# THE INSECTS AND ARACHNIDS OF CANADA 

 PART 20The Genera and<br>Subgenera of the Sawflies of Canada and Alaska

## Hymenoptera: Symphyta

Agriculture
Canada

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## Hymenoptera: Symphyta

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## Introduction

Sawflies are exciting first captures of spring. As soon as most of the snow is gone, many sawflies fly over a tan and gray landscape, to be caught by enthusiastic hymenopterists.

Sawflies as larvae are generally significant defoliators of important agricultural crops and trees (see section entitled "Economic importance"). In Canada we are endowed with a rich sawfly fauna. At present 705 species are recorded in this country, and an additional 150 species that occur in the northern United States are expected to be found eventually in Canada. An unknown but no doubt large number of undescribed species also await discovery. The known Canadian species are divided into 121 genera.

Sawflies are members of the suborder Symphyta, and adults are easily distinguished from those of all other Hymenoptera by the broad joint between the abdomen and the thorax and by the first tergum clearly associated with the abdomen rather than with the metathorax. Sawflies are divided into 14 families, 12 of which are recorded in Canada. Of these families Tenthredinidae is the largest in number of species (565) and genera (89).

Sawflies are found in all regions of Canada. Adults have been recorded from sea level to snow fields in high mountains and from the cool rain forests of the Pacific Coast to the dryest and hottest areas of the country. Sawflies are most diverse in temperate regions but are more numerous in regions with cool summers, near oceans, or in boreal forests (see Price 1975 for life zones mentioned here).

Illustrated keys to adults are included in this book, to ensure accurate and easy identification. I have written the tenthredinid keys to present new and easily interpreted characters, and I have illustrated the keys profusely, to avoid confusion that may be caused by the relative nature of some characters. Whenever possible I have simplified descriptive terms by using English equivalents for traditional Latin or Greek terms. Following the keys, under each taxon I have given a concise characterization when possible, discussed briefly the known and potential diversity in Canada, commented on present geographical distribution and on regions of greatest diversity, recorded notes on habitat, host (or both), and provided pertinent references on keys to species and on biology.

## Biological notes

The following is a summary of the introduction to the natural history of sawflies by Benson (1950).

Sawflies are holometabolous insects that go through four development stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult.

Eggs are generally oval, kidney-, or sausage-shaped. Eggs of Xiphydriidae and Orussidae are borne at the extremity of a long curved stalk as in Cynipoidea and Chalcidoidea. Females lay eggs generally on or below the leaf or stem surface. In most species, females insert their eggs in the plant tissue using their saw-like ovipositor. Egg development is typically rapid (3-47 days), except for those requiring a diapause (i.e., obligatory winter rest) period.

In Canada larvae are found singly or in groups from late May until September. The body coloration of larvae of most species closely matches the background on which they live. Feeding patterns betray the presence of the best camouflaged larvae. Most larvae feed externally on leaves, producing a chewing pattern that is usually not identifiable. However, larval feeding patterns of some species are characteristic: leaf folds (Phyllocolpa), leaf and bud galls (Pontania), petiole and twig galls (Euura), and leaf-mining blisters (Heterarthrinae and Pseudodineura). Larvae of some species may leave no visible damage as they feed inside logs (Siricidae and Xiphydriidae), grass stems (Cephidae), catkins (Amauronematus), or fruit (Hoplocampa). Larvae of still other species hide in silky webs (Pamphiliidae). Depending on the species, larvae may go through four to eight molts, and females in some species may require one more molt than males. Larval development may take as little as $8-30$ days for most species or as long as $1-3$ years in Siricidae and Xiphydriidae. At the end of the larval development, the larva spins a cocoon that is either on the host plant or in the ground. Generally, in temperate and boreal regions sawflies overwinter as prepupae that resemble larvae but are short and inactive inside a cocoon. For most Canadian species, only one generation per year occurs.

For most species, prepupae molt into pupae in the spring. Adults soon emerge from the cocoon, and shortly after they start looking for mates and food plants. Though the life span of adults is short (usually 3-10 days), adults of most species can be collected over 3-4 weeks and in a few Canadian species, over several months. Reproduction may be bisexual or parthenogenetic. Parthenogenetic reproduction is seen in few species throughout the sawflies. Adults of most species feed on pollen and nectar, but in some species they are predatory (Tenthredo) on a wide variety of insects.

## Collecting methods

Collecting adult sawflies is affected by the collector's knowledge of habitat and behavior of sawflies, and by sampling techniques used.

Sawflies generally hide during periods of lower relative humidity. Collectors should seek humid habitats, such as marshes and open forests, in regions with cool conditions (boreal or maritime regions) or in cool periods of the day or year. Generally, sawflies fly actively in the spring as long as the temperature remains below $27^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

Open but wind-protected areas with diverse native and mostly undisturbed vegetation are most productive for general collecting.

If the goal is to get the maximum diversity of sawflies, it is important to sample intensively and efficiently all habitats possible over the season, using active or passive collecting methods.

The main active collecting technique is sweeping the vegetation with a net (Martin 1977). It is an efficient method, but most of the precious collecting time is spent aspirating insects from the net. A solution to this problem is the use of an insect-separating apparatus. Briefly, this apparatus consists of two boxes, one large $(20 \times 20 \times 30 \mathrm{~cm})$ and the other small ( $20 \times 20 \times 10 \mathrm{~cm}$ ), joined together with a common small ( $4 \times 6 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) opening. The large box is dark; the small box is lit by three or four screened walls. The screened surfaces are painted with a fast-acting perythroid insecticide, such as permethrin or cypermethrin. The side opposite to the common opening in the large box has a sleeve of dark elastic material attached to allow fast emptying of the net contents into the large box. Inside the large box is a large ( $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) mesh screen about 5 cm above the bottom of the box, used to retain largeplant debris; from the bottom of the box to the edge of the common opening a sloped surface of about $45^{\circ}$ leads insects to the common opening. In the field, insects dropped into the large box are uncomfortable because of the darkness, hot temperature, and lower relative humidity. Most sawflies therefore move rapidly to the small, lit, cool, and more humid box. In the small box, insects are rapidly paralyzed and fall into a preservative (I use water saturated with table salt or alcohol). The roof of the small box may be transparent to allow the contents of the net to be easily examined 2 or 3 minutes after transferring a sweep sample to the box. In this way no time or specimens are lost.

Collecting devices used in passive methods are the Malaise trap (Townes 1972; Malaise 1937) and the yellow pan trap. The former is an interception trap that concentrates many sawflies (mainly Tenthredininae and Allantinae) toward the lightest portion of the roof, where there is a catching device with a preservative such as $95 \%$ alcohol. The Malaise trap is expensive to buy or make. The pan
trap is any type of daffodil-yellow pan, a color attractive to sawflies and many other Hymenoptera. The trap is set at ground level or, when the vegetation is high, above ground level. Insects attracted to pan traps are caught in water and a preservative (I use water saturated with salt and detergent to break the surface tension to help drown the insects). Pan traps are very inexpensive. Masner and Goulet (1981) published a description of a combination of the above traps with use of a fast-acting insecticide. The position of these traps in the field is important for success. Collectors must learn to recognize flight paths. The best position for trapping sawflies is a sun-exposed and wind-free area. Pan traps are positioned at the edge of an open surface along taller vegetation and are exposed to the sun, at least in the morning. Malaise traps should have the catching device facing due south or toward the brightest source of light during the sawflies' maximum flight period.

## Economic importance

Although most sawflies are associated with plants of little or no economic significance (willows, sedges, wild grasses), some are important pests in gardens, nurseries, agricultural crops, and forests, others are significant in controlling the spread of some weeds, and, finally, some are voracious predators and quite efficient pollinators.

Most serious sawfly problems are reported in forests. The normal problems are caused by wood-boring siricid and xiphydriid sawflies; leaf-feeding diprionid and nematine sawflies, such as Pikonema ssp., Pristiphora erichsonii (Hartig), and Pristiphora geniculata (Hartig); and leaf-mining sawflies, Fenusa pusilla (Lepeletier), Messa nana (Klug), Profenusa thomsoni (Konow), and Scolioneura betuleti (Klug). Attacks by some pamphiliid, xyelid, and argid sawflies in forests are less important and irregular.

In gardens and around properties the following species are usually abundant: birch leafminer, Fenusa pusilla (Lepeletier); imported currantworm, Nematus ribesii (Scopoli); mountain-ash sawfly, Pristiphora geniculata (Hartig); Pristiphora aquilegiae (Vollenhoven), on columbine; European pine false webworm, Acantholyda erythrocephala (Linnaeus); hawthorn leafmining sawfly, Profenusa canadensis (Marlatt); pear sawfly, Caliroa cerasi (Linnaeus); roseslug, Endelomyia aethiops (Fabricius); and curled rose sawfly, Allantus cinctus (Linnaeus), among others. These and some other species may be occasional or common problems only in some localities.

Sawflies are relatively minor pests in most agricultural crops. Small-fruit crops are damaged by Pristiphora rufipes Lepeletier, on currants, and by fruit-boring sawflies, Hoplocampa ssp. The European apple sawfly is spreading in southern Quebec and eastern Ontario and is becoming a major concern to apple growers. Grasses and grain crops may be attacked by stem sawflies (Cephidae) and by some species of Dolerus and Pachynematus. The wheat stem sawfly, previously a very serious problem in the prairies, is a minor problem with the advent of solid-stem wheat cultivars.

Sawflies are beneficial as parasitoids of wood-boring beetles (Orussidae) or in slowing the spread of weeds (Schizocerella pilicornis on Portulaca) and poisonous plants (several species of Dolerus on horsetails, Arge humeralis (Beauvois) on poison-ivy, and several species of Rhadinoceraea on Veratrum). Also, species of Tenthredinini are, as adults, predatory on several species of importance to agriculture and forestry, and those of Tenthredo pollinate a wide variety of flowering plants.

## Structures of adults

The body of adult sawflies is clearly divided into head, thorax, and abdomen. Sawflies are distinguished from Apocrita (Hymenoptera that are not sawflies) by the anterior margin of the tergum 1, which appears as part of the abdomen rather than the thorax, though it is fused to the postnotum of the metathorax (Fig. 1). The following is based on Snodgrass (1935) and Wong (1963).

Head (Figs. 1-4). The head consists of a pair of large compound eyes and 3 ocelli (Fig. 3). The appendages consist of a pair of antennae usually between the compound eyes, a clypeus attached to the ventral margin of the head, a labrum attached to the clypeus, a pair of mandibles found behind the labrum and attached laterally to the ventral margin of the head capsule, a pair of maxillae behind the mandibles, and a labium behind the maxillae. The antenna is divided into three: the scape, the first segment near the head capsule; the pedicel, the second segment; and the flagellum, often divided into several joints (Fig. 4). Joints of the flagellum are called flagellomeres and are numbered consecutively from the joint nearest the pedicel. The maxilla and the labium each have a palp. Each palp is jointed; joints are called maxillary palpomeres and are numbered consecutively starting with the joint nearest the stipes (Fig. 3).

Thorax. The second or middle section of a sawfly body consists of three segments: the prothorax (the anterior segment), the mesothorax (the middle segment), and the metathorax (the posterior segment) (Fig. 2a). Sclerites of each segment are named using the prefix of the segment to which they belong (e.g., the coxa of the prothorax is the procoxa). Each segment of the thorax is subdivided into three regions: the notum (dorsal region), the pleuron (outer region), and the sternum (ventral region). The notum is subdivided into an anterior scutum and a posterior scutellum on the mesonotum and metanotum but is not subdivided on the pronotum (Fig. 1). The mesoscutum is divided in most sawflies into pairs of median and lateral lobes (Fig. 1). The metascutum is not divided, but laterally it has a pair of membranous and scale-like cenchri that are involved in wing folding (Fig. 1). The mesoscutellum of most sawflies has a crescent-shaped area at its posterior margin termed the mesoscutellar appendage (Fig. 1). The pleuron is divided into an anterior episternum and a posterior epimeron on the mesopleuron and metapleuron, but it is not clearly divided on the propleuron (Fig. 2a). The mesepimeron and the metepimeron in many sawflies are subdivided into a dorsal anepimeron and a ventral katepimeron (Fig. 2a). The metathoracic


Fig. 1. Dorsal view of Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton).


Fig. 2. Lateral view of female (a) and male (b) of Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton).
spiracle (outer opening of respiratory system) is found between the metepisternum and the mesepimeron (usually concealed by posterior margin of mesepimeron) and the mesothoracic spiracle, between the mesepisternum and the pronotum (usually concealed by posterior margin of pronotum). In sawflies the prosternum is clearly outlined as opposed to the mesosternum and metasternum, which consist of a medioposterior fork-like sclerite (the anterior


3


Fig. 3. Frontal view of head of Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton).
Fig. 4. Antenna of A. quattuordecimpunctatum.
Fig. 5. Hind leg of A. quattuordecimpunctatum.
limits of the mesosternum and metasternum in sawflies are not fully understood). Wings are developed between the dorsal area of the pleuron and the lateral margin of the notum of the mesothorax and metathorax. A small and scale-like sclerite called the tegula is found at the base of the fore wing (Figs. 1, 2). Veins and cells of the wings are well developed in most sawflies; veins and cells are coded as in Figures 6-9. On each thoracic segment, a pair of legs are fully developed between the sternum and the pleuron. Each leg (Fig. 5) consists of a coxa, attached to the body wall, followed by a trochanter, a basal subdivision of the femur (hence double trochanter), a femur, a tibia, and a tarsus. The tarsus is 5 segmented in sawflies; segments are called tarsomeres; the last tarsomere ends with a pair of claws (Fig. 5). A pad-like structure, the pulvillis is located at the apex of tarsomeres 1-4 in almost all sawflies.

Abdomen. The third or last section of the body consists of 10 visible segments (Figs. 1, 2). Each segment consists of a dorsal tergum and a ventral sternum. Tergum 1 and rarely 2 are divided along the midline into two halves in most sawflies (Fig. 1), and terga $2-10$ or $3-10$ are not divided. In males terga 9 and 10 are hidden; in females they are fused, although the suture zone outlined by a furrow is still recognizable in most sawflies. Sternum 1 is lacking, sterna 2-7 in females (Fig. 2a) and 2-9 in males (Fig. $2 b$ ) are developed, sternum 8 in males is reduced to 2 lateral sclerites, and sternum 9 in males is long. Most abdominal segments lack appendages, except for segments 8 and 9 in females and 10 in both sexes. A pair of 1 -segmented appendages, the cerci, are developed near the posterolateral margin of tergum 10 (Figs. 2a, $2 b)$. The appendages of segments 8 and 9 in females form the egg laying blades or ovipositor. The ovipositor consists of 2 basal valvifers (called valvifer 1, attached to segment 8 , and valvifer 2, attached to segment 9 ) and 3 apical valvulae (valvula 1 is attached to valvifer 1, and valvulae 2 and 3 to valvifer 2). Valvifers 1 and 2 and valvula 3 are visible externally and form the sheath (Fig. 2a), but valvulae 1 and 2 are usually hidden by valvula 3 . In males, between tergum 10 and sternum 9 , a portion of the copulatory organ is visible: a pair of lateral and articulated harpes and a pair of median penis valves (Fig. 2b).


6b


Fig. 6. Pamphilius phyllisae Middlekauff: (a) veins on fore wings, (b) veins on hind wings. A, Anal; C, Costa; Cu, C bitus; M, Medius; R, Radius; Rs, Radial Sector; Sc, Subcosta. Notations are in lower case letters for crossveins and in capital letters for other veins. The plus sign ( + ) refers to fused veins. The minus sign ( - ) is a link between two veins for the notation of a crossvein.
Fig. 7. Taxonus borealis MacGillivray: (a) veins on fore wings, (b) veins on hind wings (see comments under Fig. 6).

$8 b$

$9 b$

Fig. 8. Xiphydria maculata Say: (a) veins on fore wings, (b) veins on hind wings (see comments under Fig. 6).
Fig. 9. Xiphydria maculata: (a) cells on fore wings, (b) cells on hind wings. Names of cells are derived from frontal veins.

## Classification

The classification used here reflects Smith's classification (1979a), which was derived from Ross (1937), Benson (1938, 1951, 1952, 1958), Smith (1979a,) and Rasnitsyn (1980, 1988). My only departure from Smith's classification is to include, as Benson did previously (1952), Dolerinae as a tribe of Selandriinae. I am quite confident that the classification of families and subfamilies is generally sound, but that of the tribes and genera will probably be partly modified by further research.

I give original references for the few taxa described after the publication of the catalog of North American Hymenoptera Smith (1979a). Synonymies are not entered under each taxon because they are given completely in Smith (1979a).

## Methods

Specimens should be examined with a binocular-dissecting microscope with magnifications of $40 \times$ and $60 \times$. However, most characters may be easily interpreted at magnifications lower than 40x.

Most microscope lamps on the market are satisfactory for study under the magnification range stated above. However, the light quality is often poor, because glare from smooth surfaces of the specimen observed obscures the clarity of structures compared. Sharpness is markedly improved by diffusing the light beam with a small piece ( $2 \times 2 \mathrm{~cm}$ or as big as $3 \times 5 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) of thick ( 0.02 mm ) and translucent tracing acetate of the type used by draftspersons. Sharp views of structures are achieved when the acetate is less than 20 mm from the specimen, the sharpest views being between 1 and 3 mm .

Having proper specimens is important. Ideally, the perfect specimen should meet the following conditions: body and appendages not broken and very clean; abdomen not shrunk; wings spread away from abdomen; legs and antennae away from body and body neither covered with glue nor impaled by an oversized pin. Experienced researchers can learn to correctly identify less than perfect specimens, but first-time users of the keys would probably find it easier to proceed with well-preserved specimens.

The first statement of a key couplet is in opposition to that in the second half in the same couplet, except for statements in parentheses. Statements in parentheses consist of comments that clarify a statement or additional characters that reinforce the characterization of a taxon or taxa associated with the couplet.

Each illustration referred to in a couplet is not necessarily that of a taxon included in the couplet but is a similar expression of the character observed; other structures in the figure should therefore be ignored.


10
12 a


Figs. 10, 11. Dorsal view of pronotum. 10, Nematus erythrogaster Norton; 11, Tremex columba (Linnaeus).
Figs. 12, 13. Propleuron (stippled): (a) lateral view, (b) ventral view. 12, T. leucostoma; 13, Xiphydria maculata Say.

## Key to superfamilies and families of Symphyta

1 Pronotum from above markedly constricted medially: medial length less than 0.25 of maximum lateral length (Fig. 10) 2
Pronotum slightly or not constricted medially: medial length more than 0.4 of maximum lateral length (Fig. 11)

2(1) Propleuron short and head close to thorax (Fig. 12a): inner margins of pleura not adjacent or adjacent for distance less than posterior width of pleuron (Fig. 12b)

Tenthredinoidea 3

Propleuron long and head far from thorax (Fig. 13a): inner margins of pleura adjacent for distance about twice width of pleuron (Fig. 13b)
Xiphydriidae: Xiphydriinae: Xiphydria Latreille (p. 210)
3(2) Length of flagellomere 1, 0.4-0.5 that of antenna (Fig. 14). Flagellum club-like toward apex (Fig. 14). In frontal view, postocular area clearly outlined beyond outer margin of eye (Figs. 22, 23). Abdominal terga 2-5 sharply folded above spiracle $\qquad$ Cimbicidae (Key to genera p. 6)


Figs. 14-20. Antenna. 14, Zaraea americana Cresson; 15, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby; 16, Acordulecera dorsalis Say; 17, female of Arge sp.; 18, female of Neodiprion lecontei (Fitch); 19, male of $N$. lecontei; 20, male of Cladius difformis (Panzer).


Figs. 21-23. Frontal view of head. 21, Trichiosoma triangulum Kirby; 22, Cimbex americana Leach; 23, Zaraea americana Cresson.
Figs. 24-27. Dorsal view of mesoscutellar appendage. 24, Arge sp.; 25, Acordulecera dorsalis Say; 26, Neodiprion lecontei (Fitch); 27, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby.


Figs. 28, 29. Tergum 1 and metapleuron. 28, Arge sp.; 29, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby.
Fig. 30. Mesonotum of Arge sp.

Length of flagellomere 1 less than one-third (Figs. 15, 16, 18-20) or more than 0.7 that of antenna (Fig. 17). Flagellum thread-, sausage-, or comb-like (Figs. 15-20), or slightly club-like. In frontal view, postocular area not outlined beyond all of outer margin of eye, especially in ventral half of eye (Fig. 21). Abdominal terga 2-5 not folded above spiracle (in air-dried specimens, abdomen may collapse and appear folded) 4

4(3) Flagellum unsegmented or with 4 flagellomeres (Figs. 16, 17). Abdominal tergum 1 extended to metacoxa and fused with metapleuron (internal ridges visible if surface pale, but sclerites clearly fused at surface) (Fig. 28). Mesoscutellar appendage fused with mesoscutellum and its posterior margin much below main plane of mesoscutellum (Figs. 26, 27) 5
Flagellum with 5 or more flagellomeres (Figs. 15, 18-20). Abdominal tergum 1 not extended laterally to metacoxa and not fused with metapleuron (Fig. 29). Mesoscutellar appendage outlined by furrow at least laterally (extremely narrow and maybe hidden in adults of Diprion) and on the same plane as mesoscutellum (Figs. 24, 25) 6

5(4) Flagellum unsegmented, as long as or longer than 0.7 of length of antenna (Fig. 17). Notaulus clearly outlined (Fig. 30). Surface near lateral margin of mesoscutellum round (Fig. 27) Argidae (Key to genera p. 51)


Figs. 31, 32. Dorsal view of head. 31, Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton); 32, Neodiprion lecontei (Fitch).
Figs. 33, 34. Anepimeron of mesopleuron (stippled). 33, N. lecontei; 34, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby.

Flagellum with 4 flagellomeres (Fig. 16). Flagellomere 1 as short as or shorter than one-third of length of antenna (Fig. 16). Notaulus not outlined. Surface near lateral margin of mesoscutellum sharply folded (Fig. 26)
....... Pergidae: Acordulecerinae: Acordulecera Say (p. 49)
6(4) Flagellum with 15-20 flagellomeres. Flagellomeres saw- or comb-like (with more than 15 comb-like flagellomeres) (Figs. 18, 19). Ocelli in dorsal view almost in a straight line (a transverse line from the posterior margin of middle ocellus would run through middle of lateral ocelli) (Fig. 33). Anepimeron of mesopleuron mostly flat (Fig. 31)

Diprionidae (Key to genera p. 66)


Figs. 35, 36. Head: (a) frontal view, (b) lateral view. 35, Orussus occidentalis (Cresson); 36, Hartigia trimaculata (Say).
Figs. 37, 38. Pronotum and mesonotum. 37, O. occidentalis; 38, H. trimaculata.

