Furthermore, the native bird of Eastern North America does not occur in Mexico at all. The markings of the domestic turkey are sometimes exactly like those of the wild bird of Mexico, while they never assume the plumage of the wild Meleagris gallepavo of the north." (Orn. Cal., Vol. I, p. 523, 1870.) Dr. Cooper's last remark is unfortunately erroneous, since domestic birds do often occur, especially females, that cannot well be distinguished from wild northern birds.

wild blood, as the case might be, and which differed in habits in some respects from the common breeds. I have also been long conversant with the fact that in the Western States, and in those other parts of the country where the turkey exists in its native state, that the eggs of the wild bird are frequently taken and hatched under the domesticated turkey, the young earefully raised and held at high prices, they being considered as highly valuable for the purpose of improving the domestic breeds. In a recent correspondence with Mr. D. Darwin Hughes, an able ornithologist of Marshall, Michigan, I alluded to the fact that the domestication of the wild bird had been disputed, and requested him to give me any facts he might possess in reference to the subject. The facts given in the following extracts from his letters are fully corroborated by other private testimony in my possession.

Under date of October 25, 1869, he wrote me respecting the domestication of the wild bird as follows: "Here [Calhoun County, Michigan], where the wild bird is abundant, they mix freely with the tame ones, and it is a common thing to see large flocks of half-breeds; I have owned them myself. They are fond of roaming and are apt to stray; not to the woods exclusively, but also to other farms. I have known the pure wild bird, hatched from wild eggs and raised in the poultry-yard, to remain for years in the yard without being confined; but this is not usual. One fine gobbler, as beautiful a bird as I ever saw, was hatched from a wild egg and headed a flock of mixed turkeys in a barn-yard. He was tame, like the others, but easily distinguished by his wild plumage; at night the flock roosted in the yard, but this bird could not brook so low a perch, and when the flock went to roost he invariably took wing and perched on an immense forest-tree one fourth of a mile away, where he spent the night; but in the morning he always returned to the barn-yard. Such instances are not uncommon. The eggs are eagerly sought for for hatching, and in this manner, as I have before said, there is a liberal sprinkling of wild blood in domestic birds, where the wild birds are abundant. The eggs of the wild bird are found every year, and although I have offered at the rate of six to eight dollars per dozen for them, there is not one in my collection of eggs, which numbers over two hundred species, so eager are the finders of them to hatch them, the chicks selling for a large price."

In another letter, dated November 5, 1869, Mr. Hughes wrote me further concerning this subject, in which he remarks as follows: "I have already said that the wild bird has been so domesticated as to reproduce its kind in the poultry-yard, and inquiries made since my last letter show that in the more northern counties of the State such cases are quite common. I cannot agree with what is said in the ninth volume of the Pacific Railroad Reports (p. 617), that there is an appreciable difference in the

color of the flesh of the wild and tame birds when cooked. There probably is some difference in color, but so little that one must have very acute powers of observation to tell the difference when brought to the table roasted. There is a difference in the color of the head, caruncles, and dewlaps, as stated by Professor Baird, but with my present means of knowledge, having no fresh specimens before me, I will not undertake to describe the differences. One thing, however, should not be forgotten; that we see the tame bird under all circumstances of passion,—in fear and when proudly strutting; in short, under all the different emotions that turkeys are heirs to, while we rarely or never see the wild turkey under such varied circumstances, but only when they are terror-stricken or dead. The head and neck in the tame bird makes rapid and surprising changes in sympathy with its emotions, and it may be so, and probably is, with the wild."

From the evidence that has now been given, it is sufficiently apparent that Major LeConte's two fundamental assumptions,—first, that the wild bird will not mix or breed with the domesticated; and, second, that the wild bird never has been and cannot be domesticated,—upon which was erected an hypothesis to explain the origin of the domesticated bird by referring it to an extinct ancestor that probably inhabited some of the West Indian Islands, are entirely groundless, and never had for their support only the negative evidence afforded by the limited experience of Major LeConte and a few of his friends.

Inasmuch as the domestic turkey was first introduced into Europe from Mexico, it may be well in this connection to inquire further into the relationship of the so-called M. mexicana, or Mexican turkey, to the wild turkey of the eastern part of the United States. As already stated, the M. mexicana was originally described by Mr. Gould from a single specimen from Mexico. This specimen differs but slightly from the common wild turkey of the eastern part of the continent. But like many other merely nominal species, this "Mexican turkey" has been since generally recognized by writers on American ornithology, doubtless mainly because its describer was deemed too eminent a naturalist to be mistaken on such a point. Its habitat has been since extended to embrace half of that portion of the continent over which the wild turkey ranges, - the entire western half of the United States; yet the point at which the habitat of the eastern species eeases and that of the western begins, no one has yet ventured to attempt to definitely indicate. It is universally conceded to be exceedingly closely allied to the M. gallopavo, as the latter is now defined. Though admitted provisionally as a valid species by Professor Baird in his work already cited, he says that "whether these differences can be considered as establishing a second species for the United States is a

question yet to be decided." Dr. Coues, however, in his "List of the Birds of Fort Whipple, Arizona," \* says he thinks there can be no doubt respecting the propriety of separating the "western turkey from the common species of the Eastern United States"; but he has given us no information as to how great the differences between them are, or in what they consist. As mentioned by Gould and by Baird, the Mexican bird differs from the eastern one only in being lighter colored, and in having, in correlation with the generally lighter color of the plumage, the terminal band of the tail, as also the tips of the tail coverts, whitish instead of pale brown, as the eastern bird usually has them. This, however, seems by no means necessarily a specific difference, it being only a slight geographical variation, not restricted to the turkey, but which runs through most species of both birds and mammals that have the same distribution; the probable cause of which variation I have already adverted to in Part III. The common eastern turkey occasionally approaches much nearer to the so-called Mexican bird than appears to be generally supposed. According to some authors, the tip of the tail in M. gallopavo is never whitish, but "plain chestnut, lighter than the ground color" of the tail. Yet of five specimens in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy from one of the Western States, probably either Ohio or Michigan, two correspond with the description of the assumed typical M. gallopavo, two very nearly as well with that of the so-called M. mexicana, and one is intermediate between them. Three of them are decidedly lighter colored, and possess a lighter terminal band to the tail than they should to correspond with the true M. galloparo as recently defined. I have, on the whole, no hesitancy in referring the M. mexicana Gould to the M. gallopavo Linné. The unquestionable specific identity of the domestic turkey with the wild one of the Eastern United States, though originally derived from the Mexican bird, seems further to support this view. From the great constancy of the white on the tail and its coverts in the domestic turkey, it has been thought to more resemble the western bird, or the M. mexicana, than the eastern. I need, however, only to recall the testimony of Dr. Bachman, already given in discussing another point, to show that it has necessarily no such significance. It will be remembered that Dr. Bachman states that he had known the wild birds of the Atlantic States, when kept entirely by themselves, to become more or less white under confinement in three generations.† Instead of this being either a "reversion" or a distinctive specific feature, it can be regarded only as the result of a diminution of the coloring matter through degeneracy, under the influences of domestication.

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., Vol. XVIII, p. 93, 1866. Republished under the title of "Prodrome of a Work on the Ornithology of Arizona Territory."

<sup>†</sup> Mr. Darwin mentions a similar fact as having happened in England. (Animals and Plants under Domestication, Vol. I, p. 354).

As the whole plumage becomes lighter, those portions that are naturally lightest are those we should expect would soonest become white; and such is actually the case. Under domestication the turkey not only degenerates in size and hardiness, but is well known to soon lose much of the brilliancy of plumage that characterizes it in a state of nature. In a few generations it loses to a great extent its metallic tints, and becomes much lighter colored; the terminal band of the tail, as well as its coverts, changes to white, and in succeeding generations the cream-colored and pure white birds often seen in our poultry-yards are gradually developed.

The fact of the domestic turkey having been first introduced into Europe from Mexico, and into the United States from Europe, admits of easy explanation; since the advanced state of civilization enjoyed by the native Mexicans had enabled them to domesticate the turkey, while their more degraded neighbors of the north had accomplished nothing of the kind. The turkey having been introduced into Europe nearly a century before the establishment of permanent settlements in the northern portions of the continent, it was, of course, as naturally introduced thence into this country as were our other domesticated animals.

# PERDICIDÆ.

# 101.\* Ortyx virginianus Bonaparte. QUAIL.

Tetrao virginianus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 277, 1766.

Tetrao marilandicus Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 277, 1766.

Ortyx borcalis Stephens, Shaw's Zool, XI, 377, 1819.

Perdix (Ortyx) virginiana Bonar., Obs. on Wils. Nomen., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1st Ser., IV, 268, 1825.

Ortyx virginianus Baird, Birds N. Am., 640, 1838. — Marcii, "Notes on Birds of Jamaica," Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., XV, 303, 1863.

Ortyx texanus Lawrence, Ann. N. Y. Lye. Nat. Hist., VI, 1, 1853.—Baird, Birds N. Amer., 641, 1858.

#### Abundant.

The quails of Florida differ from those of the Northern States in being smaller, larger billed, and darker colored. While the difference in size is very appreciable, as is also that in respect to the size of the bill, — the bill being actually larger while there is a general decrease in the size of the individual, — the most marked dissimilarity is in the coloration, through the darker color of the Florida birds. In the latter the ground color above is rufous instead of ashen, as in northern specimens, and the transverse black markings are broader. In average northern specimens the transverse black bars on the lower surface of the body are scarcely half the breadth of the intervening white spaces; in the Florida specimens they are much more than half, and in some cases nearly equal them. In

general the proportion of black in the Florida females is the same as that in the northern males. There is a similar relative increase in the extent of the black markings on the wing coverts, scapulars, and interscapulars, and on the dorsal surface generally. The black border to the white throatpatch is also broader, and extends back on the sides of the head so as usually to cover the auriculars, which in average northern specimens are dark rufous. The bill is also much darker, being generally jet black; in Massachusetts specimens it is brownish black, with the tip decidedly lighter than the other parts.

The so-called Texas quail (Ortyx texanus Lawr.) does not differ very greatly from either the Florida or the northern ones, it combining some of the essential characters of each, but more resembling Florida specimens than northern ones. Lawrence and Baird mention the ashen or decided gray hue on portions of the dorsal surface as distinguishing it from the O. virginianus, which has these parts of a "dull pinkish red." "A dull pinkish red," however, is just the color of these parts in my Florida specimens; but the Massachusetts specimens, on the contrary, are ashen, as already stated, and in this respect agree with the descriptions of the Texas form, and differ from the Florida ones in the same way that the Texas ones are said to do from those of the Atlantic coast of the Middle and Southern States. In both the Florida and Texas specimens there is a similar increase in the breadth of the black transverse markings, Lawrence describing them as being twice as broad in the Texas specimens as in the northern ones.

The Ortyx cubanensis of Cabanis appears scarcely to differ from the quails of Florida and Texas. D'Orbigny and Lembeye were hence doubtless correct in believing the so-called Ortyx cubanensis to be identical with the O. virginianus.

The following summary of the subjoined tables shows the difference in size that obtains between northern and southern specimens, and also in the sexes. The largest Florida specimen, it will be seen, scarcely equals the smallest northern one, when those of the same sex are compared.

No. of Speci- mens.	Sex.	Locality.		Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.
7	3	Illinois	Average	10.18	15.44	4.47	2.82
16	ੂ ਨੂੰ '	Florida	Average	9.46	14 16	4.22	2.52
6	Ŷ	Illinois	Average	9.83	15.10	4.36	2 67
10	Ŷ	Florida	Average	9.37	14.02	4 17	2.54
10	Ŷ	44	Maximum	10.00	14 50	4 40	2.77
10	Ç	6.6	Minimum	9 00	13.10	3.35	2.50
16	3	4.6	Maximum	10 00	14 75	4.50	3.00
16	ð		Minimum	9.00	13.80	4.00	2 30
7	ð	Illinois	Maximum	10.50	15.60	4.60	3 00
7	3	6.6	Minimum	10.00	15.00	4.37	2.55
6	2	44	Maximum	10.25	15.50	4 50	2.85
6	9	44	Minimum	9.50	14.50	4.25	2.45

# Measurements of Florida Specimens of ORTYX VIRGINIANUS.

M.C.Z.	Coll. No	Sex.	Locality	Date	Collector.	Length	Alar Extent.	Wing	Tail.
5151		ਰ	Hibernia	Jan. 30, '69	J A. Allen	9.25	14 75	4.15	2.40
5152		3	6.6	Jan 30, 69	4.6	9 25	14.10	4.00	2.60
5183	$\equiv$	ਰ	44	Jan. 30, '69	4.4	9.00	14 00	4 00	2.30
5184		3	6.6	Jan. 30, *69	4.6	9 25	14 25	4.10	2 50
5337		3	Enterprise	Mar 4, 69	6.6	9 65	14 50	4.40	2 40
5336		3	4.6	Mar. 4, 69	4.4	9.50	14 25	4.15	2 50
10578	1990	3	Jacksonville	Jan. 9, 69	C. J. Maynard	9.50	13.80	4.30	2 80
10579	1990	3	4.6	Jan 9, 69	6.6	9 35	14.15	4.45	2 53
10580	1991	3	6.6	Jan. 9, 69	6.6	9.30	14.30	4.00	2 30
10583	2547	ਰ	Dummitt's	Mar. 8, '69	6.6	10.00	14 08	4.10	2 65
	2546	3	4.4	Mar. 7, 69	- 44	9.30	14.05	4 25	3.00
	2562	8	6.6	Mar 9, '69	6.6	9.85	13.80	4 45	2 84
10583	2472	ਰ	4.6	Feb. 24, '69	46	9.50	14 00	4 25	2.50
	2517	3	4.6	Mar. 4, '69	4.6	9 25	14 00	4 40	2.70
10581	256I	₫	4.6	Mar. 9, '69	4.4	9.70	14.08	4 25	2 65
10581	2356		6.4	Feb. 16, '69	4.6	9 70	14.50	4 50	2 70
10589	2456	Ŷ	4.6	Feb. 24, '69	44	10.00	14 50	4.25	2 55
	2795	8	44	Feb. 16, '69	4.4	9.00	13.75	3 35	2.70
	2615	Ť	1.4	Mar. 8, '69	44	9 50	14 20	4 10	2 57
	1993	1 5	Jacksonville	Jan 9, 69	4.6	9 35	14.10	4 35	2.70
	1994	1 5	4.4	Jan. 9, '69	4.6	9 40	13 10	4 35	2.65
	1995	8	4.6	Jan. 9, '69	4.6	9 50	13.60	4.40	2.77
5182		C+0+00+0+0+0+0+00	Hibernia	Jan. 30, *69	J. A. Allen	9.35	14 25	4.10	2.30
5338		9	Enterprise	Mar. 4, 69	4.4	9 00	14 00	4 (15	2.33
5351	_	Ŷ	4.6	Mar. 5, 69	44	9.40	14 50	4.30	2.45
5352	_	Ų	6.6	Mar. 5, '69	66	9.25	14 15	4.15	2.47

# Measurements of Northern Specimens of Ortyx Virginianus.

M. C. Z No.	Sex.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length	Alar Exteut.	Wing	Tail.
13096	ď	Northern Illinois	Jan. 18, 71		10.25	15.00	-445	2.72
10410	3	44	Jan. 18, '71		10.00	15 45	4.60	2.75
10408	8	44	Jan. 18, 71		10 (0	15.00	4 40	2.85
10411	ਰ	4.6	Jan. 18, '71		10 50	15.50	4.50	2 75
13099	ਰ	4.4	Jan. 18, '71		10 25	15.60	4.60	3 00
13098	ਰ	4.6	Jan. 18, 71		10 28	15.25	4 50	2 90
13097	ਰ	4.6	Jan. 18, 71		10 00	15 25	4 37	2.55
13101	9	4.6	Jan. 18, '71		10.25	15 50	4.45	2 72
10407	2	4.6	Jan. 18, 71		9.50	14 50	4.25	2 73
10409	2	4.6	Jan. 18, 71		10 00	14.85	4.50	2.85
10412	2	44	Jan. 18, 71		9.85	15 25	4.38	2.48
10406	0+0+0+0+0+0	44	Jan. 18, 71		9.50	15 20	4.50	2.45
13100	9	4.6	Jan. 18, 71		9.85	15.10	4 30	2.60

# CHARADRIIDÆ.

102.† Squartarola helvetica Cuvier. BLACK-BELLIED PLOVER.

"Some remain on the shores of the Floridas in winter." — Audubon.\*

103.† Charadrius virginicus Borck. Golden Plover.

"St. Augustine; rare." — Boardman.

\* Birds of America, Vol. V, p. 200.

- 104.\* Ægialitis vociferus Cassin. Killdee Plover. Abundant.
  - 105.\* Ægialitis Wilsonius Cassin. Wilson's Plover.

Not recently reported as found in Florida in the winter months. Audubon observes: "While in the Floridas, near St. Augustine, in the months of December and January, I found this species much more abundant than any other." \*

- 106.† Ægialitis semipalmatus Cabanis. Semi-palmated Plover.
- "Not uncommon at St. Augustine throughout the winter." Boardman.
  - 107.† Ægialitis melodus Cabanis. Piping Plover.

    Observed at St. Augustine in the winter months by Mr. Boardman.

### HÆMATOPODIDÆ.

108.† Hæmatopus palliatus Temminck. OYSTER-CATCHER. Given by Mr. Boardman as rare in winter at St. Augustine.

109.† Strepsilas interpres Illiger. Turnstone. "Rare at St. Augustine in winter." — Boardman.

#### SCOLOPACIDÆ.

110.\* Philohela minor Gray. Woodcock.

More or less common. Probably resident.

111. (†?) Gallinago Wilsoni Bonaparte. SNIPE.

Abundant Probably resident. Florida specimens are darker colored and have longer bills than northern ones.

- 112.† Calidris arenaria Illiger. Sanderling.
- "Common at St. Augustine." Boardman. "Abundant on Indian River." Maynard.
  - 113.† Pelidna americana Coues. Red-Backed Sandpiper.
  - " Common." Maynard. Boardman.
    - 114.† Ereunetes pusillus Cassin. Semi-palmated Sandpiper.
  - " Common." Maynard.

- 115.† Actodromas minutilla Coues. LEAST SANDPIPER.
- " Common." Maynard.
- 116.† Actodromas Bonapartel Cassin. White-Rumped Sandpiper.
- "St. Augustine." Audubon.
  - 117.\* Symphemia semipalmata Hartlaub. WILLET.
- "Indian River to St. Augustine. Breeds in March." Maynard.
- 118.† Gambetta flavipes Bonaparte. Yellow-legs. Common.
- 119.† Gambetta melanoleuca Bonaparte. Greater Yellow-legs. Common.
- 120.\* Tringoides macularius Gray. Spotted Sandpiper. Common.
  - 121.\* Limosa fedoa Ord. MARBLED GODWIT.

Common. Reported to Mr. Maynard as common all the year near St. Augustine, but where it nested was unknown to his informants.

- 122.† Numenius hudsonicus Latham. Hudsonian Curlew.
  - 123.† Numenius borealis Latham. Esquimaux Curlew.

I have no knowledge of the actual occurrence of these two species in East Florida, yet they apparently must occur as winter visitors. Dr. Coues gives them as winter visitors in his South Carolina list, and they are well known to range at this season southward into the tropics.

- 124.† Numenius longirostris Wilson. Long-Billed Curlew.
- "Very abundant on the coast." Boardman.

Several other species of this family are well known to pass through East Florida in their migrations, and perhaps a few others are winter residents there.

### RECURVIROSTRIDÆ.

125.\* Himantopus nigricollis Vieillot. Black-necked Stilt.

Audubon says it is found in Florida in winter.\* Mr. Boardman gives it as "quite common at Enterprise after the 15th of March."

<sup>·</sup> Birds of America, Vol. VI, p. 85.

126.† Recurvirostra americana Gmelin. Avoser.

This species must occur in Florida as a winter visitor, but I have as yet seen no specimens that were collected there.

#### GRUIDÆ.

127.\* Crus canadensis Temminck. Brown Crane.

Abundant.

In 1853, in the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History,\* Dr. Bryant discussed at length the question of the relationship of G americana Ord to the G. canadensis, and arrived at the conclusion that while the young of the G. americana, or white whooping crane, might be brown like the mature G. canadensis, or sand-hill crane, that the two were distinct species; and this conclusion ornithologists seem to have generally adopted. I saw none of the white birds in Florida, where the brown were very numerous. In Iowa I have seen both, but only at a distance. The account given by Dr. Bryant of the breeding of the sand-hill crane in Florida is very complete and interesting. According to this author the eggs, two in number, are laid from early in February till about the middle of April.†

# RALLIDÆ.

128.\* Rallus elegans Audubon. Marsh Hem. Common.

129.\* Rallus crepitans Gmelin. CLAPPER RAIL. Common.

130.† Rallus virginianus Linne. VIRGINIA RAIL.
"Common along the St. John's River." — Boardman.

131.† Porzana carolina Vieillot. CAROLINA RAIL. "Common." — Maynard.

132.(†?) Porzana noveboracensis Cassin. Yellow Rail.
"Common throughout the winter along the St. John's." — Boardman.

133.† Fulica americana Gmelin. Coor.

Abundant. As numerous the 1st of April as during the winter.

134.\* Gallinula galeata Bonaparte. FLORIDA GALLINULE. Abundant.

\* Vol. IV, p. 303.

t See also on this point the same Proceedings, Vol. VII, p. 14.

135.\* Gallinula martinica Latham. Purple Gallinule.

Well known as a resident bird of Florida, but not observed by either Messrs. Maynard and Boardman or myself.

#### ARDEIDÆ.

136.\* Demiegretta ludoviciana Baird. Louisiana Heron. Common.

137.\* Demiegretta Pealei Baird. PEALE'S EGRET.

Several specimens of this beautiful species were brought home by Mr. Maynard from Indian River, taken at Dummitt's. This is somewhat farther north than any point from which it has been previously reported.

138.\* Garzetta candidissima Bonaparte. LITTLE WHITE HERON. Abundant. Breeds in February and March.

139.\* Herodias egretta Gray. WHITE HERON.

Abundant. Breeds early in the season. At a small heronry on an islet in Lake Dexter I found several nests containing nearly fledged young, March 23d. The nests, built eight to fifteen feet above the ground, were composed of a few sticks loosely put together. Often they were placed in the tops of bushes which were thickly overgrown with woody vines. The young, when shaken from the nest, climbed through the vines, using their bills as an organ of prehension, either seizing the branches between their mandibles or hooking their bills over them, and clung so closely that it was exceedingly difficult to dislodge them.

This and the preceding species are greatly persecuted by the hunters, who sometimes destroy great numbers at their breeding places, so many of the birds being killed and the others so much alarmed, that large heronries are thus completely broken up. Some gunners make it their business to hunt them for their plumes. Some means should be devised, however, for the protection of these beautiful birds, as at their present rate of decrease their number will soon be greatly diminished.

140. \* Ardea herodias Linné. GREAT BLUE HERON.

Abundant. Breeds in the retired swamps, nesting in the highest cypress-trees. It is rare that more than a single nest is seen in one

tree, but often several pairs breed near each other. Young, a third grown, were met with as early as the 12th of March. This species breeds while in immature plumage, young females being found mated with adult males, and *vice versa*. The only very appreciable external sexual difference is that of size, the males, as is generally the case in this family, being much larger than the females.

141.\* Florida cærulea Baird. SMALL BLUE HERON.

Common.

142.\* Ardetta exilis Gray. LITTLE BITTERN.

Not common.

143.† Botaurus lentiginosus Stephens. BITTERN. Very common at some localities.

144.\* Butorides virescens Bonaparte. GREEN HERON.

Not uncommon. Smaller than northern specimens, the Florida examples being intermediate in size between those from New England and the West Indies, the latter of which are usually regarded as a distinct species, under the name of *B. brunnescens*. They also decidedly approach the West Indian type in coloration.

# 145.\* Nycticorax griseus Gray. Night Heron.

Ardea nycticorax Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 235. — Wilson, Audubon, Nuttall, Bonaparte etc.

Ardea grisea Linné, Syst. Nat., I, 239, 1766.

Ardea Gardeni GMELIN, Syst. Nat., I, 644, 1788.

Nycticorax europæus Steph., Gen. Zoöl., XI, 609, pl. xlvii.

Nycticorax americana Bonap., Geog. and Comp. List, 48, 1838.

Nycticorax Garden Jardine, Notes to Wilson's Orn. — Bonap., Conspectus Gen. Avium, II, 141, 1855.

Nyctiardea Gardeni Baird, Birds N. Am., 678, 1858, and subsequent American authors.

I did not observe this species on the St. John's, but Mr. Maynard found it more or less common on Indian River and Mosquito Lagoon. Mr. Boardman gives it as "not rare." It is said to be resident the whole year in Florida, by Audubon.

Having compared specimens of the American night heron with others from various parts of the Old World, I see no reason for considering them specifically distinct, though so considered by all American and some European ornithologists. The differences between them are scarcely appreciable.

#### TANTALIDÆ.

# 146.\* Tantalus loculator Linno WOOD IBIS. "GANNET."

Common on the Upper St. John's. In March they were undergoing their spring moult, and were consequently in poor plumage. According to Dr. Bryant, who is the first and only writer, so far as I am aware, who has minutely described their eggs and breeding habits, incubation is generally commenced by the 1st of April. Dr. Bryant visited two of their breeding places, one of which was between New Smyrna and Enterprise, in a large cypress swamp on the southern border of Lake Ashby. He estimated that a thousand pairs were breeding there.

There is a singular discrepancy in the accounts of authors in respect to the habits of this bird. Bartram mentions it as solitary in its habits, not associating in flocks. Audubon, always finding it in large flocks, calls attention to this remark of Mr. Bartram as being wholly erroneous, and regrets that his account had been so extensively copied by authors. Dr. Bryant fully corroborates Bartram's account, and censures Audubon for not remembering that birds vary in their habits at different times and places. He says he never saw it in flocks except at its breeding places, and that they usually went off and returned either singly or in pairs. I saw wood ibises more or less frequently on the Upper St. John's for four or five weeks, and only in two or three instances singly or in pairs. I almost invariably saw them in flocks, both at their feeding grounds and flying in the air, they varying in number from a dozen to a hundred. While more or less gregarious at all times, they often doubtless also separate into pairs or wander singly.