Flagellum with 5-10 flagellomeres. Flagellomeres cylindrical, weakly saw- or club-like, or with fewer than 4 comb-like flagellomeres (Figs. 15, 20). Ocelli in dorsal view clearly forming an angle (a transverse line from posterior margin of middle ocellus would run at most on the anterior margin of lateral ocelli) (Fig. 34). Anepimeron of mesopleuron clearly elevated along dorsoposterior margin (Fig. 32) Tenthredinidae (Key to subfamilies p. 73)

7(1) Antenna inserted below eye under sharp transverse ridge (Fig. 35). Median ocellus surrounded by 3 or 4 pairs of strongly raised and scallop-like pits along anterior margin (Fig. 35b). Lateral ocellus much nearer to eye margin than to median ocellus (Fig. 35a). Mesonotum with transverse transscutal articulation, parallel parapsidal furrows, and very weakly outlined notauli (Fig. 37). Tergum 1 not divided medially
............. Orussoidea: Orussidae: Orussus Latreille (p. 213)


Figs. 39, 40. Slanted view of dorsal surface of pronotum (stippled). 39, Tremex columba (Linnaeus); 40, Syntexis libocedrii Rohwer.
Figs. 41, 42. Last abdominal sternum of male. 41, T. columba; 42, Hartigia trimaculata (Say).
Figs. 43, 44. Tergum 9 of female. 43, T. columba; 44, H. trimaculata.


Figs. 45-48. Antenna. 45, Hartigia trimaculata (Say); 46, Syntexis libocedrii Rohwer; 47, Megaxyela tricolor (Norton); 48, Pamphilius ochreipes (Cresson).
Figs. 49, 50. Head, frontal view. 49, M. tricolor; 50, P. ochreipes.
Figs. 51, 52. Fore wing. 51, H. trimaculata; 52, S. libocedrii.

Antenna inserted between eyes above lowest margin of eye and not under transverse ridge (Fig. 36). Median ocellus at most surrounded by ridges or furrows, and pits, if developed, not raised along anterior margin (Fig. 36b). Lateral ocellus as close as or closer to median ocellus as to nearest margin of eye (Fig. 36a). Mesonotum without transscutal groove and parapsidal furrows but usually with convergent notauli (Fig. 38). Tergum 1 divided medially ... 8

8(7) Pronotum collar-shaped: in front of transverse pronotal fold almost vertical, behind it almost horizontal (Fig. 39). Posterior margin of last tergum in female (Fig. 43) and last sternum in male (Fig. 41) with a tube-like process at midline Siricoidea: Siricidae (Key to genera p. 204)
Pronotum evenly sloping down (Fig. 40). Posterior margin of last tergum in female (Fig. 44) and last sternum in male (Fig. 42) straight or round 9

9(8) Medial length of pronotum greater than that of medial furrow of mesoscutum (Fig. 38). Protibia with 1 apical spur. Metatibia with 0-2 preapical spurs 10
Medial length of pronotum shorter than that of medial furrow of mesoscutum. Protibia with 2 apical spurs. Metatibia with 3 or 4 preapical spurs 11

10(9) Pedicel about as long as flagellomere 1 (Fig. 46). Veins 2A and 3 A of fore wing sinuous between base and crossvein (Fig. 51). Mesoscutellum in cross section flat and folded laterally. Cenchri developed

Anaxyelidae: Syntexis Rohwer (p. 201)
Pedicel much shorter than flagellomere 1 (Fig. 45). Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing straight between base and crossvein (Fig. 52). Mesoscutellum in cross section regularly convex. Cenchri lacking

Cephoidea: Cephidae: Cephinae (Key to genera p. 192)
11(9) Flagellomere 1 wider than 2 and as long as or longer than remainder of flagellum (Fig. 47). Width of clypeus at base less than 0.6 of distance between eyes (Fig. 49). Postocellar area in dorsal view about twice as wide as long (Fig. 49) Xyeloidea: Xyelidae (Key to genera p. 32)
Flagellomere 1 about as wide as 2 and much shorter than remainder of flagellum (Fig. 48). Width of clypeus at base about as wide as distance between eyes (Fig. 50). Postocellar area in dorsal view longer than wide (Fig. 50) Megalodontoidea: Pamphilidae (Key to genera p. 40)

## Clé des superfamilles et des familles de Symphyta

1 Pronotum présentant un étranglement médian prononcé en vue dorsale : longueur médiane inférieure à 0,25 fois la longueur latérale maximale (fig. 10) 2

Pronotum sans étranglement ou avec un léger étranglement médian: longueur médiane supérieure à 0,4 fois la longueur latérale maximale (fig. 11)7

2(1) Propleure court et tête près du thorax (fig. 12a) : bords internes des pleures non adjacents ou adjacents sur une distance inférieure à la largeur postérieure du pleure (fig. 12b)

Tenthredinoidea 3
Propleure long et tête loin du thorax (fig. $13 a$ ) : bords internes des pleures adjacents sur une distance d'environ deux fois la largeur du pleure (fig. 13b)
Xiphydriidae : Xiphydriinae : Xiphydria Latreille (p. 209)
3(2) Article 1 du flagelle mesurant 0,4 à 0,5 fois la longueur de l'antenne (fig. 14). Flagelle en forme de massue vers l'apex (fig. 14). En vue frontale, région postoculaire clairement définie au-delà du bord externe de l'oeil (fig. 22, 23). Terga abdominaux 2 à 5 fortement repliés au-dessus des stigmates ......................... Cimbicidae (clé des genres p. 62)
Article 1 du flagelle mesurant moins du tiers de la longueur (fig. $15,16,18$ à 20 ) ou plus de 0,7 fois la longueur de l'antenne (fig. 17). Flagelle filiforme, en forme de saucisse, ou en forme de peigne (fig. 15 à 20), ou légèrement en forme de massue. En vue frontale, région postoculaire non définie au-delà de tout le bord externe de l'oeil, principalement dans la moitié ventrale de l'oeil (fig. 21). Terga abdominaux 2 à 5 non repliés au-dessus des stigmates (chez les spécimens desséchés, l'abdomen peut s'affaisser et paraître replié)

4(3) Flagelle non segmenté ou comportant 4 articles (fig. 16, 17). Tergum abdominal 1 s'étendant jusqu'au métacoxa et fusionné avec le métapleure (carènes internes visibles dans le cas d'une surface pâle, mais sclérites nettement fusionnés à la surface) (fig. 28). Appendice mésoscutellaire fusionné au mésoscutellum et avec bord postérieur situé bien au-dessous du plan principal du mésoscutellum (fig. 26,27 )

Flagelle comportant 5 articles ou plus (fig. 15, 18 à 20 ). Tergum abdominal 1 ne s'étendant pas latéralement jusqu'au métacoxa et non fusionné au métapleure (fig. 29). Appendice mésoscutellaire délimité par un sillon au moins latéralement (extrêmement étroit et parfois caché chez les adultes de Diprion) et situé sur le même plan que le mésoscutellum (fig. 24, 25)

5(4) Flagelle non segmenté, d'une longueur égale ou supérieure à 0,7 fois la longueur de l'antenne (fig. 17). Notaulix clairement définie (fig. 30). Surface arrondie près du bord latéral du mésoscutellum (fig. 27)

Argidae (clé des genres p. 53)
Flagelle de 4 articles (fig. 16). Longueur de l'article 1 du flagelle égale ou inférieure au tiers de la longueur de l'antenne (fig. 16). Notaulix non définie. Surface située près du bord latéral du mésoscutellum fortement repliée (fig. 26)
...... Pergidae : Acordulecerinae : Acordulecera Say (p. 49)
6(4) Flagelle de 15 à 20 articles. Articles serriformes ou pectinés (plus de 15 articles pectinés) (fig.18, 19). En vue dorsale, ocelles situés presque en ligne droite (une ligne transverse partant du bord postérieur de l'ocelle médian passerait au milieu des ocelles latéraux) (fig. 33). Anépimère du mésopleure généralement non soulevé (fig. 31)

Diprionidae (clé des genres p.68)
Flagelle de 5 à 10 articles. Articles cylindriques, faiblement serriformes ou en forme de massue, ou moins de 4 articles pectinés (fig.15, 20). En vue dorsale, ocelles formant nettement un angle (une ligne transverse partant du bord postérieur de l'ocelle médian passerait au plus sur le bord antérieur des ocelles latéraux) (fig. 34). Anépimère du mésopleure nettement soulevé le long du bord dorsal postérieur (fig. 32)

Tenthredinidae (clé des sous-familles p. 77)
7(1) Antennes insérées sous l'oeil, sous une carène transverse bien définie (fig. 35). Ocelle médian entouré de 3 ou 4 paires de fosses en forme d'écailles fortement surélevées le long du bord antérieur (fig. 35b). Ocelle latéral beaucoup plus près du bord de l'oeil que de l'ocelle médian (fig. 35 a ). Mésonotum à articulation transverse transcutale, à sillons parapsidaux parallèles, et à notaulices très faiblement définies (fig. 37). Tergum 1 non divisé en partie médiane Orussoidea : Orussidae: Orussus Latreille (p. 213)

Antennes insérées entre les yeux au-dessus du bord le plus bas de l'oeil et non sous une carène transverse (fig. 36). Ocelle médian entouré tout au plus de carènes ou de sillons, et de fosses, si présentes, non surélevées le long du bord antérieur (fig. 36b). Ocelle latéral aussi près ou plus près de l'ocelle médian que du bord le plus proche de l'oeil (fig. 36a) Mésonotum sans sillon transcutal ni sillons parapsidaux, mais généralement pourvu de notaulices convergentes (fig. 38). Tergum 1 divisé en partie médiane 8

8(7) Pronotum en forme de collet : presque vertical devant le pli pronotal transverse, presque horizontal derrière ce dernier (fig. 39). Bord postérieur du dernier tergum de la femelle (fig. 43) et du dernier sternum du mâle (fig. 41) pourvu au milieu d'un appendice en forme de tube

Siricoidea : Siricidae (clé des genres p. 205)
Pronotum en pente régulière (fig. 40). Bord postérieur du dernier tergum de la femelle (fig. 44) et du dernier sternum du mâle (fig. 42) rectiligne ou arrondi
$9(8)$ Longueur médiane du pronotum supérieure à celle du sillon médian du mésoscutum (fig. 38). Protibia pourvu d'un éperon apical. Métatibia pourvu de 0 à 2 éperons préapicaux

Longueur médiane du pronotum inférieure à celle du sillon médian du mésoscutum. Protibia pourvu de deux éperons apicaux. Métatibia pourvu de 3 à 4 éperons préapicaux .... 11

10(9) Pédicelle presque aussi long que l'article 1 du flagelle (fig. 46). Nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure ondulées entre la base et la nervure transversale (fig. 51). Mésoscutellum, en section transversale, aplati et replié latéralement. Cenchri présents Anaxyelidae : Syntexis Rohwer (p. 201)

Pédicelle beaucoup plus court que l'article 1 du flagelle (fig. 45). Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure rectilignes entre la base et la nervure transversale (fig. 52). Mésoscutellum, en section transversale, régulièrement convexe. Absence de cenchri
........ Cephoidea : Cephidae : Cephinae (clé des genres p. 195)

11(9) Article 1 du flagelle plus large que l'article 2 et aussi long ou plus long que le reste du flagelle (fig. 47). Base du clypéus d'une largeur inférieure à 0,6 fois la distance entre les yeux (fig. 49). En vue dorsale, région postcellaire environ deux fois plus large que longue (fig. 49) .......................... Xyeloidea : Xyelidae (clé des genres p. 33)
Article 1 du flagelle à peu près aussi large que l'article 2 et beaucoup plus court que le reste du flagelle (fig. 48). Base du clypéus d'une largeur à peu près égale à la distance entre les yeux (fig 50 ). En vue dorsale, région postocellaire plus longue que large (fig. 5)
........ Megalodontoidea : Pamphiliidae (clé des genres p. 42)

## Superfamily Xyeloidea

Diagnosis. Adults of the superfamily are easily distinguished from those of other superfamilies of Symphyta by their antennae with an enormous flagellomere 1 followed by short and narrow flagellomeres and by the presence of 1 or 2 crossveins in $R_{1}$ cell beyond stigma.

Diversity. There is only one family, Xyelidae (Rasnitsyn 1980).

## Family Xyelidae

Diagnosis. See Xyeloidea.
Diversity. Xyelidae consists of four subfamilies, eight tribes, 40 genera, and 107 species (Benson 1945a; Smith 1978, 1990). Most of the above classification is based on extinct taxa. The family currently consists of the following living taxa: two subfamilies, four tribes, five genera, and 47 species (Smith 1978, 1990). In North America two subfamilies, four tribes, five genera, and 30 species are known (Smith 1979a, 1990). In Canada five genera and 13 species have been recorded, although 17 species are expected.


Figs. 53-55. Fore wing. 53. Xyela bakeri Konow; 54. Macroxyela ferruginea (Say); 55, Pleroneura brunneicornis Rohwer.
Figs. 56, 57. Clypeus. 56, M. ferruginea; 57, Megaxyela tricolor (Norton). Figs. 58, 59. Antenna. 58, Xyelecia nearctica Ross; 59, P. brunneicornis.

Key to subfamilies, tribes, and genera of Xyelidae
(modified from Benson 1945a)
1 Fore wing with junction of veins $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ and R basal to that of Rs and R (Figs. 53, 55)
Fore wing with junction of veins $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ and R apical to that of Rs and R (Fig. 54)

Macroxyelinae: Macroxyelini 4
2(1) Vein Sc of fore wing very close to vein R (apparently fused) (Fig. 53). Stigma twice as long as wide (Fig. 53). Wings without setae. Body shorter than 5 mm

Xyelinae: Xyelini: Xyela Dalman (p. 34)
Vein Sc of fore wing clearly removed from R (Fig. 55). Stigma three times as long as wide (Fig. 55). Wings pubescent. Body longer than 5 mm3

3(2) Antenna with 10 flagellomeres. Length of combined flagellomeres $2-10$ half that of flagellomere 1 (Fig. 59). Body shorter than 8 mm . Terga 2-6 or 2-7 with longitudinal furrow above spiracle

Xyelinae: Pleroneurini: Pleroneura Konow (p. 36)
Antenna with 24 or more flagellomeres. Length of combined flagellomeres 2 to the last one about as long as that of flagellomere 1 (Fig. 58). Body 8 mm or longer. Terga 2-7 without longitudinal furrow .............. Macroxyelinae: Xyeleciini: Xyelecia Ross (p. 37)

4(1) Apical margin of clypeus with long projection medially (Fig. 56)

Megaxyela Ashmead (p. 38)
Apical margin of clypeus without midline projection but with slight notch medially (Fig. 57)

Macroxyela Kirby (p. 38)

## Clé des sous-familles, des tribus et des genres de Xyelidae

(modifiée de Benson 1945a)
1 Jonction des nervures $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ et R de l'aile antérieure basale par rapport à celle des nervures Rs et R (fig. 53,55 )

2

2(1) Nervure Sc de l'aile antérieure très proche de la nervure $R$ (apparemment fusionnées) (fig. 53). Stigma deux fois plus long que large (fig. 53). Ailes dépourvues de soies. Longueur du corps inférieure à 5 mm .

Xyelinae : Xyelini : Xyela Dalman (p. 34)
Nervure Sc de l'aile antérieure éloignée de la nervure R (fig. 55). Stigma trois fois plus long que large (fig. 55). Ailes pubescentes. Longueur du corps supérieure à 5 mm 3

3(2) Antenne de 10 articles. Longueur du flagelle, de l'article 2 à l'article 10 combinés, égale à la moitié de celle de l'article 1 (fig. 59). Longueur du corps inférieure à 8 mm . Terga 2 à 6 ou 2 à 7 pourvus d'un sillon longitudinal au-dessus du stigmate

Xyelinae : Pleroneurini : Pleroneura Konow (p. 36)
Antenne de 24 articles ou plus. Longueur du flagelle, de l'article 2 au dernier article combinés, à peu près égale à celle de l'article 1 (fig. 58). Longueur du corps égale ou supérieure à 8 mm . Absence de sillon longitudinal sur les terga 2 à 7

Macroxyelinae : Xyeleciini : Xyelecia Ross (p. 37)
4(1) Bord apical du clypéus pourvu d'une longue projection médiane (fig. 56)

Bord apical du clypéus sans projection sur la ligne médiane, mais pourvu d'une légère encoche médiane (fig. 57) Macroxyela Kirby (p. 38)

## Subfamily Xyelinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Xyelinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the short body (excluding the ovipositor in the female, smaller than 8 mm ), by the fore wing junction $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ and R basal to that of $R$ and Rs, by the 10 -jointed flagellum, and by the longitudinal furrow lined with membrane above the spiracle of terga $2-6$ or 2-7.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of three tribes, 11 genera, and 58 species (Smith 1978, 1990). Most of these taxa are extinct. The living fauna is represented by two tribes, two genera, and 38 species (Smith 1978, 1990). In North America two tribes, two genera, and 23 species are known (Smith 1979a, 1990). In Canada two tribes, two genera, and nine species are recorded, but 14 species are expected.

Host. Larvae of this subfamily attack coniferous shoots or staminate flowers of pine and fir (Smith 1979a).

## Tribe Xyelini

Diagnosis. Adults of Xyelini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the family by the short body (excluding the ovipositor in female, smaller than 5 mm ), by the broad stigma (about twice as long as wide), and by the short flagellomere 1 (as long as the combined length of flagellomeres 2-10).

Diversity. The tribe consists of five extinct and one living genera, and 13 extinct and 33 living species (Smith 1978, 1990).

## Genus Xyela Dalman

Diagnosis. See Xyelini.
Diversity. Xyela consists of two subgenera (all living species belong to subgenus Xyela) and 33 species ( 29 are living) (Smith 1978, 1990). The genus is restricted to temperate regions of Eurasia and North America. In North America 18 species are known (Smith 1979a, 1990). In Canada seven species are recorded, but eight are expected.


Xyelidae: Xyela

Host. Larvae feed in staminate flowers (most species) or in shoots (one species) of various species of pine. (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Burdick (1961) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Pleroneurini

Diagnosis. Adults of Pleroneurini are distinguished from those of other genera of the family by the moderate size of the body (excluding the ovipositor in female, $6-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length), by the narrow stigma (three times longer than wide), and by the long flagellomere 1 (twice as long as the combined length of flagellomeres 2-10).

Diversity. The tribe consists of one genus and eight species (Smith 1978).

## Genus Pleroneura Konow

Diagnosis. See Pleroneurini.
Diversity. Pleroneura genus occurs in temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Smith 1978). In North America five species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are recorded, but five are expected. Most species are found west of the Rocky Mountains (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed in new buds and shoots of various species of fir (Smith 1967, 1979a).

Comments. Smith, Ohmart, and Dahlsten (1977) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Subfamily Macroxyelinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Macroxyelinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the long body (excluding the ovipositor in female, longer than 8 mm ) and the fore wing junction of Rs and R basal to that of R and $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ (except Xyelicia with 24 or more flagellomeres).

Diversity. The subfamily consists of five tribes, 13 genera, and 22 species (Smith 1978). Most of these categories are extinct (Smith 1978). The living fauna consists of two tribes, three genera, and nine species (Smith 1978). In North America two tribes, three genera, and seven species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two tribes, three genera, and four species are recorded, but seven species are expected.

Host. Larvae of the subfamily feed on firs and deciduous trees (Smith 1979a).

## Tribe Xyeleciini

Diagnosis. Adults of Xyeleciini are distinguished readily from those of other tribes of the family by the 24 or more flagellomeres and by the short flagellomere 1 (subequal to the combined length of remaining flagellomeres).

Diversity. The tribe consists of three extinct and one living genera, and three extinct and two living species (Smith 1978).

## Genus Xyelecia Ross

Diagnosis. See Xyeleciini.
Diversity. Xyelecia consists of two species, one in eastern Asia and the other, $X$. nearctica Ross, in western North America (Smith 1978).

Host. Larvae feed in shoots of fir (Smith 1978).
Comments. Ross (1932) and Smith (1964) characterized the single species. Smith (1967) described the larvae.

## Tribe Macroxyelini

Diagnosis. Adults of Macroxyelini are distinguished from those of other tribes by the long body (excluding ovipositor in female, longer than 8 mm ) and by the fore wing junction Rs and $R$ basal to R and $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$.

Diversity. The tribe consists of two genera, and one extinct and seven living species (Smith 1978).

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of deciduous trees (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Macroxyela Kirby

Diagnosis. Adults of Macroxyela are distinguished from those of other genera of the family by the long body (excluding the ovipositor in female, longer than 9 mm ) and by the small notch of the apical margin of the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of three North American species (Ross 1932). In Canada one species is recorded, but three are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of elm (Smith 1979a).
Comments. Ross (1932) revised the North American species of the genus. However, the genus is in need of study.

## Genus Megaxyela Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Megaxyela are distinguished from those of other genera of the family by the long body (excluding the ovipositor in female, longer than 9 mm ) and by the long middle projection of the apical margin of the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of one extinct and four living species (Smith 1978). In North America three species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are recorded, but three are expected. The genus is restricted to temperate regions of eastern Asia and North America (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of Carya and Juglans (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ross (1932) revised the genus. Megaxyela aviingrata (Dyar) is a junior synonym of $M$. tricolor (Norton). The genus needs study, but specimens are still very rare in collections.

## Superfamily Megalodontoidea

Diagnosis. Adults of Megalodontoidea are distinguished from those of other superfamilies of Symphyta by the very long postocellar area and by the clypeus, which is as wide as the distance between eyes.

Diversity. The superfamily consists of two families, four tribes, nine genera and over 200 species (Benson, 1945b, 1952). Pamphiliidae is the only family recorded in North America, including Canada; the other family, Megalodontidae, is restricted to Eurasia. The members of the superfamily are restricted to temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b).

Host. Larvae feed on deciduous and coniferous trees and on herbaceous plants (Benson, 1945b). Larvae feed singly or in groups, spinning webs and making large nests filled with discarded food, cast-off skins, and frass (Middlekauff 1958).

## Family Pamphilidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Pamphiliidae are distinguished from those of Megalodontidae by the seta-like antennae and by the lengthwise fold on abdominal terga $2-5$, above the spiracle.

Diversity. The family consists of two subfamilies, four tribes, five genera, and over 160 species (Benson 1945b; Middlekauff 1958, 1964). In North America two subfamilies, three tribes, and four genera occur, all of which are found in Canada (Middlekauff 1958, 1964). The family is diverse in temperate and boreal forested regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b).

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of coniferous and deciduous trees (Benson 1945b).




Figs. 60-63. Claw. 60, Acantholyda erythrocephala (Linnaeus); 61-63, Pamphilius sp. (from Middlekauff 1964).
Fig. 64. Lateral view of head of A. brunnicans (Norton).
Fig. 65. Hind wing of A. erythrocephala.
Fig. 66. Protibia of A. erythrocephala.