In East Florida the wood ibises are called "gannets." Under this name they were described to Audubon when he visited that country, and concerning which he remarks: "On asking the appearance of the Gannets, I was told they were large white birds, with wings black at the end, a long neck, and a large sharp bill. The description so far agreeing with that of the common gannet or solan goose, I proposed no questions respecting the legs or tail, but went off." On visiting the locality where they were said to occur, he was surprised to find the trees covered with wood ibises. He hence adds: "Now as the good people who gave the information spoke according to their knowledge, and agreeably to their custom of calling the ibises gannets, had I not gone to the pond, I might have written this day that gannets are found

in the interior of the woods in the Floridas, that they alight on trees, etc., which, if once published, would in all probability have gone down to future times through the medium of compilers." \* Numbers of similar errors have in fact crept into our natural-history literature, and after they have become well known as such to investigators, they are perpetuated for a generation or two by superficial compilers. The same may almost equally well be said in respect to nominal species.

# 147.\* Ibis alba Vieillot. WHITE IBIS.

Abundant. Towards the end of February they were moulting and in very poor plumage. Most of the young still retained their brown dress, but in a large proportion the moulting was considerably advanced. Before the end of March it was completed, and April 1st I saw large flocks passing northward high in the air, apparently migrating.

During the winter these birds have the peculiar habit, on the Upper St. John's, of daily flying up the river at evening and down again early in the morning. They usually fly very low, passing just over the treetops when cutting across a bend in the river, and at other times close to the water. They are hence in easy gun-shot range from the river or its banks, and, flying in dense flocks, afford fine sport to the numerous sportsmen camping along its banks, who make great havoc among them. They breed much later in the season than the herons. Dr. Bryant states that as late as the 20th of April they had not commenced laying, and that they fly up and down Indian River in the same manner as on the St. John's.† Mr. Maynard informs me he did not meet with this bird on Mosquito Lagoon.

#### 148. Ibis falcinellus Linné. GLOSSY IBIS.

Tantalus mexicanus ORD., Journ. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., I, 53, 1817.

Ibis fulcinellus Bonap., Obs. on Nomencl. Wilson's Orn., Ibid., V, 70, 1825.— IBID., Am. Orn., IV, 23, pl. xxiii, 1831.— Audubon, Orn. Biog., IV, 608, pl. ccclxxxvii, 1838.

Ibis Ordi Bonar, Geog. and Comp. List, 1838. — Baird, Birds N. Amer., 685, 1858.

- "Pine barrens between Lake Harney and Indian River, in the ponds, in flocks of twelve to twenty." ‡
  - \* Birds of America, Vol. VI, p. 68.
  - † Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VII, 15.
- † The above is a memorandum of the recent occurrence of this species in East Florida, obtained from Mr. Maynard, but whether given by him on his own authority or on that of Mr. C. H. Nauman, I am at present uncertain.

#### ARAMIDÆ.

149.\* Aramus giganteus Baird. CRYING BIRD. "LIMPKIN."

This singular and stupid bird is at present more or less common about the grassy lakes and bayous from Lake Dexter southward. Now that Florida has become such a favorite winter resort for health-seekers, pleasure-seekers, and sportsmen, it will be surprising if it is not soon exterminated, as it seems to have almost no fear of man or the gun. They are generally seen in pairs, rarely, however, more than a few occupying the same vicinity; and when one of a party of them is shot, the others, instead of seeking safety by flight, remain and salute the intruder with their singularly discordant cries. Their excellent flesh will tend to favor their rapid extermination. They build their nests in bushes along the river and its bayous, occasionally at a considerable height, but make no effort to conceal them. At Hawkinsville I found a newly built nest, containing a single egg, March 20th, and a few days later, at Lake Dexter, I met with young nearly full grown. Hence they must breed very early, and, perhaps, somewhat irregularly. Dr. Bryant gave the first detailed account of the habits of this bird,\* to which there is little to be added. He says he found it more or less common on the St. John's from Lake George to Lake Harney, but most abundant on the Wikiva Creek, which empties into the St. John's about twenty-five miles below Enterprise. This account agrees with my own experience in respect to its distribution. I did not ascend the Wikiya, but was informed that this bird was much more abundant there than on the St. John's. Dr. Bryant says that incubation usually commences in February, and that the number of eggs it lays is very large, sometimes numbering fifteen. Its popular name in Florida is "limpkin."

Possessing many features that ally them to the rails, they in other respects resemble the herons, and especially the ibises, besides having peculiar characters which mark them as a group distinct from either.

#### ANATIDÆ.

150.† Anas boschas Linné. MALLARD.

"Common all winter in very large flocks." — Boardman. Audubon speaks of their occurring in such numbers in portions of Florida, when

<sup>\*</sup> Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. VII, p. 12.

he was there in 1831, as to darken the air, and the noise of their wings, when rising from the large submerged savannas, he compares to the rumbling of thunder. Mr. Maynard also found them in vast numbers in 1869 on Indian River.

151.† Anas obscura Linne. BLACK DUCK.

"Quite common." - Maynard.

152.† Dafila acuta Jenyns. PINTAIL DUCK.

"St. John's River; not common." — Boardman. Mr. Maynard says that on Indian River he found them in immense numbers, passing over in clouds for hours together.

153.† Nettion carolinensis Baird. Green-winged Teal.
Abundant.

154.† Querquedula cyanoptera Cassin. Red-Breasted Teal.

This species was found by Mr. Maynard in great numbers in the savannas of the upper part of Indian River, but unfortunately the specimens he obtained were lost. This, I believe, is the first time it has been reported from any of the Atlantic States.

155.† Querquedula discors Stephens. BLUE-WINGED TEAL. Abundant.

156 † Spatula clypeata Boie. Shoveller.

"Common." — Maynard. Boardman.

157.† Mareca americana Stephens. BALDPATE.

" Common." - Boardman.

158.\* Aix sponsa Boie. Wood Duck.

Abundant. Breeds early. Saw young March 15th.

159.† Fulix marila Baird. SCAUP DUCK.

Anas marila LINNÉ, Syst. Nat., I, 1766, 196. — WILSON, Am. Orn., VIII, 84, pl. lxix, 1814.

Fuligula marila Aud., Birds of America, VII, 355, pl. ccccxcviii, 1843.

Fuligula affinis Exton, Mon. Anat., 157, 1838.

Fuligula mariloides Vigors, Zoöl. Blossom, 31, 1839.

Fuligula minor GIRAUD, Birds of Long Island, 323, 1844. — Bell, Proc. Phil. Acad. Nat. Sci., I, 141, 1842.

Fulix marila et offinis BAIRD, Birds N. Amer., 791, 1858.

Very abundant. By far the most numerous duck on the St. John's River. Quite common at Jacksonville as late as April 1st.

The Fulix, or Fuligula, affinis auct. is evidently only the smaller, darker southern form of the F. marila auct. Most of the specimens collected in Florida were of the so-called F. affinis type.

160.† Aythya americana Bonaparte. Red-нелд.

Abundant in the marshes near St. Augustine, in 1831.—Audubon.\*

I find the A. vallisneria recorded in my notes made at Jacksonville.

I saw none, however, myself, but it was reported by sportsmen to not unfrequently occur there.

161.† Bucephala albeola Baird. Butter-Ball.

Observed in Florida by Audubon.†

162.† Erismatura rubida Bonaparte. Ruddy Duck.

More or less common on the Lower St. John's. Also observed by Audubon when he was on the plantation of General Hernandez, in East Florida, and "in immense flocks" about a hundred miles up the St. John's River, in February, 1832.‡ Also obtained by Mr. Maynard at Dummitt's.

163.† Lophodytes cucullatus Reichenbach. Hooded Merganser.

"Very abundant on the coast." — Boardman. "Numerous at Dummitt's." — Maynard. Occasional on the St. John's.

Geese are currently reported by the inhabitants to occur in winter in North Florida, but I am unable to state what species. Probably Bernicla canadensis and B. brenta, and perhaps others, are at times more or less common, since they are well known to occasionally visit Cuba.

#### PELECANIDÆ.

164.\* Pelecanus erythrorhynchus Gmelin. WHITE PELICAN.

"Seen in large flocks near the mouth of the St. John's all winter."—
Boardman. "Common on Indian River. Said to breed on an island near Dummitt's, and at Jupiter Inlet."—Maynard.

165.\* Pelecanus fuscus Linné. Brown Pelican.

"Abundant on the coast in winter." - Boardman.

\* Birds of America, Vol. VI, p. 312.

† Ibid., p. 370.

# SULIDÆ.

166.† Sula bassana Brisson. Common Gannet.

"Abundant on the coast." — Boardman.

167.\* Sula fusca Linné. BOOBY GANNET.

A few were seen on the coast near St. Augustine by Mr. Boardman. Mr. Maynard also observed it at Cape Canaveral

#### PHALACROCORACIDÆ

168.\* Graculus floridanus Bonaparte. FLORIDA CORMORANT.

Common on the St. John's, and, according to Mr. Boardman, abundant on the coast.

#### PLOTIDÆ.

169.\* Plotus anhinga Linné. SNAKE BIRD. WATER TURKEY.

Abundant. Breeds in February and March, sometimes nesting in the tops of the highest trees, and sometimes quite low. Both sexes incubate.

# PROCELLARIDÆ.

170.† Oceanites oceanica Coues. Wilson's Stormy Petrel.

"A few about the coast at Fernandina." — Boardman.

171.† Puffinus major Fabricius. GREATER SHEARWATER.

"A few about the coast at Fernandina." - Boardman.

#### LARIDÆ.

172.† Larus argentatus Brünnich. HERRING GULL.

Common. Seen up the St. John's as far as Hibernia.

On my voyage from New York to Augusta, Ga., on my way to Florida, small parties of these gulls, numbering usually six to twenty, were almost constantly hovering near the vessel. In the Bay of New York, as along the coast of New England, and doubtless along that of all the Atlantic States at this season, the birds in immature plumage far outnumbered the others; but a hundred miles from land all the gulls of this species seen were old birds, which accords with observations of mine made on other winter voyages in the North Atlantic. It hence appears that the young birds are less venturesome than the adult, and keep mainly near the land. This accords also with the well-known fact that young birds, in migratory species, do not generally attain so

high latitudes in the breeding season as the fully adult. It is also highly probable that, generally, the young birds of this family do not range quite so far southward in winter as the older. The mature herring gulls, so far as I had an opportunity of observing, far outnumbered the young ones along the Carolina coast and on the St. John's River.

- 173.† Larus delawarensis Ord. Ring-Billed Gull.
- "Not numerous," Boardman.
- 174.\* Chrœcocephalus atricilla Lawrence. LAUGHING GULL. Common along the coast and on the Lower St. John's.
- 175.† Chrœcocephalus philadelphia Lawrence. Bonaparte's Gull. With the preceding, and equally numerous. Also common, according to Mr. Maynard, on Indian River.
  - 176.† Gelochelidon anglica Bonaparte. MARSH TERN. Obtained by Mr. Maynard on Indian River.
  - 177.\* Thalasseus regius Gambel. ROYAL TERN. "Abundant about the coast." Boardman. Maynard.
    - 178. Sterna hirundo Linné. Common Tern.
  - "Common at Dummitt's." Maynard.

The following table of measurements of sixty-five specimens (forty-five males and twenty females) of this species, taken in the breeding season at Muskeget Island, Massachusetts, indicates the considerable range of individual differentiation that obtains in this species. Though so great, it does appear to be greater than occurs in Sterna macrura, of which I have the measurements of twenty-five specimens taken at the same locality and during the same excursion, nor is it probably greater than most of the terns and gulls present, as is evidently indicated by the great number of measurements of specimens of other species of the Laridæ of our coast now before me.

The average dimensions of the specimens cited in the subjoined table are as follows:—

Males: Length, 14.51; alar extent, 30.72; wing, 10.47; tail, 5.80; culmen, 1.40; tarsus, .78. Females: Length, 13.85; alar extent, 30.59; wing, 10.57; tail, 5.74; culmen, 1.36; tarsus, .77. The extremes of the same are as follows:—

Males: Length, 13.00 to 15 77; alar extent, 29.00 to 32.00; wing, 9.65 to 11.70; tail, 5.00 (4.81?) to 7.00; bill (culmen), 1.28 to 1.55; tarsus, .70 to .87.

Females: Length, 13.10 to 15.50; alar extent, 23.20 to 32.00; wing, 9.90 to 11.50; tail, 5.20 (4.75?) to 6.11; bill (culmen), 1.25 to 1.55; tarsus .70 to .90.

Measurements of Massachusetts Specimens of Sterna hirundo, Tuken in the Breeding Season.

,										
M. C. Z. No.	Coll.	Locality.	Date.	Collector.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Bill.	Tarsus.
_	811 2	Inswich	June 16, '68 June 16, '68 June 26, '68 June 26, '68	Allen & Maynard		30 50	10.62	6.90	1.33	.73
	814 d 807 d	Ipswich	June 16, 168	iii	14.36					
10477	905 3	Wellfleet	June 26, '68	4.6	14.50	31.90	10.50			.70
10478			June 26, *68	EE	14.30	31.70			1.41	.80
10479	907 3		June 25, '68	66	14.00		10.60	5.50	1 33	.74
1048		8.6	June 26, '68	4.6	13 75	31.00	10.75		1 28	.76
		Muskeget Isl.	June 29, '68	6.6	14.75	30.50	10.50		1.30	.87
10481	911 d 913 d	ii		6.6	14.40	29.30	10.15		1.50	.80
10485	915.8	**	Lune 90 168	4.6	14 80	29.30	10.40		1 45	
10486	917 3		June 29, '68	4 5	14 90	29.60	10.40		1.36	.85
-	-[920] 궁	4.4	June 29, '68 June 29, '68	6.6	14 00	30.00	11.00		1.35	.76
	923 3		June 23, 03	11	14.00	30.50	10 40	5.55	1 40	.77
10489		4.6	June 29, 68	44	14.40;	$\frac{29.80}{30.25}$	10.25	5 45	1 37	.81
10490		44	June 29, '68	44	14.50	30.25	10.30	5.40	1.35	en!
10101	927 3		June 29, '68	6.6	14.60	31.00	10.50	6.00	1 40	.75
10491		4.6	June 29, '68	6.6	14 50	30.80	10.15	5.60	1.52	.74
	910 3	66	June 29, 168	14	13 60	31.15	10.25	5 60		-
	941, 3	44	June 30, '68 June 30, '68 June 30, '68 June 30, '68	14	14.50	31.65	10.15	6.10		
	912 3	44	June 30, 68	44	14.50	31 50	9.65	6 90	-	-
	943 ਰ	66	June 30, '68	44	14.25	30.25	9.75	5.60	_	
10492			June 20, 05 1	16	14.60	30.20	10 80	6.00	-	
10402	945 3		June 3), '68 June 3), '68	4.6	14.10	30.50	10 25	5.50	-	
	943.3	66	June 3), '68	4.6	15.50	31.85	11.39	7.00	-	80
	949 3		July 2, 68	4.6	15.75	31.50	10.75	6.00		.80
	057 2	66	July 2, 68	4.6	13.75	29.90 32.00	10 45	5.85	1 50	.79
10493	957 d 935 S	6.6	I India 9 100	4.4	15.65 14.00	30.25	11 50 11 70	5.95	1.45	.75 .76 .76
10500	953 3	4.6	July 2, 68	4.4	14.30	31.27	10.70	$5.00 \\ 5.01$	1.33	-14
10501	937 3	6.6	Inly 9 '68	6.6	14.26	31.00	10.40	5.61	1.30	76
-	939 ♂	4.6	July 2, 68	66	15.60	31.60	10 85	6.70	1.30	75
. —	970 ♂	6.6	LJnlv 2 '68 L	4.6	14.28	30.80	10.50	5.40	1 35	.81
	971 3	6.6		4.6	14 40	31.60	10.30	5.70	1.40	.75
	972 d 973 d	6.6	Linty 2 68 L	6.6	14.00	30.00	9.80	5.15	1 40	.78
	973 3	66		4.6	15.00	31.00	9.90	5.80	1.50	-75
10503	975 d 977 d 979 d	6.6		6.6	15.20	30.50	10.56	5.85	1.43	.85
	977 8	4.6		4.6	14.25	31.20	10.25	5.70	1.51	-80
10504	979 8	4.6		1.6	15 25	31.00	10.00	6 27	1.45	.81
	930 8 930 8 981 6 932 6 983 6 993 7 1000 6 1002, 6 1003 7	44		* 6	14.70	30.55	10 40	5.45	1.51	.85 .75
	981 6	6.6	July 2, 68 L	4.6	14 55	31 00	10.55	5.55	1.41	.75
-	345 9	1.6	July 2, 681	4.6	13.00;	29.00	10.30	4.81	1 35	-76
	983 3	46	July 2, 68	* *	15.00	31 43	10.80	6.11	1 35	.75
	931 3		July 2, 68 July 2, 68		14 50	31.50	10.70	5.80	1 45	.85 .77
	1000 0	6.6	July 2, 68 July 2, 68 July 2, 68	"	15.77	30.00	10 50	5.75	1 55	11
-	1002, 3	4.6	July 2, 68 July 2, 68	44	14.25	31 00	10 65	5 75	1.50	.70
10473	901 4	Wellfleet	June 26, 68	44		30.30	10 35	5.60	1.41	-101
10481	912	Muskogat Isl	June 29, '68	44	14.25	30.60	9.90	6.00	1.35	.70 .70 .76 .75 .75 .75
10484	915 4	Musica Isl	June 29, 168	11		39.75	10.55	6.07	$\frac{1.40}{1.42}$	-10
10483	914	1.6	Luna 90 168 l	6.6	13.90	29.80	10.05	5.75	1.30	75
	918 ¥	4.6	June 29, '68	4.6	13.60	28.50	10.00	5.50	1.36	71
	919 🖫	1.6	June 29, '68	4.6		28.20	10.30		1.25	75
	921 9	44	June 29, '68 June 29, '68 June 29, '68 June 29, '68	44	13.60	30.25	10.25		1.26	71
10487	922 ¥ 924 ¥	6.6	June 29, '68	6.6	13.55	30.55	10,63	5.70	1.25	80
10458			June 29, 168	1.5		29.50	10.50	5.20	1.35	80 73
1	949 4	6+	June 20 '68	1.6	14.50	31.75	10.80	5.90		80
10194	959 ¥	1.6	July 2, 68	"	14.30	31 00	10.50	5.80	1 28 .	.80
10495	959 9	1.6	July 2, 68 July 2, 68 July 2, 68	44	13.60	32 00	11 50	5.75	1.30 .	80
10.100	930 4	6.6	July 2, 68	46	15.50	31.75	11.25	5.41	143 .	71 74
,10498	935 \$ 974 \$		July 2, 68	4.6	13.56	30.00	10.30		1.30 .	7.4
-	914 4	4.4	July 2, '68	4.6	$15\ 25 \ 14.20$	32 00	11.25		$134 \cdot$	90
	31617	4.6	July 2, 68 July 2, 68 July 2, 68 July 2, 68 July 2, 68	6.6	14.20	39.20	10.26			75
10504	918 4	66	July 2, 68				10.70			80
10504	976 \$ 978 \$ 997 \$ 999 \$ 1001 \$	16	· ouij 2, 00							80
10000	1001 0	44	July 2, 68 July 2, 68	1			10.45			80
	TOOT 1		July 2, 68		14.40	31.00.	10.65	0.60	1.40 .	85

# 179. Sterna macrura Naumann. Arctic Tern.

"Common at Dummitt's." - Maynard.

As already remarked under Sterna hirundo the individual variation in the present species is very great. The largest and smallest specimens in a series of twenty-five, taken at Muskeget Island in the breeding season measured as follows:—

Largest (3): Length, 16.00; alar extent, 32.75; wing, 11.75; tail, 6.00. Smallest (2): Length, 14.33; alar extent, 27.52; wing, 9.85; tail, 4.26. The maxima and minima of this series are as follows:—

Length, 14.10 and 17.00; alar extent, 27.52 and 32.75; wing, 9.85 and 11.84; tail, 4.26 and 8.25.

While the females average a very little smaller than the males, several of the females are very nearly as large as the largest males.

The Sterna Forsteri may also occur as a winter resident, but I have at present no evidence of its occurrence there at this season. A specimen from the "St. John's River, Florida," collected by Dr. Würdemann, is cited by Mr. Lawrence \* and Dr. Coues † (Smithsonian collection No. 4928), but no information is given as to when it was collected.

# 180.\* Rhynchops nigra Linné. Black Skimmer.

Abundant on the coast, occurring in large flocks. Not observed by me on the St. John's.

#### COLYMBIDÆ.

# 181.† Colymbus torquatus Brünnich. Loon.

"A single specimen at Mandarin, on the Lower St. John's; abundant off Fernandina harbor." — Maynard.

The considerable number of specimens of this species in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy show a wide range of individual variation. In a series of fifteen specimens from various localities in New England, but mainly from Massachusetts, the variation in the length of the folded wing amounts to twenty per cent of its average length in the whole series; in the length of the tarsus, to twenty-nine per cent; in the length of the outer toe, to thirty per cent; in the length of the head, to twenty-eight per cent; and in the length of the culmen to twenty-three per cent.

The form described some years since as Colymbus Adamsi seems to have been founded on very old specimens of the large northern race of C. tor-

<sup>\*</sup> Baird's Birds of North America, p. 863.

<sup>†</sup> Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, p. 547.

quatus, in which the color of the bill is unusually light, and the bill itself unusually produced.

- 182.† Podiceps cornutus Latham. Horned Grebe.
- "Not uncommon on the St. John's." Boardman.
- 183.† Podilymbus podiceps Lawrence. CAROLINA GREBE. Abundant on the St. John's.

Résumé of the preceding Tables of Measurements, with supplemental Remarks.

The following tables present a brief summary of the measurements given in Part IV. In the first table is given the average dimensions of thirty-two species, based on specimens collected, in each case, essentially from the same locality, and generally based on twenty or more specimens, the number varying in the different species from thirteen to sixty-five specimens. In all cases where the average sexual difference in size is appreciable, the dimensions are given for each sex. In most cases very nearly all the specimens are from Eastern Massachusetts, a few being from different localities in Southern Maine, and a few from Northern Illinois. In a few species all the specimens cited are from Eastern Florida; in a few other species part of the specimens are from Southern New England and a part from Eastern Florida; but in these cases a separate average is made of those from each of the two localities. The number of the specimens on which the average is based is given in each instance.

The second table shows the range of individual variation in size in the same species, based also on the same specimens.

The third table shows the amount of geographical variation in size in specimens of the same species from northern and southern localities, these localities being generally Southern New England (Eastern Massachusetts in the main) and East Florida. Only seven species are cited, but I have traced about the same ratio of difference in a score or more of others, of which the measurements have not yet been published. Although the number of specimens compared from the two localities has in many of these cases been comparatively small, enough have been examined to show the general constancy of the variation in all the species which breed at both these localities.

It should be added that the specimens on which the generalizations Vol. II. 24

given in Table III are based were not taken at the seasons likely to give the greatest differences, the northern specimens having been taken in summer and the southern ones in winter. Had summer Florida specimens been used instead of winter specimens, the differences would have been doubtless much greater, since in some cases, and especially in the cases of Agelæus phæniceus and Quiscalus purpureus, the summer home of a part at least of the Florida specimens must have been somewhat to the northward of Florida.

I. Table showing the Average Dimensions of Thirty-two Species of American Birds, based on Measurements of Thirteen to Sixty-five Specimens of each Species.

Species.	Locality.	No. of Spec'ns.	Sex.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
Turdus Swainsoni	Southern New England	24	_	7.17	11.65	3.86	2.88	1.15
Turdus Pallasi	11 . 11	46	-	7.04	11 17	3.97	2.72	1.15
Turdus fuscescens	46 46	40	_	7.38 11.29	11.83 13.09	3.82	2.88	1 13
Harporhynchus rufus Mimus polyglottus	Florida	17 37	-	9.91	13.69	4.15	$\frac{5.00}{4.87}$	1.01
Galeoscoptes carolinensis	Southern New England	20	_	8.60	11.16	3.53	3.76	1.10
Sialia sialis	"	20	3	6.80	11.93	3.94	2.55	78
Geothlypis trichas	44 44	20	3	5.10	6.93	2.17	2.00	-77
Parus atricapillus	Eastern Massachusetts	27	_	5 38	8.37	2.47	2.50	.70
Tyrannus carolinensis	Southern New England	20	_	8.00 7.05	13.77	4 49 3 76	3.30	.73
Pyranga rubra	Florida	13 15	ੋ	4.89	6.61	2.05	1.80	.52
Passerculus savanna	Massachusetts	26		5.20	5 749	2.70	1.96	.84
Peucæa æstivalis	Florida	22	_	5.88	8 99	2.40	2.49	70
Cardinalis virginianus		32	3	8.46	11.43	3.63	3.87	-
Caldinalis Virgilianus	"	26	9	8 27	11.27	3 53	3.77	1 00
Pipilo erythrophthalmus {	Southern New England	30	ď	8.19 7.88	11 32 9.58	3 43	3.36 3.56	1.06
Hedvineles Indoviciana	Florida Southern New England	19 17	ರೈ	7.77	12 15	3.15	2.82	.86
Icterus Baltimore .	at the first and	20	ੂਰ ਰ	7.52	11.55	3 71	2.92	.92
Dolichonyx oryzivorus .	66 66	20	3	7.24	11.67	3.78	2 67	1.00
Agelæus phœniceus . {	4.6 6.6	40	3	9.16	14.71	4.69	3 63	_
Ageiaus phoeniceus	11 11	28	9	7.53	12.24	3.86	2 93	_
	Northern States	15 12	' d	9.81	16 30 15 70	4 91 4 47	3.16	_
Sturnella ludoviciana . {	Florida	8	ਰ	9.55	11.43	4 29	5 85	
	Florida	9	0	8.96	14.09	4 22	2.57	_
}	Northern States	15	3	10.43	16.30	4.91	3.16	_
Quiscalus purpureus .	Florida	12		9.81	15.70	4.47	2.85	-
Quiscands purpureus .	Northern States	8	\$0+0+ +C+CO	9 55 8.96	14 43	4.29	2.92	
}	Florida	9 24	Y,	16.51	11.09 22.48	7 19	2.57 7.00	_
Quiscalus major }	4.6	8	00	12.95	17.94	5.67	5.11	_
	Massachusetts	18	+	11 71	16.87	5.13	4.89	
Cyanura eristata	Florida	11		10.98	15 11	4.75	5.00	—
Cyanocitta floridana .		12	_	11.74	14.44	4 41	4.80	_
Hylotomus pileatus . {	"	7	d	17 48 16 44	28 07 26 80	9.21	6.82	_
Picus borealis		28	¥	8 34	14.46	4.71	3.41	_
(	Massachusetts	18		12.15	19.94	6.24	4 35	_
Colaptes auratus }	Florida	11	_	11.66	19.82	5.84	4.40	_
Conurus carolinensis .		. 19	_	13.10	21.76	7.59	0.00	-
	Illinois	17	d.	10 18	15 44	4 22	2.82 2.52	_
Oxtyx virginianus .	Florida	16	d	9.46 9.83	14.16 15.10	4.36	2.67	_
	Florida	10	9	9.83	14 02	4 17	2.54	
G	Massachusetts	45	1.7	14.51	30.72	10.47	5.80	.78
Sterna hirundo	64	20	10	13.85	30.59	10 57	5.74	-77

II. Table showing the Range of Individual Variation in Thirty Species of American Birds, based on the Measurements of Thirteen to Sixty-five Specimens of each Species, collected at the same Locality.