# Key to subfamilies, tribes, and genera of Pamphiliidae 

(modified from Middlekauff, 1958; 1964; Benes 1972)
1 Tarsal claw with small inner tooth removed from apical one (Fig. 60). Membrane of fore wing irregularly wrinkled apically

Cephalciinae: Cephalciini 2

Tarsal claw with long inner tooth near apical one (Figs. 62, 63) or without inner tooth (not to be confused with basal lobe) (Fig. 61). Membrane of fore wing wrinkled lengthwise apically Pamphiliinae 4

2(1) Inner side of protibia with a preapical spur (Fig. 66). Antenna with about 30 flagellomeres
$\qquad$ Acantholyda Costa (p. 45) 3
Inner side of protibia without a preapical spur. Antenna with about 24 flagellomeres ...... Cephalcia Panzer (p. 45)

3(2) Head in lateral view without occipital ridge. Anal cell of hind wing in female with a short vein at apex (Fig. 65) ....................... Acantholyda (Acantholyda) Costa (p. 45)


68 b

Figs. 67, 68. Fore wing (a), dorsal view of head (b). 67, Neurotoma inconspicua (Norton); 68, Pamphilius phyllisae Middlekauff.

Head in lateral view with occipital ridge (Fig. 64). Anal cell of hind wing in female usually without vein at apex ........................... Acantholyda (Itycorsia) Konow (p. 46)

4(1) Lateral postocellar furrow weakly outlined (Fig. 67b). Stigma of fore wing as broad as length of vein 2r (Fig. 67a). Vein $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$ of fore wing absent (Fig. 67a)
........................... Neurotomini: Neurotoma Konow (p. 47)
Lateral postocellar furrow sharply outlined (Fig. 68b). Stigma of fore wing narrower than length of vein $2 r$ (Fig. $68 a$ ). Vein $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$ of fore wing developed (Fig. 68a)

Pamphiliini
5
5(4) Malar space without distinct concave area, at most with straight slender setae. Either cell C of fore wing without setae or cell R with setae .... Pamphilius Latreille (p. 47)
Malar space with distinct concave area: in female with a few hook-like setae near dorsal surface (Fig. 68b), in male with 1 long and stout seta and some hook-like setae. Cell C of fore wing with numerous setae, second cell $R$ almost without setae $\qquad$ Onycholyda Takeuchi (p. 48)

# Clé des sous-familles, des tribus et des genres de Pamphiliidae 

(modifiée de Middlekauff, 1958; 1964; Benes 1972)
1 Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une petite dent interne éloignée de la dent apicale (fig. 60). Membrane de l'aile antérieure irrégulièrement ridée dans la région apicale
.Cephalciinae : Cephalciini ..... 2
Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une longue dent interne près de la dent apicale (fig. 62,63 ) ou sans dent interne (ne pas confondre avec le lobe basal) (fig. 61). Membrane de l'aile antérieure ridée longitudinalement dans la région apicale Pamphiliinae ..... 4

2(1) Face interne du protibia pourvue d'un éperon préapical (fig. 66). Antenne comportant environ 30 articles

Acantholyda Costa (p. 45) ..... 3
Face interne du protibia sans éperon préapical. Antenne comportant environ 24 articles

Cephalcia Panzer (p. 45)
3(2) En vue latérale, tête sans carène occipitale. Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure de la femelle pourvue d'une courte nervure à l'apex (fig. 65)

Acantholyda (Acantholyda) Costa (p. 45)
En vue latérale, tête pourvue d'une carène occipitale (fig. 64). Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure de la femelle généralement sans nervure à l'apex

Acantholyda (Itycorsia) Konow (p. 46)
4(1) Sillon postocellaire latéral faiblement défini (fig. 67b). Stigma de l'aile antérieure d'une largeur égale à la longueur de la nervure 2 r (fig. 67a). Nervure $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 67a)

Neurotomini : Neurotoma Konow (p. 47)
Sillon postocellaire latéral nettement défini (fig. 68b). Stigma de l'aile antérieure plus étroit que la longueur de la nervure 2r (fig. 68a). Nervure $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 68a) Pamphiliini ..... 5

5(4) Surface malaire sans région concave distincte, portant tout au plus de fines soies dressées. Cellule C de l'aile antérieure sans soies ou cellule $R$ pourvue de soies

Pamphilius Latreille (p. 47)

Surface malaire présentant une région concave distincte : pourvue, chez la femelle, de quelques soies en forme de crochet près de la surface dorsale (fig. 68b) et, chez le mâle, d'une soie unique, longue et forte, ainsi que de soies en forme de crochet. Cellule C de l'aile antérieure pourvue de nombreuses soies, deuxième cellule $R$ presque dépourvue de soies $\qquad$ Onycholyda Takeuchi (p. 48)

## Subfamily Cephalciinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephalciinae are distinguished from those of Pamphiliinae by the inner tooth of the tarsal claw, which is far from the one at the apex, and by the irregularly wrinkled membrane of the fore wing toward the apex.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of two tribes, three genera, and over 80 species (Benson 1945b). The subfamily's range extends over temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b). In North America one tribe, two genera, and 44 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one tribe, two genera, and 29 species are recorded, but 32 species are expected. Most species are found in forested temperate regions and are most diverse in eastern Canada.

Host. Larvae of each species are usually reported from more than one genus of trees. Larvae have been reared usually from various species of pine, fir, and spruce, rarely from Douglas fir and hemlock (Smith 1979a).

## Tribe Cephalciini

Diagnosis. See Cephalciinae.
Diversity. Cephalciini consists of two genera and over 70 species (Benson 1945b, Middlekauff 1958). The tribe's range extends over temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b). For its range in North America, including Canada, see Cephalciinae.


Pamphilliidae: Pamphilius

## Genus Cephalcia Panzer

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephalcia are distinguished from those of Acantholyda by the absence of a preapical spur on the protibia.

Diversity. The genus consists of more than 30 species (Benson 1945b; Middlekauff 1958). The range of the genus extends over forested temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b). In North America 10 species are known, most of which occur in the East (Smith 1979a). In Canada nine species are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed usually on one genus of conifers. They are recorded in pine, fir, spruce, and hemlock (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Middlekauff (1958) revised the North American species. Eidt (1969) wrote an excellent paper on the life history of many North American species and revised Middlekauff's key.

## Genus Acantholyda Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Acantholyda are distinguished from those of Cephalcia and other Pamphiliidae by the presence of a preapical spur on the protibia.

Diversity. The genus consists of more than 50 species (Benson 1945b; Middlekauff 1958) and occurs in forested regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b). In North America 34 species are known (Smith 1979). In Canada 20 species are recorded, but 23 are expected. The range of most species is in temperate regions of Canada, but that of some species extends into boreal regions.

Host. Larvae feed mainly on various species of pine, though larvae are known to feed on various species of spruce and fir, particularly on Douglas fir, and on hemlock (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Middlekauff (1958) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Subgenus Acantholyda Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of the subgenus Acantholyda are distinguished from those of Itycorsia by the presence of a ridge on the postocular area of the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The subgenus is known in Eurasia and North America. In North America eight species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada four species are recorded, but six are expected.

Host. Larvae feed only on various species of pine (Smith 1979a).

## Subgenus Itycorsia Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Itycorsia are distinguished from those of the subgenus Acantholyda by the absence of a ridge on the postocular area of the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The subgenus is known in Eurasia and North America, south into Mexico. In North America 26 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada 16 species are recorded, but 17 are expected.

Host. See genus Acantholyda.

## Subfamily Pamphillinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Pamphiliinae are distinguished from those of the Cephalciinae by the preapical tooth of the tarsal claw, which is close to the apical one, or by the absence of the preapical tooth on the tarsal claw.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of two tribes, three genera, and more than 95 species (Benson 1945b; Middlekauff 1964). The range of the subfamily extends over temperate and boreal forested regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b). In North America 29 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada 25 species are recorded, but 28 are expected. Most species have ranges in the temperate regions of Canada, and a few occur in boreal regions.

Host. Larvae feed only on deciduous woody bushes and small trees (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a).

## Tribe Neurotomini

Diagnosis. Adults of Neurotomini are distinguished from those of Pamphiliini by the weakly outlined postocellar furrows and by the absence of $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$.

Diversity. The tribe consists of one genus and about 10 species (Benson 1945b). The tribe's range extends over forested temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b).

Host. The larvae feed on various rosaceous woody genera (their only hosts in North America) and on oak (Benson 1945b).

## Genus Neurotoma Konow

Diagnosis. See Neurotomini.
Diversity. In North America, including Canada, four species of Neurotoma are known (Middlekauff 1958).

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of plum, cherry, and hawthorn (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Middlekauff $(1958,1988)$ revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Pamphiliini

Diagnosis. Adults of Pamphiliini are distinguished from those of Neurotomini by the deeply outlined postocellar furrows and by the presence of $\mathrm{Sc}_{1}$.

Diversity. The tribe consists of two genera with more than 85 species (Benson 1945b; Middlekauff 1964; Benes 1972). The tribe's range extends throughout temperate and boreal forested regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1945b).

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of several species of cherry, serviceberry, raspberry, and related plants, on apple, peach, beaked hazelnut, beech, poplar, and arrowwood (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Pamphilius Latreille

Diagnosis. Adults of Pamphilius are distinguished from those of Onycholyda by the absence of hook-like setae in the malar area.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 45 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benes 1972; Middlekauff 1964, Smith 1979a; Shinohara and Smith 1983). In North America 17 species are known. In Canada 14 species are recorded but 16 are expected.

Host. See Pamphiliini.
Comments. Middlekauff (1964) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Onycholyda Takeuchi

Diagnosis. Adults of Onycholyda are distinguished from those of Pamphilius by presence of some hook-like setae in the malar area.

Diversity. The genus consists of at least 20 species found in Eurasia and North America. In North America 17 species are known (Smith 1979a; Benes 1972). In Canada seven species are recorded but eight are expected.

Comments. Middlekauff (1964) revised the North American species of the genus under couplets $3-9$ and 10-23.

## Superfamily Tenthredinoidea

Diagnosis. Adults of Tenthredinoidea are distinguished from those of other superfamilies by the markedly narrow pronotum medially, by the presence of 2 spurs at the apex of the protibia, and by the absence of a transscutal articulation on the mesonotum.

Diversity. The superfamily consists of six families, 37 subfamilies, about 400 genera, and over 7000 species found around the world except for most oceanic islands and Antarctica (Benson 1938, 1952, 1958; Smith 1974a, 1978, 1979a). In North America five families, 15 subfamilies, 119 genera, and over 900 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada five families, 15 subfamilies, 102 genera, and over 600 species are recorded, but over 700 species are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaf tissue of ferns, horsetails, angiosperms, and gymnosperms and very rarely in the piths of twigs or catkins (Benson 1950, 1952, 1958; Smith 1979a).

## Family Pergidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Pergidae are distinguished from tenthredinoid families, which have tergum 1 fused to the metapleurum, by the absence of vein 2 r in the fore wing, by the absence of the anal cell in the hind wing, and by the presence of 3 or more flagellomeres.

Diversity. The family consists of 14 subfamilies, 53 genera, and more than 350 species (Smith 1978). The family is known in Australia, New Guinea, and Central, South, and North America and is especially diverse in Australia and South America (Smith 1978; Nauman 1984). In North America one subfamily, one genus, and about four species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one subfamily, one genus, and three species are recorded, but four species are expected.

## Subfamily Acordulecerinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Acordulecerinae are distinguished from those of. other subfamilies by the presence of 2 preapical spurs on the metatibia, by a ridge between the dorsal surface and the lateral margins of the metascutellum, and by 4 or 5 flagellomeres.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of three genera and 55 or more species (Smith 1978). The subfamily's range extends over South, Central, and North America (Smith 1978). In North America one genus and four species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one genus and three species are recorded, but four species are expected.

## Genus Acordulecera Say

Diagnosis. Acordulecera is distinguished from all other North American Symphyta by its small size ( $3-6 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) and by the flagellum with 4 flagellomeres.

Diversity. The genus consists of more than 50 described species, found in South, Central, and North America (Smith 1978). In North America four species are listed (Smith 1979a). In Canada three species are recorded, but four are expected. The genus is restricted to temperate and warmer regions of eastern North America (Smith 1979a).


Pergidae: Acordulecera

Host. Larvae of North American species feed on leaves of oak, hickory, walnut, and buckeye (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The genus is indeed larger than expected and is in need of study in North America.

## Family Argidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Argidae are distinguished from those of other families of Symphyta by the one-jointed flagellum and by the metapleuron fused with the tergum 1.

Diversity. The family consists of 10 subfamilies, seven tribes, 46 genera, and over 800 species (Benson 1938). The family's range extends over the major land masses of the world except for Antarctica and New Zealand (Benson 1938). In North America three subfamilies, eight genera, and 60 species are known (Smith 1969d, 1979a, 1989). In Canada three subfamilies, five genera, and 25 species are recorded, but six genera and 35 species are expected.

Key to subfamilies, genera, and subgenera of Argidae

## (modified from Smith 1969d)

1 Cell $\mathrm{R}_{2}$ of hind wing closed at apex (Fig. 69). Mesotibia and metatibia with a preapical spur (Fig. 72). Flagellum in male simple Arginae: Arge Schrank (p. 55)
Cell $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ of hind wing open apically (Fig. 70). Mesotibia and metatibia without a preapical spur. Flagellum in male simple or fork-like (Fig. 73)

2(1) Vein Sc of fore wing developed (Fig. 71). Flagellomere 1 in male simple. Claw with base lobed

Atomacerinae: Atomacera Say (p. 57)
Vein Sc of fore wing absent. Flagellomere 1 in male forklike (Fig. 73). Claw simple, not lobed at base Sterictiphorinae ..... 3

3(2) Anal cell of hind wing absent (Fig. 74)
Schizocerella Forsius (p. 58)
Anal cell of hind wing present (Fig. 75) ............................ 4
4(3) Head in dorsal view concave between eyes (Fig. 77). Fore wing without basal anal cell Aprosthema Konow (p. 58)


Figs. 69, 70. Hind wing. 69, Arge sp.; 70, Atomacera debilis Say.
Fig. 71. Fore wing of $\boldsymbol{A}$. debilis.
Fig. 72. Metatibia of Arge sp.
Fig. 73. Antenna of male of Sphacophilus cellularis (Say).

Head in dorsal view convex between eyes and with ridge between antennal sockets (Fig. 78). Fore wing with basal anal cell

5(4) Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing longer than length of anal cell (Fig. 75) Sphacophilus Provancher 6

Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing much shorter than length of anal cell (Fig. 76)

Sterictiphora Billberg (p. 58)


Figs. 74-76. Hind wing. 74, Schizocerella pilicornis (Holmgren); 75, Sphacophilus cellularis (Say); 76, Sterictiphora cruenta Smith.
Figs. 77, 78. Dorsal view of head. 77, Aprosthema brunniventre (Cresson); 78, S. cellularis.


## Clé des sous-familles, des genres et des sous-genres d'Argidae

(modifiée de Smith 1969d)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Cellule } \mathrm{R}_{1} \text { de l'aile postérieure fermée à l'apex (fig. 69). } \\
& \text { Mésotibia et métatibia pourvus d'un éperon préapical (fig. } \\
& 72 \text { ). Flagelle simple chez le mâle ............................................................... Arginae : Arge Schrank (p. 55) } \\
& \text {.................................. } 2 \\
& \text { Cellule } R_{1} \text { de l'aile postérieure ouverte à l'apex (fig. 70). } \\
& \text { Mésotibia et métatibia sans éperon préapical. Flagelle du } \\
& \text { mâle simple ou en forme de fourche (fig. 73) ................... }
\end{aligned}
$$

2(1) Nervure Sc de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 71). Article 1 du flagelle simple chez le mâle. Griffe munie d'un lobe basal .................... Atomacerinae : Atomacera Say (p. 57)
Nervure Sc de l'aile antérieure absente. Article 1 du flagelle en forme de fourche chez le mâle (fig. 73). Griffe simple, non munie d'un lobe basal ... Sterictiphorinae ..... 3

3(2) Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure absente (fig. 74)
Schizocerella Forsius (p. 58)
Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure présente (fig. 75) ......... 4


Figs. 79-81. Genitalia: (a) valvula 3 in lateral view, (b) valvula 3 in dorsal view, (c) harpes. 79, Sphacophilus (Litocolus) cellularis (Say) (harpes, inner view); 80, Sphacophilus (Sphacophilus) invitus (Cresson) (harpes, outer view); 81, Sphacophilus (Ceocolus) nigriceps (Konow) (harpes, outer view).

4(3) En vue dorsale, tête concave entre les yeux (fig. 77). Absence de cellule anale basale dans l'aile antérieure Aprosthema Konow (p. 58) En vue dorsale, tête convexe entre les yeux et pourvue d'une carène entre les cavités antennaires (fig. 78). Présence d'une cellule anale basale dans l'aile antérieure
$\qquad$
5(4) Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure plus longue que la cellule anale (fig. 75)
...................................... Sphacophilus Provancher
Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure beaucoup plus courte que la cellule anale (fig. 76) ............................................ Sterictiphora Billberg (p. 58)

6(5) En vue latérale, valvule 3 simple et en forme de lame (fig. $79 a$ ) et, en vue dorsale, bords latéraux convergeant régulièrement vers l'apex (fig. 79b). Harpes du mâle pourvues d'une carène sur la face intérieure (fig. 79c) ...... Sphacophilus (Litocolus) Smith (p. 59)
En vue latérale, valvule 3 pourvue, près de l'apex, de lobes dont la taille varie de petits à grands (fig. $80 a, 81 a$ ) et, en vue dorsale, bords latéraux ne convergeant pas régulièrement vers l'apex à cause des lobes latéraux saillants (fig. $80 b, 81 b$ ). Harpes du mâle sans carène sur la face intérieure (fig. $80 c, 81 c$ )

7(6) En vue latérale, lobe latéral près de l'apex de la valvule 3 étroit et presque cylindrique (fig. 80a). Harpes du mâle plus larges que longues (fig. 80c). Chez le mâle, valve du pénis sans épine latérale. Corps noir $\qquad$ ....... Sphacophilus (Sphacophilus) Provancher (p. 59)
En vue latérale, lobe latéral près de l'apex de la valvule 3 large et arrondi (fig. 81a). Harpes du mâle aussi longues ou plus longues que larges (fig. 81c). Chez le mâle, valve du pénis pourvue d'une épine latérale. Corps en partie brun rougeâtre .. Sphacophilus (Ceocolus) Smith (p. 60)

## Subfamily Arginae

Diagnosis. Adults of Arginae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the presence of the following: a preapical spur on the mesotibia and metatibia, the vein $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ on fore wing, a simple male flagellum, and a closed R cell in the hind wing.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of five genera (Benson 1938) and ranges over the major land masses of the world except Antarctica (Benson 1938). In North America, including Canada, one genus is known (Smith 1969d, 1979a).

## Genus Arge Shrank

Diagnosis. Adults of Arge are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the presence of a preapical spur on the mesotibia and metatibia.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 200 species known in Eurasia, North America, and Africa (Benson 1938). In North America 26 species are known (Smith 1989). In Canada 19 species are recorded. The genus is reported in temperate and boreal regions, but it is most diverse in eastern North America.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of serviceberry, poplar, basswood, pear, mountain-ash, azalea, birch, ironwood, hornbeam, hazelnut, hawthorn, cherry, willow, poison ivy and related species, rose, alder, oak, and elm (Smith 1979a).

Comments. D.R. Smith revised the North American species of the genus (1989).


Argidae: Arge

## Subfamily Atomacerinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Atomacerinae are distinguished from those of other North American subfamilies by the absence of a preapical spur on the mesotibia and metatibia and by the presence of the following: vein $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ on the fore wing, a large basal lobe on tarsal claws, a simple male flagellum, and an open $R$ cell in the hind wing.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of one genus known from temperate and tropical regions of South, Central, and North America (Benson 1938). In North America the genus is recorded in eastern regions (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Atomacera Say

Diagnosis. See Atomacerinae.
Diversity. Atomacera consists of 18 species (Smith 1969d). In North America three species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one species is recorded, but two are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on Desmodium, Leguminosae, and Hibiscus (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith (1969d) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Subfamily Sterictiphorinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Sterictiphorinae are distinguished from those of other North American subfamilies of Argidae by the absence of the following: a preapical spur on the mesotibia and metatibia, vein $\mathrm{Sc}_{2}$ in the fore wing, a forked flagellum in males, an open $R$ cell in the hind wing, simple tarsal claws, and the usually markedly swollen apex of vein C.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of 25 genera (Benson 1938). In North America one tribe, six genera, and 46 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one tribe, three genera, and seven species are recorded, but four genera and 14 species are expected.

## Genus Sterictiphora Billberg

Diagnosis. Adults of Sterictiphora are distinguished from other North American genera of the family by the developed anal cell of the hind wing, by the generally convex anterior margin of the head in dorsal view, and by the anal cell of the hind wing, which is much longer than the vein at its apex.

Diversity. The genus consists of 14 species recorded in Eurasia, Africa, and North America (Smith 1969d). In North America six species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are recorded but five are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on cherry and serviceberry (Smith 1979a).
Comments. Smith (1969d) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Aprosthema Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Aprosthema are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the presence of an anal cell in the hind wing, by the absence of a basal anal cell in the fore wing, and by the generally concave outline of the anterior margin of the head in dorsal view.

Diversity. The genus consists of 10 species recorded in Eurasia and western North America (Smith 1971b). In North America two species are recorded (Smith 1979a). In Canada one is expected.

Host. Hosackia (Smith 1979a).
Comments. Smith (1971b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Schizocerella Forsius

Diagnosis. Adults of Schizocerella are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by the open radial cell of the fore wing.

Diversity. The genus consists of several New World species. Schizocerella pilicornis (Holmgren) is the most widespread and was accidentally introduced into Australia (Smith 1971b).

Host. The larvae are leaf miners of Portulaca, a weed (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith (1971b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Sphacophilus Provancher

Diagnosis. Adults of Sphacophilus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by the open radial cell of the fore wing, by the presence of an anal cell in the hind wing, by the generally convex outline of the anterior margin of the head in dorsal view, and by the anal cell of the hind wing, which is shorter than the vein at its apex.

Diversity. The genus consists of three subgenera and over 22 species in North America (Smith 1971b). In Canada two species are recorded, but seven are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of Convolvulaceae and Leguminosae (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith (1971b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Subgenus Sphacophilus Provancher

Diagnosis. Adults of Sphacophilus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of two species in western North America (Smith 1979a). In Canada no species are recorded but two are expected.

Comments. See genus Sphacophilus.

Subgenus Litocolus Smith
Diagnosis. Adults of Litocolus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of six species in North America (Smith 1979a). In Canada only S. cellularis (Say) is recorded in eastern regions.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of Convolvulaceae: Ipomea and Convolvulus (Smith 1979a).

Comments. See genus Sphacophilus.

## Subgenus Ceocolus Smith

Diagnosis. Adults of Ceocolus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of 14 species in North America (Smith 1979a). In Canada one species is recorded, but five are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of Leguminosae: Psoralea, Desmodium, and Petalostemum (Smith 1979a).

Comments. See genus Sphacophilus.

Family Cimbicidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Cimbicidae are distinguished from those of other families of Symphyta by the club-like antenna and by the folded terga above the spiracle.

Diversity. The family consists of four subfamilies, two tribes, 19 genera, and over 130 species (Benson 1938). The family's range extends over Eurasia and South and North America (Benson 1938, Smith 1988a). In North America two subfamilies, two tribes, three genera, and nine species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two subfamilies, two tribes, three genera, and five species are recorded, but six species are expected. Adults of the family are recorded in temperate and boreal regions of North America (Smith 1979a).