Species.	Locality.		No. of Speci'ns	Sex	Length	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail	Tarsus
Turdus Swainsoni {	Southern New England	Min. Max.	24 24	_	6.62	$\overline{10}$ 75 12 65	3.47	2.40 3.40	$\frac{1.02}{1.27}$
Turdus Pallasi	46 46	Min. Max.	46	_	6.50	$\frac{10.00}{12.25}$	3.30	$\frac{2.47}{3.17}$	1.12
Turdus fuscescens	66 66	Miu Max.	40	_	6.95	$\frac{10.05}{12.70}$	3.55	2 63 3.02	1 06
Harporhynchus rufus.	64 44	Min. Max.	17 17	=	10 55	12.55 14.00	$\frac{3.80}{4.25}$	4.50 5.30	$\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{20}$ $\frac{1}{1}\frac{42}{42}$
Galeoscoptes carolinensis	66 66	Min. Max.	20 20	_	7980	10.50	3.25	3.35	1 05
Mimus polyglottus {	Florida	Min.	37	=	9 27	11.95 13 00	4.00	4.10	1.18
Sialia sialis	Southern New England	Max. Min.	37 20	_ ♂		11.10	4 75 3 85	5 15 2.33	.74
Geothlypis trichas {	44 44	Max Min.	20 20	0,00	4.60		4.10	2.77	.83 .72
	11 11	Max. Min.	20 13	00	5.63 6.75	$7.50 \\ 10.65$	2 37 3.57	$\frac{2.10}{2.55}$	82 .67
Pyranga rubra {	Eastern Massachusetts	Max. Min.	13 27	0		11.75 7.50	$\frac{400}{233}$	2 85 2.15	.86
Parus atricapillus }	Florida	Max. Min.	27 15	-	5.75	8.60 6.10	2.63 1.90	2 67	.50
Troglodytes aëdon		Max. Min.	15 26		5.10	6.95	2 41 2.44	$\frac{1.60}{2.40}$	.68
Passerculus savanna . {	Eastern Massachusetts	Max.	26	_	5.20 6.00	7.61 9.75	2.95	2 25	.75
Peucæa æstivalis {	Florida	Min. Max.	22 22	_	5.75 6.20	7.60	$\frac{2.17}{2.55}$	2.25 2.68	
Cardinalis virginianus.	"	Min. Max.	32 32	d		11.00 11.78	3 50 3.85	3 40 4.20	.62 80
Cardinans riiginianus.	16	Min Max.	26 26	+0+0d		10.70 11.75	3.25	3 40 4.10	.62
D'alla and bank to large	Southern New England	Min. Max.	30 30	30		10.00.	3.17	3.30	.98 1.13
Pipilo erythrophthalmus {	Florida	Min. Max	19 19	0	7.20 8.50	9.50	2.80	3.25	.80 1.09
Hedymeles ludovicianus {	Southern New England	Min. Max.	17 17	0 0		11.50	3 83 4.25	2 70 3.08	80
Icterus Baltimore {		Min.	20	00	7.00	10.40	3.45	2 70	.83
Dolichonyx oryzivorus		Max. Min.	20	3	8.00 6.65	11.00	3.85 3.53	3 10 2 45	1.02
}	Massachusetts	Max. Min,	20 40	00	7.70 8.40	12 15 13.95	4.00	2.82 2.99	1.15
Agelæus phœniceus . {	44	Max. Min.	40 28	+0+00°	9 85 1 7.35 1		5 00 4.26	3 90 2.65	
}		Max Min.	28 15	8	8.55 I 10.00 I	13.55 15.05	4.43	3 15	_
Sturnella ludoviciana . {		Max. Min.	15 12	3	11.00	17.00	5.15	3.58	_
}		Max. Min.	12 13	3 3		4 75	4 65 5.20	2.90 4.58	-
Quiscalus purpureus .	66 66	Max.	13	3.	13.50 :	18 43	6.05	6.00	_
		Min. Max.	23	3	11.001 $13.001$	17 80	5 75	4.55 5.50	_
Quiscalus major	4	Min Max	24 24	3	$15.50 \ 16.80 \ 1$	23.50	6 25 8.35	6 25 7.60	_
		Min. Max.	8	9		l7 25 l8.25	5.25 5.95	4.75 5.60	_
Cyanura cristata .		Min Max.	18 19	-	11 00 1	16.00 17.50	4 33 5.65	4.25 5.65	
Ojanara Cristata .	46	Min Max.	11 11		10.70,1	14.75	4 00 5.00	4 80 5.15	_
Cyanocitta floridana .	68	Min.	12	_	11.00 1 12.50 1	13.50	4.00	4.25 5.35	-
Tyrannus carolinensis	Southern New England	Min. Max.	20 20	-	7.00 1	2 50	4.17	2.93 3.54	.67
Picus borealis {	Florida	Min	20 22 22	_	8 65 1 7 90 1	4.10	4.40	3.15	.80
		Max.	22	_	8.60 1	5.20	4.95	3.75	

Table II. (Continued.)

Species.	Locality.		No of Speci'ns	Sex.	Length.	Alar Extent.	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus
Colaptes auratus {	Massachusetts	Min. Max. Min. Max.	18 18 11 11		13.00	19.00 20.75 17.60 19.75	6 00 6 00 5 60 6 25	4.00 4.70 4.10 4.85	=
Conurus carolinensis .	" Illinois	Min. Max. Min.	19 19	_ ~	$\frac{1250}{13.60}$		7.00 7.85 4.37	2.55	-
Ortyx virginianus	Florida	Max. Min. Max. Min. Max. Min.	7 16 16 6 6	0+0+0ggg	$\begin{array}{c} 10.50 \\ 9.00 \\ 10.00 \\ 9.50 \\ 10.25 \end{array}$	15.60 13.80 14.75 14.50	4.60 4.00 4.50 4.25 4.50 3.35	3.00 2.30 3.00 2.45 2.85 2.50	
Sterna hirundo {	Massachusetts	Max. Min. Max. Min. Max	10 45 45 20 20	+0+00° 0° +0+	10.00 13.00 15.70 13.10	$\begin{array}{c} 14\ 50 \\ 29.00 \\ 32\ 00 \end{array}$	4.40 9.65 11.70 9.90	2.77 4.81 7.00 4.75 6.11	

III. Table showing the Geographical Variation in Size in Seven Species of American Birds, between Specimens from Florida and the Northern States.

Species.	Locality.	No. of Speci'ns.	Length.	Alar Extent,	Wing.	Tail.	Tarsus.
Pipilo erythrophthalmus {	Southern New England Florida	32 26 ਰ	8.19 7.88	11 32 9.88	3.43 3.13	3 36 3.56	1.06
Agelæus phæniceus . {	Southern New England South Carolina & Florida	40 3 11 3	9.16 9.02	14 71 14 41	4 69 4 62	3 63 3 61	_
Sturnella Iudoviciana .	Northern States Florida	15 で 12 で 8 9 ♀	9.81 9.55 8 96	16.30 15.70 14.43 14.09	4 91 4 47 4 29 4 22	3.16 2.85 2.82 2.57	
Quiscalus purpureus	Northern States Florida Florida	15 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	9.81 9.55 8 96	16 30 15.70 14 43 14 09	4.91 4.47 4.29 4.22	3 16 2 85 2 82 2 57	_
Cyanura cristata {	Massachusetts Florida	18 — 11 —	11.71 10.98	16.87 15.11	5.13	4 89 5.00	_
Colaptes auratus {	Massachusetts Florida	18   -	12.45 11.66	19 94 18.82	6.24 5.84	4.35	-
Ortyx virginianus {	Illinois	7 16   ♂ 6   ♀ 10   ♀	10 18 9.46 9.83 9.37	$\begin{array}{c} 15 \ 44 \\ 14 \ 16 \\ 15.10 \\ 14.02 \end{array}$	4.47 4.22 4.36 4.17	2 82 2 52 2 67 2 54	=

In the tables and remarks contained in the preceding pages many facts have been given bearing upon the subject of geographical variation in birds, and especially in reference to the differences that almost universally obtain between specimens of the same species from northern and southern localities. In addition to the smaller size of the southern specimens, — a fact which has been for some time quite generally recognized, — attention has been called to the differences in color and in the form of the bill that seem almost equally constant and easy of recognition. In several species that range in the breeding season

from Florida to Maine, a tendency to a relatively greater elongation of the tail in the Florida specimens has also been noticed, — a feature so well known to characterize a large proportion of the birds of Lower California, as pointed out some years since by Professor Baird, — but this variation is not so frequent as the differences in size, color, and in the length and form of the bill. As already remarked, the tail is not usually abbreviated proportionally to the general diminution in size in the southern or Florida forms of the birds of Eastern North America, and in some species it is actually longer than in the larger northern birds. As shown in the above tables, this is the case in *Pipilo erythrophthalmus*, *Cyanura cristata*, and *Colaptes auratus*, or in three species out of the seven cited in the last table.

In numerous instances the southern forms of the birds enumerated in Part IV of this paper have already been specifically separated from their northern relatives; and if the example of some previous writers was to be followed at least a dozen other similar species might still be added from among the birds of Florida. Some, indeed, might be referred to the already separated West Indian and Mexican or Central American so-called species rather than to the northern type. As already stated, I consider this almost universal similar variation of the southern representatives of species from their northern representatives to be the result of a law of gradual geographical differentiation, and that the interest of science is better subserved by simply recognizing these differences, and the law of geographical variation of which they are the result, than by giving to each newly discovered race a distinctive binomial name; and the more especially since in numerous instances there is the most indubitable proof of the gradual and almost imperceptibly minute intergradation of the extreme northern and extreme southern types, even in cases where they are the most widely diverse.

In conclusion, it may be stated that the differential diagnoses of the southern types, in cases where they have been specifically separated from the northern, and the comparisons of them made with the northern for the purpose of showing their specific distinctness, are in many cases admirable descriptions of the usual differences found to distinguish the Florida-born birds from their co-specific representatives born in the Northern States. These differences are commonly solely the following: In the southern types the size is smaller, the bill longer, and the colors generally darker; the latter resulting from the greater pre-

dominance of the black in those in which portions of the plumage are mottled with this color, and the greater breadth of the dark transverse bars, and the correspondingly diminished breadth of the alternating lighter ones. To illustrate this point more fully, I herewith append a list of some of the so-called species of American birds that have been specifically separated by different authors from their northern representatives, but which are in reality only the extreme southern forms of species previously well known, with which they were considered by the older writers to be specifically identical, the most of them having been separated within the last ten or fifteen years:—

Accipiter Gundlachi, separa	ated from	Accipiter Cooperi.
Accipiter fringilloides,	66	Accipiter fuscus.
Falco dominicensis,		
cinnamoninus et	66	Falco sparverius.
sparveroides, etc.		
Mimus Gundlachi et Hillii, etc.	66	Mimus polyglottus.
Seiurus ludovicianus,	66	Seiurus noveboracensis.
Thryothorus Berlandieri,	66	Thryothorus ludovicianus.
Dendræca Gundlachi, etc.	66	Dendræca æstiva.
Chordeiles minor et Gundlachi, etc.	66	Chordeiles popetue.
Antrostomus cubanensis,	6.6	Antrostomus vociferus.
Xanthornus affinis,	66	Icterus spurius.
Sturnella hippocrepis et mexicana,	"	Sturnella ludoviciana.
Quisealus baritus,	66	Quiscalus purpureus.
Corvus minutas,	44	Corvus americanus.
Ortyx cubanensis et texanus,	46	Ortyx virginianus.
Campephilus Bairdii,	46	Campephilus principalis.
Colaptes chrysocaulosus,	"	Colaptes auratus.
Butorides brunnescens,	66	Butorides virescens.
Actiturus longicaudus,	"	Actiturus Bartramius.
Macrorhamphus scolopaceus	46	Macrorhamphus griseus.
Charadrius tennirostris,	66	Charadrius melodus
Larus argentatoides et Smithsonianus,	44	Larus argentatus.

In other cases the arctic forms, or the northern types, having been discovered subsequently to the southern ones, these have been described as specifically distinct from the latter. The *Bucephala islandica*, sep-

arated from the *B. americana* et clangula, and the *Collurio excubitoroides* from the *C. ludovicianus*, will serve to indicate the class of so-called species here referred to.

The Pacific Slope of North America furnishes a similar list of species, based on either southern or northern forms of others previously known; and the middle region of the continent its list of similar nominal species, mainly based on the desert forms of widely ranging species. In the northern half of the Old World, also, have the northern and southern geographical forms of the same species been specifically separated; but it is not my intention to call farther attention to them at present.

As already remarked, the American representatives of circumpolar species differ from the European and Asiatic principally in two ways, namely, in the apparently slightly larger size of the American, and in their somewhat brighter colors; but specific separations seem to have been based almost as frequently upon some theory of geographical distribution, or upon the individual variation of single specimens, as upon the real though slight differences that frequently obtain in such cases.

#### PART V.

On the Geographical Distribution of the Birds of Eastern North America, with special reference to the Number and Circumscription of the Ornithological Faunæ.

# 1. Introductory Remarks.

The distribution of plants and animals in circumpolar zones over the earth's surface has been long recognized; Humboldt\* first making known the fact of such a natural distribution of the plants, and Agassiz,†

- \* Humboldt, A. von, et Bonpland, Aimé. "Essai sur la Géographie des Plantes," etc. 4to. Paris. 1805.
- † AGASSIZ, Louis. "Essai sur la Géographie des Animaux," Revue Suisse et Chronique Littéraire, Tome VIII, pp. 441-452, 538-585, 1845. "Note sur la Distribution Géographique des Animaux et de l'Homme," Bulletin de la Société des Sciences Naturelles de Neuchatel, Tome I, pp. 162-166, 357-361, 366-369, 1845. "Sur la Distribution Géographique actuelle et le mode de l'apparition actuelle des Animaux à la surface du Globe." Ibid., Tom. 2, pp. 347-351, 1847. "Geographical Distribution of Animals," Edinburgh New Philosophical Magazine, Vol. XLVI, pp. 1-25, 1850. Ibid., Christian Examiner, Vol. XLVIII, pp. 184-204, 1850. "Sketch of the Natural Provinces of the Animal World and their Relation to the different Types of Man," Nott and Gliddon's Types of Mankind, pp. lviii-lxxxii, 1854. Also especially insisted upon in a course of unpublished Lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute, Boston, December, 1869.

Wagner,\* Dana,† and others, subsequently establishing the same in regard to animals; the distribution of both plants and animals being primarily determined by the same influences. It has been further shown that these influences are mainly climatic, temperature having been justly recognized as governing the limitation, especially in latitude, of not only the species, but of faunæ and floræ. Their limitation in longitude is likewise as directly determined by climatic influences,‡ though indirectly by physical barriers, as oceans, mountain chains, and deserts. Humidity, in many instances, is scarcely a less, and in some cases a more, powerful limiting agent than temperature, plants being highly sensitive to hygrometric conditions, and their distribution intimately affects that of animals, since the existence of the latter is dependent upon the presence of the former, and their variety and numbers upon the degree of luxuriance of the vegetation. The faunal and floral zones hence coincide in their limitation in latitude with the climatic zones, but by no means necessarily with the geographical circles; isothermal lines, and not parallels of latitude, forming their boundaries. Their limits in longitude are determined by the influence geographical barriers, especially long chains of high mountains, exert upon climate.

- \* Wagner, Andreas. "Die geographische Verbreitung der Säugethiere," Abhandlungen der baierischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, Math. Phys. Classe, Band IV, Abth. I, pp. 1-146, 2d Abth., pp. 1-108, 3d Abth., pp. 3-114. Mit 9 Karten, 1844-1846
  - † U. S. Exploring Expedition Report, Crustacea, Vol. II, pp. 1451-1500, 1852.
- † I am aware of the diversity of opinions still prevalent among naturalists in regard to the influence climate exerts in determining the geographical distribution of species, and that many writers on this subject attribute to it only a slight importance, or altogether ignore it. The limits of these preliminary remarks will not allow of an extended comparison of the views of different authors on this point, nor a detailed consideration of the supposed objections that have been raised against the proposition above expressed. I agree with Mr. Andrew Murray in his remark, that, although "various authors have endeavored to embody the differences between the fannas and floras of the different regions of the globe into some kind of system, . . . they, with one or two exceptions, have worked upon no definite principle, and the result has been a mere catalogue of regions which possessed peculiarities without distinguishing their relative importance, or their relation to each other" (Geographical Distribution of Mammals, p. 296, 4to, London, 1866), - a remark which unfortunately seems in some degree applicable to Mr. Murray's own generalizations. That temperature is a powerful limiting influence affecting the range of species, especially in respect to their northward and southward extension, is so easily demonstrable that I am surprised to see it still questioned. I have myself subjected this principle to a rigid examination in studying the distribution of the animals and plants of Eastern North America, and have been surprised at the exact coincidence I have almost constantly met with between their northern and southern

The uniform character of both the flora and the fauna throughout the arctic zone is one of the most striking onto-geographical features thus far known, and one of primary importance, especially when taken in connection with its relation to the faunæ and floræ of more southern latitudes. Not less significant is the fact that in the temperate zone there is still a prevalence of identical forms in each of the three northern continents, where the resemblance of the animals and plants of either continent to those of the others is far greater than is the resemblance of those of the temperate regions of either continent to those of the tropical portions of the same continent.

Different animals and plants, as every one recognizes, are differently limited in respect to their geographical range. A small proportion of the species are almost or quite cosmopolitan; others range over the greater part of the northern hemisphere, finding their southern limit of distribution near the tropics. A few are exclusively arctic, or range only over the arctic and cold-temperate zones. Many are limited to the temperate zone, throughout nearly the whole of which they find a congenial home. A large number can only exist within the tropics, often

limits of distribution and isothermal lines, they following them in all their numerous undulations, sweeping northward in the valleys and southward along the sides of mountain ranges. The occurrence on isolated alpine summits of species existing at a lower level only far to the northward, is of itself suggestive of the powerful influence temperature has on the distribution of animals and plants. In the northern hemisphere a northern fauna and flora everywhere extends along the mountains hundreds of miles to the southward of their respective limits in the adjoining plains and valleys. Various other causes have, of course, a greater or less influence in determining the range of species, but none other, on the land areas, humidity perhaps alone excepted, is nearly so potent. The want of conformity of isothermal lines with parallels of latitude has doubtless led to confusion in regard to this subject, since vain attempts have often been made to circumscribe the botanical and zoological zones by the latter.

Differences of temperature evidently explain many of the otherwise seemingly inexplicable sudden transitions in the faunæ and floræ of adjoining regions, especially in regard to the marine animals and plants, temperature forming a strong barrier to the commingling of species inhabiting the waters of opposite sides of peninsulas having a north and south trend, or such long narrow points of land as terminate the South American and African continents. Those of the one side cannot pass to the other without passing through a zone of colder water than their organization will allow them to sustain. The land, running nearly straight and parallel across level areas; but in mountainous districts they bend abruptly northward or southward, following along the sides of mountains instead of crossing them. In the same manner are species, and faunæ and floræ, limited, — a coincidence clearly indicative of the strong influence climates exert in determining their geographical limits.

embracing whole families, none of whose representatives are found outside of the torrid zone of a single continent. Others are again equally at home in the torrid and warm temperate zones, but which do not exist either in the arctic or cold temperate zones; others range throughout the temperate and subtorrid. Nearly an equal number, some tropical, but the greater part temperate species, range across continental areas, within which, however, they are restricted. A great number of others find their range limited in longitude to the half or the third of a continent, and others within still more circumscribed boundaries, fluviatile species being frequently confined to single river basins. Through this diversity of geographical range we have what may be termed cosmopolitan, semi-cosmopolitan, circumpolar, continental, semi-continental, and (relatively speaking) restricted species. The circumpolar and the continental are again realm species, the semi-continental and restricted, province species. Rarely is any species limited to a narrower area than that of two or three faunæ or floræ. Hence faunæ and floræ - which terms, in their restricted sense, are properly applied only to the smallest of the onto-geographical divisions—are determined by the peculiar association of species, and not by the range of a single or of a few "restricted" species; hence by their general facies. Provinces, and realms, on the other hand, may have species, and even genera and families, exclusively distinctive of them. As there are cosmopolitan, circumpolar, continental, and other kinds of species, so there must be cosmopolitan, circumpolar, continental, and other kinds of genera and families; the latter, as well as species, having each a definite or specific geographical range as distinctive of them as any biological or anatomical character may be. They are each circumscribed within definite areas, beyond which their special adaptation to their natural surroundings forbids their extension, unless aided by extraneous and unusual circumstances.

The three divisions of zones, realms (or "regions"), provinces, and fauna and flora,\* comprise the phyto-zoölogic divisions usually recog-

<sup>\*</sup> Zone, realm, region, kingdom, and province, are terms which have been used by different authors to designate the primary natural-history divisions of the earth's surface. In deciding as to which of these terms should be exclusively applied to these divisions, not only priority of use, but appropriateness, should of course be considered, and also the sense in which they are at present currently employed, in order to avoid, as far as possible, the confusion necessarily attending changes of nomenclature. So far as priority is concerned, zone undoubtedly has the precedence, it having been used for animals by Wagner in 1844, by Agassiz in 1845, and much earlier than this by Humboldt and others in relation to the distribution of plants. It is, however, not always a strictly convenient

nized. The boundaries of realms and provinces have often been arbitrarily fixed, inasmuch as they have been frequently limited and named in conformity to the continental areas, regardless of the fundamental law of the distribution of life in circumpolar zones.\*

In addition to the law of the eircumpolar distribution of life in zones, another may be recognized, namely, that of a differentiation from the north southward, since in passing from the northern pole to the equator we meet with a constant and accelerated divergence in the character of the animals and plants of successive regions of the continent. More or less related to the last is a third law of differentiation, namely, a divergence of the life of given portions of continental areas from that of the corresponding portions of other continents, in proportion to the oceanic space separating such corresponding regions. As evidence of this fact we have but to compare successively the life of the north temperate, tropical, and south temperate zones of the Western hemisphere with the life of the corresponding zones of the Eastern hemisphere; or that of Australia with the life of the other continents, as a whole; or that of tropical Asia with Africa or South America. A comparison of Africa with South America, and the faunæ and floræ of islands with those of the different continents, further corroborates this law. There is, furthermore, a correlation between the diversity

term. Realm, region, fauna and flora, and province, have been also successively used in the same sense, and also for divisions of subordinate rank, and in different ways by even the same writers. In regard to the names of the divisions of the second, third, and fourth rank, there is an equal want of uniformity in the use of the terms by which they have been designated. As being most convenient and least opposed to current usage, the following schedule of names for the primary and subordinate divisions has been adopted in the present paper:—

Realms for divisions of the first rank.

Regions for divisions of the second rank.

Provinces for divisions of the third rank.

Districts for divisions of the fourth rank.

Faunæ and floræ for the smallest or ultimate divisions, like the bird faunæ of Eastern North America, presently to be characterized.

Intermediate divisions to some of those above mentioned may in special cases be required; but until the necessity for them is made apparent, no names for such need be proposed.

\* SCLATER, P. L. "On the general Geographical Distribution of the Members of the Class Aves," Jour, of the Proc. of the Linnman Society, Vol. II, Zoology, pp. 130 - 149, 1858. The divisions proposed by this author have been quite generally adopted, but without corroboration, or apparently a critical examination of their merits.

of life in a given area and the relative temperature of that area, the number of distinct forms increasing directly with the increase in the temperature, other conditions remaining essentially unchanged. The number of distinct species and geographical races also increases directly with the increase in the diversity of the conditions of life resulting from differences of geographical configuration. Hence faunæ and floræ cover a smaller area in the warm temperate and tropical latitudes than at the northward, and in a mountainous region than in a level region. Hence within the torrid zone, where a maximum temperature is generally associated with a highly diversified surface, species, genera, and families are the most numerous, and faunæ and floræ, as well as species, are ordinarily the most narrowly circumscribed.

In accordance with the facts stated above respecting the mode of the distribution of animals and plants over the earth's surface, and the zoölogical and botanical laws of the differentiation and mutual relations of the different regions, the following primary natural-history divisions may be recognized: I, an Arctic Realm; II, a North Temperate Realm; III, an American\* Tropical Realm; IV, an Indo-African Tropical Realm; V, a South American Temperate Realm; VI, an African Temperate Realm; VIII, an Anstralian Realm.

The Arctic Realm presents a nearly uniform character throughout its extent, and, though embracing several faunæ, is not divisible into

\* The terms "Palæogean" and "Neogean," "Palæarctic" and "Nearctic," etc., like those of "Old World" and "New World," have been given with reference solely to the length of time the different land areas of the earth's surface have been known to the dominant race of mankind, and hence regardless of the zoological history of these different land areas. Modern seience has taught us that the latest discovered continent (Australia) is peopled with the most ancient types of animals and plants now in existence, and that it is, zoologically considered, the ancient continent. Also that North and South America are behind Europe, Asia, and Africa in their zoological and geological development, while they are far in advance of Australia. To apply the term "ancient" to what is really the most recent, and "modern" to what is mediæval, is evidently too great a misuse of language to be allowable in scientific nomenclature. The sciences of geographical zoology and geographical botany concern not merely the geographical distribution of the animals and plants now living, but also those of the past. If such descriptive terms as the above are to be employed, it is evidently important that they should be used in their legitimate sense. In the present paper it has hence been considered advisable to altogether diseard these terms, since to use them properly would necessitate their adoption in a manner directly opposite to their original and generally accepted application.

provinces. Its southern boundary may be considered as the northern limit of forest-trees, or about the isotheral of 50° F.

The North Temperate Realm presents a more varied character, and is divisible into an American Region and an Europæo-Asiatic Region, each of which is divisible into provinces, districts, and faunæ and floræ. Its boundaries may be provisionally considered as the isotherms of 32° and 70° F.

The American Tropical Realm, and also the Indo-African Tropical Realm, may be regarded as bounded by the isotherms of 70° F. The first is far more homogeneous than the second. Though the American Tropical Realm is perhaps not divisible into distinct regions, it certainly embraces several provinces and districts, and is rich in faunæ and floræ. The Indo-African Tropical Realm may be divided into an African Region and an Indian Region, each composed of several provinces and districts, and a great number of faunæ and floræ.

The South American Temperate Realm embraces that part of South America south of the isotherm of 70° F.; the African Temperate Realm includes that part of Africa south of the same isotherm, whilst the Antarctic Realm is restricted to the antarctic islands.

The Australian Realm, embracing Australia, New Zealand, New Guinea, and their dependent islands, including those to the eastward as far as Timor and Celebes, is zoölogically as distinct from the other primary regions as it is in its geographical position. It is divisible into a Temperate and a Tropical Region, the former embracing New Zealand and the southern third of Australia. Each of these regions includes two or three well-marked provinces.

The above division of the earth's surface\* avoids the arbitrary partitioning of an almost homogeneous Arctic Realm between two

\* It is not within the scope of the present article to trace the subdivisions of the earth's surface in relation to the distribution of its organic life any further than to furnish illustrations of the general principles according to which it is believed animals and plants are distributed, and by which the land surface of the earth is divided. Determining the rank of the several divisions by the amount of variation from others they present, it is found, as indicated above, that the divisions of co-ordinate rank increase in number to the southward. The Arctic Realm is homogeneous to such an extent as not to admit of divisions of a higher grade than faunæ and floræ. In the Temperate Realm the animals and plants of the Eastern and Western hemispheres are, as a whole, so far different as to admit of the division of this zone into two grand divisions (divisions of the second order), with other divisions between these and the ultimate ones. In the Tropical Realm the differences in the life of the two hemispheres is so great as

implied totally distinct life regions, and also a similar division of the two slightly differentiated regions of the North Temperate Realm. For nearly all the species, and hence of course the genera and families, of the Arctic Realm, and a considerable percentage of the species, a larger proportion of the genera, and nearly all the families of the Temperate Realm, occur in the northern parts of both the so-called "Neogean" and "Palæogean Creations," It is thus seen that the life of the North Temperate Realm differs far more from that of the Tropical Realms than the life of the Old World does from that of Hence the subdivision of the earth's surface into prithe New. mary ontological regions, according in area with the two primary divisions of the land, now so generally adopted, is contrary to the facts, since it wholly ignores the close resemblance of the animals and plants inhabiting the north temperate and arctic regions, and the striking differences between them and those of the intertropical zone. The recognition of a "Nearctic" as contradistinguished from a "Palæarctic Region" is almost equally arbitrary and at variance with the law of the distribution of life in circumpolar zones.†

Dana, in his map of the geographical distribution of marine animals,<sup>†</sup> divided the Tropical Zone into four subzones, — a North and a South Torrid and a North and a South Subtorrid; and each temper-

to require a division of the torrid zone, considered as a *climatic* zone, into two primary divisions, with subdivisions of each of several ranks. The south temperate (climatic) zone is similarly divisible, while the Australian Realm, from its isolated position and its remarkable individualization, forms a primary region, with subdivisions of various grades.

- \* Dr. Sclater properly observes: "It cannot be denied that the ornithology of the Palæarctic, or great temperate region of the Old World, is more easily characterized by what it has not rather than by what it has. There are certainly few among the groups of birds occurring in this region which do not develop themselves [to an equal or] to a greater extent elsewhere," etc. Journ. of Proc. Linn. Soc., Zoölogy, Vol. II, p. 137.
- † I may here add that the homogeneousness of the life of the boreal regions has been recognized by a number of recent writers, among whom are Dr. L. K. Schmarda, Dr. Von Middendorff, and Professor Huxley, who have each recognized a circumpolar region. Professor Huxley has also called attention (see Proc. Zoöl, Soc. Lond., 1868, pp. 313-319) to the wide divergence of the life of the tropics from that of the north-temperate regions of even the same continents, and the individualization of Australia and its adjacent islands. He considers that the whole surface of the globe may be "primarily subdivided into two principal area. a northern and a southern," for which he has proposed the names Arctogæa and Notogæa. The latter he has divided into three regions, Austro-Columbia (— Neotropical Region of Schater), Australasia, and New Zealand.
  - † Rep. on Crust. of U. S. Expl. Exped (Vol II), under Capt. Wilkes.

ate zone into five subzones,—a Temperate proper, a Subtemperate, a Warm Temperate, a Cold Temperate, and a Subfrigid. These zones are equally recognizable in the distribution of terrestrial life; but, owing to inequalities of its surface, they are of course less regular on the land than on the oceans.

The zones and subzones, or the Provinces and the minor phytological and zoölogical divisions of the globe, are usually not trenchantly defined. Their boundaries being determined by climatic conditions, the transition between adjacent zones, or between ontological divisions of whatever rank, is rarely abrupt; like the climatic zones, they blend more or less at their edges, their boundaries being strongly marked only in regions possessing a highly varied surface, as in mountainous districts. They are, nevertheless, easily recognizable, and can be approximately defined. Generally the dividing lines are more or less undulating, and, being determined indirectly by chains of mountains and other physical barriers, adjoining faunæ and floræ, and even adjoining provinces and realms, almost always interdigitate, and frequently enclose isolated areas of others, as will be presently shown in describing the ornithological faunæ of Eastern North America.

The boundaries of faunæ and floræ, like the range of species, are determined indirectly by elevations and depressions of the earth's surface, these variations in the altitude of the land producing varying conditions of temperature and humidity, which latter, as already stated, are the direct limiting influences of species, and of the botanical and zoölogical divisions of the globe. The permanency of their boundaries hence depends upon the constancy of the physiographic conditions of these areas, a migration of species, and of faunæ and floræ, necessarily following changes in these conditions. That such migrations have taken place is evident from the occurrence in the post-tertiary deposits of the warm temperate latitudes of the fossil remains of species found now only in the cold temperate and arctic regions, and in the tertiary strata of high latitudes of the remains of other species whose nearest allies are now found in the warm temperate and subtropical zones. These facts indicate clearly the great changes in temperature that have repeatedly occurred at given localities during the earth's history. In respect to existing animals, however, it is difficult to determine how much their known recession northward, as of the reindeer, for example, is due to climatic changes, and how much to

human agency, or whether it may not be due exclusively to the latter cause.

# 2. The Natural Provinces of the North American Temperate Region.\*\*

Before passing to the special subject of the present article, it will be necessary to consider briefly the North American continent as a whole. As already shown, North America embraces portions of three realms, the Arctic, the North Temperate, and the Tropical. It belongs mainly, however, to the North Temperate Realm, of which the temperate portions of North America form the Western Region. Within this Region may be recognized two Provinces, - an Eastern and a Western, - quite distinct from each other in their general features as well as in man; special characteristics. The Eastern Province is characterized by the uniformity of its geographical and climatic features and by a corr sponding uniformity in its faunal and floral aspects. The Wester Province, on the other hand, is characterized by the diversity of its geographical and climatic features, — different areas situated under the same parallels differing greation these respects, — and by the number and small extent of its zoölogical and botanical areas, and its comparatively numerous restricted flora and fauna.

The Eastern Province† extends in the United States from the Atlantic seaboard to the vicinity of the 100th meridian, but to the northward its western boundary sweeps rapidly westward, and extends to the Rocky Mountains, whilst farther northward, where it approaches the Arctic Realm, it occupies the whole breadth of the continent. Its western border is not generally abruptly defined, and is, moreover, quite irregular, through its extension up the valleys of the numerous rivers which enter it from the westward. According to Professor Baird, its western boundary "starts on the Gulf of Mexico near the eastern border of Texas, perhaps between the Brazos and the Sabine, and follow-

<sup>\*</sup> The "Districts" of the North American Region, or the ontological divisions of this region of the fourth rank, can be more conveniently characterized after the seve faunce have been defined, to which point in the paper their consideration is accordingly deferred.

<sup>†</sup> The boundaries of these two regions have been sketched with apparent accuracy by Professor Baird. See American Journal of Science and Arts, 2d Series, Vol. XLI, pp. 82-85, Jan., 1866.

ing up the direction of the former river to the approaches of the Great Desert, nearly on the meridian mentioned [the 100th], proceeds northward, forced sometimes more or less westward, especially along the It crosses the Platte between Forts Platte, sometimes eastward. Kearney and Laramie and intersects the Missouri between Fort Randall and Fort Pierre, perhaps near Fort Lookout, as it is between the first mentioned two points that in ascending the river we find the change to take place in the ornithology of the country. Soon after crossing the northern boundary of the United States the line rapidly inclines westward and extends to the Rocky Mountains." To the southeastward this region embraces the whole of the United States, except perhaps the southern portion of Florida, which is decidedly West Indian and tropical in its affinities. To the northward it embraces the whole northern and eastern portions of the continent up to the Arctic Realm.

The Western Region commences at the western border of the Eastern, and extends thence to the Pacific coast. In the United States its area is about two thirds that of the Eastern Province, but a little farther to the northward it narrows rapidly, and is finally bounded in this direction by the Alaskan mountains.\* To the southward it of course merges in Mexico into the Tropical Realm, but its southern limit is not as yet well known. While its varied character renders it subdivisible into several more or less distinct longitudinal areas, each of which may be again divided transversely into numerous faunæ and floræ, many species range throughout its whole extent and give to it a certain degree of homogeneousness. This portion of North America is, however, as yet too indefinitely known, geographically and meteorologically, as well as ontologically, to admit of the exact definition of its primary and ultimate life regions.

The Eastern Province, notwithstanding its larger area, has not only a less number of ornithological faunæ than the Western, but has also a smaller number of species represented in it, as well as a smaller number exclusively restricted to it. The following list of one hundred and eight species embraces most of the birds that are exclusively restricted to the Eastern Province, and hence those that distinctively characterize this Province.

25

<sup>\*</sup> According to Mr. W. H. Dall. See Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. XII, p. 144, Dec., 1868.

### List of Species limited in their Longitudinal Distribution to the Eastern Province of the North American Temperate Region.

- 1. Turdus mustelinus.
- 2. Sialia sialis.
- 3. Mniotilta varia.
- 4. Parula americana.
- 5. Prothonotaria citrea.
- 6. Geothlypis philadelphia.
- 7. Oporornis agilis.
- 8. Opororuis formosa.
- 9. Helmitherus vermivorus.
- 10. Helminthophaga Swainsoni
- Helminthophaga pinus.
- 12. Helminthophaga chrysoptera.
- 13. Helminthophaga Bachmani.
- 14. Helminthophaga ruficapilla.
- 15. Helminthophaga peregrina.
- 16. Seiurus auroeapillus.
- 17. Seiurus noveboracensis.
- 18. Dendræca virens.
- 19 Dendræea eærulescens.
- 20. Dendræca coronata.
- 21. Dendræca blackburniæ.
- 22. Dendræca castanea.
- 23. Dendræca pennsylvanica.
- 24 Dendræca cærulea.
- 25 Dendræea striata.
- 26. Dendræca maculosa.
- 27. Dendræca palmarum
- 28. Dendræca dominica.
- 29. Dendræca discolor.
- 30. Perisoglossa tigrina.
- 31. Wilsonia mitrata.
- 32. Euthlypis canadensis.
- 33. Setophaga ruticilla.
- 34. Pyranga rubra.
- 35. Pyranga æstiva.
- 36. Vireosylvia olivacea.
- 37. Vireosylvia philadelphica.
- 38. Lanivireo flavifrons.
- 39. Vireo noveboracensis.

- 40. Galeoscoptes carolinensis.
- 41. Harporhynchus rufus.
- 42. Thryothorus ludovicianus.
- 43. Cistothorus stellaris.
- 44. Lophophanes bicolor.
- 45. Parus hudsonicus.
- 46. Coturnieulus passerinus.
- 47. Coturniculus Henslowi.
- 48. Ammodromus caudacutus.
- 49. Ammodromus maritimus.
- 50. Zonotrichia albicollis.
- 51. Juneo hyemalis.
- 52. Spizella monticola.
- 53. Spizella pusilla.
- 54. Peueæa æstivalis.
- 55. Passerella iliaca.
- 56. Euspiza americana.
- 57. Hedymeles ludoviciana.
- 58. Cyanospiza eiris.
- Cyanospiza cyanea.
- 60. Cardinalis virginianus.
- 61. Pipilo erythrophthalmus.
- 62. Dolichonyx oryzivorus.
- 63. leterus spurius.
- 64. Icterns baltimore.
- 65. Quiscalus purpureus.
- 66. Corvus ossifragus.
- 67. Cyanura eristata.
- 68. Sayornis fusens.
- 69. Campephilus principalis.
- 70 Pieus borealis.
- 71. Sphyrapicus varius.
- 72. Centurus carolinus.
- 73. Melanerpes erythrocephalus.
- 74. Colaptes auratus.
- 75. Cocevgus americanus.
- 76. Coceygus crythrophthalmus.
- 77. Conurus carolinensis.
- 78. Trochilus colubris.

- 79. ?Chætura pelasgia.
- 80. Antrostomus vociferus.
- 81. Antrostomus carolinensis.
- 82. Nauclerus furcatus.
- 83. Ictinia mississippiensis.
- 84. Rosthramus sociabilis.
- 85. ?Tetrao canadensis.
- 86. Capidonia cupido.
- 87. Ortvx virginianus.
- 88. Grus americanus.
- 89. Florida cærulca.
- 90. Ibis alba.
- 91. Platalea ajaja.
- 92. Ægialitis Wilsonius.
- 93. Ægialitis melodus.

- 94. ?Actiturus Bartramius.
- 95. Limosa hudsonica.
- 96. ?Numenius borealis.
- 97. Rallus crepitans.
- 98. Porzana jamaicensis.
- 99. Porzana noveboracensis.
- 100. Gallinula galeata.
- 101. Gallinula martinica.
- 102. Anas obscura.
- 103. Querquedula discors.
- 104. Camptolæmus labradorius.
- 105. Sula fiber.
- 106. Graeulus floridanus.
- 107. Plotus anhinga.
- 108. Chrœcocephalus atricilla.

# 3. THE ORNITHOLOGICAL FAUNÆ OF THE EASTERN PROVINCE OF THE NORTH AMERICAN TEMPERATE REGION.

Passing to the Eastern Province of the North American Region, the distribution of the birds will be now mainly considered. But a somewhat detailed comparison of the distribution of the representatives of this class with the distribution of the mammals and reptiles, and to some extent with the insects, mollusks, and plants, shows that the same divisions apply almost equally well to all. The distribution of plants, however, is everywhere greatly affected by the nature of the soil, as well as by humidity and temperature; and the character of the vegetation is also intimately connected with the distribution of the insects. The character of the soil, and especially the nature and amount of the mineral matter held in solution in the waters of the streams and lakes, has much to do with the relative abundance and distribution of the terrestrial and fluviatile mollusca, neither of which influences materially affects the distribution of the birds and mammals. The presence or absence of forests only, in respect to vegetation\* and the soil, has much

\* At the junction of the prairies with the eastern wooded districts there is quite an appreciable change in the fauna, especially in respect to the birds and mammals. The faunal differences between these regions, in respect to these two classes, result mainly through the addition of a relatively small number of strictly prairie species, the westward extension of none of the species of the Eastern Province wholly terminating at this point. The number of their representatives, however, becomes greatly reduced, and their distribution from being general and uniform is restricted to the belts of

influence on the distribution of the terrestrial vertebrates. The distribution of the fishes, the aquatic reptiles and certain groups of batrachians is, however, in great measure determined by the hydrographic basins. Hence we meet with relatively more restricted forms among the latter, as well as in insects, mollusks, and plants, than we find in either mammals or birds, the latter class being the most independent of all animals of geographical barriers.

It has been remarked that the great extent of the Eastern Province, as compared with the Western, is due to the great extent of the lowlands of Eastern North America, or of that area which has an elevation not exceeding eight hundred feet above the sea.\* This is unquestionably the true reason, there being no highlands of sufficient altitude to interpose serious obstacles to the range of species. Some portions of this area, however, as the Arctic lowlands, do not belong to this region, while large portions of the country included in the Eastern Province more or less exceed that altitude. These differences of elevation are sufficient to cause the marked interdigitation of the faunæ of contiguous regions lying under the same parallels, as in the Eastern United States, where the upper portions of the Appalachian system support a Canadian or subalpine fauna and flora as far south as Georgia. Yet this elevation, in consequence of its nearly meridional trend and its lack of perfect continuity, forms a barrier to but few vertebrates except the strictly aquatic ones. If, however, the trend of the Appalachian range had been an easterly and westerly one, the influence of these highlands as a geographical barrier would have been most marked. Without the differences in altitude it affords, the faunæ and floræ of Eastern North

forest skirting the streams. At the eastern limit of the prairies, in fact, the distinctively western species begin to appear, thence westward few additional western species being met with till the edge of the great central plateau of the continent is reached, where the differentiation is further increased not only by the addition of many new forms, but by the gradual disappearance of eastern types. Whether the addition of a few prairie species be sufficient reason for recognizing a western subdivision of each of the faunæ of the Eastern Province may perhaps be thought questionable.

The forested portion of the Eastern Province also presents a lack of total uniformity between its eastern and western portions, a few species of birds occurring east of the Appalachians in the Eastern States only as stragglers, whilst they are quite common west of these highlands. About half a dozen species avoid the region circumscribed by the valleys of the St. Lawrence, Lake Champlain, the Hudson River, and the Atlantic Coast, that are found west of this area.

<sup>\*</sup> See Baird, Am. Journ. of Science and Arts, 2d Series, Vol. XLI, p. 86.

America would have extended in regular and parallel zones from the Atlantic seaboard to the central plateau of the continent, whereas they now sweep far southward near the coast, and passing around the Appalachian highlands extend northward again along their western base.

In attempting to determine the number and limits of the ornithological faunæ of a large area, it is evident that the distribution of the birds in the breeding season should be taken as the basis for the investigation rather than their entire range, since during no other portion of the year can the migratory species be regarded as being at their true homes. The species numerously represented are also of far greater importance than those having but few representatives, as it is the common species which are not only the most characteristic, but those whose distribution is at present best known.

Applying the term fauna, when used in a special sense, to the smallest of the natural divisions in zoölogical geography, and considering faunæ to be characterized by their general facies, as determined by a peculiar assemblage of species, rather than by the restriction of a certain number of specific forms within their areas, Eastern North America may be considered as embracing seven ornithological faunæ, which occupy narrow, somewhat parallel zones or belts of varying breadth, extending from the Atlantic coast westward to the great middle plateau of the continent. The extent of each in an east and west direction is generally many times greater than what may be considered as its meridional extent. Their breadth, however, is quite unequal, not only as compared with each other, but that of the same fauna varies greatly at different points. They have their minimum breadth on the slopes of the mountains, and attain their maximum breadth on the plains. Each species having its own peculiar limits, which may or may not coincide with those of other species, it usually happens that at somewhat regular intervals, in passing either northward or southward from a given point, a greater number of species disappear at some points than at others, at which point also other species first appear. These divisional lines usually coincide with some marked physical change in the general character of the country, more especially in respect to its elevation, and form the boundaries between adjoining faunæ.\* These faunal boundaries, as has been before remarked, coin-

<sup>\*</sup> The first terrace of the Atlantic slope, which marks not only the transition from the tertiary deposits of the coast of the Middle and South Atlantic States to the older forma-

cide with isothermal lines. These isothermal lines, however, are not so often the yearly isotherms as those of particular seasons. While some writers have considered isocrymal lines as those having the greatest amount of limiting influence, as Dana has supposed to be the case with marine animals,\* and as may be true in the case of plants, and possibly also of some terrestrial animals, the mean temperature of the breeding season must necessarily more affect birds, especially the migratory species, than that of any other part of the year, or than the mean annual temperature. Isotherals hence most nearly coincide with the lines limiting the distribution of birds in the breeding season, and also the ornithological faunæ, since the majority of the species in the region now under consideration breed almost exclusively during the summer months, and mainly in June and July. Some breed in May, and a few of the rapacious birds in April, and even in March, but they are the exceptions to the general rule. The isotheral lines are hence adopted in the present essay in giving the boundaries of the ornithological faunæ. ‡

Owing to the imperfect state of our knowledge of the summer distribution of the birds of North America, the present attempt at a defini-

tions of the interior, as well as forming the limit of steam navigation on the rivers of the lower Atlantic States, forms also the dividing line between the faunæ of the coast and those situated next to them in the interior, although having an altitude of generally less than three hundred feet. The rise from the succeeding plateau to the more abrupt slope of the Appalachians forms likewise the boundary between the second and third tiers of faunæ in the Atlantic States. The terrace forming the northern boundary of the tertiary deposits of the Gulf States, and of the lower Mississippi Valley generally, coincides likewise with faunal boundaries, as do similar slight changes in elevation elsewhere.

- \* See Report on the Crustacea collected by the U. S. Expl. Expl. under the command of Captain Wilkes, Vol. II, p. 1452.
- † There must; however, be many exceptions, since in cold climates many mammals and all reptiles, as well as a large proportion of the mollusca and insects, hibernate, and thus are to a great degree (especially the reptiles) beyond the influence of excessive cold. In regard to plants, also, their northward range seems to be limited more by the amount of heat in summer than by the cold of winter, particularly in the case of annuals. As soon as the sum of the heat of summer is diminished to such a degree as to be insufficient to mature the plant, or to allow it to ripen its fruit, whether an annual, a shrub or tree, it must at that point cease to propagate, and there find its polar limit.
- † Professor A. E. Verrill states that he has found the "boundaries between the Canadian and Alleghanian Fauna" to be "coincident with a line which shall indicate a mean temperature of 50° Fahrenheit during the months of April, May, and June." Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. XII, p. 260, May, 1866.

tion of the faunæ of this region is to be regarded as merely a provisional one, to be perfected as the required data become known. The distribution in summer of the birds of the United States, even of that portion situated east of the Mississippi River, is still too little known to afford even there entirely satisfactory data. The data are tolerably full only for the region embraced between the St. Lawrence and the Upper Lakes on the north, and the Ohio River and Virginia on the south. Much is also known, however, in regard to the summer distribution of the birds in the other Atlantic States; but in respect to the whole region of the lower Mississippi and the Gulf States, the recorded facts bearing on this subject are lamentably few.\* The isothermal lines of even our best climatological charts are also obviously more or less erroneous, and are nowhere laid down with sufficient detail to meet the wants of the student of zoölogical geography. The following lists of those species which by their presence or absence determine the facies of the several faunæ of the Eastern Province are hence not only often incomplete, but will in some cases, doubtless, require more or less modification as our knowledge of the subject increases.† The facts at hand for the work herein attempted are, however, far more numerous than would at first seem probable; ‡ and doubtless the general conclusions reached in the following pages will be in the main substantiated by future investigations.

Beginning with Florida and passing northward, we meet with the following ornithological Faunæ:—

- I. FLORIDIAN FAUNA. As stated in Part I (p. 164), that part of Florida south of Lake George in the interior, and of Cape Canaveral
- \* The importance of complete and carefully annotated lists of the birds of many localities in the South Atlantic and Gulf States, and in the Mississippi Valley, is hence clearly manifest. Now that the necessity of a precise knowledge of the habitats of animals is so generally recognized, it is to be hoped that every year will add something to our knowledge in regard to these regions.
- † This is especially true in respect to the Floridian, Louisianian, and Carolinian Faunæ. Over this large area I have been unable to determine satisfactorily the exact southern limit of the breeding range of any species. Their northern limit, however, is readily approximately determined.
- † See the Appendix to Part V for a list of the special papers that have been consulted in the present connection. In addition to these papers the specimens of birds in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoology have been of great use, whilst many additional facts have been gathered from correspondents and from other sources not there indicated.

on the coast, differs quite sensibly in its general faunal and floral characteristics from that part of the State situated farther to the northward, its fauna, especially the ornithological portion, having a decidedly West Indian or tropical aspect, as has also its flora. Dr. Stimpson has recently shown that on the Gulf coast of the State the southern forms, among the marine animals, extend considerably farther north than they do on the Atlantic coast; \* but whether the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico sensibly modify the land fauna of the northern coast of the Gulf sufficiently to affect the distribution of the birds is a point I have been as yet unable to determine. As it seems probable, however, that it does not to any great degree, the Floridian Fauna may accordingly be provisionally regarded as terminating near the latitude of Lake George.

The peculiarities of the bird fauna of Southern Florida in summer is still too imperfectly known to admit of the Floridian ornithological fauna being fully characterized. The occurrence within it of the following species which do not appear to extend much, if any, to the north of it, may serve for the present to distinguish this fauna from the Louisianian.

Species limited in their Northward Range by the Floridian Fauna.

- 1. Vireosylvia barbatula.
- 2. Certhiola flaveola.
- 3. Icterus vulgaris.
- 4. Cyanoeitta floridana.
- 5. Tyrannus dominicensis.
- 6. Coceygus minor.
- 7. Crotophaga ani.
- 8. "Crotophaga rugirostris."
- 9. Columba leueocephala.
- Zenæda amabilis.
- 11. Oreopelia martinica.

- 12. Starnænus cyanocephalus.
- 13. Rostrhamus sociabilis.
- 14. Polyborus tharus.
- 15. Aramus giganteus.
- 16. Demiegretta Pealei.
- 17. Demiegretta rufa.
- 18. Audubonia occidentalis.
- 19. Ibis rubra.
- 20. Phænicopterus ruber.
- 21. Haliplana fuliginosa.
- 22. Anoüs stolidus.

II. LOUISIANIAN FAUNA. The Louisianian Fauna may be provisionally considered as limited at the northward by the isotheral line of 77° F., it embracing all that part of the United States south of this line east of the Great Plains, except the Floridian Fauna. Beginning on the Atlantic coast apparently as far north as Norfolk, Virginia, it oc-

<sup>•</sup> See American Naturalist, Vol. IV, p. 536, December, 1870.

cupies a narrow belt thence southward along the coast, and in the latitude of Columbia, South Carolina, begins to expand to the westward. Farther southward its northern boundary passes to the southward of the mountains in Georgia, west of which it rises obliquely northward, and extends in a narrow point up the valley of the Mississippi as far as the mouth of the Ohio. West of the Mississippi it bends again somewhat to the southward.