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Figs. 82, 83. Mesocoxae. 82, Zaraea americana Cresson; 83, Cimbex americana Leach.
Figs. 84, 85. Tarsal claw. 84, C. americana; 85, Z. americana.
Figs. 86, 87. Frontal view of head. 86, Trichiosoma triangulum Kirby; 87, C. americana.
Fig. 88. Head of C. americana.
Figs. 89, 90. Lateral view of metafemur. 89, T. triangulum; 90, C. americana.

## Key to subfamilies and genera of Cimbicidae

(mainly from Benson 1952 and Ross 1937)
1 Length of eye about 0.67 of medial length of head (including clypeus) in frontal view (Fig. 88). Metacoxae touching at base (Fig. 82). Tarsal claw not swollen at base (Fig. 85). Body length 12 mm or less

Abiinae: Zaraea Leach (p. 62)
Length of eye half the medial length of head (including clypeus) in frontal view (Fig. 87). Metacoxae clearly separated at base (Fig. 83). Tarsal claw enlarged at base (Fig. 84). Body length 12 mm or more

2(1) Setae dense over body and as long as greatest width of metatibia. Labrum large (Fig. 86). Ventral surface of metafemur with tooth near apex (Fig. 89)

Trichiosoma Leach (p. 64)
Setae dense on head and thorax, scattered or absent from many abdominal terga, and at most as long as half the greatest width of metatibia. Labrum small (Fig. 87). Ventral surface of metafemur without tooth (Fig. 90) ........................................................ Cimbex Olivier (p. 65)

# Clé des sous-familles et des genres de Cimbicidae 

(principalement tirée de Benson 1952 et de Ross 1937)
1 En vue frontale, longueur de l'oeil égale à environ 0,67 fois la longueur médiane de la tête (incluant le clypéus) (fig. 88). Métacoxae se touchant à la base (fig. 82). Base de la griffe du tarse non enflée (fig. 85). Longueur du corps : 12 mm ou moins

Abiinae : Zaraea Leach (p. 62)
En vue frontale, longueur de l'oeil égale à la moitié de la longueur médiane de la tête (incluant le clypéus) (fig. 87). Métacoxae nettement séparés à la base (fig. 83). Base de la griffe du tarse élargie (fig. 84). Longueur du corps : 12 mm ou plus ............................................... Cimbicinae ..... 2
2(1) Soies denses sur le corps et aussi longues que la largeur maximale du métatibia. Labre grand (fig. 86). Surface ventrale du métafémur pourvue d'une dent près de l'apex (fig. 89) ................................... Trichiosoma Leach (p. 64)

Soies denses sur la tête et le thorax, dispersées ou absentes sur de nombreux terga abdominaux, et tout au plus de longueur égale à la moitié de la largeur maximale du métatibia. Labre petit (fig. 87). Surface ventrale du métafémur sans dent (fig. 90) ....... Cimbex Olivier (p. 65)

## Subfamily Abiinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Abiinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the anal cell of the fore wing, which is divided in two by a constriction in the middle, by the deeply outlined notauli, and by the short malar space.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of four genera (Benson 1938). The subfamily is distributed in boreal, temperate, and tropical regions of Eurasia, and in boreal and temperate regions of North America (Benson 1938; Smith 1979a). Eurasia is the region of the greatest diversity. In North America, including Canada, one genus is known.

## Genus Zaraea Leach

Diagnosis. Adults of Zaraea are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by their small body size and by a constriction that divides the anal cell of the fore wing.


Cimbicidae: Trichiosoma

Diversity. The genus consists of more than 25 species (Benson 1938), most of which are concentrated in temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia (Benson 1938; Smith 1979a). In North America four species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are known, but three are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of honeysuckle and Symphoricarpos (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a). I have also collected larvae from Menyanthes.

Comments. The North American species of the genus are in need of study.

## Subfamily Cimbicinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Cimbicinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the anal cell of the fore wing, which is divided in two by a crossvein.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of two tribes and eight genera (Benson 1938). The subfamily's range extends over temperate and tropical Eurasia and North America (Benson 1938). In North America and in Canada two tribes and two genera are known (Smith 1979a).

## Tribe Trichiosomini

Diagnosis. Adults of Trichiosomini are distinguished from those of Cimbicini by the basal width of the labrum, which is equal to 0.7 or more of the apical width of the clypeus.

Diversity. The tribe consists of three genera (Benson 1938). In North America, including Canada, only Trichiosoma is known (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Trichiosoma Leach

Diagnosis. Adults of Trichiosoma are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the large labrum (see Trichiosomini) and by the presence of a tooth-like projection on the ventral surface of the metafemur.

Diversity. The genus consists of 20 species (Benson 1938). In North America four species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are recorded, but three are expected. The range of North American species extends over temperate and boreal regions (Smith 1979a).

Hosts. Larvae feed on leaves of alder, birch, poplar, cherry, ash, and willow (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The North American species of the genus are in need of study.

## Tribe Cimbicini

Diagnosis. Adults of Cimbicini are distinguished from those of Trichiosomini by the basal width of the labrum, which is less than onequarter of the apical width of the clypeal margin.

Diversity. The tribe consists of five genera (Benson 1938). In North America, including Canada, only Cimbex is known (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Cimbex Olivier

Diagnosis. Adults of Cimbex are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the very small labrum (see Cimbicini) and by the lack of a tooth-like projection on the ventral surface of the metafemur.

Diversity. The genus consists of 17 species recorded in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1938). In North America four species are known (Smith 1979a), and in Canada two are recorded.

Host. Larvae of North American species feed on leaves of maple, alder, birch, ironwood, poplar, cherry, willow, basswood, and elm (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The North American species of the genus have not been revised.

## Family DipRionidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Diprionidae are distinguished from those of other North American families of Symphyta by the comb-like flagellum of males and the saw-like and many jointed (about 20 flagellomeres) flagellum of females.

Diversity. The family consists of two subfamilies, 11 genera, and more than 90 species (Benson 1939, 1945c; Smith 1974a). The family's range extends mainly throughout temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America, but some species extend throughout North Africa, Thailand, North India, and North America, south to Nicaragua and Cuba (Smith 1974a, 1988a). In North America two subfamilies, six genera, and 42 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two subfamilies, four genera, and 19 species are recorded, but 24 species are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of coniferous trees (Smith 1974a).

## Key to subfamilies and genera of Diprionidae

## (mainly from Smith 1974a)

1 Vein 2A of fore wing fused to 1A near middle (Fig. 94). Each flagellomere in male with 1 comb-like projection (Fig. 96 ). Middle surface between clypeus and antennal socket convex (Fig. 91)

Monocteninae: Monoctenus Hartig (p. 70)
Vein 2A of fore wing not fused to 1 A , but joined to it by crossvein (Fig. 93). Each flagellomere in male with 2 comblike projections (Fig. 95). Middle surface between clypeus and antennal socket flat (Fig. 92) ............ Diprioninae ..... 2

2(1) Cenchrus small: maximum width about half the distance between cenchri (Fig. 97). Metascutellum large: medial length longer than width of cenchrus (Fig. 97)

Diprion Shrank (p. 71)
Cenchrus large: maximum width larger than the distance between cenchri (Fig. 98). Metascutellum small: medial length shorter than width of cenchrus (Fig. 98)
3(2) Medial angle of anterior margin of mesoscutellum obtuse (Fig. 98). Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing much longer than cell width (Fig. 100)

Gilpinia Benson (p. 72)


Figs. 91, 92. Lateral view of head. 91, Monoctenus fulvus (Norton); 92, Neodiprion nannulus Schedl.
Figs. 93, 94. Fore wing. 93, M. fulvus; 94, N. lecontei (Fitch).
Figs. 95, 96. Antenna of male. 95, N. lecontei; 96, M. fulvus.


Figs. 97-99. Mesoscutellum and metanotum. 97, Gilpinia frutetorum (Fabricius); 98, Diprion similis (Hartig); 99, Neodiprion nannulus Schedl.
Figs. 100, 101. Hind wing. 100, G. frutetorum; 101, N. nannulus.

Medial angle of anterior margin of mesoscutellum about square (Fig. 99). Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing about as long as cell width (Fig. 101)

Neodiprion Rohwer (p. 71)

## Clé des sous-familles et des genres de Diprionidae

(principalement tirée de Smith 1974a)

Nervure 2 A de l'aile antérieure fusionnée à la nervure 1 A près du centre (fig. 94). Chez le mâle, chaque article du flagelle pourvu d'une projection pectinée (fig. 96). Surface centrale entre le clypéus et la cavité antennaire convexe (fig. 91)

Monocteninae : Monoctenus Hartig (p. 70)
Nervure 2A de l'aile antérieure non fusionnée à la nervure 1 A , mais reliée à celle-ci par une nervure transversale (fig. 93). Chez le mâle, chaque article du flagelle pourvu de deux projections pectinées (fig. 95). Surface centrale entre le clypéus et la cavité antennaire plate (fig. 92)

Diprioninae 2

2(1) Cenchrus petit : largeur maximale égale à environ la moitié de la distance entre les cenchri (fig. 97). Métascutellum grand : longueur médiane supérieure à la largeur du cenchrus (fig. 97)

Diprion Shrank (p. 71)
Cenchrus grand : largeur maximale supérieure à la distance entre les cenchri (fig. 98). Métascutellum petit : longueur médiane inférieure à la largeur du cenchrus (fig. 98)

3(2) Angle médian du bord antérieur du mésoscutellum obtus (fig. 98). Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure beaucoup plus longue que la largeur de la cellule (fig. 100)

Gilpinia Benson (p. 72)
Angle médian du bord antérieur du mésoscutellum presque droit (fig. 99). Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure presque aussi longue que la largeur de la cellule (fig. 101) Neodiprion Rohwer (p. 71)


Diprionidae: Neodiprion

## Subfamily Monocteninae

Diagnosis. Adults of Monocteninae are distinguished from those of Diprioninae by the anal cell of the fore wing, which is constricted in the middle.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of three genera and 13 species (Smith 1974a). The subfamily's range extends over temperate regions of Eurasia, North Africa, and North America (Smith 1974a). In North America two genera and six species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada one genus and three species are recorded.

Host. The larvae feed on various species of Cupressaceae (Smith 1974a).

## Genus Monoctenus Dahlbom

Diagnosis. Adults of Monoctenus are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the convex middle surface above the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of 10 species (Smith 1974a). In North America four species are known. In Canada three species are recorded (Smith 1979a, 1988a). The genus is restricted to eastern North America and extends into Mexico.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of eastern white cedar and on juniper (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The genus has not been revised recently. Marlatt (1888) described the life history of one species.

## Subfamily Diprioninae

Diagnosis. Adults of Diprioninae are distinguished from those of Monocteninae by the anal cell of the fore wing, which is divided by a crossvein.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of eight genera and 78 species (Smith 1974a). The subfamily's range extends over North Africa, Eurasia, and North America, south to Cuba and Nicaragua (Smith 1974a, 1988a). In North America five genera and 37 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada three genera and 16 species are recorded, but 21 species are expected.

Host. The larvae feed on various species of pine (Smith 1974a).

## Genus Neodiprion Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adults of Neodiprion are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by large cenchri, which are wider than the distance between them, by the anterior margin of the mesoscutellum, which forms a right angle, and by the spine-like metatibial spur.

Diversity. The genus consists of more than 32 species (Smith 1974a). Except for a few species in Eurasia, the genus is restricted to North and Central America, as far south as El Salvador (Smith 1974a). In Canada 13 species are recorded, but 18 are expected.

Host. The larvae of most species feed on pine, but larvae of a few species are reported to feed on fir, spruce, hemlock, and Douglas fir (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ross (1955) revised the North American species of the genus. Atwood (1961) presented an excellent account on the biology and taxonomical problems of species of the genus.

## Genus Diprion Schrank

Diagnosis. Adults of Diprion are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the small cenchri, which are farther apart than the maximum width of a cenchrus.

Diversity. The genus consists of six species (Smith 1974a). Except for D. similis (Hartig), accidentally introduced into North America, the range of the genus is restricted to Eurasia (Smith 1974a). The range of D. similis is restricted to eastern North America (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae of $D$. similis feed on various species of pine (Smith 1979a).

Diagnosis. Adults of Gilpinia are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by the large cenchri, which are wider than the distance between them, and by the anterior margin of the mesoscutellum, which forms an obtuse angle.

Diversity. The genus consists of 25 species (Smith 1974a). Except for two species introduced into North America, the genus is restricted to temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia (Smith 1974a). The two North American species are recorded in eastern Canada and in the eastern United States (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae of the North American species feed on leaves of pine and spruce, and those of Eurasian species have in addition been recorded in larch and Cedrus (Smith 1974a).

Comments. Benson (1952) characterized the two North American species.

## Family Tenthredinidae

Diagnosis. Adults of Tenthredinidae are distinguished from those of other families by the presence of $7-10$ flagellomeres, by the metapleuron clearly separated from the tergum 1 , and by the long and clearly outlined (at least laterally) mesoscutellar appendage.

Diversity. The family consists of seven subfamilies, over 250 genera, and over 6000 species (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a). The family's range extends over most of the world except oceanic islands (excluding accidental introductions) and Antarctica, from the most frigid regions of the northern and southern hemispheres to hot, equatorial locations. Sawflies are more easily observed in temperate and boreal climates (Benson 1952). Though diverse in the tropics, they are difficult to collect. In North America 101 genera and over 800 species are recorded (Smith 1979). In Canada 89 genera and 565 species are known, but about 700 are expected to occur.

Host. Larvae of most species are external feeders on foliage, but those of some species are leaf miners, gall formers, or shoot borers (Benson 1952).


Figs. 102, 103. Fore wing. 102a, 102b, 102c, Pristiphora erichsonii (Hartig); 103a, 103b, 103c, Empria maculata (Norton).

## Key to subfamilies of Tenthredinidae

1 Fore and hind wings shorter than length of abdomen Nematinae (few taxa: Key to genera p. 99) Fore and hind wings as long as or longer than length of abdomen 2

2(1) Veins $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing meeting at an angle of $80-110^{\circ}$ (Fig. 102a). Distance between junctions in fore wing of veins M with $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$ and those of $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ with R 1.8 times or more than length of 1 m -cu (except in specimens of Adelesta) (Fig. 102b). Fore wing with main axis of vein M and that of $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ clearly convergent toward stigma in specimens of most taxa (Fig. 102c)

3
Veins 1 m -cu and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing usually meeting at an angle of $120-150^{\circ}$ (Fig. 103a). Distance between junctions in fore wing of veins M with $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$ and those of $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ with R 1.8 times or less than length of 1 m -cu (Fig. 103b). Fore wing with main axis of vein $M$ and that of $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ subparallel in specimens of most taxa (Fig. 103c) 10

3(2) Veins 2A and 3A of fore wing fully developed and not fused to 1A (weakly sclerotized in specimens of Heptamelus) (Figs. 105, 108)
Veins 2A and 3A of fore wing not completely outlined (Fig. 107) or completely outlined and fused to 1 A (Fig. 106)

4(3) Anal crossvein of fore wing absent (Fig. 105), or developed and almost perpendicular, or oblique with vein 1A (Fig. 104). Vein Rs +M of fore wing near junction with R curved (Fig. 104) ..... Selandriinae (most taxa: Key to genera p. 81)


Figs. 104-107. Fore wing. 104, Hemitaxonus albidopictus (Norton); 105, Strongylogaster distans Norton; 106, Trichiocampus viminalis (Fallen); 107, Tethida barda (Say).

Anal crossvein of fore wing developed and clearly oblique in relation to vein 1A (Fig. 108). Vein Rs +M of fore wing straight near junction with $R$ (Fig. 108)
................... Heterarthrinae (few taxa: Key to genera p. 99)
$5(3) \quad$ Vein 2 m -cu of fore wing joining cell 2Rs (Figs. 107, 109)
6
Vein 2 m -cu of fore wing joining cell 1 Rs (Fig. 102c) or joining cell 2 Rs (aberrant specimens) almost at vein 2 r -m ....................... Nematinae (most taxa: Key to genera p. 99)

6(5) Vein 2 r of fore wing absent (Fig. 106) $\qquad$
Vein $2 r$ of fore wing developed (Fig. 109)
7(6) Fore wing with vein $M$ meeting $R$ at or just near junction of Rs +M and R (Fig. 107)8

Fore wing with vein M meeting R well before junction of Rs +M and R (Fig. 109)

8(7) Epicnemial surface sharply outlined by furrow (Fig. 111). Large: 7-9 mm
............... Blennocampinae (few taxa: Key to genera p. 144)
Epicnemial surface not outlined or outlined by shallow and short furrow (Fig. 110). Small: 3-6 mm
............... Heterarthrinae (most taxa: Key to genera p. 134)


Figs. 108, 109. Fore wing. 108, Endelomyia aethiops (Fabricius); 109, Hoplocampa halcyon (Norton).
Figs. 110, 111. Lateral view of mesepisternum. 110, Nefusa ambigua (Norton); 111, H. testudinea (Klug).

9(7) Epicnemial surface not outlined. Large: 7-9 mm $\qquad$
............ Susaninae: Susana Rohwer \& Middleton (p. 98)
Epicnemial surface sharply outlined by furrow (Fig. 111). Small: 3-6 mm Nematinae: Hoplocampa Hartig and Caulocampus Rohwer (p. 101)

10(2) Vein R of fore wing clearly deviated between junctions of M and Sc (Fig. 113)

Vein $R$ of fore wing not deviated between junctions of $M$ and Sc (Fig. 114)12

11(10) $\quad \mathrm{R}$ between junctions with M and $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ short (Fig. 112). Basal anal cell clearly constricted along vein 2A and 3A (Fig. 112). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing long and oblique in relation with vein 1A (Fig. 112). Metepimeron fused to metepisternum or more or less separated but not by a furrow (Fig. 122)

Allantinae (few taxa: Key to genera p. 164) R between junctions with M and $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ long (Fig. 113). Basal anal cell weakly or not constricted along vein 2A and 3A (Fig. 113). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing lacking or developed (perpendicular and short, Fig. 113). Metepimeron clearly separated from metepisternum by furrow (Fig. 121) ..... Tenthredininae (Key to genera p. 179)


Figs. 112-114. Fore wing. 112, Dimorphopteryx melanognathus Rohwer; 113, Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton); 114, Blennogeneris spissipes (Cresson).

12(10) Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing complete and markedly constricted (Figs. 103c, 105). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing lacking (Fig. 105) or developed and long (Fig. 103c) 13

Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing not completely outlined (Fig. 107) or completely outlined and slightly constricted (Fig. 114). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing usually lacking or developed and short (Fig. 114)

Blennocampinae (most taxa: Key to genera p. 144)
13(12) Vein $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ of fore wing near junction with R curved (Fig. 105). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing lacking (Fig. 105). Veins $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing meeting at an angle of $110-130^{\circ}$ (Fig. 105)
....................... Selandriinae (few taxa: Key to genera p. 81)
Vein Rs+M of fore wing near junction with $R$ straight or slightly curved (Fig. 103b). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing developed (lacking in few aberrant specimens) (Fig. $103 c$ ). Veins $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing meeting at an angle of $140-150^{\circ}$ (Fig. 103a)

Allantinae (most taxa: Key to genera p. 164)

## Clé des sous-familles de Tenthredinidae

1 Ailes antérieures et postérieures plus courtes que l'abdomen

Nematinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 99)
Ailes antérieures et postérieures aussi longues ou plus longues que l'abdomen2

2(1) Nervures $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ et $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure formant un angle de 80 à $110^{\circ}$ (fig. 102a). Dans l'aile antérieure, distance entre les jonctions des nervures M avec $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$ et celles des nervures Rs +M avec $R$ égale ou supérieure à 1,8 fois la longueur de 1 m -cu (sauf chez les spécimens d'Adelesta) (fig. 102b). Axe principal de la nervure M et celui de la nervure 1 m -cu de l'aile antérieure convergeant clairement vers le stigma chez les spécimens de la plupart des taxa (fig. 102c) 3
Nervures $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ et $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure formant généralement un angle de 120 à $150^{\circ}$ (fig. 103a). Dans l'aile antérieure, distance entre les jonctions des nervures M avec $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}$ et des nervures $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ avec R égale ou inférieure à 1,8 fois la longueur de $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ (fig. 103b). Axe principal de la nervure $M$ et celui de la nervure $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ de l'aile antérieure subparallèles chez les spécimens de la plupart des taxa (fig. 103c)

3(2) Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure complètement développées et non fusionnées à 1 A (faiblement sclérotisées chez les spécimens de Heptamelus) (fig. 105, 108) 4

Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure pas complètement définies (fig. 107) ou complètement définies et fusionnées à 1A (fig. 106)

4(3) Nervure transversale anale de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 105), ou présente et presque perpendiculaire, ou oblique par rapport à la nervure 1A (fig. 104). Nervure $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ de l'aile antérieure courbée près de la jonction avec la nervure $R$ (fig. 104)
...... Selandriinae (la plupart des taxa : clé des genres p. 81)
Nervure transversale anale de l'aile antérieure présente et nettement oblique par rapport à la nervure 1A (fig. 108). Nervure Rs+M de l'aile antérieure rectiligne près de la jonction avec la nervure $R$ (fig. 108)
.............. Heterarthrinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 99)

5(3) Nervure 2 m -cu de l'aile antérieure rejoignant la nervure
2Rs (fig. 107, 109)
6

Nervure 2 m -cu de l'aile antérieure rejoignant la cellule
1 Rs (fig. 102c) ou la cellule 2Rs (spécimens aberrants)
presque à la nervure 2 r -m

Nematinae (la plupart des taxa : clé des genres p. 99)

6(5) Nervure 2r de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 106)
Nematinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 99)
Nervure 2 r de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 109) ............. 7
7(6) $\quad \begin{aligned} & \text { Nervure } M \text { de l'aile antérieure rejoignant la nervure } R \text { à la } \\ & \text { jonction ou tout près de la jonction des nervures Rs+M et } \\ & R \text { (fig. 107) ..................................................... } 8\end{aligned}$
Nervure M de l'aile antérieure rejoignant la nervure R bien avant la jonction des nervures Rs +M et R (fig. 109) 9

8(7) Epicnémium clairement défini par un sillon (fig. 111). Grand : 7 à 9 mm
......... Blennocampinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 144)
Epicnémium non défini ou défini par un sillon court et peu profond (fig. 110). Petit : 3 à 6 mm
Heterarthrinae (la plupart des taxa: clé des genres p. 134)
9(7) $\quad$ Epicnémium non défini. Grand : 7 à 9 mm ..........................
......... Susaninae : Susana Rohwer \& Middleton (p. 98)
Epicnémium clairement défini par un sillon (fig. 111). Petit: 3 à 6 mm Nematinae:
Hoplocampa Hertig et Caulocampus Rohwer (p. 101)
10(2) Nervure R de l'aile antérieure s'écartant nettement entre les jonctions des nervures M et Sc (fig. 113)11

Nervure $R$ de l'aile antérieure ne s'écartant pas entre les
jonctions des nervures M et Sc (fig. 114) ..... 12

11(10) Nervure $R$ entre les jonctions avec $M$ et $R s+M$, courte (fig. 112). Cellule anale basale nettement étranglée le long des nervures 2A et 3A (fig. 112). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure longue et oblique par rapport à la nervure 1 A (fig. 112). Métépimère fusionnée au métépisternum ou plus ou moins séparée, mais pas par un sillon (fig. 122)

Allantinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 164)

Nervure R entre les jonctions avec $M$ et Rs $+M$, longue (fig. 113). Cellule anale basale peu ou pas étranglée le long des nervures 2A et 3A (fig. 113). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure absente ou présente (perpendiculaire et courte, fig. 113). Métépimère nettement séparée du métépisternum par un sillon (fig. 121) Tenthredininae (clé des genres p. 179)
12(10) Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure complètes et fortement étranglées (fig. 103c, 105). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 105) ou présente et longue (fig. 103c) 13
Nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure pas complètement définies (fig. 107) ou complètement définies et légèrement étranglées (fig. 114). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure généralement absente ou présente et courte (fig. 114)
Blennocampinae (la plupart des taxa : clé des genres p. 144)
13(12) Nervure Rs +M de l'aile antérieure courbée près de la jonction avec $R$ (fig. 105). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 105). Nervures $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ et $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure formant un angle de 110 à $130^{\circ}$ (fig. 105)
................. Selandriinae (peu de taxa : clé des genres p. 81)
Nervures Rs +M de l'aile antérieure rectiligne ou légèrement courbée près de la jonction avec $R$ (fig. 103b). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure présente (absente chez quelques spécimens aberrants) (fig. 103c). Nervures $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ et $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure formant un angle de 140 à $150^{\circ}$ (fig. $103 a$ ) Allantinae (la plupart des taxa : clé des genres p. 164)

## Subfamily Selandriinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Selandriinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies by the curved vein $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ in the fore wing near the junction with the vein $R$ and by the completely developed vein 2 A and 3 A of the fore wing.

Diversity. The subfamily's range extends throughout Eurasia, North, Central, and South America, and Africa, from the boreal to the tropical zones (Smith 1969a). In North America 13 genera and 100 species are known (Smith 1969a; Goulet 1986). In Canada nine genera and 73 species are recorded, but 82 species are expected.


Tenthredinidae: Dolerus


Figs. 115, 116. Fore wing. 115, Heptamelus ochroleucus (Stephens); 116, Adelesta nova (Norton).
Figs. 117, 118. Tergum 1 (membrane stippled). 117, Dolerus neocollaris MacGillivray; 118, A. nova.
Figs. 119, 120. Fore wing. 119, Strongylogaster distans Norton; 120, D. neocollaris.

## Key to tribes, genera, and subgenera of Selandriinae

1 Stigma of fore wing as wide as length of vein 2 r , and vein $2 r$ originating far from apex of stigma (Fig. 115). Fore wing veins $M$ and $c u-a$ touching at vein $M+\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ (Fig. 115). Antenna with 5 or 6 flagellomeres. Pedicel of antenna about twice as long as wide

Heptamelini: Heptamelus Haliday (p. 94)
Stigma of fore wing markedly narrower than length of vein $2 r$, and vein $2 r$ originating near apex of stigma (Fig. 116). Fore wing veins $M$ and cu-a far apart at their junction with vein $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ (Fig. 116). Antenna with 7 flagellomeres. Pedicel about as long as wide or 1.5 times as long as wide

2(1) Anal crossvein of fore wing dividing anal cell near middle (Fig. 116). Medial length of mesoscutellar appendage about $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Membranous surface between terga 1 and 2 large: tergum 1 narrow near middle (Fig. 118)
........................................ Adelestini: Adelesta Ross (p. 94)
Anal crossvein of fore wing dividing anal cell about onethird before apex (Fig. 120) or crossvein absent (Fig. 119). Medial length of mesoscutellar appendage 80-250 $\mu \mathrm{m}$. Membranous surface between terga 1 and 2 narrow: tergum 1 wide near middle (Fig. 117)

3(2) Mesepisternum with inverted V-shaped furrow near dorsal angle (Fig. 124). Vein $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of hind wing joined to vein R Selandriini: Brachythops Haliday (p. 93)
Mesepisternum without furrow except, when developed, for epicnemial furrow (Fig. 125). Vein $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of hind wing joined to vein Rs (Fig. 126) 4

4(3) Lateral lobe of mesoscutum pitted. Vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of fore wing lacking (developed in some specimens of Dolerus s. str.) (Fig. 120). Furrow between metepimeron and metepisternum clearly outlined, and metepimeron as high as metepisternum in lateral view (Fig. 121). Crossvein of anal cell of fore wing oblique (Fig. 120)

Dolerini: Dolerus Panzer (p. 95) 5
Lateral lobe of mesoscutum not pitted. Vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of fore wing developed (Fig. 119). Metepimeron hardly outlined (Fig. 122) or quite clearly outlined and 1.5 times as high as metepisternum in lateral view (Fig. 123). Crossvein of fore wing, if developed, almost perpendicular (Fig. 104) 12

5(4) Eye with inner margin concave (Fig. 127). White pigment developed on tegula and on all or part of labrum in specimens with orange terga. (Setae of cercus less than $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in length)
Eye with inner margin straight (Fig. 128). White pigment not developed on any part of body


Figs. 121-123. Lateral view of metapleuron. 121, Dolerus neocollaris MacGillivray; 122, Aneugmenus flavipes (Norton); 123, Strongylogaster rufigastra (Kincaid).
Figs. 124, 125. Mesepisternum, lateral view. 124, Brachythops wuestneii (Konow); 125, Hemitaxonus dubitatus (Norton).
Fig. 126. Hind wing of Nesoselandria morio (Fabricius).



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Figs. 127, 128. Frontal view of head. 127, Dolerus tibialis Cresson; 128, D. apricus (Norton).
Figs. 129-131. Clypeus. 129, D. apricus; 130, D. yukonensis Norton; 131, D. rufilobus Ross.
Figs. 132, 133. Last abdominal sternum of male. 132, D. unicolor (Beauvois); 133, D. tibialis.

6(5) Pits mainly round and deep, clearly outlined on mesepisternum. Clypeal emargination as deep as clypeal midline length (Fig. 129). Length of valvula 3: 700-800 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ Subgenus Dicrodolerus Goulet (p. 97) Pits mainly polygonal and shallow, outlined on mesepisternum or weakly so. Clypeal emargination as deep as $0.3-0.8$ of clypeal midline length (Figs. 130, 131). Length of valvula 3 less than $600 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ or more than $900 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

7(6) Clypeal emargination as deep as $0.6-0.8$ of clypeal midline length (Fig. 130). Ventral part of metepisternum not pitted and without setae. Mesoscutellar appendage smooth
$\qquad$ Subgenus Loderus Konow (p. 97)
Clypeal emargination as deep as $0.3-0.4$ of clypeal midline length (Fig. 131). Ventral part of metepisternum pitted and with many setae. Mesoscutellar appendage clearly sculptured ........... Subgenus Oncodolerus Goulet (p. 96)

8(5) Postocellar area $0.7-1.0$ as long as wide. Longest setae of valvula 3 black. Sternum 9 in male $1.25-1.5$ as long as wide (Fig. 132). Tergum 8 in male without setae along middle. (Clypeal emargination as deep as clypeal medial length.)

Subgenus Dosytheus Leach (p. 98)
Postocellar area less than 0.7 as long as wide. Longest setae of valvula 3 straw-colored or brown. Sternum 9 in male about as long as wide (Fig. 133) or 1.25-1.5 times longer than wide. Tergum 8 with setae anteriorly at middle 9

9(8) Outer surface of metatibia with wide furrow: tibia almost square in cross section (Fig. 137). Posterior angle of median lobe with large and triangular depression (Fig. 134). Tergum 8 in male markedly raised near posterior margin at middle (Fig. 136). (Sternum 9 in male 1.25-1.5 times as long as wide. Body black.)

Subgenus Neodolerus Goulet (p.96)
Outer surface of metatibia without furrow: tibia round in cross section or with outer furrow and body having orange surfaces. Posterior angle of median lobe with narrow depression (Fig. 135). Tergum 8 in male slightly raised near posterior margin at middle

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Figs. 134, 135. Median lobes of mesoscutum (anterior and lateral view). 134, Dolerus sericeus Say; 135, D. tibialis Cresson.
Fig. 136. Last abdominal tergum of male of $D$. sericeus (anterior and lateral view).
Fig. 137. Outer surface of metatibia of $D$. apriloides MacGillivray.


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141


144
145
Figs. 138-141. Lateral view of valvula 3. 138, Dolerus similis (Norton); 139, D. elderi Kincaid; 140, D. eurybis Ross; 141, D. sayi Goulet.
Figs. 142-145. Valvula 3 (posterior and lateral view). 142, D. incisus Goulet; 143, D. decussatus Goulet; 144, D. eurybis; 145, D. nortoni Ross.

10(9) Female: valvula 3 in lateral view with dorsal margin 1000 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ or more in length; setae of cercus, even in large specimens ( $9-13 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), less than $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in length. Male: tergum 8 with setae on almost all of medial part; sternum 9, 1.25-1.5 times as long as wide (Fig. 132). (Pits 60-80 microns in diameter on mesepisternum.)

Dolerus: nitens group (p. 95)
Female: valvula 3 in lateral view with dorsal margin 1000 $\mu \mathrm{m}$ or less; setae of cercus $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ long or longer in small specimens ( $5-6 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), or longer than $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in large specimens ( $8-13 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). Male: tergum 8 without setae along middle; sternum 9 as long as wide (Fig. 133) 11

11(10) Female: ventral margin of valvula 3 in lateral view weakly angular in basal half (Figs. 138, 139); valvula 3 in posterior view not flattened on posterior margin (Fig. 142). Metapleuron black. Male: metapleuron black and pits of mesepisternum $100-150 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter
................................... Subgenus Dolerus Panzer (p. 97)

Female: ventral margin of valvula 3 in lateral view curved or weakly angular in posterior half (Figs. 140, 141); valvula 3 in posterior view flattened on posterior margin (Figs. 143, 144) or convex (Fig. 145). Metapleuron orange. Male: metapleuron orange if pits about $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter; otherwise, pits of mesepisternum $60-80 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

Subgenus Achaetoprion Goulet (p. 96)
12(4) Median lobe of mesoscutum three times longer than wide or less than 2.5 times longer than wide and mesepisternum pitted. Metepimeron pubescent at least on ventral part of disc Strongylogastrini 13
Median lobe of mesoscutum 2.0-2.5 times longer than wide. Mesepisternum not pitted. Metepimeron not pubescent on disc ................................. Aneugmenini ..... 14
13(12) Median lobe of mesoscutum without setae. Mesepisternum with scattered ( $50-150 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ apart) setae on disc. Anal cell of fore wing with crossvein (Figs. 104, 120)

Hemitaxonus Ashmead (p. 91)
Median lobe of mesoscutum with setae at least near anterolateral margin. Mesepisternum with setae dense (about $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ apart) on disc. Anal cell of fore wing with or without crossvein (Fig. 119)

Strongylogaster Dahlbom (p. 91)
14(12) Mesoscutellum pitted. Head in lateral view with occipital ridge at least near mandible (Fig. 147). Anal cell of hind wing without vein at apex (Fig. 148) Aneugmenus Hartig (p. 92)
Mesoscutellum not pitted. Head in lateral view without occipital ridge (Fig. 146). Anal cell of hind wing with clearly developed vein at apex (Fig. 126)


Figs. 146, 147. Lateral view of head. 146, Birka nordica Smith; 147, Aneugmenus flavipes (Norton).
Fig. 148. Hind wing of A. flavipes.

15(14) Flagellomere 1, 1.5 times as long as 2. Claw with long and slender preapical tooth. Minimum malar space about 0.2 of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 147)
........................................ Nesoselandria Rohwer (p. 93)
Flagellomere 1 about as long as 2 . Claw with short and stout preapical tooth. Minimum malar space $0.4-0.5$ of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 146)

Birka Malaise (p. 92)

## Clé des tribus, des genres et des sous-genres de Selandriinae

1 Stigma de l'aile antérieure aussi large que la longueur de la nervure 2 r , et nervure 2 r prenant naissance loin de l'apex du stigma (fig.115). Nervures M et cu-a de l'aile antérieure se touchant à leur jonction avec la nervure $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ (fig.115). Antenne de 5 ou 6 articles. Pédicelle de l'antenne à peu près deux fois plus long que large

Heptamelini : Heptamelus Haliday (p. 94)
Stigma de l'aile antérieure nettement plus étroit que la longueur de la nervure 2 r , et nervure 2 r prenant naissance près de l'apex du stigma (fig.116). Nervures M et cu-a de l'aile antérieure très éloignées à leur jonction avec la nervure $\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ (fig.116). Antenne de 7 articles. Pédicelle à peu près aussi long que large ou 1,5 fois plus long que large 2

2(1) Nervure transversale de l'aile antérieure divisant la cellule anale près du centre (fig.116). Longueur médiane de l'appendice mésoscutellaire : environ $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 , grande : tergum 1 étroit près du centre (fig. 118)

Adelestini : Adelesta Ross (p. 94)
Nervure transversale de l'aile antérieure divisant la cellule anale à environ un tiers de la distance à partir de l'apex (fig. 120) ou absente (fig. 119). Longueur médiane de l'appendice mésoscutellaire : 80 à $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 , étroite : tergum 1 large près du centre (fig. 117)3

3(2) Mésépisternum pourvu d'un sillon en forme de V inversé près de l'angle dorsal (fig.124). Nervure $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ de l'aile postérieure reliée à la nervure $R$

Selandriini : Brachythops Haliday (p. 93)

Mésépisternum sans sillon, à l'exception du sillon épicnémial, lorsqu'il est présent (fig.125). Nervure $1 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ de l'aile postérieure reliée à la nervure Rs (fig.126) 4

4(3) Lobe latéral du mésoscutum ponctué. Nervure 2 r -m de l'aile antérieure absente (présente chez certains spécimens de Dolerus s.str.) (fig.120). Sillon entre le métépimère et le métépisternum nettement défini et métépimère aussi haut que le métépisternum en vue latérale (fig.121). Nervure transversale de la cellule anale de l'aile antérieure oblique (fig.120)

Dolerini : Dolerus Panzer (p. 95)
5
Lobe latéral du mésoscutum non ponctué. Nervure 2 r -m de l'aile antérieure présente (fig.119). Métépimère à peine défini (fig. 122) ou assez clairement défini et 1,5 fois plus haut que le métépisternum en vue latérale (fig.123). Nervure transversale de l'aile antérieure, si présente, presque perpendiculaire (fig.104)
5(4) Oeil à bord interne concave (fig.127). Présence de pigments blancs sur la tégula et sur tout ou sur une partie du labre chez les spécimens à terga orange. (Soies du cerque mesurant moins de $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ de long) 6
Oeil à bord interne rectiligne (fig.128). Absence de pigments blancs sur toute la surface du corps 8

6(5) Fosses surtout arrondies et profondes, nettement définies sur le mésépisternum. Échancrure clypéale aussi profonde que la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig.129). Longueur de la valvule 3 : 700 à $800 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

Sous-genre Dicrodolerus Goulet (p. 97)
Fosses surtout polygonales et peu profondes, définies ou faiblement définies sur le mésépisternum. Échancrure clypéale aussi profonde que 0,3 à 0,8 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 130, 131). Longueur de la valvule 3 inférieure à $600 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ou supérieure à $900 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ 7
7(6) Échancrure clypéale aussi profonde que 0,6 à 0,8 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig.130). Partie ventrale du métépisternum non ponctuée et non pourvue de soies. Appendice mésoscutellaire lisse
................................. Sous-genre Loderus Konow (p. 97)
Échancrure clypéale aussi profonde que 0,3 à 0,4 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 131). Partie ventrale du métépisternum ponctuée et pourvue de nombreuses soies. Appendice mésoscutellaire nettement sculpté

Sous-genre Oncodolerus Goulet (p. 96)

8(5) Région postocellaire 0,7 à 1,0 fois plus longue que large. Soie la plus longue de la valvule 3, noire. Sternum 9 du mâle 1,25 à 1,5 fois plus long que large (fig. 132). Tergum 8 du mâle sans soies le long de la ligne médiane. (Échancrure clypéale aussi profonde que la longueur médiane du clypéus)

Sous-genre Dosytheus Leach (p. 98)
Région postocellaire moins de 0,7 fois aussi longue que large. Soie la plus longue de la valvule 3 brune ou de couleur paille. Sternum 9 du mâle à peu près aussi long que large (fig. 133) ou 1,25 à 1,5 fois plus long que large. Tergum 8 pourvu de soies dans la partie antérieure, au milieu

9(8) Surface externe du métatibia pourvue d'un large sillon : tibia presque carré en section transversale (fig. 137). Angle postérieur du lobe médian présentant une grande dépression triangulaire (fig. 134). Tergum 8 du mâle nettement surélevé près du bord postérieur dans la région médiane (fig. 136). (Sternum 9 du mâle 1,25 à 1,5 fois plus long que large. Corps noir)

Sous-genre Neodolerus Goulet (p. 96)
Surface externe du métatibia non pourvue d'un sillon : tibia arrondi en section transversale ou pourvu d'un sillon sur la face externe et corps présentant des surfaces orange. Angle postérieur du lobe médian présentant une dépression étroite (fig.135). Tergum 8 du mâle légèrement surélevé près du bord postérieur dans la réion médiane 10

10(9) Femelle : en vue latérale, bord dorsal de la valvule 3 d'une longueur égale ou supérieure à $1000 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; soies du cerque, même chez les grands spécimens ( 9 à 13 mm ), d'une longueur inférieure à $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Mâle : tergum 8 pourvu de soies sur presque toute sa partie médiane; sternum 9 de 1,25 à 1,5 fois plus long que large (fig. 132). (Fosses de 60 à 80 microns de diamètre sur le mésépisternum.)

Dolerus : groupe nitens (p.95)
Femelle : en vue latérale, bord dorsal de la valvule 3 d'une longueur égale ou inférieure à $1000 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; soies du cerque d'une longueur de $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ou plus chez les petits spécimens ( 5 à 6 mm ), ou de plus de $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ chez les grands spécimens ( 8 à 13 mm ). Mâle : tergum 8 sans soies le long de la ligne médiane; sternum 9 aussi long que large (fig. 133) 11

11(10) Femelle : en vue latérale, bord ventral de la valvule 3 faiblement angulaire dans la moitié basale (fig. 138, 139); en vue postérieure, valvule 3 non aplatie sur le bord postérieur (fig. 142). Métapleure noir. Mâle : métapleure noir et fosses du mésépisternum d'un diamètre de 100 à $150 \mu \mathrm{~m}$...................... Sous-genre Dolerus Panzer (p. 97) Femelle : en vue latérale, bord ventral de la valvule 3 courbé ou faiblement angulaire dans la moitié postérieure (fig. 140, 141); en vue postérieure, valvule 3 aplatie sur le bord postérieur (fig. 143, 144) ou convexe (fig. 145). Métapleure orange. Mâle : métapleure orange si les fosses mesurent environ $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ de diamètre; autrement, fosses du mésépisternum mesurant 60 à $80 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ de diamètre

Sous-genre Achaetoprion Goulet (p. 96)
12(4) Lobe médian du mésoscutum trois fois plus long que large ou moins de 2,5 fois plus long que large et mésépisternum ponctué. Métépimère pubescent au moins sur la partie ventrale du disque ......................... Strongylogastrini ..... 13
Lobe médian du mésoscutum 2,0 à 2,5 fois plus long que large. Mésépisternum non ponctué. Métépimère non pubescent sur le disque

Aneugmenini ..... 14
13(12) Lobe médian du mésoscutum dépourvu de soies. Disque du mésépisternum pourvu de soies dispersées (de 50 à $150 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ d'écart). Cellule anale de l'aile antérieure avec nervure transversale (fig. 104, 120)

Hemitaxonus Ashmead (p. 91)
Lobe médian du mésoscutum pourvu de soies au moins près du bord antérolatéral. Disque du mésépisternum pourvu de soies denses (environ $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ d'écart). Cellule anale de l'aile antérieure avec ou sans nervure transversale (fig. 119)

Strongylogaster Dahlbom (p. 91)
14(12) Mésoscutellum ponctué. En vue latérale, tête présentant une carène occipitale au moins près de la mandibule (fig. 147). Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure sans nervure à l'apex (fig. 148)

Aneugmenus Hartig (p. 92)
Mésoscutellum non ponctué. En vue latérale, tête sans carène occipitale (fig. 146). Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure avec une nervure transversale nettement visible à l'apex (fig. 126)

15(14) Article 1 du flagelle 1,5 fois la longueur de l'article 2. Griffe à dent préapicale longue et mince. Surface malaire minimale environ 0,2 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 147) ......... Nesoselandria Rohwer (p. 93)

Article 1 du flagelle à peu près aussi long que l'article 2. Griffe pourvue d'une dent préapicale courte et forte. Surface malaire minimale 0,4 à 0,5 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 146) Birka Malaise (p. 92)

## Tribe Strongylogastrini

Diagnosis. Adults of Strongylogastrini are distinguished from those of other tribe by the narrow median lobe of the mesoscutum and by the metepimeron, which is partly hairless.

Diversity. The tribe's range extends throughout Eurasia and North America. In North America three genera are known (Smith 1969a). In Canada two genera are recorded.

## Genus Hemitaxonus Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Hemitaxonus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of both setae and pits on the median lobe of the mesoscutum.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 10 species found in Eurasia (most diverse in eastern Asia) and North America (Smith 1969a). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1969a).

Host. Larvae feed on ferns: Athyrium, Onoclea, and Matteuccia (Smith 1969a; H. Goulet, unpublished observation).

Comments. Smith (1969a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Strongylogaster Dahlbom

Diagnosis. Adults of Strongylogaster are distinguished from those of Hemitaxonus by the presence of setae at least near the anterolateral margin of the median lobe of the mesoscutum.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 30 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969a). In North America 11 species are known (Smith 1969a). In Canada 10 species are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on ferns: Dryopteris, Thelypteris, Gymnocarpium, Woodsia, Pteridium, Woodwardia, and Osmunda (Benson 1952; Smith 1969a; H. Goulet, unpublished observation)

Comments. Smith (1969a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Aneugmenini

Diagnosis. Adults of Aneugmenini are distinguished from those of other tribes by the absence of the following: setae on the metepimeron, pits on the mesepimeron and mesoscutellum, an inverted V-shaped furrow on the mesepisternum, and a crossvein in the anal cell of the fore wing.

Diversity. The tribe is recorded in Eurasia, and North and South America (Smith 1969a). In North America five genera are known (Smith 1969a). In Canada three genera are reported.

## Genus Aneugmenus Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Aneugmenus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the pitted mesoscutellum.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 12 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969a). In North America three species are known (Smith 1969a). In Canada two species are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on ferns of the genus Pteridium and Thelypteris (Smith 1969a; H. Goulet, unpublished observation).