The Louisianian Fauna hence embraces the coast of North Carolina, the lowlands of South Carolina and Georgia, nearly all of Alabama, all of Mississippi and Louisiana, nearly all of Arkansas, Western Tennessee, the extreme western part of Kentucky, Southern Missouri, the extreme southern part of Illinois, and a small portion of Eastern Texas. Most of the following species range throughout its entire extent, but appear farther to the northward only as stragglers. The presence of these species, and the absence of those given in the preceding list, will serve to distinguish it from the Floridian Fauna. It is similarly distinguished from the Carolinian Fauna will be presently shown.

Species limited in their Northward Range by the Louisianian Fauna.

- 1. Peucæa æstivalis.
- 2. Cyanospiza ciris.
- 3. Quiscalus major.
- 4. Helminthophaga Swainsoni.
- 5. Helminthophaga Bachmani.
- 6. ?Prothonotaria citrea.
- 7. Dendræca dominica.
- 8. Sitta pusilla.
- 9. Antrostomus carolinensis.
- 10. Campephilus principalis.
- 11. Picus borealis.
- 12. Conurus carolinensis.

- 13. Chamæpelia passerina.
- 14. Cathartes atratus.
- 15. Ictinia mississippiensis.
- 16. Elanus leucurus.
- 17. Demiegretta ludoviciana.
- 18. Platalea ajaja.
- 19. Ibis alba.
- 20. Tantalus loculator.
- 21. Porzana jamaicensis.
- 22. Plotus anhinga.
- 23. Graculus floridanus.
- 24. Puffinus obscurus.

III. CAROLINIAN FAUNA. The Carolinian Fauna extends from the northern boundary of the Louisianian Fauna northward to about the isotheral line of 71° F. On the Atlantic coast this fauna includes Long Island and a small portion of Southeastern New York, which form its northern limit. In New Jersey it is restricted to the low-lands, extending westward in Southern Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia to the Appalachian highlands. It embraces the middle por-

tion of the Carolinas, and a narrow belt in Northern Georgia. West of the Appalachian highlands its northern boundary sweeps to the northeastward as far as Northern Ohio, and thence runs westward, probably along the water-shed of that State; rising somewhat to the northward in passing farther west, it crosses Michigan near the southern border of that State, and embraces a portion of Southern Wisconsin and Southern Minnesota.

The Carolinian Fauna hence embraces Long Island and Southeastern New York, the greater part of New Jersey, all of Delaware, a small portion of Southeastern Pennsylvania, the greater part of Maryland and East Virginia, all of North Carolina, except the extreme eastern and western portions, the northwestern half of South Carolina, a narrow belt of Northern Georgia south of the mountains, the eastern part of Tennessee, the larger part of West Virginia, nearly all of Ohio and Kentucky, all of Indiana, nearly all of Illinois, a narrow strip of Michigan and Wisconsin, nearly all of Iowa and the greater part of Missouri, and the eastern portions of Nebraska and Kansas. It also occupies the lower Appalachian valleys.

It is distinguished from the Louisianian Fauna by the absence of the species mentioned in the preceding list, and by the presence of those given in the list next following. The features distinguishing it from the Alleghanian will be presently given in the diagnosis of that fauna.

### Species limited in their Northward Range by the Carolinian Fauna.\*

- 1. Cardinalis virginianus.
- 2. Euspiza americana.
- 3. Guiraea cærulea.
- 4. Helmitherus vermivorus.
- 5. Ieteria virens.
- 6. ?Prothonotaria citrea.
- 7. Wilsonia mitrata,
- 8. ?Dendrœca cærulea.
- 9. Pyranga æstiva.
- 10. Mimus polyglottus.
- 11. Thryothorus ludovicianus.
- 12. Polioptila eærulea.
- 13. Lophophanes bicolor.

- 14. Corvus ossifragus.
- 15. Centurus carolinus.
- 16. Stelgidopteryx serripennis.
- 17. Nauclerus furcatus.
- 18 Strix flammea.
- 19. Cathartes aura.
- 20. Ægialitis Wilsonius.
- 21. Gallinula galeata.
- 22. Gallinula martinica.
- 23. Garzetta candidissima.
- 24. Herodias egretta.
- 25. Florida cærulea.
- 26. Nyetherodius violaceus.
- \* A few of these species occur as stragglers in the Alleghanian Fauna.

- 27. Rallus eiegans.
- 28. Rallus crepitans.
- 29. ?Hæmatopus palliatus
- 30. Recurvirostra americana.
- 31. Himantopus nigricollis.
- 32. Sterna aranea.
- 33. Rhynehops nigra.

IV. ALLEGHANIAN FAUNA. The Alleghanian Fauna has the Carolinian for its southern boundary. Its northern boundary, from the ample data for its determination at the eastward, appears to nearly coineide with the isotheral line of 65° F. It is, however, an extremely irregular line, with abrupt and deep sinuosities. Beginning on the coast to the eastward of the Penobscot Bay, it sweeps first somewhat to the northeast, nearly or quite reaching Bangor; thence passing westward and southward, it follows the northern boundary of the lowlands through Southern Maine and Southern New Hampshire. In the Connecticut valley it rises farther to the northward, and in its southern descent skirts the eastern base of the Green Mountains, passing to the southward and westward of these highlands in Connecticut, and thence abruptly to the northward. Skirting the eastern boarder of the Champlain valley, it continues still northward to the valley of the St. Lawrence as far as Quebec; thence turning again southwestward, it passes along the northern border of the lowlands east of the Lawrentian Hills (including the valley of the Ottawa), and crosses the southern peninsula of Michigan near the forty-fifth parallel; continuing thence northwestward it passes near Fort Ripley. Reaching the valley of the Red River of the North, it turns abruptly to the northward, enclosing the lowlands around Lake Winnipeg and embracing the valley of the Saskatchewan and those of its northern and southern branches, passing westward till it meets the higher plateau forming the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains. This may be considered as approximately the northern boundary of the Alleghanian Fauna; the physical, climatic, and phytozoölogical character of the interior of British North America being at present too imperfeetly known to render it easy to determine definitely the northwestern limit of the Alleghanian Fauna.\*

<sup>\*</sup> As already stated, the mean temperature of the breeding season (May, June, and July) has been taken as limiting the breeding range of the species. But this criterion associates regions which have very different climatic peculiarities, when the temperature of the whole year is considered, the isotheral lines diverging more widely from the isothermal or yearly lines in the interior than on the Atlantic coast. While in the Winnipeg basin the summer heat is sufficient to ripen corn and to permit of the cultiva-

The Alleghanian Fauna hence includes all of Southern New England, except the higher parts of the Green Mountain ranges, including even the southern third of Maine and a considerable part of New Hampshire and Vermont; all of New York, except the higher portions of the Adirondacks and the southeastern extremity of that State (which belongs to the Carolinian Fauna), all the lowlands of the Canadas, as far east at least as the vicinity of Quebec; the northern border of Ohio, the greater part of Wisconsin and Minnesota (in fact, very nearly all of these two States), and the valleys of the Red River of the North, the Assinniboine, and large portions of the valleys of the Saskatchewan and its two main branches, including also the extensive lowlands surrounding Lake Winnipeg. It also embraces all the Appalachian highlands southward to Georgia, except the higher parts (which belong to the Canadian Fauna), and hence includes a large part of Pennsylvania, the greater part of the highlands of Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas. The isolated areas within this region belonging to the Canadian Fauna are the highlands of Northeastern New York, and the most elevated parts of Pennsylvania, the Virginias, North Carolina, and Georgia. The northwestern part of New Jersey seems also to belong to the Canadian Fauna.

The Alleghanian Fauna is characterized by the absence of those species already mentioned as finding their northern limit within the Carolinian Fauna, by the presence of those mentioned below as limited in their northward range by the Alleghanian Fauna, and by the absence of a considerable number which occur abundantly in the Canadian Fauna. It is further distinguished from the Carolinian Fauna by the occurrence within it in the breeding season of the species enumer-

tion of tobacco, the winter climate is almost aretic, ice remaining in the lakes in sheltered places till late in May. Yet in summer the Winnipeg district is frequented by birds that find their northern range limited on the Atlantic coast to Southern Maine, where the winters are much shorter and the cold far less severe than on the prairies of the Saskatchewan. The same continental character of the climate of the interior is similarly seen as far south as the prairies of the Upper Mississippi, to which the northern birds descend in winter in greater numbers and with greater regularity than in the corresponding latitudes near the Atlantic coast. A limitation of the ornithological faunae by the distribution of the birds in winter,—in other words, by their maximum range,—would hence differ considerably from the circumscription of these faunae based on the breeding range of the species. This remark applies, of course, not only to the present fauna (Alleghanian), but to Eastern North America as a whole, especially to that portion north of the Louisianian Fauna.

ated in the second list next subjoined, to which the present fauna forms the southern limit of their breeding range.

### 1 Species limited in their Northward Range by the Alleghanian Fauna.\*

- 1. Turdus mustelinus.
- 2. Sialia sialis.
- 3 Pyranga rubra.
- 4. Dendræca discolor.
- 5. Lanivireo flavifrons.
- 6. Vireo noveboracensis.
- 7. Troglodytes aëdon.
- 8. Harporhynehus rufus.
- 9. Cyanospiza cyanea.
- 10. Pipilo erythrophthalmus.
- 11. Spizella pusilla.
- 12 Coturniculus passerinus.
- 13 Ammodromus caudacutus
- 14 Ammodromus maritimus.

- 15. Icterus Baltimore.
- 16. Icterus spurius.
- 17. Sturnella ludoviciana.
- 18. ?Antrostomus vociferus.
- 19. Zenædura carolinensis.
- 20. Cupidonia cupido.
- 21. Ortyx virginianus.
- 22. Meleagris gallopavo.
- 23. Ardetta exilis.
- 24. Rallus virginianus.
- 25. Chrœcocephalus atricilla.
- 26. Sterna paradisea.
- 27. Hydrochelidon fissipes.

## 2. Species limited by the Alleghanian Fauna in their Southward Range in the Breeding Season.

- 1. Turdus fuscescens.
- 2. Dendræca pennsylvaniea.
- 3 Parula americana.
- 4. Helminthophaga rufieapilla.
- 5. Helminthophaga chrysoptera.
- 6. Hirundo bicolor.
- 7. Lanivireo solitarius.
- 8. Carpodacus purpureus.
- 9. Melospiza palustris.
- 10. Passerculus savanna.
- 11. Dolichonyx oryzivorus.
- 12. Contopus borealis.
- 13. Empidonax minimus.
- 14. Empidonax flaviventris.
- 15. Pediœcetes phasi nellus.

- 16. Rallus virginianus.
- 17. Porzana earolina.
  - 8. Ægialitis melodus.
- 19. Nettion carolinensis.
- 20. Querquedula discors.
- 21. Mareca americana.
- 22. Anas boschas.
- 23. Anas obscura.
- 24. Mergus merganser.
- 25. Lophodytes cucullatus.
- 26. Berniela canadensis.
- 27. Colymbus torquatus.
- 28. Podilymbus podiceps.
- 29. Larus argentatus.
- 30. Sterna macrura.

<sup>\*</sup> A few of the species mentioned in this list are more or less frequent stragglers into the Canadian Fauna, but none of them seem to occur there except as irregular and infrequent visitors.

V. CANADIAN FAUNA. The next fauna to the northward of the Alleghanian is the Canadian. The southern boundary of the Canadian is hence, of course, the northern limit of the Alleghanian, which boundary has been already defined. Its northern limit coincides very nearly with the isotheral line of 57° F. The region to the northward of the Alleghanian Fauna is unfortunately too little known to permit of a very satisfactory determination of the northern boundary of either the Canadian Fauna or of the faunæ to the northward of the Canadian. On the Atlantic coast the Canadian Fauna appears to embrace the greater part of Newfoundland, nearly or quite all of Nova Scotia \* and New Brunswick, Northern New England, including the crests of the Green Mountain ranges southward to Connecticut, the greater part of the province of Quebec, including the Lower St. Lawrence valley as far up as the city of Quebec, the southern slope of the Height of Land in Northern Ontario, and the highlands on both sides of Lake Superior. To the southward it also embraces as outlying islands the Adirondacks of Northern New York, and the higher crests of the Appalachians southward to Georgia. To the northward it probably extends nearly to the summit of the Height of Land, and may embrace part of the lowlands bordering the southwestern shore of Hudson's Bay. Its northern boundary hence sweeps northwestward in the interior nearly or quite to Fort Resolution, on the southern shore of Great Bear Lake.

The Canadian Fauna, as above limited, may be characterized as follows. It is distinguished from the Alleghanian Fauna by the absence of the species mentioned above as limited in their northward range by that fauna, and by the presence in the breeding season of those mentioned in the first subjoined list; from the Hudsonian Fauna by the presence of those given in the second subjoined list, and by the absence of those given in the first list under the Hudsonian Fauna. It is further distinguished by its forming the breeding haunts of a large proportion of the Sylvicolidæ, especially of the species of Dendræca, several of which are in summer mainly restricted to it.

<sup>\*</sup> Nova Scotia, zoölogically considered, presents somewhat anomalous characters. In summer a number of birds which are reported as either rare or accidental at Calais, Mc., are represented as common summer residents in Nova Scotia, while other northern species breed there in numbers which do not usually breed at localities where the other species referred to are summer residents. The half-insular position of Nova Scotia is doubtless the explanation of the faunal peculiarities above mentioned.

### Species limited by the Canadian Fauna in their Southward Range in the Breeding Season.

- 1. Turdus Pallasi.
- 2. Turdus Swainsoni.
- 3. Regulus satrapa.
- 4. Regulus calendula.
- 5. Dendræea eastanea.
- 6. Dendræea Blackburniæ.
- 7. Dendræca coronata.
- 8. Dendræca eærulescen
- 9. Dendræca striata.
- 10. Dendræca palmarum.
- 11. Dendræca maculosa.
- 12. Euthlypis canadensis.
- 13. Troglodytes hyemalis.
- 14. Parus hudsonieus.
- 15. Pinicola enucleator.
- 16. Curvirostra americana.
- 17. Curvirostra leucoptera.
- 18. Chrysomitris pinus.
- 19. Zonotrichia leucophrys.
- 20. Zonotrichia albicollis.
- 21. Junco hyemalis.
- 22. Spizella monticola.
- 23. Passerella iliaca.
- 24. Scolecophagus ferrugineus.
- 25. Perisoreus canadensis.
- 26. Picoides hirsutus.
- 27. Pieoides arcticus.
- 28. Falco columbarius.
- 29. Astur atricapillus.
- 30. Surnia ulula.
- 31. Nyctale Tengmalmi.

- 32. Tetrao canadensis.
- 33. Calidris arenaria.
- 34. Macrorhamphus griseus.
- 35. Phalaropus Wilsoni.
- 36. Aythya vallisneria.
- 37. Aythya americana.
- 38. Fulix marila.
- 39. Fulix collaris.
- 40. Erismatura rubida.
- 41. Bucephala clangula.
- 42. Bucephala albeola.
- 43. Mergus serrator.
- 44. Somateria mollissima.
- 45. Cymochorea leucorrhea.
- 46. Puffinus anglorum.
- 47. Larus marinus.
- 48. Rissa tridaetylus.
- 49. ?Chrœcocephalus philadelphia.
- 50. Pelecanus erythrorhynchus.
- 51. Sula bassana.
- 52. Graculus carbo.
- 53. Graculus dilophus.
- 54. Podiceps eristatus.
- 55. Podiceps cornutus.
- 56. Podiceps Holbölli.
- 57. Fratercula arctica.
- 58. Utamania torda.
- 59. Uria grylle.
- 60. Lomvia ringvia.
- 61. Lomvia svarbag.

## 2. Species limited by the Canadian Fauna in their Northward Range.

- 1. ?Turdus Pallasi.
- 2. Mimus carolinensis.
- 3. Dendræca virens.
- 4. Dendræca cærulescens.
- 5. Dendræca castanea.
- 6. Dendræca Blackburniæ.

- 7. Euthlypis canadensis.
- 8. Parus atrieapillus.
- 9. Chrysomitris tristis.
- 10. Chrysomitris pinus.
- 11. Curvirostra americana.
- 12. Poocætes gramineus.

13. Melospiza melodia.

14. Melospiza palustris.

15. Dolichonyx oryzivorus.

16. Tyrannus carolinensis.

17. Myiarchus erinitus.

18. Contopus virens.

19. Trochilus colubris.

20. Antr stomus voeiferus.

21. Sayornis fuscus

22. Cyanura eristata.

23. Buteo lineatus.

24. Buteo pennsylvanicus.

25. Accipiter Cooperi.

26. ?Syrnium nebulosum.

27. Butorides virescens.

28. Porzana carolina.

29. Ægialitis vociferus.

30. Ægialitis melodus.

31. Philohela minor.

32. Actiturus Bartramius.

33. Aix sponsa.

34. Chaulelasmus streperus.

35. Aythya vallisneria.

36. Hydrochelidon fissipes.

VI. HUDSONIAN FAUNA. The next ornithological fauna north of the Canadian may well be termed the Hudsonian Fauna. Its northern limit seems to nearly coincide with the isotheral line of 50° Fahrenheit, its southern limit being the isotheral of 57°, or the northern boundary of the Canadian Fauna. It will include at least the southern third of Labrador, the northern peninsula of Newfoundland, Anticosti Island, the more elevated parts of the Height of Land separating the lowlands bordering Hudson's Bay from the lowlands of the St. Lawrence and the Winnipeg district, and the basin of the Mackenzie's from Lake Athabasca to a point considerably north of Fort Simpson, extending in the Mackenzie's River valley some distance within the Arctic Circle, probably to the Arctic coast. Extending still westward, it embraces the valleys of Liard's and Peel's Rivers, and probably the valley and adjoining lowlands of the Youkon, including the greater part of that portion of the Territory of Alaska situated to the southward of the Arctic Circle. In other words, that portion of boreal America situated between the Canadian Fauna and the Barren Grounds. It is far from certain that a western or Alaskan Fauna will not have to be separated, embracing all the more temperate portions of Alaska. Although strictly western species occur here, they appear to be confined mainly to the western coast and the lower part of the Youkon valley. The faunal differences between the western shore of Alaska and the valley of Mackenzie's River become far greater when the marine species are taken into account, even if only the birds and mammalia are considered. The Pacific coasts of Alaska and Siberia have many species peculiar to the shores of those countries

and to the intervening islands, constituting a distinct fauna, which may well be called the Aleutian Fauna. The mingling of Asiatic and American species forms its distinctive feature. There is also a slight commingling of western species in the valley of the Mackenzie's River, as there is also in the valley of the Saskatchewan. The Hudsonian Fauna doubtless embraces outlying islands in the Canadian Fauna, as the upper part of the White Mountains, and the summits of some of the higher peaks of the Adirondacks. The southern point of Greenland embraces many species common to the Hudsonian Fauna, and though Greenland belongs almost wholly to the Arctic Realm, its extreme southern portion is doubtless Hudsonian.\*

The Hudsonian Fauna being coextensive northward with the limit of forest-trees, it forms the northern limit of distribution of all the species of birds whose mode of life renders them dependent upon a forest vegetation. The distinction between the Hudsonian Fauna and the Arctic Realm, as well as between the Temperate Realm and the Arctic Realm, is hence a strongly marked one, nearly one hundred species, nearly all of them land birds, finding their northern limit of distribution near the polar limit of forests, or at least within the Hudsonian Fauna.

The Hudscnian Fauna may be distinguished from the Canadian by the absence of the species given in the preceding lists and by the presence of those enumerated in the first of the lists next subjoined, and from the Arctic Realm by the presence of those given in the second list below.

- 1. Species limited by the Hudsonian Fauna in their Southward Range in the Breeding Season.
  - 1. Anthus ludovicianus.
- 2. Saxicola œnanthe.
- 3. Ampelis garrula.
- 4. Ægiothus linaria.

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- 5. Pleetrophanes lapponicus.
- 6. Plectrophanes nivalis.
- 7. Plectrophanes pictus.
- 8. Leucosticte tephrocotis.

- 9. ?Picoides arcticus.
- 10. ?Picoides hirsutus.
- 11. Falco candicans.
- 12. Archibuteo lagopus.
- 13. Syrnium cinereum.
- 14. Nyetea nivea.
- 15. Lagopus albus.
- 16. Lagopus rupestris.
- \* For remarks respecting the similarity of the Fauna of Northern Labrador and Southern Greenland, see Dr. A. S. Packard, Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., Vol. X, p. 255, 1866.

- 17. Charadrius virginicus.
- 18. Ægialitis semipalmatus.
- 19. Squartarola helvetica.
- 20. Strepsilas interpres.
- 21. Actodromas maculata.
- 22. Actodromas Bonapartei.
- 23. Actodromas minutilla.
- 24. Ereunetes pusillus.
- 25. Anser Gambeli.
- 26. Anser hyperboreus.

- 27. Bernicla brenta.
- 28. Dafila acuta.
- 29. Harelda glacialis.
- 30. Somateria spectabilis.
- 31. Pelionetta perspicillata.
- 32. Procellaria glacialis.
- 33. Sterna caspia.
- 34. Larus glaucus.
- 35. Colymbus septentrionalis.
- 36. Stercorarius parasiticus.

#### 2. Species limited in their Northward Range by the Hudsonian Fauna

- 1. Turdus migratorius.
- 2. Turdus Swainsoni.
- 3. Regulus calendula
- 4. Regulus satrapa.
- 5. Helminthophaga ruficapilla.
- 6. Helminthophaga peregrina.
- 7. Helminthophaga celata.
- 8. Seiurus aurocapillus.
- 9. Seiurus noveboracensis.
- 10. Dendræca coronata.
- 11. Dendræca striata.
- 12. Dendræca æstiva.
- 13. Dendræca maculosa.
- 14. Dendræca palmarum.
- 15. Wilsonia pusilla.
- 16. Setophaga ruticilla.
- 17. Hirundo horreorum.
- 18. Hirundo lunifrons.
- 19. Hirundo bicolor.
- 20. Ampelis garrula.
- 21. Collurio borealis.
- 22. Vireo olivaceus.
- 23. Vireo gilvus.
- 24. Parus hudsonicus.
- 25. Pinicola enucleator.
- 26. Curvirostra leucoptera.
- 27. Ægiothus linaria.
- 28. Plectrophanes nivalis.
- 29. Plectrophanes lapponicus.

- 30. Plectrophanes pictus.
- 31. Passerculus savanna.
- 32. Zonotrichia leucophrys.
- 33. Zonotrichia albicollis.
- 34. Junco hyemalis.
- 35. Spizella monticola.
- 36. Spizella socialis.
- 37. Melospiza Lincolnii.
- 38. Passerella iliaca.
- 39. Molothrus pecoris.
- 40. Agelæus phæniceus.
- 41. Scolecophagus ferrugineus.
- 42. Quiscalus purpureus.
- 43. Corvus corax.
- 44. Corvus americanus.
- 45 Pica candata.
- 46. Perisoreus canadensis.
- 47. Contopus borealis.
- 48. Empidonax minimus.
- 49. Empidonax Traillii.
- 50. Picus villosus.
- 51. Picus pubescens.
- 52. Picoides hirsutus.
- 53. Picoides arcticus.
- 54. Sphyrapicus varius.
- 55. Hylotomus pileatus.
- 56. Colaptes auratus.
- 57. Chordeiles popetue.
- 58. Ceryle alcyon.

- 59. Falco candicans.
- 60. Falco peregrinus.
- 61. Falco columbarius.
- 62. Falco sparverius.
- 63. Astur atricapillus.
- 64. Archibuteo lagopur
- 65. Buteo borealis.
- 66. Accipiter fuscus.
- 67. Circus cyaneus.
- 68. Bubo virginianus
- 69. Otus vulgaris.
- 70. Otus brachyotus.
- 71. Ectopistes migratori
- 72. Tetrao canadensis.
- 73. Pediœcetes phasianellus.
- 74. Bonasa umbellus.
- 75. Lagonus leucurus.
- 76. ?Grus americanus.
- 77. Gallinago Wilsoni.

- 78. Macrorhamphus griseus.
- 79. Ereunctes pusillus.
- 80. Gambetta melanoleuca.
- 81. Gambetta flavipes.
- 82. Tringoides macularius.
- 83. Limosa hudsonica.
- 84. Porzana carolina.
- 35. Fulica americana.
- 86. ?Dafila acuta.
- 87. Nettion carolinensis.
- 88. Querquedula discors.
- 89. Spatula clypeata.
- 90. Mareca americana.
- 91. Fulix marila.
- 92. Fulix collaris.
- 93. Erismatura rubida.
- 94. Lophodytes eucullatus.
- 95. Graeulus dilophus.
- 96. Pelecanus erythrorhynchus.

VII. AMERICAN ARCTIC FAUNA. The Arctic Realm may be considered as occupying that portion of the northern hemisphere north of the isotheral of 50° F. Though presenting a great uniformity of character throughout its extent, it seems to be divisible into four faunæ, — an American Arctic Fauna, an America-Asiatic Fauna, an Europeo-Asiatic .Arctic Fauna, and an Europeo-American Arctic Fauna, the second and fourth being essentially marine. While a few species of mammals seem to be almost wholly restricted within the Arctic Realm, it contains but few resident birds, and no species of birds seem to be wholly confined to it, even in the breeding season. The following species are reported to range to the Arctic coast of North America, the most of which have been observed at Melville Island and in Greenland. The greater part are Natatores and Grallæ, the only commonly so-called land birds being two or three species of grouse, a sparrow or two, and a few hawks and owls.

Species found in the American Arctic Fauna in the Breeding Season

- 1. Cotyle riparia.
- 2. Corvus corax.
- 3. Aquila chrysaëtos.

- 4. Haliaëtus leucocephalus.
- 5. Pandion haliaëtus.
- 6. Nyctea nivea.