Comments. Smith (1969a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Birka Malaise

Diagnosis. Adults of Birka are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of an occipital ridge along the posterior margin of the head in lateral view, by the black abdomen, and by the moderately wide malar space.

Diversity. The genus consists of about five species found mainly in Eurasia (Smith 1969a). In North America, including Canada, one species, B. nordica Smith, is known (Smith 1969a).

Host. Larvae of European species of the genus feed on sedges and grasses (Benson 1952).

Comments. Smith (1969a) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Nesoselandria Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adults of Nesoselandria are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of an occipital ridge along the posterior margin of the head in lateral view, by the black abdomen, and by the very short malar space.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 12 species found in North America and Eurasia (Smith 1969a) and is most diverse in eastern Asia (Smith 1969a). In North America, including Canada, one species, $N$. morio (Fabricius), is known (Smith 1969a).

Host. T. Naito (personal communication) found larvae feeding on mosses. V. Vickberg (personal communication) confirmed this observation.

Comments. Smith (1969a) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Tribe Selandriini

Diversity. Selandriini consists of two genera found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969a). In North America, including Canada, one genus is known (Smith 1969a).

## Genus Brachythops Haliday

Diagnosis. Adults of Brachythops are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the inverted V. shaped furrow near the dorsal angle of the mesepisternum.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species, both found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969a).

Host. Larvae feed on sedges (Smith 1969a).
Comments. Smith (1969a) revised the species of the genus.

## Tribe Adelestini

Diversity. Adelestini consists of one genus, Adelesta, found in eastern North America (Smith 1969a).

## Genus Adelesta Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Adelesta are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the presence of 7 flagellomeres and by the anal crossvein in the fore wing near the middle of the cell.

Diversity. The genus consists of one species, A. nova (Norton) (Smith 1969a).

Comments. Smith (1969a) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Tribe Heptamelini

Diversity. Heptamelini consists of one genus (Smith 1969a).

## Genus Heptamelus Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Heptamelus are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by veins $M$ and cu-a of the fore wing, which are joined at their origin, and by the flagellum which has 5 or 6 flagellomeres.

Diversity. The genus consists of five or six species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969). In North America, including Canada, one introduced species, H. ochroleucus (Stephens), is known (Smith 1969a).

Host. Larvae bore in stems of ferns: Athyrium, Blechnum, and Polypodium (Benson 1952).

Comments. Smith (1969a) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Dolerini

Diagnosis. Adults of Dolerini are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the absence of vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ in the fore wing and by presence of the punctate lateral lobe of the mesoscutum and the punctate dorsal surface of the head.

Diversity. The tribe consists of two genera and over 180 species (Benson 1952; Goulet 1986). The range of most species extends over temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America, but one species is known from high mountains of eastern Africa (Benson 1952). In North America two genera and 73 species are known (Goulet 1986). In Canada one genus and 51 species are recorded, but 60 species are expected.

## Genus Dolerus Panzer

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Dolerus are distinguished from those of Prionourgus Goulet (a genus not recorded from Canada) by the minimal malar space, which is more than one-third of the diameter of the antennal socket, and by the apical margin of the clypeus, which is clearly concave.

Diversity. Except for P. salmani (Ross) all other Dolerini belong to the genus Dolerus (see Dolerini).

Comments. Goulet (1986) revised the North American species of the tribe.

Dolerus nitens group
Diagnosis. Adults of the Dolerus nitens group are distinguished from those of other subgenera of Dolerus by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The group consists of over 30 species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). The group is most diverse in Eurasia (Goulet 1986). In North America, including Canada, nine species are recorded (Goulet 1986).

Host. Larvae of many European species are known to feed on species of various genera of grasses (Benson 1952).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Neodolerus Goulet

Diagnosis. Adults of Neodolerus are distinguished from those of other subgenera of Dolerus by the deep furrow on the outer surface of the hind tibia and by the large flat surface on the posterior third of the median lobe of the mesoscutum.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of 11 species restricted to North America (Goulet 1986). In Canada eight species are recorded.

Host. Larvae of one species, D. sericeus Say, feed on wheat (D.R. Smith, personal communication).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Achaetoprion Goulet

Diagnosis. Adults of Achaetoprion are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 36 species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). The genus is most diverse in North America, where 32 species are known (Goulet 1986). In Canada 17 species are known, but 22 are expected.

Host. Larvae of European species feed on Juncus (Benson 1952).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Oncodolerus Goulet

Diagnosis. Adults of Oncodolerus are distinguished from those of other subgenera of Dolerus by the long eyes with the inner margin clearly concave, by a hook-like process at the apex of valvula 3 in lateral view in the female, and by a membranous zone at the midline part of terga 5 and 6 in the male.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of at least three species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). In North America, including Canada, the subgenus consists of only one species, $D$. acidus (MacGillivray) (Goulet 1986).

Host. Larvae feed on horsetails (Benson 1952; L. Leblanc, personal communication).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Loderus Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Loderus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the long eyes with the inner margin clearly concave, by the pits of the mesepisternum, which are hardly outlined, and by the smooth and hairless ventral part of the mesepisternum.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of two species found across Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). In North America, including Canada, one species, D. gilvipes albifrons (Norton), is recorded (Goulet 1986).

Host. Larvae feed on horsetails (Benson 1952; L. Leblanc, personal communication).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Dicrodolerus Goulet

Diagnosis. Adults of Dicrodolerus are distinguished from those of other subgenera of Dolerus by the long eyes with the inner margin clearly concave and by the deeply pitted mesepisternum.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of at least five species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). In North America, inluding Canada, two species are known (Goulet 1986).

Host. Larvae feed on horsetails (Benson 1952; L. Leblanc, personal communication).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Dolerus Panzer

Diagnosis. Adults of the subgenus Dolerus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of more than 30 species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). In North America 12 species are known (Goulet 1986). In Canada 10 species are known.

Host. Larvae feed on horsetails (Benson 1952; L. Leblanc, personal communication).

Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subgenus Dosytheus Leach

Diagnosis. Adults of Dosytheus are distinguished from those of other subgenera by the straight inner margin of the eyes, by the black setae at the apex of valvula 3 in females, and by the long postocellar area and sternum 9 in males.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of at least five species found in Eurasia and North America (Goulet 1986). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Goulet 1986).

Host. Larvae feed on horsetails (Benson 1952).
Comments. See genus Dolerus.

## Subfamily Susaninae

Diagnosis. Adults of Susaninae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the convergent fore wing veins M and $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$, by the incompletely outlined fore wing veins 2A and 3A, by the marked distance between junctions of vein Sc with veins M and Rs +M , and by the absence of an epicnemial furrow.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of one genus, Susana, found in North America (Smith 1969b).

## Genus Susana Rohwer and Middleton

Diversity. Susana consists of seven species restricted to western North America (Smith 1969b; Wong and Milliron 1972). In Canada one species is known, but two are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on cypresses and junipers (Smith 1969b; Wong and Milliron 1972).

Comments. Smith (1969b) revised the genus, and Wong and Milliron (1972) described an additional species.

## Subfamily Nematinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Nematinae with the clearly convergent fore wing veins M and $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ are distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of over 35 genera (Benson 1958), which are almost entirely restricted to Eurasia and North America, except for very few species from Borneo and South America (Wong and Benson 1965).

Key to tribes, genera, and subgenera of Nematinae

1 Length of fore wing shorter than that of abdomen Nematini (few taxa) ..... 25
Length of fore wing longer than that of abd.......................................................................... 2
2(1) Vein 2 m -cu of fore wing joined to cell 2Rs (Fig. 149) 3

Vein 2 m -cu of fore wing joined to cell 1Rs (Fig. 151) or joined to cell 2 Rs very close to vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ (a few aberrant specimens)

7
3(2) Length of vein $R$ in the fore wing between junctions with veins M and Rs +M long (Fig. 151). Combined length of scape and pedicel 0.7 times as long as or longer than flagellomere 1 (Fig. 157). Male and female flagellum similar: thread-like, with short pubescence (Fig. 157)

Nematini (part) 4

Length of vein $R$ in the fore wing between junctions with veins M and $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ short (Fig. 150). Combined length of scape and pedicel 0.5 times as long as or shorter than flagellomere 1 (Figs. 154-156). Male and female flagellum dissimilar: seta-like, with short pubescence in female (Fig. 156), and seta-, saw- or comb-like, with long pubescence in male

Cladiini
5


Figs. 149-151. Fore wing. 149, Hoplocampa halcyon (Norton); 150, Trichiocampus viminalis (Fallén); 151, Pristiphora erichsonii (Hartig).
Figs. 152, 153. Frontal view of head. 152, Trichiocampus simplicicornis (Norton); 153, Priophorus morio (Lepeletier).


Figs. 154-157. Antenna. 154, male of Cladius difformis (Panzer); 155, male of Priophorus morio (Lepeletier); 156, female of Priophorus pallipes (Lepeletier); 157, female of Hoplocampa halcyon (Norton).
Figs. 158, 159. Ventral view of metatarsus. 158, Trichiocampus simplicicornis (Norton); 159, P. morio.
Figs. 160-162. Tarsal claw. 160, Neopareophora litura (Klug); 161, Hoplocampa testudinea (Klug); 162, Caulocampus matthewsi Smith.
Figs. 163, 164. Cercus and valvula 3. 163, P. morio; 164, Cladius difformis.

4(3) Vein 2 r of fore wing absent (Fig. 150). Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 small: tergum 1 wide near midline. Postocellar furrow pit-like and small. Inner tooth of claw long and slender (Fig. 162)

Caulocampus Rohwer (p. 121)
Vein 2 r of fore wing developed (Fig. 149). Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 large: tergum 1 narrow near middle. Postocellar furrow linear, though short. Inner tooth of claw absent, small, or long and stout (Figs. 160, 161)

Hoplocampa Hartig (p. 121)
5(3) Pulvillus of tarsomeres 1-4 as wide as base of tarsomere (best seen on tarsomere 4) (Fig. 158). Metatarsomere 1 as long as metatarsomeres 2 and 3 combined (Fig. 158). Clypeus long: medial length longer than shortest distance between antennal socket and clypeus (Fig. 152) .... Trichiocampus Hartig (p. 120)
Pulvillus of tarsomeres $1-4$ clearly narrower than base of tarsomere (Fig. 159). Metatarsomere 1 as long as or longer than that of 2-4 (Fig. 159). Clypeus short: medial length as short as or shorter than shortest distance between antennal socket and clypeus (Fig. 153) 6
6(5) Flagellomere 1 in female three times or less as long as wide and concave along ventral margin. Cercus in female as long as length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 163). Flagellomeres 1-3 in male extended at dorsoanterior angle into comb-like structure (Fig. 154)

Cladius Illiger (p. 120)
Flagellomere 1 in female four times (or more) as long as wide and straight along ventral margin. Cercus in female 0.5 as long as length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 164). Flagellomeres 1-3 in male not extended at dorsoanterior angle into comb-like structure (Fig. 155)

Priophorus Dahlbom (p. 120)
7(2) Vein 2A of hind wing incompletely developed, thus cell open (Fig. 165). (Body $4-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ in length)

Pseudodineurini ..... 8
Vein 2 A of hind wing completely developed, thus cell closed
(Fig. 166) ........................................................................ 9
8(7) Postocular surface in lateral view pitted, sculptured, and dull. Minimum malar space one-third, or less, diameter of antennal socket

Pseudodineura Konow (p. 132)


Figs. 165, 166. Hind wing. 165, Anoplonyx laricivorus (Rohwer \& Middleton); 166, Pseudodineura parva (Norton).
Figs. 167-169. Ventral view of head: (a), complete view (b), right mandible (c), left mandible. 167, Nematus sp.; 168, Amauronematus sp.; 169, Hemichroa_crocea (Geoffroy).
Figs. 170-172. Tarsal claw. 170, Hoplocampa testudinea (Klug); 171, Nematus sp.; 172, Euura sp.

Postocular surface in lateral view not pitted but smooth and bright. Minimum malar space half, or less, diameter of antennal socket

Kerita Ross (p. 132)
9(7) Outer surface of mandibles similar: both tapered regularly to apex (Fig. 169) Nematini (part) ..... 10


Figs. 173, 174. Metapleuron. 173, Anoplonyx laricivorus (Rohwer \& Middleton); 174, Nematus sp.
Fig. 175. Fore wing of Nematus ribesii (Scopoli).
Figs. 176-178. Cercus and valvula 3, lateral view. 176, Euura (Euura) sp.; 177, Pontania sp.; 178, Euura (Gemmura) sp.
Figs. 179, 180. Ventral view of head. 179, Pontania sp.; 180, Euura sp.

Outer surface of mandibles dissimilar: left mandible markedly constricted near middle (Figs. 167, 168)
...................................................................................... ..... 19
10(9) Base of vein 2A and 3A of fore wing atrophied and straight (Fig. 151), and inner tooth of claw long and slender (Figs. 171, 172). Metepimero-episternal suture close to membranous surface for half its length (Fig. 174) ..... 11

Base of vein 2A and 3A of fore wing complete and curved up to 1A (Fig. 150) or incomplete and inner tooth of claw short and stout (Fig. 170). Metepimero-episternal suture distant from membranous surface (Fig. 173) 14
11(10) Outer surface of mandibles 1.5 times wider than long (Fig. 180 ). Cell 1 Rs and 2 Rs in fore wing fused because vein 2 r - m missing. Cercus in female about six times longer than wide and usually longer than length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Figs. 176, 177)

Euura Newman ..... 12

Outer surface of mandibles about twice as wide as long (Fig. 179). Cell 1 Rs and 2 Rs of fore wing usually divided by vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ (Fig. 175). Cercus in female three to five times longer than wide and as long as or shorter than length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 178) ..................... Pontania (Eupontania) Zinovjev (p. 129)
12(11) Male

Euиra (Euura) Newman or Euura (Gemmura) Smith (p. 130)
Female ..... 13
13(12) Valvula 3 short: height subequal to length in lateral view(Fig. 176). Cercus usually as long as the length of dorsalmargin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 176)Euura (Gemmura) Smith (p. 130)

Valvula 3 long: height shorter than length in lateral view (Fig. 177). Cercus shorter than length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 177)

Euura (Euura) Newman (p. 130)
14(10) Clypeus widely and deeply emarginate (Fig. 181b). Minimum malar space one-quarter of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 181a). Anterior half of mesepimeron partly or completely covered with setae

Craterocercus Rohwer (p. 123)

186


$182 b$

$183 b$


Figs. 181-183. Lateral view of head (a), clypeus (b). 181, Craterocerus obtusus (Klug); 182, Fallocampus albostigmus (Rohwer); 183, Hemichroa militaris (Cresson).
Figs. 184, 185. Sternum 9 of male. 184, Anoplonyx laricivorus (Rohwer \& Middleton); 185, Nematinus ochreatus (Rohwer).
Figs. 186, 187. Tarsal claw. 186, H. crocea (Geoffroy); 187 Neopareophora litura (Klug).

Clypeus shallowly (Fig. 182b) or deeply and narrowly emarginate (Fig. 183b). Minimum malar space more than half of diameter of antennal socket (Figs. 182a, 183a). Anterior half of mesepimeron without setae 15

15(14) Tarsal claw without inner tooth (Fig. 187). Clypeus three times wider than long. Cercus in female two to four times longer than wide. Last sternum in male evenly convex on posterior margin (Fig. 184)

Anoplonyx Marlatt (p. 124)
Tarsal claw with well-developed inner tooth (Fig. 186). Clypeus twice as wide as long. Cercus in female 3-20 times longer than wide. Last sternum in male slightly concave on posterior margin at middle (Fig. 185)

16(15) Pulvillus long: distance between pulvilli of metarsomeres 1 and 2 subequal to their length (Fig. 191). Flagellomere 1 longer than 3 $\qquad$ Fallocampus Wong (p. 123)

Pulvillus short: distance between pulvilli of metatar
someres 1 and 2 about twice their length (Fig. 190).
Flagellomere 1 about as long as 3 ..... 17


Figs. 188, 189. Cerci and valvulae 3, dorsal view. 188, Nematinus ochreatus (Rohwer); 189, Hemichroa militaris (Cresson).
Figs 190, 191. Lateral view of metatarsus. 190, H. militaris; 191, Fallocampus albostigmus (Rohwer).
Figs. 192-194. Spurs of protibia. 192, N. ochreatus; 193, H. militaris; 194, H. (Hemichroa) crocea (Geoffroy).
Figs. 195, 196. Lateral view of head. 195, N. ochreatus; 196, H. crocea.

17(16) Female: cercus about 10 times longer than wide (Fig. 188); valvula 3 in dorsal view very wide at base: about twice as wide as greatest width of metatibia (Fig. 188). Male: vein 2 A and 3A of fore wing incomplete and straight (Fig. 151); largest spur at apex of protibia with blade-like inner tooth (Fig. 192) and minimum malar space about 0.6 of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 195)

Nematinus Rohwer (p. 125)
Female: cercus 3-6 times longer than wide (Fig. 189); valvula 3 in dorsal view narrow at base: about 0.7 of greatest width of metatibia (Fig. 189). Male: vein 2A and 3A complete (Fig. 150), incomplete and curved upward, or incomplete and straight; largest spur at apex of protibia without blade-like inner tooth (Fig. 193), or, if present, (Fig. 194) then minimum malar space less than 0.4 times of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 196)

Hemichroa Stephens ..... 18


Fig. 197. Mesonotum of Nematus erythrogaster Norton.
Figs. 198-200. Hind wing. 198, Pseudodineura parva (Norton); 199, Anoplonyx laricivorus (Rohwer and Middleton); 200, Adelomos cleone Ross (modified from Ross 1937).

Figs. 201, 202. Mesoscutellar appendage. 201, N. latifasciatus (Cresson); 202, Pristola macnabi Ross.

18(17) Largest spur at apex of protibia with blade-like inner tooth (Fig. 194..... Hemichroa (Hemichroa) Stephens (p. 122)
Largest spur at apex of protibia without bladelike inner tooth (Fig. 193) ............ Hemichroa (Varna) Ross (p. 122)
19(9) Notauli hardly outlined in anterior half. Posterior margin of mesoscutellar appendage touching membrane between it and postnotum of mesothorax (Fig. 202). Tarsal claw without inner tooth

Pristolini
20
Notauli sharply outlined at least in anterior half (Fig. 197). Posterior margin of mesoscutellar appendage clearly above membrane between it and postnotum of mesothorax (Fig. 201). Tarsal claw with or without (few species of Pristiphora and Neopareophora liturata) inner tooth Nematini (part) ..... 21
20(19) Vein 2A of hind wing incomplete (Fig. 198) or complete and anal cell longer than vein at apex of anal cell (Fig. 200) Pristola Ross (p. 133)
Vein 2A of hind wing complete and anal cell at most as long as vein at apex of anal cell (Fig. 199)

Melastola Wong (p. 133)
21(19) Vein 2 r of fore wing developed (Fig. 149) ......................... 22
Vein $2 r$ of fore wing absent ................................................ 23
22(21) Tarsal claw without inner tooth (Fig. 160). Vein $r$ of hind wing absent

Neopareophora MacGillivray (p. 124)


Figs. 203-205. Metatibia and metatarsus, lateral view. 203, Nematus erythrogaster Norton; 204, N. abbotii Kirby; 205, Croesus latitarsus Norton.
Figs. 206, 207. Lateral view of head (a), right maxillary palp (b), 206, Amauronematus fallax (Lepeletier); 207, Nematus sp.

Tarsal claw with large inner tooth (Fig. 162). Vein r of hind wing developed or absent (Fig. 200)
...................................................... Adelomos Ross (p. 124)
23(21) Metatibia and metatarsomeres (especially first one) markedly flattened and deeply grooved laterally (Figs. 204, 205) 24
Metatibia and metatarsomeres slightly or not flattened and slightly or not grooved laterally (Fig. 203)

24(23) Apex of metatibia and metatarsomere 1 extremely flattened (Fig. 205). Metatarsomere 1 longer than combined length of remaining tarsomeres (Fig. 205)

Croesus Leach (p. 127)
Apex of metatibia and metatarsomere 1 much less flattened than above (Fig. 204). Metatarsomere 1 as long as combined tarsomeres 2, 3, and 4 (Fig. 204)

Nematus Panzer (few taxa; p. 128)


Figs. 208, 209. Fore wing. 208, Nematus ribesii (Scopoli); 209, Pristiphora erichsonii (Hartig).
Figs. 210, 211. Clypeus. 210, P. cincta Newman; 211, Nematus sp.
Figs. 212-215. Tarsal claw. 212, Pachynematus sp.; 213, Eitelius gregarius (Marlatt); 214, Nematus sp.; 215, Euura sp.

25(23) Medial surface of head near antennal sockets little elevated in lateral view and little or not angular below median pit (Fig. 206a). Maxillary palpomeres 2 long: $0.7-1.0$ that of 3 (Fig. 206b). (Cenchri as far apart as their maximum width. Length of smallest apical spur of metatibia $0.8-1.0$ that of longest one; length of longest apical spur of metatibia usually less than 0.5 that of metatarsomere 1) 26
Medial surface of head near antennal sockets markedly elevated in lateral view and angular below medial pit (Fig. 207a). Maxillary palpomere 2 short: 0.5-0.7 that of 3 (Fig. 207b) 28
26(25) Minimum malar space twice the diameter, or more, of median ocellus 27
Minimum malar space $1-1.5$ times the diameter of median ocellus ........... Amauronematus (Pontopristia) Malaise (p. 131)
27(26) Flagellum seta-like as apical flagellomeres markedly narrower than basal ones. Adjacent valvula 3 in dorsal view with apex sharp
..... Amauronematus (Amauronematus) Konow (p. 131)
Flagellum thread-like because apical flagellomeres hardly narrower than basal ones. Adjacent valvula 3 in dorsal view with apex indented
......... Amauronematus (Decanematus) Malaise (p. 131)


Fig. 216. Setae between eye and lateral ocellus of Pachynematus sp.
Figs. 217-219. Cercus, valvifer 2 and valvula 3. 217, Pachynematus sp.; 218, Decanematus dulichus Wong; 219, Pikonema alaskensis (Rohwer).
Figs. 220-222. Lateral view of metatarsus. 220, Nematus erythrogaster Norton; 221, Phyllocolpa bozemanni (Cooley); 222, Pontania sp.

28(25) Vein C of fore wing swollen near apex and cell C horn-like and not angular at junction of $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ and R ; cell C about half as wide as that of vein C at level of junction of Rs +M and R (Fig. 209). Anterior margin of clypeus usually straight or slightly concave: depth of concavity smaller than half of medial length of clypeus (Fig. 210). Flagellomere 1 in male with some stiff and usually black setae on dorsal half (with dark surface, best seen along the dorsal margin against a well-lit background). Apex of valvula 3 in dorsal view emarginated or acute. (Tarsal claw without or with an inner tooth; inner tooth when present rarely long and slender. Cenchri usually small: maximum width $0.5-0.7$ of distance between cenchri) Pristiphora Latreille (p. 127) Vein C of fore wing slightly swollen near apex and cell C not horn-like but angular at junction of Rs+M and R; cell C about as wide as that of vein C at level of junction of $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ and R (Fig. 208). Anterior margin of clypeus concave: depth of concavity $0.5-0.7$ of medial length of clypeus (Fig. 211). Flagellomere 1 in male without stiff setae; setae of similar shape and length. Apex of valvula 3 in dorsal view acute 29


Figs. 223-226. Valvula 3. 223, Pontania sp.; 224, Pontania sp.; 225, Phyllocolpa puella (Thomson); 226, Phyllocolpa leucosticta (Hartig).
29(28) Inner tooth of tarsal claw short or long but distant from
tooth at apex (Figs. 212, 213) .......................................... 30

Inner tooth of tarsal claw long and close to tooth at apex (Figs. 214, 215) 33

30(29) $\quad$ Margin between inner and outer teeth of tarsal claw
regularly curved (Fig. 213) ...................................................
Eitelius Kontuniemi (p. 126)
Margin between inner and outer teeth of tarsal claw angular (Fig. 212) 31

31(30) Seta-bearing pits of head raised above surface (best seen between eyes and lateral ocellus) (Fig. 216). Dorsal margin of valvula 3 in female as long as or slightly shorter than cercus (Fig. 217). Setae of flagellomeres in male 30-35 mm in length

Pachynematus Konow (p. 125)
Seta-bearing pits of head not or obscurely outlined, not raised above surface. Dorsal margin of valvula 3 in female almost twice as long as cercus (Fig. 219). Setae of flagellomeres in male $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in length 32

32(31) Female only (no males known). Combined length of valvifer 2 and valvula 3 as long as that of abdomen (Fig. 218). Dorsal and ventral margin of valvula 3 almost straight in lateral view (Fig. 218)

Decanematus dulichus Wong*
Male or female. Combined length of valvifer 2 and valvula 3 about half that of abdomen (Fig. 219). Dorsal and ventral margin of valvula 3 curved in lateral view (Fig. 219)

Pikonema Ross (p. 126)

[^0]33(30) Spurs at apex of metatibia clearly unequal: length of outer spur 0.7 or less that of inner one (Fig. 220). Longest spur at apex of metatibia half as long as that of metarsomere 1 (Fig. 220). Body longer than 5 mm . Flagellum long: flagellomere 1 in female 3.5 times, or in male 3 times, as long as wide. Flagellum seta-like in males and females (Figs. 155, 156) ....... Nematus Rohwer (most taxa; p. 128)
Spurs at apex of metatibia more similar in length than above: length of outer spur 0.75-0.9 that of inner one (Fig. 221). Longest spur at apex of metatibia 0.3 (usually) to 0.5 that of metatarsomere 1 (Fig. 221). Body length less than 5 mm . Flagellum short: flagellomere 1 in female 2-3.5 times, or in male 2-2.5 times, as long as wide. Flagellum threadlike in female (Fig. 157) and thread- or seta-like in males 34

34(33) Apex of valvula 3 in lateral view apex acute (Figs. 225-226). Metatarsomere 3 usually less than twice as long as wide in lateral view (Fig. 221). Flagellum usually long: flagellomere 1 in female 3.5 times, or in male 2.5 times, as long as wide

Phyllocolpa Benson (p. 129)
Apex of valvula 3 in lateral view rounded (Fig. 223-224). Metatarsomere 3 usually twice to three times as long as wide in lateral view (Fig. 222). Flagellum short: flagellomere 1 in female three times, or in male 2.5 times, as long as wide ....... Pontania (Pontania) Costa (p. 128)

## Clé des tribus, des genres et des sous-genres de Nematinae

1 Aile antérieure moins longue que l'abdomen Nematini (peu de taxa) ..... 25
Aile antérieure plus longue que l'abdomen ..... 2
2(1) Nervure 2 m -cu de l'aile antérieure reliée à la cellule 2Rs(fig. 149)3
Nervure 2 m -cu de l'aile antérieure reliée à la cellule 1Rs (fig. 151) ou à la cellule 2 Rs très près de la nervure 2 r -m (quelques spécimens aberrants) ..... 7

3(2) Dans l'aile antérieure, partie de la nervure $R$ située entre les jonctions avec les nervures $M$ et $R s+M$, longue (fig. 151). Longueur du scape et du pédicelle combinés égale à au moins 0,7 fois la longueur de l'article 1 du flagelle (fig. 157). Flagelle du mâle semblable à celui de la femelle: filiforme, pourvu de poils courts (fig. 157)

Nematini (en partie) ..... 4
Dans l'aile antérieure, partie de la nervure R située entre les jonctions avec les nervures M et Rs+M, courte (fig. 150). Longueur du scape et du pédicelle combinés égale à au plus 0,5 fois la longueur de l'article 1 du flagelle (fig. 154 à 156 ). Flagelle du mâle différent de celui de la femelle : en forme de soie et pourvu de poils courts chez la femelle (fig. 156) ; en forme de soie, de scie ou de peigne et pourvu de poils longs chez le mâle ......................................... Cladiini ..... 5
4(3) Nervure 2 r de l'aile antérieure absente (fig. 150). Petite surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 : tergum 1 large près de la ligne médiane. Sillon postocellaire petit et en forme de fosse. Dent interne de la griffe longue et mince (fig. 162)

Caulocampus Rohwer (p. 121)
Nervure 2 r de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 149). Grande surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 : tergum 1 étroit près de la ligne médiane. Sillon postocellaire linéaire bien que court. Dent interne de la griffe absente, petite, ou longue et forte (fig. 160, 161)

Hoplocampa Hartig (p. 121)
5(3) Pulville des articles 1 à 4 du tarse aussi large que la base de l'article (plus évident sur l'article 4) (fig. 158). Article 1 du métatarse aussi long que les articles 2 et 3 combinés (fig. 158). Clypéus long : longueur médiane supérieure à la distance la plus courte entre la cavité antennaire et le clypéus (fig. 152)

Trichiocampus Hartig (p. 120)
Pulville des articles 1 à 4 du tarse nettement plus étroit que la base de l'article (fig. 159). Article 1 du métatarse aussi long ou plus long que les articles 2 à 4 combinés (fig. 159). Clypéus court : longueur médiane aussi courte ou plus courte que la distance minimale entre la cavité antennaire et le clypéus (fig. 153)

> 6(5) Article 1 du flagelle de la femelle au plus trois fois plus long que large et concave le long du bord ventral. En vue latérale, cerque de la femelle de même longeur que le bord dorsal de la valvule 3 (fig. 163). Articles 1 à 3 du flagelle du mâle s'étendant à l'angle dorsal antérieur en une structure en forme de peigne (fig. 154)

Cladius Illiger (p. 120)
Article 1 du flagelle de la femelle au moins quatre fois plus long que large et rectiligne le long du bord ventral. En vue latérale, cerque de la femelle 0,5 fois la longueur du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 (fig. 164). Articles 1 à 3 du flagelle du mâle ne s'étendant pas à l'angle dorsal antérieur en une structure en forme de peigne (fig. 155) ......................................... Priophorus Dahlbom (p. 120)
7(2) Nervure 2A de l'aile postérieure incomplète, formant ainsi une cellule ouverte (fig. 165) (Corps mesurant de 4 à 5 mm de long)

Pseudodineurini
8

Nervure 2A de l'aile postérieure complète, formant ainsi une cellule fermée (fig. 166)
8(7) En vue latérale, surface postoculaire ponctuée, sculptée et terne. Surface malaire minimale égale ou inférieure au tiers du diamètre de la cavité antennaire

Pseudodineura Konow (p. 132)
En vue latérale, surface postoculaire non ponctuée mais lisse et brillante. Surface malaire minimale égale ou inférieure à la moitié du diamètre de la cavité antennaire

Kerita Ross (p. 132)
9(7) Surfaces externes des mandibules semblables : toutes deux aplaties de façon régulière vers l'apex (fig. 169) Nematini (une partie) ..... 10

Surfaces externes des mandibules différentes : mandibule gauche fortement étranglée près du milieu (fig. 167, 168) 19

10(9) Base des nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure atrophiée et rectiligne (fig. 151) et dent interne de la griffe longue et mince (fig. 171, 172). Suture métépiméro-épisternale près de la surface membraneuse sur la moitié de sa longueur (fig. 174)

11
Base des nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure complète et courbée jusqu'à la nervure 1A (fig. 150) ou incomplète, et dent interne de la griffe courte et forte (fig. 170). Suture métépiméro-épisternale éloignée de la surface de la membrane (fig. 173)

11(10) Surface externe des mandibules 1,5 fois plus large que longue (fig. 180). Cellules 1 Rs et 2 Rs de l'aile antérieure fusionnées à cause de l'absence de la nervure $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$. Cerque de la femelle environ 6 fois plus long que large et généralement plus long que le bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 176, 177) ....... Euura Newman ..... 12
Surface externe des mandibules longues environ deux fois plus large que longue (fig. 179). Cellules 1 Rs et 2 Rs de l'aile antérieure généralement séparées par la nervure 2 r m (fig. 175). Cerque de la femelle trois à cinq fois plus long que large et aussi long ou plus court que le bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 178) ...

Pontania (Eupontania) Zinovjev (p. 129)
12(11) Mâle
Euиra
(Euura) Newman ou Euura (Gemmura) Smith (p. 130)
Femelle 13

13(12) Valvule 3 courte : hauteur à peu près égale à la longueur en vue latérale (fig. 176). Cerque généralement aussi long que le bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 176) .................................. Euura (Gemmura) Smith (p. 130)
Valvule 3 longue : hauteur inférieure à la longueur en vue latérale (fig. 177). Cerque plus court que le bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 177)

Euura (Euura) Newman (p. 130)
14(10) Clypéus pourvu d'une échancrure large et profonde (fig. 181b). Surface malaire minimale égale au quart du diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 181a). Moitié antérieure du mésépimère partiellement ou entièrement recouverte de soies

Craterocercus Rohwer (p. 123)
Clypéus pourvu d'une échancrure peu profonde (fig. 182b) ou profonde et étroite (fig. 183b). Surface malaire minimale supérieure à la moitié du diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 182a, 183a). Moitié antérieure du mésépimère sans soies 15

15(14) Dent interne absente sur la griffe du tarse (fig. 187). Clypéus trois fois plus large que long. Cerque de la femelle deux à quatre fois plus long que large. Bord postérieur du dernier sternum du mâle uniformément convexe (fig. 184) Anoplonyx Marlatt (p. 124)

Dent interne bien visible sur la griffe du tarse (fig. 186). Clypéus deux fois plus large que long. Cerque de la femelle de 3 à 20 fois plus long que large. Bord postérieur du dernier sternum du mâle légèrement concave au milieu (fig. 185) 16

16(15) Pulville long : distance entre les pulvilles des articles 1 et 2 du métatarse à peu près égale à leur longueur (fig. 191). Article 1 du flagelle plus long que l'article 3

Fallocampus Wong (p. 123)
Pulville court : distance entre les pulvilles des articles 1 et 2 du métatarse environ deux fois leur longueur (fig. 190). Article 1 du flagelle presque aussi long que l'article 3 17

17(16) Femelle : cerque environ 10 fois plus long que large (fig. 188); en vue dorsale, base des valvules 3 très large : environ deux fois la largeur maximale du métatibia (fig. 188) Mâle : nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure incomplètes et rectilignes (fig. 151); éperon le plus grand, à l'apex du protibia, pourvu d'une dent interne en forme de lame (fig. 192) et surface malaire minimale environ 0,6 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 195)

Nematinus Rohwer (p. 125)
Femelle : cerque 3 à 6 fois plus long que large (fig. 189); en vue dorsale, base de la valvule 3 étroite : environ 0,7 fois la largeur maximale du métatibia (fig. 189). Mâle : nervures 2 A et 3 A complètes (fig. 150), incomplètes et courbées vers le haut, ou incomplètes et rectilignes: éperon le plus grand, à l'apex du protibia, sans dent interne en forme de lame (fig. 193), ou, si la dent est présente, surface malaire minimale inférieure à 0,4 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 196) ............ Hemichroa Stephens ..... 18
18(17) Éperon le plus grand, à l'apex du protibia, pourvu d'une dent interne en forme de lame (fig. 194)

Hemichroa (Hemichroa) Stephens (p. 122)
Éperon le plus grand, à l'apex du protibia, sans dent interne en forme de lame (fig. 193)

Hemichroa (Varna) Ross (p. 122)
19(9) Notaulices à peine définies dans la moitié antérieure. Bord postérieur de l'appendice mésoscutellaire touchant la membrane qui ' sépare du postnotum du mésothorax (fig. 202). Griffe du carse sans dent interne .... Pristolini ..... 20

Notaulices nettement définies au moins dans la moitié antérieure (fig. 197). Bord postérieur de l'appendice mésoscutellaire situé nettement au-dessus de la membrane qui le sépare du postnotum du mésothorax (fig. 201). Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une dent interne, ou sans dent interne (quelques espèces de Pristiphora et Neopareophora liturata) .......... Nematini (en partie) ..... 21

20(19) Nervure 2A de l'aile postérieure incomplète (fig. 198), ou complète et cellule anale plus longue que la nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale (fig. 200)

Pristola Ross (p. 133)
Nervure 2A de l'aile postérieure complète et cellule anale au plus aussi longue que la nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale (fig. 199)

Melastola Wong (p. 133)
21(19) Nervure 2 r de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 149) ..... 22
Nervure 2r de l'aile antérieure absente ..... 23

22(21) Griffe du tarse sans dent interne (fig. 160). Nervure r de l'aile postérieure absente

Neopareophora MacGillivray (p. 124)
Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une grande dent interne (fig. 162). Nervure $r$ de l'aile postérieure présente ou absente (fig. 200)

Adelomos Ross (p. 124)
23(21) Métatibia et articles du tarse (surtout le premier) fortement aplatis et profondément creusés latéralement (fig. 204. 205) 24

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Métatibia et articles du tarse peu ou pas aplatis et peu ou } \\
& \text { pas creusés latéralement (fig. 203) .............................. } 25
\end{aligned}
$$

24(23) Apex du métatibia et article 1 du métatarse extrêmement aplatis (fig, 205). Article 1 du métatarse plus long que les longueurs combinées du reste des articles du tarse (fig. 205)

Croesus Leach (p. 127)
Apex du métatibia et article 1 du métatarse beaucoup moins aplatis que ci-dessus (fig. 204). Article 1 du métatarse aussi long que les longueurs combinées des articles 2 , 3 et 4 du tarse (fig. 204)

Nematus Panzer (peu de taxa : p. 128)

25(23) Surface médiane de la tête près des cavités antennaires peu surélevée en vue latérale et peu ou pas angulaire audessous de la fosse médiane (fig. 206a). Articles 2 des palpes maxillaires longs : 0,7 à 1,0 fois la longueur de l'article 3 (fig. 206b). (Cenchri séparés par une distance égale à leur largeur maximale. Longueur de l'éperon apical le plus petit du métatibia de 0,8 à 1,0 fois la longueur du plus long; longueur de l'éperon apical le plus long du métatibia généralement inférieure à 0,5 fois la longueur de l'article 1 du métatarse.) 26
Surface médiane de la tête près des cavités antennaires nettement surélevée en vue latérale et angulaire audessous de la fosse médiane (fig. 207a). Article 2 du palpe maxillaire court: 0,5 à 0,7 fois la longueur de l'article 3 (fig. 207 b) 28

26(25) Surface malaire minimale au moins deux fois le diamètre de l'ocelle médian 27

Surface malaire minimale de 1 à 1,5 fois le diamètre de l'ocelle médian

Amauronematus (Pontopristia) Nialaise (p. 131)
27(26) Flagelle en forme de soie, les articles apicaux étant nettement plus étroits que ceux de la base. En vue dorsale, valvules 3 adjacentes, avec un apex aig
.... Amauronematus (Amauronematus) Konow (p. 131)
Flagelle filiforme, les articles apicaux étant à peine plus étroits que ceux de la base. En vue dorsale, valvules 3 adjacentes, avec un apex dentelé $\qquad$
Amauronematus (Decanematus) Malaise (p.131)
28(25) Nervure C de l'aile antérieure enflée près de l'apex et cellule $C$ en forme de corne, non angulaire au niveau de la jonction de $R s+M$ et $R$; cellule $C$ d'une largeur approximativement égale à la moitié de celle de la nervure C au niveau de la jonction de $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ et R (fig. 209). Bord antérieur du clypéus généralement rectiligne ou légèrement concave : profondeur de la dépression inférieure à la moitié de la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 210). Article 1 du flagelle du mâle pourvu de quelques soies dressées et généralement noires sur la moitié dorsale (dans le cas d'une surface foncée, plus visible le long du bord dorsal sur un fond bien éclairé). En vue dorsale, apex de la valvule 3 échancré ou aigu. (Griffe du tarse avec ou sans dent interne; dent interne, lorsqu'elle est présente, rarement longue et mince. Cenchri généralement petits : largeur maximale 0,5 à 0,7 fois la distance entre les cenchri)

Pristiphora Latreille (p. 127)

Nervure $C$ de l'aile antérieure légèrement enflée près de l'apex et cellule $C$ pas en forme de corne, mais angulaire au niveau de la jonction de $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ et R ; cellule C d'une largeur presque égale à celle de la nervure $C$ au niveau de la jonction de Rs+M et R (fig. 208). Bord antérieur du clypéus concave : profondeur de la dépression de 0,5 à 0,7 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 211). Article 1 du flagelle du mâle dépourvu de soies dressées; soies de même taille et de même longueur. En vue dorsale, apex des valvules 3 aigu

29
29(28) Dent interne de la griffe du tarse courte ou longue mais éloignée de la dent apicale (fig. 212, 213) 30

Dent interne de la griffe du tarse longue et située à proximité de la dent apicale (fig. 214, 215) 33

30(29) Bord courbé d'une façon uniforme entre la dent interne et la dent externe de la griffe du tarse (fig. 213) Eitelius Kontuniemi (p. 126) Bord angulaire entre la dent interne et la dent externe de la griffe du tarse (fig. 212) 31

31(30) Sur la tête, cavités pourvues de soies surélevées au-dessus de la surface (plus évident entre les yeux et les ocelles latéraux) (fig. 216). Bord dorsal de la valvule 3 de la femelle aussi long ou légèrement plus court que le cerque (fig.217). Chez le mâle, articles du flagelle pourvus de soies d'une longueur de 30 à $35 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

Pachynematus Konow (p. 125)
Sur la tête, cavités pourvues de soies peu ou pas clairement définies, non surélevées au-dessus de la surface. Bord dorsal de la valvule 3 de la femelle presque deux fois la longueur du cerque (fig. 219). Chez le mâle, articles du flagelle pourvus de soies d'une longueur de $50 \mu \mathrm{~m} . . . . . . . .32$

32(31) Femelles seulement (pas de mâles connus). Longueur de la valvifère 2 et de la valvule 3 combinées égale à celle de l'abdomen (fig. 218). Bord dorsal et ventral de la valvule 3 presque rectiligne en vue latérale (fig. 218)

Decanematus dulichus Wong*
Mâle ou femelle. Longueur de la valvifère 2 et de la valvule 3 combinées égale à environ la moitié de celle de l'abdomen (fig. 219). Bord dorsal et ventral de la valvule 3 courbé en vue latérale (fig. 219)

Pikonema Ross (p. 126)

[^1]33(30) Éperons à l'apex du métatibia nettement inégaux : longueur de l'éperon externe au plus 0,7 fois celle de l'éperon interne (fig. 220). Éperon le plus long, à l'apex du métatibia 0,5 fois aussi long que celui de l'article 1 du métatarse (fig. 220). Corps de longueur supérieure à 5 mm . Flagelle long : article 1 du flagelle 3,5 fois plus long que large chez la femelle et 3 fois plus long que large chez le mâle. Flagelle en forme de soie chez les mâles et les femelles (fig. 155, 156)
$\qquad$ Nematus Rohwer (la plupart des taxa; p. 128)
Éperons à l'apex du métatibia plus semblables que cidessus quant à la longueur : éperon externe 0,75 à 0,9 fois la longueur de l'éperon interne (fig. 221). Éperon le plus long, à l'apex du métatibia, 0,3 (généralement) à 0,5 fois la longueur de celui de l'article 1 du métatarse (fig. 221). Longueur du corps inférieure à 5 mm . Flagelle court: article 1 du flagelle de 2 à 3,5 fois plus long que large chez la femelle, ou 2 à 2,5 fois plus long que large chez le mâle. Flagelle filiforme chez la femelle (fig. 157), et filiforme ou en forme de soie chez le mâle 34

34(33) En vue latérale, apex de la valvule 3 aigu (fig. 225, 226). Article 3 du métatarse généralement moins de deux fois plus long que large en vue latérale (fig. 221). Flagelle généralement long : article 1 du flagelle 3,5 fois plus long que large chez la femelle, ou 2,5 fois plus long que large chez le mâle

Phyllocolpa Benson (p. 129)
En vue latérale, apex de la valvule 3 arrondi (fig. 223, 224). Article 3 du métatarse généralement deux à trois fois plus long que large en vue latérale (fig. 222). Flagelle court : article 1 du flagelle trois fois plus long que large chez la femelle, ou 2,5 fois plus long que large chez le mâle

Pontania (Pontania) Costa (p. 128)

## Tribe Cladiini

Diagnosis. Adults of Cladiini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the short distance of the vein $R$ between the junctions of the veins M and $\mathrm{Rs}+\mathrm{M}$ in the fore wing.

Diversity. The tribe consists of three genera and about 35 species, found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1974c). In North America, including Canada, three genera and eight species are known (Smith 1974c).

Diagnosis. Adults of Cladius are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the narrow tarsomeres $1-4$, by the cercus being as long as the dorsal margin of valvula 3 in females, and by the comb-like structure on flagellomeres 1-3 in males.

Diversity. The genus consists of about nine species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1974c). In North America, including Canada, one introduced species, C. difformis (Panzer), is recorded (Smith 1974c).

Host. Larvae feed on roses (Smith 1974c).
Comments. Smith (1974c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Priophorus Dahlbom

Diagnosis. Adults of Priophorus are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the narrow pulvillus on tarsomeres $1-4$, by the cercus being half as long as the dorsal margin of valvula 3 in females, and by the absence of comb-like structures on flagellomeres 1-3 in males.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 20 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1974c). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1974c).

Host. Larvae feed on birch, willow, Rubus, cherry, plum, hawthorn, and alder (Smith 1974c).

Comments. Smith (1974c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Trichiocampus Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Trichiocampus are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the wide pulvillus on tarsomeres 1-4.

Diversity. The genus consists of six species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1974c). In North America, including Canada, three species are known (Smith 1974c).

Host. Larvae feed on willow and poplar (Smith 1974c).
Comments. Smith (1974c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Nematini

Diagnosis. Adults of Nematini are distinguished from those of other tribes by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The tribe consists of over 30 genera and 700 species almost entirely confined to Eurasia and North America except for very few species recorded from Borneo and South America (Benson 1958; Smith 1979a). In North America 20 genera and over 350 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada 18 genera and over 190 species are recorded, but 20 genera and over 320 species are expected.