- 7. ?Surnia ulula.
- 8. Tetrao canadensis.
- 9. Lagopus albus.
- 10. Lagopus rupestris.
- 11. Grus canadensis.
- 12. Botaurus lentiginosus.
- 13. Charadrius virginieus.
- 14. Ægialitis semipalmatus.
- 15. Strepsilas interpres.
- 16. Phalaropus fulicarius.
- 17. Calidris arenaria.
- 18. Tringa canutus.
- 19. Pelidna "americana."
- 20. Arquatella maritima.
- 21. Cygnus "americanus."
- 22. Anser hyperboreus.
- 23. Anser Gambeli.
- 24. Bernicla canadensis.
- 25. Anas bosehas,
- 26. Bucephala albeola.
- 27. Bucephala clangula.
- 28. Histrionieus torquatus.
- 29. Harelda glacialis.
- 30. Melanetta velvetina.
- 31. Pelionetta perspicillata.
- 32. Œdemia "americana."

- 33. Somateria spectabilis.
- 34. Somateria mollissima.
- 35. Buphagus skan Coues.
- 36. Stercorarius pomarinus.
- 37. Stereorarius parasiticus.
- 38. Stereorarius Buffoni Coues.
- 39. Fulmarus glacialis.
- 40. Larus argentatus.
- 41. Larus glaucus.
- 42. Larus leucopterus.
- 43. Rissa tridaetyla.
- 44. Pagophila eburnea.
- 45. Xema Sabini.
- 46. Sterna arctica.
- 47. ?Sula bassana.
- 48. Colymbus septentrionalis.
- 49. Colymbus arcticus.
- 50. Colymbus torquatus.
- 51. Utamania torda.
- 52. Fratercula glacialis.
- 53. Lunda eirrhata.
- 54. Mergulus alle.
- 55. Uria grylle.
- 56. Lomvia troile.
- 57. Lomvia ringvia.
- 58. Lomvia svarbag.

# The Faunæ of the Eastern Province considered in Reference to the Distribution of the Mammals and Reptiles.

The faunæ of the Eastern Province of the North American Region above characterized from the distribution of the birds seem to be equally well marked as natural zoological districts by the distribution of the mammals and reptiles. About the same proportionate number of mammals are limited similarly with the birds in regard to their northward and southward distribution. The correspondence in the geographical limitation of the species of the two groups will be briefly shown by the following remarks respecting the range of the mammals.

The Arctic Realm is well known to be characterized by a few species nearly or quite restricted to it, as the polar bear (Ursus maritimus),

the artic fox (Vulpes lagopus), the musk ox (Ovibos moschatus), the lemmings (Myodes), the small northern race of the caribou or reindeer, the Eskimos, etc.

The Hudsonian Fauna forms the southern limit of the polar hare (Lepus glacialis) and the northern limit (at least in winter) of the Lynx canadensis, Mustela "americana," Mustela Pennantii, Putorius vulgaris, Putorius ermineus, Ursus "americanus," Ursus "horribilis," Sciurus hudsonius, Arctomys monax, Vespertilio subulatus, and others.

The Canadian Fauna forms, at present,\* the southern limit of Mustela Pennatii, Mustela "americana," Gulo luscus, Arvicola xanthognathus, Erethizon dorsatus, Alces malchis, Rangifer tarandus, etc., and the northern limit of Felis concolor, Lynx rufus, Mephitis mephitica, Procyon lotor, Bos americanus, Condylura cristata, Blarina brevicauda, and others.

The Alleghanian Fauna forms the southern limit of Lynx canadensis. Sciurus hudsonius, Arvicola Gapperi, Jaculus hudsonius, Lepus americanus, Cervus canadensis, Sorex platyrhinus, Condylura cristata, and doubtless of several other species; and the northern limit of Sciurus carolinensis, Lepus sylvaticus, Arvicola pinetorum, Cervus virginianus, Scalops aquaticus, etc.

The Carolinian Fauna forms the southern limit of Mustela vulgaris, Tamias striatus, Arctomys monax, and Fiber zibethicus; and the northern limit of Vulpes virginianus, Nycticejus crepuscularis, Didelphys virginiana, etc.

The Louisianian Fauna seems to form the southern limit of Putorius vison, Blarina brevicauda, Scalops aquaticus, and doubtless thus limits several other species, though not a small proportion of those which occur in this fauna range also into South Florida, or into the Floridian Fauna. The Louisianian Fauna limits the northward range of Neotoma floridana, Reithrodon humilis, Sigmodon hispidus, Hesperomys palustris, Geomys pineti, and Lepus palustris.

In respect to reptiles, a similar proportion of species are limited in either their northward or southward range by each fauna. Several species of batrachians range into the Hudsonian Fauna, but apparently this fauna must be the northern limit of their distribution. The Cana-

<sup>\*</sup> It is probable that some of the fur-bearing species, as well as *Hystrix dorsatus*, the moose and the caribou, once ranged southward throughout the Alleghanian Fauna, and have been exterminated there by man.

dian Fauna forms the northern limit of the reptiles proper, where this class is represented by two orders only, the Testudinata and the Ophidia The Testudinata are there represented by only three species (Chelydra serpentina, Glyptemys insculpta, Chrysemys picta), and the Ophidia by five (Bascanion constrictor, Tropidonotus sirtalis, Diadophis punctatus, Storeria occipito-maculata). In the Alleghanian Fauna the number of species in each of these groups is more than doubled. The Carolinian Fauna forms the northern limit of the Sauria, of which two species (Plestiodon fasciatus, Tropidolepis undulatus) here first make their appearance, and the number of species of the other groups is still further increased, several additional generic types being added. In the Louisianian Fauna the number of species of Sauria becomes considerably greater, and while few of the northern species of either the true reptiles or the batrachians have disappeared, other more southern forms have been added in almost every family.

These several faunæ, it may be added, seem in general to coincide in their number and limits with the floræ of the same region. These several floræ, as thus circumscribed, form successively the northern limit of the successful cultivation of some more or less important cultivated plant. But a detailed consideration of the distribution of the vegetation of the region under consideration, in respect to the number and circumscription of the floræ, and their correspondence with the faunæ, cannot of course well be here introduced.

# 4. THE ORNITHOLOGICAL DISTRICTS OF THE NORTH AMERICAN TEMPERATE REGION.

The subdivision by Professor Dana of the tropical and temperate climatic zones of the oceanic areas into several zoölogical zones has been already alluded to as being equally applicable to the land areas. To these life zones I propose to apply the term "districts." Dana's divisions of the north temperate climatic zone correspond respectively in latitudinal extent with the several ornithological faunæ of the Eastern Province, as defined in the preceding pages. Unlike the faunæ, however, the districts extend in an east and west direction across the North American Region, each district embracing not only one of the faunæ of the Eastern Province, but also its representative fauna (or faunæ) in the Western Province. The Hudsonian Fauna corresponds in latitudinal extent with Dana's subfrigid division of the north tem-

perate zone, and the term Subfrigid District may be very properly applied to that district of which this fauna forms the eastern portion. The zone corresponding with the Canadian Fauna may in like manner be termed the Cold-temperate District; that corresponding with the Alleghanian Fauna the Subtemperate District; that corresponding with the Carolinian Fauna the Temperate District; and that corresponding with the Louisianian Fauna the Warm-temperate District; the Floridian Fauna in like manner corresponding with the Subtorrid District, or with Dana's subtorrid zone. Each of these districts is distinguished, in contradistinction from the faunæ, by species which range across the continent, while the districts are distinguished from each other by the same kind of difference as has been shown above to characterize the several faunæ among themselves.

#### 5. ON THE GEOGRAPHICAL RANGE OF THE SPECIES.

The preceding tables, while serving to characterize the ornithological faunæ of Eastern North America, indicate only very obscurely the range of the species. The following tables have hence been prepared in order to show more clearly the breeding range, and also the winter quarters, of those species whose distribution in the breeding season is tolerably known. For this purpose the birds occurring in the Eastern Province of the North American region have been grouped, according to their geographical distribution, into the following classes, beginning with those which have the widest breeding range: I. Cosmopolitan Species. III. Circumpolar Species. III. Species which range across the whole breadth of the North American Temperate Region. IV. Species limited in longitude to the Eastern Province of this region. The birds of the Eastern Province are further subdivided according to the range of the species in the breeding season in latitude.\*

\* In a preliminary notice like the present it has been found impracticable to give the anthorities in detail on which the generalizations given in the following synopsis have been based. The list of papers given in the Appendix serve in a general way to indicate the principal sources from which information has been derived. It is believed, however, that the limits assigned each species will be found in the main correct, though in many cases the accessible data have been quite too few to be satisfactory. The generalizations are given, of course, as a representation of our present knowledge of the subject rather than as final. The polar and equatorial limits of the migratory range of the species varies, as is well known, more or less in different years, according to the season. It is also somewhat different on the coast from what it is in

- I. COSMOPOLITAN SPECIES. A large proportion of ornithologists have of late been unwilling to admit that any bird has what is usually termed a "cosmopolitan" range, while others recognize only about twenty such species, taking into account, of course, their total range. These embrace two or three species each of hawks and owls, the rest being either Grallæ or Natatores. Very few of them, however, breed within both the tropic and the polar zones; many of those which visit the shores of all lands in their migratory journeys being restricted in the breeding season to comparatively limited areas. Pandion haliaëtus and Otus brachyotus are the only examples of commonly socalled cosmopolitan species which appear to breed from the Arctic Circle southward through the tropics to the southern extremity of the southern continents. Falco peregrinus may form a third, but its peculiar breeding habits give it a very irregular dispersion at that season. Strix flammea appears to be also everywhere resident, except in the arctic and cold-temperate zones. Cotyle riparia and Hirundo rufa (including under the latter name the several slightly differing geographical races of this group, which have of late been regarded as species), seem also to be nearly cosmopolite. The list of species which are permanently cosmopolitan will hence not exceed half a dozen, and are those above enumerated.
- II. CIRCUMPOLAR SPECIES. Regarding as circumpolar species only those numerously represented in both the eastern and western hemispheres, nearly one hundred species\* can be included in the list of

the interior, as has been previously explained; so that an indication of only the average boreal and austral limits of the species at this season has been aimed at, and only so far is their winter range is circumscribed within the region under special consideration. The blanks in the third column of the tables hence indicate that the species winter entirely within the American Tropical Realm: those in the fourth, that the austral limit is within that realm. The few occurring in the second column of the tables indicate that the species in question also ranges southward in the breeding season into the Tropical Realm. A [?] in place of a blank indicates that the southward range of the species is supposed to be limited to the Eastern Province, but as being too vaguely known to warrant a specification of its limit in the direction indicated by the column in which the query stands.

\* Dr. Richardson, in I831 (in the "Fauna Boreali-Americana," p. xxxix), gave thirty-two species of land birds and "upwards of sixty-two species of water birds" (ninety-four in all) as "common to the Old World and the Fur Countries." A few truly circumpolar species were not included in this list, and others were included which were merely accidental visitors from one continent to the other. Since the date of that list the identity of the greater part of the species therein mentioned has been questioned by

circumpolar species. A small number of others that are properly either exclusively American or Europeo-Asiatic species occur more or less frequently as accidental visitors to the continents not embraced within their usual habitats.

one or another writer, and their representatives on the two hemispheres separated under different names. But a considerable proportion of those mentioned in the next subjoined table are still regarded as truly circumpolar by a number of leading European onithologists. Dr. Von Middehlorff ("Uebersicht der Natur Nord- und Ost-Sibiriens, Theil 2, Erste Lieferung," etc.; see Newton's Ibis, April, 1870, p. 275), in 1867, gave lists of eighty-seven circumpolar species, a part of which (called "Hyperboreal Birds") are distinctive of what has been termed above the Arctic Realm, whilst many of the others range quite far southward even in summer. These lists, however, do not embrace a number of circumpolar species whose boreal limit does not extend to the districts named. A dozen or more Europeo-Asiatic species, in addition to those given below, have representatives in America so closely resembling them in habits and in geographical distribution, as well as structurally, that they have often been confounded, specimens frequently occurring on the one continent that are undistinguishable from those from the other continent.

In 1846 Professor Edm. de Selvs-Longchamps, in his excellent paper entitled "Sur les Oiseaux américains admis dans la Faune européenne" (Mém. de la Soc. R. de Liège, Vol. IV, pp. 35-50, 1849), included thirteen species in his list of "Oiseaux terrestres communs à l'Europe et à l'Amérique," and mentions nine other terrestrial American species which he regards as "ne semblent être en réalité que des modifications climatiques de nos oiseaux européens." All but two of these, and also one or two in addition to them, have been regarded in the present paper as specifically identical. In his list of "Oiscaux aquatiques communs à l'Europe et à l'Amérique" he includes fifty-five species, and mentions thirteen others, "décrits comme espèces distinctes, ne semblent être que des races locales," three or four of which I have regarded as specifically identical. The whole number mentioned by Selys-Longchamps as common to Europe and boreal America is seventy-six, plus twenty-four "autres qui semblent n'être que des races légèrement modifiées par le climat." (See l. c., p. 48.) In the same paper he gives a list of twenty-eight American species as of accidental occurrence in Europe, eight of which are land birds, eight échassiers or waders, and twelve palmipèdes or swimmers, and also a list of twenty American species which he considers to have been improperly included among the birds of Europe, among which are Haliaëtus leucocephalus, Strix nebulosa (= Syrnium nebulosum), Loxia (= Curvirostra) leucoptera, Struthus (= Junco) hyemalis, and Parus (= Lophophanes) bicolor.

# II. List of Circumpolar Species, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits.

Species.	Boreal Limit in the Breeding Season.	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Certhia familiaris	Canad Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	Carolin. Fauna
Saxicola œnanthe	Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Hudson, Fauna	Hudson. Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Ampelis garrula Cotyle riparia Plectrophanes nivalis Plectrophanes lapponica	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna	Louis, Fauna	Allegh Fauna
Plectrophanes lapponica	Hudson. Fauna	Hudson, Fauna		Allegh, Fauna
"Egiothus linaria	Arctic Coast Hudson, Fauna	Hudson, Fauna	Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	
Curvirostra leucoptera	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Hudson, Fauna'	Canad. Fauna
Eremophila alpestris	Hudson, Fauna Arctic Coast	Carolin, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Canad. Fauna? Arctic Realm	Louis. Fauna
t'orvus corax . Pica caudata	Hudson Fauna	Atlegh, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	?
Aquila chrysaetos	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Hudson Fauna?	Carolin Fauna? Allegh. Fauna
			Carolin. Fauna	
Falco candicans	Arctic Coast?	Hudson. Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Falco candicans Falco peregrinus Circus cyaneus	Arctic Coast?	Louis. Fauna?	Canad Fauna	
Strix flammea	Carolm. Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Carolin, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Canad Faura
Syrnium cinereum	Hudson, Fauna	Hudson. Fauna	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Otus vulgaris	Hudson, Fauna		Canad. Fauna Hudson Fauna?	
Otus brachyotus Surnia ulula Nyetea nivea Lagopus albus Lagopus rupestris Nyeticorax griseus Strepsilas interpres Charadrius pluvialis Squartarola helvetica Haematopus palliatus Arquatella maritima Calidids aremaria	Arctic Coast	Canad. Fauna	Arctic Realm	Canad. Fauna
Nyctea nivea	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna? Hudson, Fauna		Allegh Fauna Hudson, Fauna
Lagopus rupestris	Arctic Coast	Hudson. Fauna	Arctic Realm	Hudson. Fauna
Nycticorax griseus	Hudson, Fauna	Carolin. Fauna?		
Charadrius pluvialis	Arctic Coast	Arctic Realm	Tropical Amer.	
Squartarola helvetica	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna	Carolin. Fauna	
Arquatella maritima	Arctic Coast	Arctic Realm	Canad Fauna	?
		Canad. Fauna Arctic Realm	Allegh, Fauna Carolin, Fauna	
Tringa canutus	Arctic Coast	Arctic Realm?	Carolin. Fauna?	
Pelidna alpina	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna? Arctic Realm	Allegh, Fauna Carolin, Fauna	
Actodromas Bonapartei .	Arctic Coast	Arctic Realm	Carolin. Fauna	
Tringites rufescens	Arctic Coast?	Hudson, Fauna Canad, Fauna	Carolin Fauna	?
Lobipes hyperboreus	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna?	Carolin, Fauna?	?
Anser hyperboreus	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	
Berniela brenta	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	Louis. Fauna
Anas boschas	Arctic Coast	Allegh, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	
Dufila acuta Spatula elypcata Chaulelasmus streperus	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	Louis. Fauna
Somateria mollissima	Arctic Coast	Canad Fauna	?	Carolin. Fauna
Somateria spectabilis	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna Canad Fauna	Canad Fauna	Allegh. Fanna Louis. Fanna
Histrianieus torquatus	Arctic Coast	Canad Fanna	Hudson, Fauna?	Allegh. Fauna
Harelda glacialis	Arctic Coast	Hudson Fauna	?	Louis. Fauna
Harelda glacialis . Fulix marila Pelionettaper spicillata Melanetta fusca	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna?	Louis. Fauna
Melanetta fusca	Arctic Coast Hudson, Fauna	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna? Canad. Fauna?	Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna
Manuellander	Maria Lander Lander	Canad Fanna	Canad Kanna	Louis, Fauna
Graculus carbo	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna Canad, Fauna	?	Allegh, Fauna Louis, Fauna
Graculus carbo Sula bassana Gelochelidon anglica Thalassens caspins Thalassens cantiacus	Carolin Fauna			
Thalasseus caspins Thalasseus cantiacus	Arctic Coast Louis Fanna	Hudson, Fauna		Carolin. Fauna
Sterna hirundo	Arctic Coast?	Carolin, Fauna	Florid Fauna	
Sterna hirundo	Allegh, Fauna	Allegh Fauna	Florid, Fauna	
Hydrochelidon fissipes	Carolin. Fauna		Florid, Fauna	

List of Circumpolar Species. (C	ontinued.)
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	Season.	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Xeuia Sabini Rissa tridactyla - Rhodostebhia rosca Larus glaucus - Larus marinus - Larus leucopterus - Larus argentatus -	Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Pludson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast Arctic Coast	Arctic Realm Hudson, Fauna Canad, Fauna Arctic Realm Hudson, Fauna Canad Fauna Hudson Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Hudson, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Canad, Fauna Canad, Fauna Canad, Fauna	5.5.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6.6	fluds, Fauna Canad. Fauna Allegh Fauna Pauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Canad. Fauna Canad. Fauna Canad. Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Louis Fauna Louis Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna Canad, Fauna
Lomvia svarbag	Arctic Coast	Canad Fauna Canad Fauna	? ? ?	Carol Fauna? Allegh. Fauna Allegh Fauna

Summary of the Preceding Table.— The whole number of species in the preceding list is 93. Its most striking feature is the great predominance of the water birds, less than one third of the whole being land birds. Of the 27 land birds, 7 are owls, 6 are hawks, and 5 belong to the family Fringillidæ; 9 species embracing all the representatives of other families. The water birds include 1 heron, 14 Grallæ, 17 Anatidæ, 19 Laridæ, 5 Alcidæ, 3 species of Colymbus, and 4 of Podiceps.

In summer 65 species are inhabitants of the Arctic coast and adjacent seas; 22 have their boreal limit near the northern border of the Hudsonian Fauna; 2 are similarly limited by the Canadian Fauna, 5 by the Alleghanian, 3 by the Carolinian, and 1 by the Louisianian; 3 are essentially tropical aquatic species.

Seven seem to be altogether restricted in the breeding season to the Arctic Realm; 36 find their austral limit during the same season near the southern border of the Hudsonian Fauna; 23 are similarly limited by the Canadian, 9 by the Alleghanian, and 3 by the Carolinian, while 10 extend nearly to or within the Tropical Realms, 4 being also inhabitants of the greater part of the southern hemisphere.

The winter quarters of the land birds of this list are the cold-temperate and middle-temperate districts of the northern hemisphere. Most of the water birds visit the warm-temperate parts of the same hemisphere; a considerable number also visit the tropics, and a few wander, at this season, over the greater part of the warmer regions of the globe.

- III. SPECIES MAINLY RESTRICTED IN THE BREEDING SEASON TO THE NORTH AMERICAN TEMPERATE REGION.
- 1. List of Species which breed throughout the greater Part of Temperate North America, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits Distribution in the Eastern Province.

Species		Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter	Austral Limit in Winter.
Turdus migratorius	Hudson, Fauna	Carol Fauna	Carol. Fauna	*
Turdus fuscescens	Canad Fauna	Carol, Fauma		
Geothlypis trichas	Hudson Fauna	Florid, Fauna	Florid. Fauna	
Hirundo horroorum	Hudson, Fauna	Louis, Fauna		
Petrochelidon lunifrons .	Hudson, Fauna	Carol. Fauna?		
Tachycineta bicolor	Hudson, Fauna	Carol. Pauna	Louis, Fauna	
Cotyle riparia	Aretic Coast	Carol. Fauna	Florid Fauna	
Progne subis	Canad. Fauna	Florid Forms	Louis. Fauna Allegh, Fauna	
College belowing	Allogia Fauna	Florid Fauna	Louis, Fauna	
Collurio ludovicianus	Canad Fauna	Carol Kanna	Louis, radua	
Vireosylvia gilva Lanivireo solitarius	Hudson Fauna	Allegh, Fanna	Florid, Fauna	
Cistothorus palustris	Hudson Fauna	Louis, Fanna	Louis, Fauna	
Troglodytes aedon	Allegh, Fauna	Florid, Fauna	Louis. Fauna	
Troglodytes aedon	Cauad Fauna	Louis. Fauna	Canad Fanna	Florid. Fauna
Sitta canadensis	Canad. Fauna	Carol, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Louis, Fauna?
		Florid, Fauna	Canad. Fanna	Florid. Fauna
Carpo lacus purpureus	Canad. Fanna	Allegh, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	Louis. Fauna
Chrysomitris tristis	Canad. Fauna	Louis, Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	
Passereulus savanna	Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	Carol. Fauna	
Poocætes gramineus	Canad. Fauna	Carol. Fauna	Carol. Fauna	
Spizelia socialis	Hudson, Pauna	Louis, rauna	Carol. Fauna	
<sup>2</sup> Melospiza melodia	Hudson, Fauna	Louis, Fanna	Carol. Fanna	Florid. Fauna
Melospiza Lincolnii	Hudson, Fauna	Anegn, Fauna	Carol, Fauna	
Molothrus pecoris	Hudson, Fauna	Florid Fauna	Carol. Fauna Carol. Fauna	
Agelæus phæniceus	Alloch Kanna	Florid Fauna	Carol Fauna	
Corvus americanus	Hudson Fanna	Florid, Fauna?	Canad. Fauna	
Tyrannus carolinensis	Canad. Fauna.	Louis, Fauna		
Myiarchus crinitus	Canad, Fauna	Louis, Fanna		
2 Savornis fuscus	Hudson, Fanna	Louis Fanna.	Louis, Fauna	
Contopus borealis  Contopus virens Empidonax minimus	Hudson, Fauna	Allegh Fauna		
<sup>2</sup> Contopus virens	Canad. Fauna	Louis, Fauna		
? Empidonax minimus	Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna		
? Empidonax acadicus	Canad. Fauna	Carol. Fauna		
Empidonax flaviventris	Canad. Fauna	Carol. Fauna		
? Empidonax acadicus Empidonax flaviventris Picus villosus	Hudson, Fauna	Louis, Fauna	Canad. Fauna?	Florid. Fauna
Picus pubescens	Hudson Fauna	Louis, Fauna	Canad Fauna?	Florid. Fauna
Hylotomus pileatus	Hudson, Fauna	riorid. Fauna.	Canad Fauna?	Florid. Fauna
Convloalayon	Arctic Const	Florid Found	Carol Fauna	
Accipiter Cooperi	Canad Kanaa	rioriu, rauna	Carol. Fauna	
Accipiter fuseus	Canad Fanna		Carol. Fauna	
Hylotomus pileatus Chordeiles popetne Ceryle aleyon Accipiter Cooperi Accipiter fuscus Buteo borcalis Buteo lineatus	Hudson, Fauna		Canad. Fauna	
Buteo lineatus	Canad. Fauna	Florid. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	Florid, Fauna
Duteo pennsylvanicus	Canau. ranna		Allegh. Fauna	
Haliaetus leucocephalus .	Arctic Coast	Florid Fauna	Hudson, Fauna?	Florid. Fauna
Haliaetus leucocephalus Seops asio	Canad. Fauna		Canad. Fauna	
Zenædura carolinensis	Allegh, Fauna	Florid, Fauna	Carol Fauna	Florid. Fauna
Zenædura carolinensis Meleagris gallopavo	Allegh. Fauna	Florid, Fauna	Allegh Fauna	Florid. Fauna
Bonasa umbellus	Hudson, Fanna	Carol. Fauna	Hudson, Fauna?	
Botaurus lentiginosus	Hudson, Fauna	Carol. Fauna	Louis, Fauna	
Ardetta exilia	Canad. Fauna	Allegh Pauna	Louis, Fauna	
Gallinago Wilsoni Rhyacophilus solitarius	Hudson, Fauna	Allogh Fauna	Louis, Fauna Carol, Fauna	
Tringoides magnings	Hudson, Fauna	Lonis Fanns	Louis, Fauna	
Tringoides macularius Limosa fedoa	Arotio Const	Hudson Fauna		
runnosa follogi	ATT TO DORNE	Louis Fanna	Louis, Fauna	
Ralling pinginianana				
Rallus virginianus		Carol. Fauna	?	
Rallus virginianus Porzana carolina Fulica americana Nettion carolinensis	Canad Fauna	Carol. Fauna	2 Louis, Fauna	

Blanks in the third column indicate that the species ranges southward in the breeding season into the Tropical Realm. Blanks in the fourth column that the species retires wholly within the Tropical Realm in winter; in the fifth column, that the southern limit in winter is within the Tropical Realm.

2. List of Species which breed throughout the greater Part of the Coldtemperate Portions of the North American Region, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits of Distribution in the Eastern Province.

	Roreal Limit in	Austral Limit in	Boreal Limit	Austral Limit
Species.		Breeding Season.		in Winter.
Turdus Pallasi	. Hudson. Fauna	Canad Fauna	Carol. Fauna	*
Turdus Swainsoni			Florid. Fauna	
Regulus calendula	. Hudson. Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Carol. Fauna	
Regulus satrapa	. Hudson Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Allegh Fauna	
	. Arctic Coast			
	. Hudson. Fauna		Carol. Fauna	
Wilsonia pusilla	. Hudson, Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	*	
Collurio borealis	. Hudson. Fauna	Canad Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Carol. Fauna
Troglodytes hyemalis	. Hudson, Fauna		Allegh, Fauna	
	. Hudson, Fauna		Canad. Fauna	Florid, Fauna
Curvirostra americana	. Hudson Fauna		Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna
	. Hudson, Fauna		Carol, Fauna	Louis. Fauna
Scolecophagus ferrugineus	. Hudson. Fauna		Carol. Fauna	
Perisoreus canadensis	. Hudson, Fauna			
Picoides arcticus	. Hudson, Fauna		Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Picoides hirsutus	. Hudson. Fauna		Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Falco columbarius	. Hudson. Fauna		Canad. Fauna	Louis, Fauna
Astur atricapillus	. Hudson, Fauna		Hudson, Fauna	Allegh, Fauna
Ægialitis semipalmatus .		Hudson, Fauna		
Phalaropus Wilsoni			Louis, Fauna	
Ereunetes pusillus		Canad. Fauna	Carol, Fauna	
Gambetta inelanoleuca			Louis, Fauna	
Gambetta flavipes			Louis, Fauna	
Numenius longirostris			Louis. Fauna	
Numenius hudsonius			Louis. Fauna	
Cygnus americanus		Canad. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	
Bernicla canadensis			Allegh, Fauna	
Mareca americana		Canad. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	
Fulix collaris	. Arctic Coast	Canad. Fauna	Canad. Fauna	
Aythya americana		Hudson, Fauna		
Aythya vallisneria		Hudson, Fauna		
Bucephala albeola		Hudson, Fauna		
Erismatura rubida		Hudson, Fauna		
Lophodytes cucullatus			Allegh. Fauna	
Pelecanus erythrorhynchus		Canad. Fauna	Allegh, Fauna	
Graculus dilophus		Canad. Fauna		
Larus delawarensis		Hudson, Fauna		
Chrœcocephalus philadephi	a  Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	

3. List of Species which breed only in the Warm-temperate Portions of the North American Temperate Region, and range Southward in the Breeding Season into the Tropical American Realm.

U				
Species.	Boreal Limit in Breeding Season.	Austral Limit in Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter-	Austral Limit in Winter.
Mimus polyglottus	Carolin. Fanna	*	Louis. Fauna	*
	Carolin, Fauna		Louis, Fauna	
Icteria virens	Carolin, Fauna			
	Carolin. Fauna			
Thryothorus Bewicki	Carolin, Fauna		Louis. Fauna?	
	Louis, Fauna		Louis, Fauua	
Guiraca carulea				
	Louis. Fauna		Louis, Fauna	
	Louis, Fauna			
	Florid. Fauna		Florid, Fauna	
	Louis, Fauna			
	Louis. Fauna		Louis, Fauna	
Tantalus loculator			Louis. Fauna	
Garzetta candidissima			Louis, Fauna	
Herodias egretta			Louis. Fanna	
Ilimantopus nigricollis	Carolin. Fauna!			
Rallus elegans			Louis, Fauna	
Phoenicopterus ruber			Florid. Fauna?	
Querquedula eyanoptera			Florid Fauna	
Pelecanus fuscus			Louis. Fauua	
Tachypetes aquila			District Description	
Plotus anhinga	Louis, Fauna		Florid, Fauna	

4. List of Species whose Breeding Range extends throughout the greater Part of the North American Realm, and Southward into the Tropical Realm, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits in the Eastern Province.

Species.	Boreal Limit iu the Breeding Season.	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit iu Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Dendræca æstiva	 Hudson, Fauna	*		*
Grus canadeusis	 Arctic Coast		Carolin. Fauna	
Butorides virescens	 Allegh, Kauna		Louis. Fauna	-
Ardea herodias	 Hudson, Fauna		Carolin Fauna	
Hæmatopus palliatus	 Arctic Coast		Louis. Fauna	
Ægitlitis vociferus	 Allegh, Fauna		Louis, Fauna	
Recurvirostra americana .	 Hudson, Fauna	Louis. Fauna?	Louis, Fauna	
Symphemia semipalmata .	 Canad. Fauna		Louis, Fauna	
Aix sponsa	Canad, Fauna		Carolin. Fauna	
Poditymbus podiceps	 Hudson, Fauna		Carolin, Fauna	

<sup>\*</sup> Within the Tropical Realm.

5. List of Species whose Breeding Habitat includes the greater Part of both North and South America, with Indications of their Boreal Limit, both in the Breeding Season and in Winter.

Species.	Boreal Limit in the Breeding Season.	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Cathartes aura	Allegh Fauua		Carolin. Fauna	
Cathartes atratus	Louis, Fauna		Louis. Fauna	
* Pandion haliaetus	Arctic Coast		Louis, Fauna	
Falco sparverius	Hudson, Fauna		Hudson, Fauna	
* Falco peregrinus	Hudson, Fauna	4	Canad. Fauna	
Bubo virginianus			Hudson, Fanna	
* Strix flammea			Carolin. Fauna	
* Otus vulgaris			Canad. Fauna?	
* Otus brachyotus			Hudson, Fauna?	

<sup>\*</sup> Also eireumpolar species.

Summary of the Preceding Five Tables.—The total number of species given in the above lists of the species characteristic (mainly exclusively so) of the North American Temperate Region is 135. Of these 38 are restricted in the breeding season in their austral range to the Cold-temperate District; about one third of them, chiefly natatorial species, reach the Arctic coast; 61 are similarly mainly limited to the Middle-temperate District, but two or three reach the Arctic coast, and nearly one third range into the Hudsonian Fauna; 21 are limited in their boreal range to the Warm-temperate District, the greater part of which, even in the breeding season, range southward into the tropics. Of the whole number, 90 are land birds, 23 being raptorial species. Of the remaining 45 water birds, 7 are herons, 20 are Grallæ, and 18 are Natatores, 12 of the latter being Anatidæ.

In the list of those whose breeding habitat is the cold-temperate portions of the continent (Table 1), 20 of the species are aquatic and

18 terrestrial; of those breeding throughout the greater part of the continent, 10 only are aquatic and 51 are terrestrial; of those breeding in the warm-temperate portions of the continent, 9 are aquatic and 9 terrestrial; of the 10 wide-ranging species, whose breeding habitats embrace not only nearly the whole of temperate North America, but extend also into the tropics, 1 only is a land bird, 3 being Herodiones, 4 Grallæ, and 2 Natatores. Of the 9 species given in the Fifth Table, which range in the breeding season throughout both the North American and South American continents, none are aquatic; 4 are owls, 3 hawks, and 2 vultures. The most numerously represented family, and one of those almost exclusively characteristic of the North American Temperate Region (the Sylvicolidæ), has but three species which range across the continent, and only one of these is a typical representative of the family.

- IV. Species limited in Longitude to the Eastern Province of the North American Temperate Region.
- 1. List of Species restricted in the breeding Season to the Cold-temperate Portion of the Eastern Province, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits.

Species.		Austral Limit in Breeding Season.		Austral Limit in Winter.
Mniotilta varia	Hudson, Fauna		*	*
Parula americana	Canad. Fauna	Carolin Fauna	Florid. Fauna	
Geothlypis philadelphia	Allegh, Fauna	?		
Oporornis agilis	Canad. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna?		
Helminthophaga chrysoptera	Canad. Fauna	Carolin. Fauna		
? Helminthophaga peregrina .	Canad. Fauna	Carolin. Fauna		
Helminthophaga ruficapilla .	Hudson, Fauna	Carolin. Fauna		
Dendræca coronata	Hudson, Fauna	Canad Fauna	Carolin. Fauna	
Dendræca castanea	Hudson, Fauna?	Canad. Fauna		
	Hudson. Fauna			
Dendræca Blackburniæ				
	Canad. Fauna?			
Dendræca maculosa				
Dendræca virens				
Dendræca palmarum	Hudson, Fauna	Canad. Fauna	Louis. Fauna	
Perissoglossa tigrina	Canad Fauna?	Allegh. Fauna		
Euthlypis canadensis				
Setophaga ruticilla	Hudson. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna		
Vireosylvia olivacea			Florid. Fauna	
	Hudson. Fauna			
Cistothorus stellaris			Louis Fauna	
Parus hudsonicus			Hudson. Fauna	Canad. Fauna
Zonotrichia albicollis			Louis. Fauna	
Junco hyemalis			Allegh. Fauna	Louis. Fauna
Spizella monticola			Allegh. Fauna	Louis, Fauna
Passerella iliaca			Carolin Fauna	Louis. Fauna
		Allegh, Fauna		
Tetrao canadensis		Canad. Fauna	Hudson, Fauna?	Canad. Fauna
Egialitis melodus			Louis. Fauua	
Limosa hudsonica		Iludson. Fauna		
Numenius borealis		Hudson. Fauna		
Porzuna noveboracensis			Louis. Fauna	
Anas obscura			Allegh, Fauna	Florid. Fauna
Querquedula discors			Allegh Fauna	0 1 7
Camptolæmus labradorius .	Arctic Coast	Hudson, Fauna		Canad Fauna

<sup>\*</sup> The blanks in the fourth and fifth columns indicate that the limit in question is within the Tropical Realm.

2. List of Species which breed throughout the Middle-temperate Portions of the Eastern Province, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits in the Eastern Province.\*

Species.	Boreal Limit in the Breeding Seasou.	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Galeoscoptes carolinensis . Harporhynchus rufus Sialia sialis	Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Canad, Fauna	Louis, Fauna? Florid, Fauna? Florid, Fauna? Louis, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna Carolin, Fauna	
Dendræca discolor Dendræca cacrulea Wilsonia mitrata Pyranga rubra	Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Carolin, Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna		
Lanivirco flavifrons Lophophanes bicolor Coturniculus passerinus	Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Florid. Fauna? Louis Fauna? Louis. Fauna Louis. Fauna	Louis. Fauna Carolin. Fauna? Carolin Fauna? Carolin Fauna?	Florid. Fauna
Ammodromus candacutus. Anunodromus maritimus Spizella pusilla Euspiza americana	Allegh Fauna Carolin. Fauna Allegh. Fauna Carolin. Fauna Allegh. Fauna	Louis. Fauna Louis. Fauna Louis. Fauna?	Louis. Fauna Louis. Fauna Carolin Fauna	
Cyanospiza cyanea Cardinalis virginianus Pipilo erythrophthalmus	Allegh. Fauna Caroliu Fauna Allegh. Fauna Allegh. Fauna	Florid. Fauna Louis. Fauna	Carolin. Fauna Louis. Fauna	
Corvus ossifragus		Louis Fauna Florid Fauna? Florid Fauna? Florid Fauna	Louis, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna	
	Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Carolin, Fauna?	Allegh, Fauna Allegh, Fauna	Louis. Fauna

<sup>\*</sup> The blanks in this and the following tables have the same significance as in the last preceding table.

3. List of Species which breed throughout the Temperate Portions of the Eastern Province, with Indications of their Boreal and Austral Limits.

Species.	Boreal Limit in the Breeding Season.		Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Seiurus aurocapillus Seiurus noveboraccusis		Carolin Fauna	Florid Fauna	
Cyanura cristata	Canad. Fauna	Florid. Fauna	Allegh. Fauna	Florid. Fauna
Sphyrapicus varius	Hudson, Fauna	Florid Fauna !	Carolin, Fauna Carolin, Fauna	
Trochilus colubris		Louis. Fauna ?	Florid, Fauua?	
Grus americanus		Florid Fauna	Louis, Fauna Louis, Fauna	
Sterna antillarum	Canad Fauna	2		
Dendrocca pinus			Carolin. Fauna Carolin. Fauna	

4. List of Species which breed in the Eastern Province only within the Warm-temperate and Subtropical Districts.

Species.	Boreal Limit in the Breeding Seasou,	Austral Limit in the Breeding Season.	Boreal Limit in Winter.	Austral Limit in Winter.
Prothonotaria citrea Oporornis formosus Helmitherus vermivorus Helmitherus vermivorus Helmitherus Swainsoni Helminthophaga Bachmani Dendreca dominica Vireos Ivia barbatula Pyranga æstiva Thryothorus ludovicianus Peucaa astivali: Cyanos piza ciris Tyrannus dominicensis Cyanos piza ciris Tyrannus dominicensis Comurus carolinensis Conurus carolinensis Crotophaga ani Antrostomus carolinensis Ictinia mississippiensis Rostbramus sociabilis Florida carulea Nyetherodius violaceus Demiegretta Pealei Demiegretta Pealei Demiegretta pealei Demiegretta pealei Demiegretta pealei Demiegretta pealei Demiegretta pealei Demiegretta pealei Refallis Wilsonius Aramus giganteus Rallus crepitans Porzana junadeensis Gallinula gadeata Gallinula gadeata Gallinula martinica	in the Breeding Scason, Carolin, Fauna Allegh Fauna Carolin, Fauna Louis, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna Florid, Fauna	in the Breeding		
Graculus floridanus Plotus anhinga Chracecephalus atricilla Thalasseus acuflavidus Ano is stolidus Haliplana fuliginosa	Louis Fauna Carolin Fauna Allegh, Fauna Louis, Fauna Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna Carolin, Fauna		Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna Florid, Fauna	

Summary of the Four Preceding Tables. — About one hundred and twenty species occur in the Eastern Province of the North American Temperate Region that do not appear as regular residents in the Western Province of the same region, of which a small proportion are in part tropical. Of these one hundred and twenty, thirty-five are northern, or range in the breeding season only over the cold-temperate portions of the Eastern Province; twenty-eight of the latter being land birds, and only seven aquatic. Eighteen species of the land birds belong to the single family of the Sylvicolidæ. About one fourth of the Eastern Province species (thirty-two), all land birds, range in the breeding season over only the middle-temperate part of the province. Of these only three belong to the family Sylvicolidæ, and only one is a typical representative of that group; ten belong to the family Fringillidæ, three

to the *Turdidæ*, and two each to the *Icteridæ*, *Picidæ*, *Cuculidæ*, and *Tetraonidæ*; several other families have one representative each. The total absence of any species of *Falconidæ*, *Strigidæ*, *Herodiones*, *Grallæ*, and *Natatores* is one of the most striking features in the list of the species restricted to the Eastern Province.

Twelve of the Eastern Province species breed throughout the greater part of the province, three of which are *Sylvicolidæ*, two are *Picidæ*, one is a humming-bird, one a wader, and one a tern.

Forty-one of the one hundred and twenty species restricted in longitudinal range to the Eastern Province extend so far into the Tropical American Realm in the breeding season as to be essentially tropical species, exclusive of a considerable number that appear only in the Floridian Fauna. Twenty-one of these are land birds and twenty aquatic; the latter embracing six Herodiones, six Grallæ, and eight Natutores, five of which are terns. The land species embrace three hawks, two species of Fringillidæ, seven of Sylvicolidæ, two of Picidæ, and one each of seven other families.

# GENERAL REMARKS ON THE DISTRIBUTION AND MIGRATION OF THE BIRDS OF THE EASTERN PROVINCE.

The preceding tables, illustrative of the geographical distribution of the birds of the Eastern Province of the North American Temperate Region, and the summary remarks already given respecting them, indicate a number of interesting general facts.

I. The species which have the greatest longitudinal range in the breeding season are the hawks, owls, and vultures, the swallows, the Turdinæ or typical thrushes, the woodpeckers and flycatchers, and the water birds; among the latter, especially the Scolopacidæ, the Charadriidæ and their allies, the Anatidæ, and the Laridæ; in fact, nearly all the Natatores. All the land birds ranging widely in longitude are hence species which possess highly developed powers of flight, and have also a wide latitudinal range. The few circumboreal Natatores, which have only moderate or greatly reduced powers of flight, possess great power of locomotion in the water. Their habitat is, moreover, not only generally the sea-shores, but the boreal shores of the converging continents of the northern hemisphere. Hence all the species having a wide geographical range—as the circumpolar and continental—are either pre-eminently strong fliers or powerful swimmers. It also ex-

plains the occurrence of the large proportion of long-winged birds, and especially of the preponderance of the water birds, in the three first primary divisions given above of the birds of the Eastern Province, namely, the cosmopolitan, the circumpolar, and the continental, and the small proportion of such species among those restricted in their longitudinal range to the Eastern Province. Most of the circumpolar species are also boreal ones.

II. The aquátic species, while forming only about four tenths of the birds found in the Eastern Province, greatly predominate over the land species in the boreal regions, in the Arctic Realm they outnumbering the land birds in the proportion of five to one, or form eight tenths of the whole. In the Cold-temperate District of the North American Region the water-birds form about six tenths of the whole; in the Middle-temperate Districts, between four and five tenths; in the Warm-temperate District, rather less than four tenths. Farther southward, although a few groups (as the Rallidæ, Herodiones, and Sterninæ) are more numerously represented, the relative proportion of water birds to the terrestrial seems scarcely to increase. In the breeding season, however, a numerical comparison of the land and water birds yields very different results, in respect to the proportion characteristic of localities situated under different parallels of latitude. Passing from the extreme boreal regions southward, the number of Grallæ (exclusive of the Paludicolæ), Anatidæ, Larinæ, and Lestridinæ decreases rapidly, so that the number of the Grallæ (exclusive of the rails and their allies) is reduced in the breeding season, in the warm-temperate parts of the Eastern Province, to only seven or eight species, the Anatidæ to one (Aix sponsa), the Larinæ to one (Chræcocephalus atricilla), and the Lestridinæ disappear entirely.

III. A large proportion of the accessions to the land birds near the tropics being species of a comparatively low grade of structure, the prevalence of the water birds in the arctic and subarctic faunæ, the comparative absence of water birds in the temperate latitudes, and the great development here of the higher groups of the land birds, give to the temperate regions the maximum proportion of high forms of avine life, — a fact as true in respect to mammalian life as it is of birds.

IV. In respect to the distribution and relative development of particular families, the Sittidæ (Sittæ), the Paridæ, and the Alcidæ are alone restricted to the North Temperate Realm. The species of these groups

(except the Alcidæ) are also sedentary throughout nearly their whole range. In the Eastern Province. Larus, Stercorarius, and their allies, as well as Colymbus, are restricted in the breeding season to its northern half, as are also, as already remarked, most of the water birds, except the Rallidæ and the Herodiones, which are chiefly southern. The representatives of the Troglodytidæ and Icteridæ increase rapidly in number towards the tropics, while the Miminæ and several genera of the more brightly colored Fringillida are confined to the southern half of the province. The Sylvicolidæ, the most exclusively distinctive family of the North American temperate region, reaches its maximum development in the Middle and Cold-temperate Districts. The seetion Sylvicoleæ, and especially the genus Dendræca, is more numer, ously represented in the Eastern Province than in the Western, and the greater part breed in the colder latitudes, their "metropolis" during the breeding season being the Canadian Fauna of the Eastern Province and the corresponding fauna of the Western. The species of the section Vermiroreæ (genera Helmitherus and Helminthophaga) have a wider longitudinal distribution than the Dendræcæ, the species of which genus are mainly restricted either to the Eastern or to the Western Province. The two species of Helmitherus are southern in their distribution, while four or five of the six Helminthophagæ are northern.

V. At the extreme north, or from the Arctic coast southward to the Canadian Fauna, nearly all the birds are migratory, owing to the extreme severity of the winter season; they also spend a smaller portion of the year at their breeding stations than do the species which breed farther to the southward. Even as far south as the Alleghanian and Carolinian Faunæ, the greater proportion of the species are to a greater or less extent migratory. In the Carolinian and Louisianian Faunæ a much greater proportion are resident, even including many species whose boreal limit of distribution is the Carolinian Faunæ. From the Hudsonian Faunæ southward many species are found the whole year at the same localities, and are hence termed "resident," though the individuals representing such species are migratory, there being a general movement of the winter habitat southward, but too limited to carry the wave of migration entirely beyond the southern limit of the summer habitat of these species.

VI. The representatives of the various groups differ from each other

widely, as is well known, in respect to the extent of their migrations. Those of a few families (as the Tetraonida, the Picida, Sittida, Corvida, and Strigida) are nearly sedentary, the nature of their food being such that the supply is almost equally sure at all seasons. The insectivorous species have the most extended migratory range; the piscivorous, the graminivorous, and the raptorial the least of the nonsedentary species, the migrations of the latter being mainly governed by those of their prey. Hence the wood warblers (Sylvicolidæ), the flycatchers (Tyrannidæ), and the swallows make the longest journeys, and leave their breeding stations the earliest. Requiring apparently a temperature in winter similar to that of their summer habitats, as well as a constant supply of insect food, they begin their southward journeys almost before the close of the short northern summer, proceeding gradually southward during the autumn months to pass the winter in the tropies. The Grallæ have also to seek districts almost wholly beyond the reach of severe frosts, their food being only accessible to them where the ground continues unfrozen. The Natatores also necessarily migrate to localities where the streams and estuaries are nearly free from ice; the strictly littoral and pelagic species hence making shorter journeys than the inland species.

The migratory insessorial birds that pass the winter wholly or in part within the Eastern Province are principally fringilline species. The others are a single flycatcher (Sayornis fuscus), the northern members of the *Icteridæ*, two species of *Turdus*, three of *Miminæ*, three wrens, and three or four sparrows. All of these species are resident the whole year in those sections to which the northern members of these species mainly resort in winter. In these species there is hence only a partial recession southward in winter from the northern portions of their respective summer habitats. Most of the Fringillidæ, however, which pass the summer within or to the northward of the Alleghanian Fanna, remove wholly in winter from their summer stations. While some in winter barely abandon their summer stations, as shown in the preceding tables, of distribution, others pass entirely over one fauna, throughout which they occur only as spring and autumn passengers; others in a similar way pass over two faunæ in reaching their winter quarters. Hence some which breed in the Canadian Fauna and farther northward pass only into the Alleghanian and Carolinian Faunæ in winter, while others pass over the Alleghanian

into the Carolinian, and others over both the Alleghanian and the Carolinian into the Louisianian.

Some species which in general breed far to the northward of the tropies, to which they retire in winter, are also known to breed on the mountains within the tropies (as *Dendræca coronata* and *Perissoglossa tigrina*), and doubtless many others will be found to do so when the mountain faunæ of these regions become fully known; it being already well ascertained that there is a migration from the plains and lowlands to the mountains (more especially in the Tropieal Realms) as well as (in the northern hemisphere) from the south northward.

VII. The lack of suitable food and the low temperature in winter in northern latitudes are evidently the causes which impel so many species to leave their breeding stations at that season to seek a warmer zone. While in most cases a degree of cold sufficient to cut off the supply of food of any species, especially of the insectivorous ones, would of itself also prove fatal to the birds themselves, it is by no means the case with the baccivorous and graminivorous species, their winter migrations appearing to be primarily and principally controlled by the accessibility of their food. This is evidently indicated by the irregular dispersion in winter of such species near the boreal limit of their range at that season, they being numerous where their food abounds and entirely absent in the immediately adjoining districts.\*

VIII. The breeding range, as well as the migratory range, differs greatly not only among the species of different families (nearly all the species of some families having a wide range, while nearly all the species of other families have a quite restricted range, as in the Corvidæ and Ficidæ, for instance, as compared with the Sylvicolidæ), but also among those of the same family and even of the same genus. The two extremes are well illustrated by the osprey or fish-hawk and

<sup>\*</sup> These remarks are illustrated by the winter distribution of the robin and the cedarbird in the Alleghanian Fauna, and by the sudden southward incursion of the snow-buntings and other northern sparrows when deep snows suddenly render their food more than usually difficult to procure in their usual winter resorts. The early return of birds to their breeding stations, — their real homes, — as soon as the causes that impelled their winter migration are removed, is further corroborative of the same view. Most of even the insectivorous species visit regions in winter whose average winter temperature differs but little from that of their breeding stations, and when the excessive heats of spring and summer arrive in the southern latitudes, they gradually retire again to their northern breeding stations, keeping pace in their migration with the northward advance of the summer warmth.

the bobolink, the one having an almost cosmopolitan breeding range, while the breeding range of the other is nearly or quite restricted to the Alleghanian Fanna. Several of the Sylvicolidæ have a breeding range as restricted as the bobolink, while a few other species of the same family breed throughout nearly the whole of North America. One of the species of Dendræca (D. æstiva) has this wide breeding range, while other species of the same genus appear to breed only in the Canadian Fanna.

IX. Species which have a wide breeding range usually present a greater or less number of easily distinguishable local forms, which merge generally the one into the other in the regions lying between the localities at which these several forms are most fully developed. A part of these local forms have received distinctive names, and have of late been quite commonly regarded as distinct species, while many are as yet not so regarded. Every year additional races of this character are discovered, and doubtless many still remain unknown. Much time will probably elapse before naturalists will generally agree as to their true character and relations, though evidence indicative of their being the result of general and uniformly acting laws of geographical variation is apparently by no means wanting. The difference in color, size, form of the bill, length of the tail, etc., that appear almost universally to obtain between the northern and southern representatives of the same species, have already been sufficiently dwelt upon in the preceding pages; but the insertion of a few species in the list of those alleged above (Class IV of the preceding tables) to range across the North American continent calls for an additional word in respect to the differences which have led to the specific separation of the western representatives of these species from their eastern representatives, or to suggestions that they might prove to be speeifieally distinct. Most of the eases of this kind have been distinguished in the tables under Class IV by the prefix of a [?] before their names. In all these cases almost the sole difference alleged for the separation of the western forms is that of either the darker or brighter or, in other words, the more intense colors of those from the Pacific coast; this charaeter being always the one most strongly urged as distinguishing them, and not unfrequently the only one, especially in those species that breed wholly to the northward of the latitude of San Francisco. The frequency of this difference seems to be a strong reason for regarding

it as the result of a general law, and to remove it from the category of genuine specific distinctions.\*

X. The number of species which breed in the American Arctic Fauna appears to be not far from sixty. In the Hudsonian Fauna the number is increased to upwards of one hundred and fifty, in the Canadian to probably about one hundred and sixty. In the Alleghanian the number is nearly one hundred and forty; in the Carolinian about one hundred and thirty-five; in the Louisianian about one hundred and thirty. The Hudsonian and Canadian Faunæ hence have a greater number of species, in areas of the same extent, and probably a far greater number of individuals, than the Carolinian and Louisianian Faunæ. In respect to the number of individuals, it is evident that this must result, in consequence of the hordes of wading and swimming birds, of thrushes, sparrows, and Sylvicolidæ that pass through the southern and middle districts of the Eastern Province to breed in its boreal portions; few of the species that breed at the southward being there as numerously represented as are scores of species that breed exclusively at the northward. Taking the whole number of species found at particular localities during the year, there is a constant increase in number to the southward, the increase, however, being less rapid from the southern boundary of the Canadian Fauna southward than from that point northward.† There is also a steady

\* In addition to the list of examples of this variation already cited in Part III of this paper, the following may be added as marked instances: Regulus satrapa, Pacific coast specimens forming the variety olivaceus Baird; Troglodytes hyemalis, Pacific coast specimens forming the variety pacificus Baird; Cistothorus palustris, Pacific coast specimens forming the variety paludicola Baird; Helminthophaga celuta, Pacific coast specimens being, according to Professor Baird, "much brighter and clearer yellowish beneath and olivaceous above," than those from the interior of North America; Myiodioctes (= Wilsonia) pusilla; Hirundo bicolor; Collurio excubitoroides (= C. ludovicianus), Pacific coast specimens being darker than those from the Mississippi Valley, and much darker than those from the Plains (Baird); Carpodacus purpureus, Pacific coast specimens being darker and forming the C. californicus of Baird: Melospiza melodia, the darker Pacific coast specimens forming the M. Heermanni Baird, etc.

† There seems to have been no exhaustive list published of the birds occurring at any locality north of the Alleghanian Fauna. Dr. Richardson's list is the largest, and gives two hundred and thirty-eight as the whole number known in 1831 to inhabit British North America north of the Canadas and east of the Rocky Mountains. Probably this number, and even more, may occur at a single locality on the Saskatchewan; but probably not more than two hundred and sixty or seventy. Three bundred and ten have been detected in Massachusetts, including those of irregular and very rare

increase southwards in the number and even in the proportion of species which are resident at the same locality the whole year. But from the absence of exhaustive lists of the species occurring at numerous localities, differing in latitude, it is difficult to make at present a wholly satisfactory numerical comparison of the different ornithological fauna.\*

occurrence; three hundred and twenty-seven in the vicinity of New York City (Lawrence), and three hundred and forty-three in New Jersey (Turnbull). The number given by Ross as observed by him in the "Mackenzie's River District" is one hundred and ninety-two. The greatest number I have seen recorded from any restricted locality within the American tropical Realm is five hundred and forty, the number given from Costa Rica by Messrs. Lawrence and Salvin.

\* Dr. Richardson in 1831, found that the number of species "known to rear their young on the banks of the Saskatchewan" amounted to one hundred and forty-one. At least twenty species more may now be safely added. Bonaparte, in 1827, estimated the number of species breeding at Philadelphia to be one hundred and four. Messrs. Coues and Prentiss in their list of the birds of the District of Columbia, published in 1861, mention forty-four species as being permanent residents, and fifty-nine others as summering, making one hundred and three that probably breed in the District, - one less than the number given by Bonaparte as breeding at Philadelphia. Messrs, S. F. and W. M. Baird gave, in 1844, one hundred and nine species as breeding at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. The three latter being inland localities, they may properly be compared with the Saskatchewan district. The numerous lakes at the latter locality, however, afford favorite breeding places for numerous water birds, while few such localities are afforded by the other localities mentioned; but since few water birds breed so far south as these localities, the difference in this respect is a fact of small importance. Dr. Turnbull, in 1869, gave the number of permanently resident species in "East Pennsylvania and New Jersey" as fifty-two, and the number of summer visitors as one hundred and fourteen, making a total of one hundred and sixty-six species that occur there in summer; but the area included in this list is more extended, and embraces a greater variety of surface than in the other cases, and includes several strictly coast species. Farther than this, an examination of his list shows that at least thirty of the one hundred and sixty-six are either wholly of accidental or of very rare occurrence, and hence do not regularly (many of them never) breed at the locality named. The number of resident species in Massachusetts is not far from thirty, of summer visitors one hundred and six, making one hundred and thirty-six that are more or less frequent in summer, - a number considerably less than undoubtedly occur in an equal area on the Saskatchewan. Mr. C. J. Maynard, in his careful analysis of the birds of Eastern Massachusetts (Naturalist's Guide, Part II, pp. 162 - 164, 1870), gives only one hundred and fifteen as being known with certainty to breed in the eastern half of that State, one or two of which cannot be considered as breeding there regularly. While this somewhat exceeds the number generally given as breeding at localities more to the southward, it is far less than the number given by Dr. Richardson as breeding on the Saskatchewan, and much less than the number now well known to be found there in summer. Dr. Coues, in his "Synopsis of the Birds of South Carolina," indicates only about one hundred and thirty-five as being known to breed regularly in that State.

# APPENDIX TO PART V.

# LIST OF AUTHORITIES.

In the following list are given the titles of general works and special papers that may be profitably consulted in a study of the geographical distribution of the birds of North America. An attempt has been made to cite all the papers of much importance bearing upon this subject that have appeared prior to the beginning of the year 1870, those published in this country having been also brought down to the present date (April, 1871). Some of those published in the transactions of foreign societies during 1869 have been necessarily omitted, as also a large proportion of those published in 1870, since most of these publications are usually several months in reaching this country.

In compiling the present list I have been greatly aided by the "List of Authorities" published by Professor Baird in the Appendix of his Report on the Birds of North America in 1858; Agassiz's "Bibliographia Zoölogiæ"; Carus and Engleman's "Bibliotheca Zoölogica," ending with the year 1860; by Dr. G. Hardlaub's "Bericht über die Leistungen in der Naturgeschichte der Vögel," in Wiegmann's Archiv für Naturgeschichte, and by Professor Alfred Newton's admirable ornithological record in Dr. Günther's "Zoölogical Record."\* I am also indebted to Dr. Elliott Coues for the addition of the titles of a considerable number of articles to the proof-sheets, which he has had the kindness to carefully examine. The few titles enclosed in brackets indicate those papers I have not myself consulted.

In aiming at brevity I may have excluded from the list a few papers that might well have been added. Usually papers mentioning less than half a dozen species have been excluded, including announcements of the capture of species at localities beyond their usual range. To cite all such notices would nearly double the length of the list, without materially adding to its value, at least for general purposes. Papers in which new species were described are frequently omitted where the geographical data given in them have been subsequently incorporated in other papers published by the same author.

<sup>\*</sup> The volume for 1869 I regret to find has not yet appeared.

The geographical arrangement of the papers serves to show at a glance what portions of the continent are tolerably well known, so far as regards the birds occurring there, as well as to indicate the considerable areas that are still almost unknown, and the amount of information possessed respecting the regions partially known. In order to indicate to some extent the character of the papers mentioned, the number of species given in each is usually stated, as well as the number of pages the papers embrace.

Occasionally valuable notes on the distribution of our birds, and sometimes nearly complete local lists, are to be found in the various agricultural periodicals, in the transactions or reports of agricultural societies, and in the various State agricultural reports. Although a number of such have been entered in the following list, others may have escaped notice; and information of such omissions, or of the omission of any local list, would be thankfully received by the writer.

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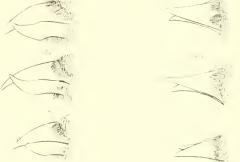
CAMBRIDGE, April, 1871.

N. B. — The Museum of Comparative Zoölogy would gladly accept books not yet upon the shelves of its library in exchange for its publications or zoölogical specimens.



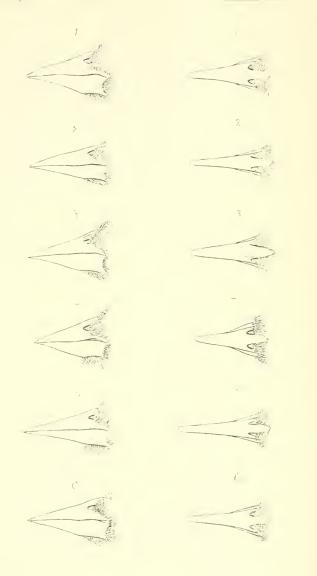
# Plate IV.\*

- Fig. 1-1a. Tyrannus carolinensis, specimen No. 6942, from Eastern Massachusetts.
  - " 2-2a. Tyrannis carolinensis, specimen No. 6945, from Eastern Massachusetts.
  - " 3 3a. Troglodytes aëdon, specimen No. 10931, Q, from Jacksonville, Fla.
  - " 4-4a. Troglodytes aëdon, specimen No. 10684, ♀, from Dunmitt's, Fla.
  - " 5-5a. Troglodytes aëdon, specimen No. 10683, from Dummitt's, Fla.
  - " 6-6a. Troglodytes aëdon, specimen No. 5212, from Welaka, St. John's River, Fla.
  - " 7-7a. Troglodytes aëdon, specimen No. 10930, from Jacksonville, Fla.
- " 8-8a. Seiurus noveboracensis, specimen No. 5447, from Mount Tom, Mass.
- " 9-9a. Seiurus noveboracensis, specimen No. 1442, from Weston,
  Mass.
- " 10-10a. Seiurus noveboracensis, specimen No. 6794, from Brookline, Mass.
- " 11-11a. Seiurus noveboracensis, specimen No. 4246, from Waterville, Maine.
- " 12 12a. Mniotilla varia, specimen No. 5148, ♂, from Jacksonville, Fla.
- " 13-13a. Mniotilla varia, specimen No. 6806, ♂, from Brookline,
  Mass.
- " 14-14a. Mniotilla varia, specimen No. 8216, 3, from Hudson, Mass.
- " 15-15a. Dendræca striata, specimen No. 5052, \$\frac{1}{3}\$, from Watertown, Mass.
- " 16-16a. Dendræca striata, specimen No. 4367, 3, from Newtonville, Mass.
- " 17-17a. Pipilo erythrophthalmus, specimen No. 4727, &, from Weston, Mass.
- " 18-18a. Pipilo erythrophthalmus, specimen No. 10721, 3, from Dummitt's, Fla.
- " 19 19a. Pyranga æstiva, specimen No. 10629, 3, from Jacksonville, Fla.
- " 20 20a. Pyranga astiva, specimen No. 5431, 3, from Jacksonville, Fla.
  - \* At bottom of Plate IV, last line, for "Pyranga rubra" read "Pyranga æstiva."



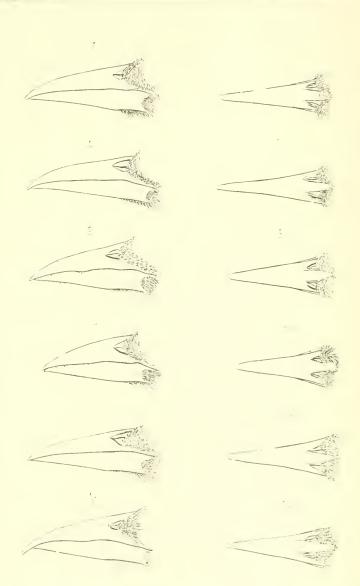
#### Plate V.

- Fig. 1-1a. Zgiothus linaria, specimen No. 10859, 3, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 2a. Ægiothus linaria, specimen No. 10860, &, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 3-3a. Ægiothus linaria, specimen No. 6392, ¿, from Fort Anderson, British America. (An original specimen of Æ. fuscescens Coues. — Smith. Inst., No. 43386.)
  - " 4-4a. Ægiothus linaria, specimen No. 4943, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 5-5a. Ægiothus linaria, specimen No. 3229, from Southern Maine.
  - " 6-6a. Ægiothus linaria, specimen No. 6489, ♀, from Fort Simpson, British America. (An original specimen of Æ. exilipes Coues. — Smith. Inst., No. 27431.)
  - " 7-7a. Chrysomitris tristis, specimen No. 6453, 3, from Rocky Mountains, west of Denver, Colorado.
  - " 8-8a. Chrysomitris tristis, specimen No. 8125, 3, from Springfield,
    Mass.
  - " 9-9a. Chrysomitris tristis, specimen No. 4925, from Newtonville,
    Mass.
  - " 10-10a. Chrysomitris tristis, specimen No. 4631, from Newtonville, Mass.
  - " 11-11a. Chrysomitris pinus, specimen No. 9556, from Waterville, Maine.
  - " 12-12a. Chrysomitris pinus, specimen No. 10875, from Gorham, New Hampshire.
  - " 13-13a. Curvirostra americana, specimen No. 4639, &, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 14-14a. Curvirostra americana, specimen No. 4638, &, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 15-15a. Curvirostra americana, specimen No. 4637, J, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 16-16a. Passerculus savanna, specimen No. 5084, 3, from Ipswich, Mass.
  - " 17-17a. Passerculus savanna, specimen No. 5175, ♂, from Hibernia, St. John's River, Florida.
  - " 18-18a. Passerculus savanna, specimen No. 7119, 3, from Henley Harbor, Labrador.



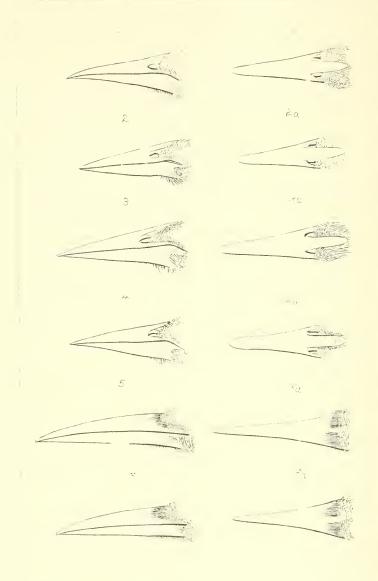
# Plate VI.

- Fig. 1-1a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 8071, &, from Orleans, Mass.
  - " 2-2a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 10572, 🐧, from Dummitt's, Fla.
  - " 3-3a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 4589, &, from Newtonville,
    Mass.
  - " 4-4a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 8068, &, from Orleans, Mass.
  - " 5-5a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 10569, 3, from Dummitt's, Fla.
  - " 6-6a. Agelæus phæniceus, specimen No. 10576, &, from Dummitt's, Fla.



# Plate VIL

- Fig. 1 1a. Quiscalus purpurcus, specimen No. 4601, 3, from Newtonville, Mass.
  - " 2-2a. Quiscalus purpureus, specimen No. 5201, &, from Welaka, St. John's River.
  - " 3-3a. Quiscalus purpureus, specimen No. 4603, \$\delta\$, from Newtonville, Mass.
  - " 4-4a. Quiscalus purpureus, specimen No. 8072, &, from Orleans, Mass.
  - " 5-5a. Quiscalus purpureus, specimen No. 6834, 3, from Phillipsburg
    New Jersey,
  - " 6-6a. Quiscalus purpureus, specimen No. 6848, 3, from Cape Florida.



### Plate VIII.

- Fig. 1-1a. Sturnella ludoviciana, specimen No. 5370, Q, from Hawkinsville, Fla.
  - " 2-2a. Sturnella ludoviciana, specimen No. 5372, Q, from Hawkins-ville, Fla.
  - " 3-3a. Sturnella ludoviciana, specimen No. 5339, 3, from Enterprise, Fla.
  - " 4-4a. Sturnella ludoviciana, specimen No. 5340, &, from Enterprise, Fla.
  - " 5-5a. Colaptes auratus, specimen No. 4881, Q, from Newton, Mass.
  - " 6-6a. Colaptes auratus, specimen No. 5464, ♀, from Newton, Mass.

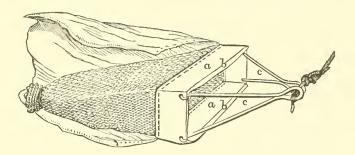
ERRATA. At the upper left-hand corner of all the plates, for "Bull. M. C. Z., Vol. II, No. 2," read "Bull. M. C. Z., Vol. II, No. 3."



# No. 4. — Directions for Dredging. Drawn up by L. F. de Pourtales, Assist. U. S. Coast Survey.

THE results obtained in late years by dredging in various depths have been such as to open a wide field to the naturalist. The laborers are few as yet, and these directions are issued in the hope of increasing their number by making them acquainted with the readiest modes of operation.

The dredge has as yet received but few improvements since the days of Forbes. His model has proved simple and sufficient, and would probably gain little by being made more complicated. Its construction will be best understood by referring to the figure below, in which a a represents an iron frame with the edges b b sharpened and slightly turned up, and forming the scrapers. The rear edge is pierced with a row of holes, through which the twine, or, better, brass wire, is passed by which the net is fastened. The arms c c are hooked to the short sides of the



frame, in such a way as to allow their being folded in, for easier transportation, and turned out in case they are caught among the rocks, as will be explained further on. The net is made of strong twine with small meshes, and may be three or four feet deep, according to the size of the dredge. It was found convenient to have it open at the bottom, and gathered and firmly tied only when in use. This gives greater convenience in emptying and washing out the bag after a haul. The net is protected against the rocks and corals by an outer covering of stout canvas or leather, open at the bottom. It is represented cut

open and thrown back in the figure, so as to show the net. The English Deep-Sea Dredging Expedition used a double bag, the outer being a close net of sounding-line, the inner a piece of "bread-bag," a somewhat open canvas. To prevent the bag from being turned inside out in going down, a stout brass wire, bent in a semicircle and put inside the bag with the ends fastened to the frame, will be found very convenient.

The dredge used by the Swedish expeditions is a little different, the bag being simple and made of canvas with several square holes closed with wire-gauze. Light objects would seem liable to be washed out of this bag when hauling up, still it appears to have worked satisfactorily.

Mr. Bowerbank used a bag formed of two pieces of raw hide connected at the ends and bottom by a net made of cod-line.

The dimensions of a dredge vary according to the depth or bottom on which it is to be used. From two feet by six inches up to four feet by eight inches will be found the most useful dimensions. For deep-sea dredging, the dredge ought to be heavy, so as to sink rapidly, and be kept on the bottom by its own weight. A heavy lead was attached to it with advantage in the United States Coast Survey Expedition. The English dredgers consider it an impediment, and prefer to have the weight in the metal of the dredge. The rope used by the United States Coast Survey in deep-sea dredging was from one and a half to one and three fourths inches in circumference, made of best Italian hemp by Messrs. Sewall, Day, & Co., of Boston, and gave entire satisfaction. The Porcupine Expedition used hemp rope two and two and a half inches in circumference.

In dredging over rocky ground, the rope is fastened to the ring of one of the arms only, whilst the other is tied to it with spun-yarn. Should the dredge get foul of a rock, the stop will break and the dredge come up endwise, the whole pull acting then on one arm.

As a rule the length of line should be about twice the depth. On very soft bottom it is somewhat shortened, to keep the dredge from getting filled too soon. In very great depths it was found by the English Porcupine Expedition that the line could be kept much shorter by attaching to it weights of one hundred or two hundred pounds at about one fourth the depth from the dredge. The dredging is then carried on, as it were, from the weight, and not from the vessel. In

this way three thousand fathoms were used for a depth of two thousand four hundred and thirty-five fathoms.

Dredging may be carried on from a boat, down to ten or twelve fathoms, with wind enough to propel it, or a good crew to pull it if calm. From a sailing yacht two hundred and fifty fathoms have been attained, though probably with some difficulty. For greater depths a steamer is almost indispensable, provided also with a donkey-engine to haul up the line. Without the latter the labor of the men is very heavy, and the time consumed a great drawback. To ascertain the strain on the rope, some kind of a dynamometer ought to be attached to it. A convenient form is the "accumulator" used in the Porcupine. It consists of a number of solid india-rubber springs, about two feet long, connected at each end with a disk of wood. One end of the accumulator is fastened below to the derrick and above to a rope, which, passing through a block at the top of the derrick, supports the snatch-block through which the dredge-line goes overboard. The motions of the accumulator show the variable strain on the line.

Many valuable specimens were obtained on board the Porcupine by means of hempen tangles or swabs, attached to the ends of a transverse bar made fast to the dredge. According to Mr. Jeffreys, it is, however, more advisable to use them separately, as they interfere with good work of the dredge itself.

In dredging it is preferable to have the dredge go over the bow, especially on rough bottom, as it is easier, in case of fouling, to steam ahead to release the dredge than to back up. Otherwise the stern is more convenient, as the working-table, alcohol jars, &c., are usually stowed on the quarter-deck.

After the dredge is brought up the contents may be emptied into a tub, the more delicate specimens picked out and transferred to clean sea-water if they are to be observed alive, and the residue washed in graduated sieves of copper wire. A rough list of the contents is noted in a book, with specification of the depth, temperature of the water, &c. Until they can be sorted, the contents of every dredgeful can be tied up in a bag of some loose stuff (old bunting from worn signal-flags was used in the Coast Survey), a label written with ink and folded up being enclosed, and the whole put in alcohol. Thus a large metallic vessel, filled with alcohol, can be used to contain the results of many dredgings; bottles being reserved for the more delicate objects. Economy of space can thus be gained to a considerable extent.

Surface specimens can be obtained during the dredging in tow-nets of bunting, stretched over a hoop; when under way very small towing-nets ma occasionally be used also, if the speed is slow.

The naturalists of the Swedish Josephine Expedition used also an implement intermediate between the dredge and the tow-net, to obtain the small swimming crustacea, found near but not on the bottom. It was a sort of very light dredge, made of hoop-iron, with the end-pieces rounded off in such a way as to lift the edge of the net some distance above the ground, so as not to scrape. The net was made of some strong gauze-like stuff,

No. 5. — Appendix to the Preliminary Report (Bulletin No. 9, Vol. I.) on the Echini collected by L. F. de Pourtalès. By Alexander Agassiz.

The two species of sea-urchins here briefly noticed are interesting in a geographical point of view; the one being a second species of a genus thus far only known from the Indian Ocean; the other as additional evidence on an interesting question of geographical distribution in the Atlantic Ocean.

Among the Echini collected by Mr. Pourtales in 1868-69, during his exploration of the Gulf Stream, were numerous fragments of spines of sea-urchins which I was unable, at the time of writing the preliminary report, to refer to any genus of Echini known to me. Having while in Paris had the opportunity—thanks to Professor Bayle—of examining Michelin's collection now in the École des Mines, containing among other types a remarkable sea-urchin of which only a single specimen exists, described by Michelin, in Annéxe A to Maillard's notes sur l'isle de Bourbon, in 1863.

This sea-urchin he named Keraiaphorus Maillardi; it was brought up from a depth of two hundred metres on a fishing-line, and was called Keraiaphorus on account of its long curved spines, resembling the antennæ of Cerambycidæ. The fragments of spines collected by Mr. Pourtales off Tennessee Reef, at a depth of one hundred and sixty fathoms, belong to this genus, but differ sufficiently in appearance to show they do not belong to the same species. They are of a bright vermilion on the concave part of the spine, and a light pink on the opposite side: the extremity of the spine is white for a considerable distance; the spine is slightly curved from the base; a section of the spines shows them to be somewhat triangular, with rounded sides, the long convex side of the triangle being placed on the side of greatest diameter of curvature of the spine, and the short slightly concave or straight sides on the concave part of the spine. The spine is nearly solid, with the exception of a small annular space, nearer the centre than the periphery, made up of one row of large triangular limestone cells, such as are so characteristic of spines of Echini; the central part and the periphery of the spine consist of very minute circular cells closely packed together, presenting a homogeneous structure; in consequence the outside of the spine is not striated, either longitudinally or transversely, and shows simply a homogeneous close granulation, like very fine marble. The longest fragments are about two inches in length, and to judge from analogy with Keraiaphorus Maillardi, they must have attained a length of at least five or six inches. It is to be hoped that future explorations will bring to light this interesting sea-nrchin, as the only specimen thus far found is not in such a state of preservation as to enable us to ascertain its affinities perfectly satisfactorily. As far as an examination would allow, Keraiaphorus is identical with Coelopleurus, and is closely allied to Echinocidaris. There are some discrepancies between the description of Michelin and his figures, the tubercles are not perforated nor crenulated, the general structure of the genital and ocular plates is similar to those of Echinocidaris; unfortunately the anal plates are not preserved, and Michelin says nothing about them. The peculiar structure of the bare portion of the abactinal part of the interambulaera is not sufficiently brought out in Michelin's figures, in the specimen, ridges of small tubercles, running in S-shaped curves across this bare part of the interambulaera from the base of one plate to the angle of the opposite plate, are quite prominent and fully as marked as in the best figures of Colopleurus given by Cotteau in the Actes de la Société Linnéenne de Bordeaux, pl. xii, fig. 4, Vol. 27. The spines of Colopleurus are as yet not known, unless the spines cited under the name of Cidaris incerta d'Arch, found in the same beds as those containing Colopleurus, should turn out to be the spines of this genus. They greatly resemble the smaller, shorter, and straight spines of Keraiaphorus found round the actinostome, as was suggested to me by Mr. Vaillant of the École des Mines.\*

In addition to the foregoing species, there was a small sea-urchin, one eighth of an inch in diameter, which will most probably turn out to be he young of some species of the Diadematidæ allied to Asthenosoma Grube. It is already of a size when a young Diadema has its plates tolerably well defined, and when its spines far surpass the diameter of the test in length, besides being provided with a long anal proboseis, which at once characterizes young Diadematidæ. This specimen was nearly flat, the outline deeply cut at the ambulacra, the interambulaera pro-

<sup>\*</sup> It is interesting to note that we find a species of Cœlopleurus in the tertiaries of Alabama, and in the London Crag.

jecting as large lobes beyond the general outline; the whole test was made up of small limestone cells, and evidently was quite movable, though tough, in its present condition; there were deep actinal cuts in the centre of the ambulacral field, the actinal membrane unfortunately was not well preserved. The spines were very short, and bore about the same ratio to the test which they have in Astropyga and Asthenosoma. The tubercles were not yet separated from the general limestone network of the test, and the spines were arranged in the interambulacral spaces in two irregular main rows, and in one row in the ambulacral spaces, both extending to the abactinal pole. A species of a genus closely allied to Asthenosoma Grube has been dredged by the Porcupine Expedition off Cape Wrath and south of Cape Finistère, off Vigo; I presume this will prove to be the young of it. Professor Wyville Thomson will soon describe this species as Calveria hystrix, and, like several of the species first dredged by Mr. Pourtalès, and subsequently found also by the Porcupine and by the Josephine Expeditions, will add another to the list of Echini common to both sides of the Atlantic. They are the following, exclusive of the eircumpolar species: -

Cidaris annulata Gray. ? Diadema antillarum Phil. Calveria hystrix W. Thoms. Genocidaris maculata A. Ag. Trigonocidaris albida A. Ag. Echinus norvegicus D. et K. ? Echinometra Michelini Des. Echinocyamus angulosus Leske (not young of Stolonoclyp. Ravenelli). Pourtalesia miranda A. Ag. ? Brissus columbaris Ag. Echinocardium cordatum Gray. Echinocardium ovatum Gray. ? Echinocardium lævigaster A. Ag. Brissopsis lyrifera Ag. Lissonotus fragilis A. Ag. Schizaster fragilis Ag.

Cambridge, April, 1871.









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