## Genus Hoplocampa Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Hoplocampa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by vein $2 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ in the fore wing, which is joined to cell 2Rs; by the presence of the fore wing vein 2 r ; and by the combined length of the scape and pedicel, which is 0.7 as long as, or longer than, that of the flagellomere 1.

Diversity. The genus consists of 35 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America 21 species are known (Ross 1943b). In Canada 14 species are recorded (Smith 1979a), but 21 are expected.

Host. Larvae feed in the developing fruit of serviceberry, apple, cherry, hawthorn, and pear (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ross (1943b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Caulocampus Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adults of Caulocampus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by vein 2 m -cu in the fore wing, which is joined to cell 2Rs; by the absence of the fore wing vein 2 r ; and by the combined length of the scape and pedicel, which is 0.7 as long as, or longer than, that of the flagellomere 1.

Diversity. The genus consists of two eastern North American species (Smith 1968), both found in Canada.

Host. Larvae of C. acericaulis (MacGillivray) mine the petiole of maple leaves (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith (1968) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Hemichroa Stephens

Diagnosis. Adults of Hemichroa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of about six species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1975a). In North America, including Canada, two species are known (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith (1975a) revised the North American species of the genus. He did not recognize the subgenera, but A.G. Zinovjev (personal communication) believes that based on larval food preferences, the genus consists of the Old World Hemichroa Stephens and the New World Verna Ross.

## Subgenus Hemichroa Stephens

Diagnosis. Adults of Hemichroa are distinguished from subgenus Varna by the presence of a small blade-like inner tooth on the largest spur at the apex of the protibia.

Diversity. In North America one introduced species, M. crocea (Geoffroy), is recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on alders (Smith 1979a).
Comments. See genus Hemichroa.

## Subgenus Varna Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Varna are distinguished from those of the subgenus Hemichroa by the absence of a blade-like inner tooth on the largest spur at the apex of the protibia.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of one species, $H$. militaris (Cresson), (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on serviceberry and cherry (Smith 1979a).
Comments. See genus Hemichroa.

## Genus Craterocercus Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adults of Craterocercus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the deeply and widely concave anterior margin of the clypeus, by the presence of vein $2 r$ in the fore wing, and by the very narrow minimum malar space.

Diversity. The genus consists of five species found in North America (Smith 1969e). In Canada one species is recorded, but three are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on oaks (Smith 1969e).
Comments. Smith (1969e) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Fallocampus Wong

Diagnosis. Adult females of Fallocampus, with the similar shape of the outer surface of the mandibles, are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the very slender cercus and by the long pulvillus on metatarsomeres 1 and 2 . Adult males are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in North America, including Canada, (Smith 1976b; Wong 1977).

Host. Larvae feed on poplar (Smith 1976b).
Comments. Smith (1976b) revised the species of the genus Platycampus, which was subsequently split into two genera by Wong (1977). Wong proposed the genus Fallocampus for the North American species.

Diagnosis. Adults of Anoplonyx are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the similar shape of the outer surface of the mandibles, by the fore wing vein 2 m -cu joined to cell 1Rs, and by the absence of a subapical tooth on the claws.

Diversity. The genus consists of nine species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on larches (Smith 1979a).
Comments. The North American species of the genus have not been revised. Wong (1955) characterized the larvae of four species.

## Genus Adelomos Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Adelomos, with the dissimilar shape of the outer surface of the mandibles, are distinguished from those of other genera of the family by the presence of the vein $2 r$ on the fore wing and by the large inner tooth on the tarsal claws.

Diversity. The genus consists of a single species, A. cleone Ross, recorded in the eastern United States (Ross 1935). The species is expected in southernmost Ontario.

Host. Ross (1935) reports that the holotype was collected in late April from flowers of buckeye.

Comments. Ross (1935) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Genus Neopareophora MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Neopareophora, with the dissimilar shape of the outer surface of the mandibles, are distinguished from those of other genera by the presence of notauli and of the fore wing vein 2 r and by the absence of an inner tooth on the tarsal claws.

Diversity. The genus consist of two species restricted to eastern North America (Ross 1935). In Canada one species, $N$. litura (Klug), is known.

Host. Larvae feed on buds and leaves of blueberry (Nielson 1958).

Comments. Ross (1935) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Nematinus Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adult females of Nematinus in North America are distinguished from those of other genera by the exceptionally wide base of the valvulae 3 when viewed from above. Adult males are distinguished from those of other genera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 12 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1986a).

Host. Larvae of one North American species are recorded in alder and birch (Smith 1986a). In Europe larvae have also been recorded from hazelnut (Benson 1958).

Comments. Smith (1986a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Pachynematus Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Pachynematus, with a dissimilar outer surface of the mandibles, are distinguished from those of other genera of Nematini by the small inner tooth on claws; by the setae of the head, which are on raised setigerous pits between the eyes and the ocelli; by the emarginated clypeus; and by the narrow costa of the fore wing with a wide C cell below.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 70 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America 26 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada 15 species are recorded, but 26 are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on wheat, sedge, Festuca, grass, and willow (Smith 1979a). In Europe larvae have been recorded in Poa, Polygonum, and Rumex (Benson 1958).

Comments. The genus is in need of study in North America. However, Ross (1945a) and Benson (1963) reviewed portions of the genus. It consists of two subgenera (Zhelochovtsev 1988) distinguished by sexual features and food habit. Larvae of the subgenus Pachynematus Konow feed on Graminae. In adults the penis valve has a long posterior spur, and the annuli of valvula 1 is markedly slanted toward the base. Larvae of the subgenus Polynematus Zhelochovtsev feed on Polygonum and Rumex. In adults the penis valve has a short posterior spur, and the annuli of valvula 1 are slightly slanted toward the base or the apex. The subgenera were not described in the key because of the dissections involved.

## Genus Pikonema Ross

Diagnosis. Females of Pikonema are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the very large, long, and flat valvulae 3. Males are best diagnosed by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of 10 species (Zhelochovtsev 1988). In Canada and the United States three species are found.

Host. Larvae feed on a wide range of spruces (Ross 1938).
Comments. Ross (1938) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Eitelius Kontuniemi

Diagnosis. Adults of Eitelius are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the C-shaped margin between the tarsal inner and outer teeth.

Diversity. The genus consists of one Eurasian and one eastern North American species (Wong 1967). Eitelius gregarius (Marlatt) is recorded in Canada.

Host. Larvae feed on willows (Wong 1967).
Comments. Wong (1967) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

Diagnosis. Adults of Pristiphora, with the dissimilar outer surface of the mandibles, are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the markedly elevated surface between antennal sockets, by the presence of a widened and concave surface at the apex of valvula 3 in most species, by the usually truncate clypeus, and by the narrow horn-like cell C of the fore wing.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 140 species known in Eurasia and North America and a few species known in Borneo and South America (Benson 1958; Smith 1979a). In North America over 50 species are recorded (Smith 1979a). In Canada probably over 40 species are known.

Host. Larvae feed on apple, willow, columbine, Vaccinium, spiraea, birch, oak, larch, mountain ash, spruce, Rubus, Geum, Potentilla, Ribes, and alder (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The North American species have not been revised recently, but the genus is currently being studied by H.R. Wong in Edmonton, Alta. The genus has been divided into seven subgenera (Zhelochovtsev 1988), most of which are distinguished by characters of the male and female genitalia. Five of these subgenera are found in Canada: Lygaeonematus Konow, Lygaeotus Hellen, Stauronematus Benson, Micronematus Konow, and Pristiphora Latreille. They were not included in the key because of the dissections required.

## Genus Croesus Leach

Diagnosis. Adults of Croesus are distinguished from those of other genera of sawflies by the markedly enlarged metatibia and metatarsomere 1 , which look like the hind leg of a bee.

Diversity. The genus consists of about nine species found in Eurasia and mainly in the eastern part of North America (Benson 1958). In North America four species are known (Smith 1972). In Canada two species are recorded, but four are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on alder, birch, hazelnut, and buckeye (Smith 1972).

Comments. Smith (1972) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Nematus Panzer

Diagnosis. Adults of Nematus are distinguished from those of other North American genera by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 120 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America over 50 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada over 40 species are recorded.

Comments. The species of the genus are being revised by D.R. Smith (Washington, D.C.).

## Genus Pontania Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Pontania are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 50 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958, 1960). In North America about 40 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada about 20 species are recorded, but about 25 are expected.

Host. Larvae feed in pea- or bean-like galls on leaves of willows (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The genus is in need of study.

## Subgenus Pontania Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of the subgenus Pontania are recognized by the clearly asymmetrical mandibles: the left one is markedly constricted along the outer surface.

Diversity. The subgenus is diverse in North America, but the number of species is still unknown.

Host. Larvae feed in pea- or bean-like galls on leaves of willows (Smith 1979a).

## Subgenus Eupontania Zinovjev

Diagnosis. Adults of Eupontania are recognized by symmetrical mandibles: the right and left mandible are not appreciably constricted.

Diversity. The subgenus is diverse in North America, but the number of species is still unknown.

Host. Larvae feed in pea- or bean-like galls on leaves of willows (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Zinovjev (1985) recently described this subgenus.

## Genus Phyllocolpa Benson

Diagnosis. Adults of Phyllocolpa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 40 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958, 1960). In North America about 25 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada about nine species are recorded, but over 13 are expected.

Host. Larvae feed inside rolled leaves or leaf edges of willows and poplars (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The genus needs study; Ross (1929) studied some species.

## Genus Euura Newman

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Euura are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the similar and very short mandibles and by the absence of vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ in the fore wing.

Diversity. This is a large genus found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America at least 32 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada nine species are recorded, but over 13 are expected.

Comments. The genus needs study. E.L. Smith (1968) studied the species in California and demonstrated the difficulties facing students of the genus.

Diagnosis. Females of the subgenus Euura are distinguished from those of the subgenus Gemmura by valvula 3, which is longer than high. Males cannot be characterized.

Diversity. In Eurasia and North America most species of the genus belong to this subgenus (Benson 1958; Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed in stem, twig, or petiole galls of willow (Smith 1968).

Comments. See genus Euura.

## Subgenus Gemmura Smith

Diagnosis. Females of Gemmura are distinguished from those of the subgenus Euura by valvula 3, which is shorter than high. Males cannot be characterized.

Diversity. The subgenus is known by a few species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958; Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed in bud galls of willow (Smith 1968).
Comments. See genus Euura.

## Genus Amauronematus Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Amauronematus are generally distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the slightly elevated surface between the antennal sockets and by the rather short maxillary palpomere 2 .

Diversity. The genus consists of over 120 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America over 50 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada about 30 species are recorded, but over 45 are expected.

Comments. The genus needs study.

Diagnosis. Adults of the subgenus Amauronematus are distinguished from those of Decanematus by the long minimal malar space and from those of Pontopristia by the seta-like antennae, tapering toward the apex, and by the sharply adjacent valvulae 3.

Diversity. Most species of the genus belong to this subgenus.
Host. Larvae feed on willow (the main host) and Rhododendron (Smith 1979a). In Europe A.G. Zinovjev (personal communication) reports larvae from Betula, Vaccinium, and Potentilla fructicosa.

## Subgenus Pontopristia Malaise

Diagnosis. Adults of Pontopristia are distinguished from those of Decanematus by the long minimal malar space; from those of Amauronematus by the thread-like antenna, slightly or not tapering toward the apex; and from both these subgenera by the indented apex of adjacent valvulae 3 .

Diversity. Over 10 species are reported in Eurasia (Zhelochovtsev 1988), two or three of which are found in Canada and the United States.

Host. Larvae are found in catkins of willow.

## Subgenus Decanematus Malaise

Diagnosis. Adults of Decanematus are distinguished from those of the other two subgenera of the genus by the short minimal malar space.

Diversity. The subgenus is small, with several species found in Eurasia (Zhelochovtsev 1988) and two in North America, D. viduatus (Zetterstedt) and D. lineatus (Harrington). Wong (1968a) incorrectly assigned D.dulichus to this lineage. When this species is keyed to northern European genera (Zhelochovtsev 1988), it runs to Pikonema Ross and Larinematus Zhelochovtsev but does not match either. According to A.G. Zinovjev (personal communication), Decanematus dulichus probably belongs near Polynematus Zhelochovtsev.

Comments. The subgenus is most likely more diverse in North America and needs study preceded by careful fieldwork and rearing programs.

## Tribe Pseudodineurini

Diagnosis. Adults of Pseudodineurini are distinguished from those of other tribes by the incomplete development of the hind wing veins 2A and 3A.

Diversity. The tribe consists of three genera found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). Two genera are found in North America, including Canada (Smith 1979a). All genera were characterized by Smith (1976d).

## Genus Pseudodineura Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of the North American species of the genus Pseudodineura are distinguished from those of the genus Kerita by the dull and punctate postocular region of the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 13 species found in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1958). In North America four species are known. In Canada two species are known, but four are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on Hepathica and Ranunculus (Smith 1976d).

Comments. Smith (1976d) revised the species.

## Genus Kerita Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Kerita are distinguished from those of Pseudodineura by the smooth and bright postocular region of the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus consists of three species (Smith 1976d) restricted to North America. In Canada one species is recorded but three are expected.

Host. Larvae attack Mertensia.
Comments. Smith (1976d) revised the species.

## Tribe Pristolini

Diagnosis. Adults of Pristolini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the notauli, which are hardly (only near anterior margin) or not outlined.

Diversity. The tribe consists of two genera restricted to North America (Wong 1968b). In Canada two genera are recorded.

## Genus Pristola Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Pristola are distinguished from those of Melastola by the vein at the apex of the anal cell of the hind wing, which is clearly shorter than the length of the cell, or by the absence of an anal cell.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in North America (Wong 1968b). In Canada one species, P. macnabi Ross, is known.

Host. Larvae feed on Vaccinium (Wong 1968b).
Comments. Wong (1968b) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Melastola Wong

Diagnosis. Adults of Melastola are distinguished from those of Pristola by the vein at the apex of the anal cell of the hind wing, which is as long as the length of the cell.

Diversity. The genus consists of two North American species (Wong 1968b). In Canada one species, M. ferruginosa Wong, is known, but two are expected.

Comments. Wong (1968b) revised the species of the genus.

## Subfamily Heterarthrinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Heterarthrinae, with fore wing veins $M$ and 1 m -cu clearly convergent, are distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the presence of fore wing vein 2 r and by the short vein $R$ between junctions of veins $M$ and $R s+M$.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of 22 genera and 93 species (Smith 1971a, 1976c). The range of most species is in Eurasia and North America, but a few occur in North Africa and South America (Smith 1971a, 1976c). In North America 13 genera and 38 species are known (Smith 1971a). In Canada 11 genera and 23 species are recorded, but 32 species are expected.


Figs. 227-229. Fore wing. 227, Endelomyia aethiops (Fabricius); 228, Fenusa pusilla (Lepeletier); 229, Heterarthrus nemoratus (Fallén).
Figs. 230, 231. Lateral view of head. 230, H. nemoratus; 231, Scolioneura betuleti (Klug).
Figs. 232, 233. Hind wing. 232, E. aethiops; 233, Caliroa cerasi (Linnaeus).

## Key to tribes and genera of Heterarthrinae

$1 \quad$ Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing completely outlined (Fig. 227)
$\qquad$
Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing incompletely outlined (Fig. 228) Fenusini 4

2(1) Head with pale patterns. Minimal malar space about as long as diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 230). Antenna with 8 flagellomeres. Vein M of fore wing straight (Fig. 229) Heterarthrini: Heterarthrus Stephens (p. 140)
Head black. Minimal malar space 0.1-0.2 of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 231). Antenna with 7 flagellomeres. Vein M of fore wing curved (Fig. 227)

Caliroini 3

3(2) Mesoscutellar appendage with at most 2 setae. Basal anal cell of fore wing with short projecting spur along vein 2A and 3A (Fig. 227). Vein Cu-2 far from apex of anal cell of hind wing (Fig. 232). Metepimeron as high as metepisternum in lateral view (Fig. 236)

Endelomyia Ashmead (p. 139)


Figs. 234, 235. Metapleuron. 234, Endelomyia aethiops (Fabricius); 235, Caliroa cerasi (Linnaeus).
Figs. 236, 237. Metascutellum. 236, Metallus rohweri MacGillivray; 237, Nefusa ambigua (Norton).
Figs. 238, 239. Mesepisternum. 238, N. ambigua; 239, M. rohweri.
Mesoscutellar appendage with many setae. Basal anal cell of fore wing without spur along veins 2 A and 3A. Vein $\mathrm{Cu}-2$ at apex of anal cell of hind wing (Fig. 233) or far from apex. Metepimeron 1.5-2.0 times as high as metepisternum in lateral view (Fig. 237) $\qquad$ Caliroa Costa (p. 139)

4(1) Mesonotum evenly pubescent. (Flagellomere 1, 1.0-1.2 times as long as 2) 5


Figs. 240-242. Hind wing. 240, Messa hortulana (Klug); 241, M. nana (Klug); 242, Fenusa pusilla (Lepeletier).
Figs. 243, 244. Lateral view of head. 243, Scolioneura betuleti (Klug); 244, Profenusa canadensis (Marlatt).
Figs. 245, 246. Abdominal tergum 1 (membranous area stippled). 245, P. canadensis; 246, F. pusilla.

Mesonotum without pubescence at least on middle half of median lobe, and on most of lateral lobe

6
5(4) Epicnemial area not outlined (Fig. 235). Metascutellum relatively stout and convex (Fig. 238). Pedicel wider than long

Metallus Forbes (p. 140)
Epicnemial area outlined by furrow (Fig. 234). Metascutellum relatively small and slightly convex (Fig. 239). Pedicel slightly longer than wide

Nefusa Ross (p. 142)
6(4) Postocular region of head in lateral view with occipital ridge (Fig. 243). Flagellomere 6, 3 times longer than wide. (Pedicel wider than long.) ...... Scolioneura Konow (p. 142)
Postocular region of head in lateral view without occipital ridge (Fig. 244). Flagellomere 6, 1-2 times longer than wide 7

7(6) Hind wing with $R_{1}$ cell closed or almost so (Figs. 240, 241). Anal cell of hind wing closed and with vein at apex (Fig. 240)

8
Hind wing with $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ cell widely open (Fig. 242). Anal cell of hind wing not closed (Fig. 242) or closed and with vein at apex (two species of Profenusa)
8(7) Tegula white. Minimum malar space 0.3 of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 243). Antenna with 7 or 8 flagellomeres. Tarsal claw with large basal lobe Messa Leach (p. 141)
Tegula black. Minimum malar space $0.1-0.3$ of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 244). Antenna with 7 flagellomeres. Tarsal claw with small and blunt basal lobe Setabara Ross (p. 141)
9(7) Antenna with 9 or 10 flagellomeres. (Wing clear.) Fenella Westwood (p. 143)
$\qquad$
10(9) Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 small: tergum 1 long near midline (Fig. 245). Median lobe of mesoscutum with 20-40 setae laterally

Profenusa MacGillivray (p. 141)
Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 large: tergum 1 short near midline (Fig. 246). Median lobe of mesoscutum with $0-10$ setae laterally

Fenusa Leach (p. 143)

## Clé des tribus et des genres d' Heterarthrinae

1 Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure complètement définies (fig. 227)
Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure pas complètement
définies (fig. 228) .......................................... Fenusini ..... 4
2(1) Tête à motifs pâles. Surface malaire minimale d'une longueur à peu près égale au diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 230). Antenne à flagelle de 8 articles. Nervure M de l'aile antérieure rectiligne (fig. 229) Heterarthrini : Heterarthrus Stephens (p. 140)
Tête noire. Surface malaire minimale 0,1 à 0,2 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 231). Antenne à flagelle de 7 articles. Nervure M de l'aile antérieure courbée (fig. 227)

Caliroini ..... 3
3(2) Appendice mésoscutellaire portant au plus 2 soies. Cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure pourvue d'un éperon court se prolongeant le long des nervures 2A et 3A (fig. 227). Nervure Cu-2 loin de l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure (fig. 232). Métépimère aussi élevée que le métépisternum en vue latérale (fig. 236) Endelomyia Ashmead (p. 139)
Appendice mésoscutellaire pourvu de nombreuses soies. Cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure sans éperon le long des nervures 2A et 3A. Nervure Cu-2 située à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure (fig. 233) ou loin de l'apex. Métépimère de 1,5 à 2,0 fois plus élevée que le métépisternum en vue latérale (fig. 237)

Caliroa Costa (p. 139)
4(1) Mésonotum uniformément pubescent. (Article 1 du flagelle 1,0 à 1,2 fois la longuer de l'article 2)
Mésonotum non pubescent au moins sur la moitié médiane du lobe médian, et sur la plus grande partie du lobe latéral

6
5(4) Epicnémium non défini (fig. 235). Métascutellum relativement fort et convexe (fig. 238). Pédicelle plus large que long Metallus Forbes (p. 140)
Epicnémium défini par un sillon (fig. 234). Métascutellum relativement petit et légèrement convexe (fig. 239). Pédicelle légèrement plus long que large

Nefusa Ross (p. 142)

6(4) En vue latérale, région postoculaire de la tête pourvue d'une carène occipitale (fig. 243). Article 6 du flagelle, 3 fois plus long que large. (Pédicelle plus large que long.) Scolioneura Konow (p. 142)
En vue latérale, région postoculaire de la tête sans carène occipitale (fig. 244). Article 6 du flagelle, de 1 à 2 fois plus long que large 7

7(6) Cellule $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ de l'aile postérieure fermée ou presque fermée (fig. 240, 241). Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure fermée et pourvue d'une nervure à l'apex (fig. 240) 8
Cellule $R_{1}$ de l'aile postérieure largement ouverte (fig. 242). Cellule anale de l'aile postérieure non fermée (fig. 242), ou fermée et pourvue d'une nervure à l'apex (deux espèces de Profenusa)9

8(7) Tegula blanche. Surface malaire minimale 0,3 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 243). Antenne à flagelle de 7 ou 8 articles. Griffe du tarse possédant un grand lobe basal Messa Leach (p. 141)
Tegula noire. Surface malaire minimale de 0,1 à 0,3 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 244). Antenne à flagelle de 7 articles. Griffe du tarse possédant un lobe basal petit et émoussé ................... Setabara Ross (p. 141)

9(7) Antenne à flagelle de 9 ou 10 articles. (Aile de teinte claire)

Fenella Westwood (p. 143)
Antenne à flagelle de 7 articles ........................................ 10
10(9) Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2, petite : tergum 1 long près de la ligne médiane (fig. 245). Lobe médian du mésoscutum avec $20-40$ soies latéralement Profenusa MacGillivray (p. 141)
Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 , grande : tergum 1 court le long de la ligne médiane (fig. 246). Lobe médian du mésoscutum avec $0-10$ soies latéralement Fenusa Leach (p. 143)

## Tribe Caliroini

Diagnosis. Adults of Caliroini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the completely outlined veins 2 A and 3 A in the fore wing and by the narrow minimum malar space.

Diversity. The tribe consists of two genera found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a).

## Genus Endelomyia Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Endelomyia are distinguished from those of Caliroa by the hairy mesoscutellar appendage and by the length of flagellomere 4 , which is two-thirds that of flagellomere 3.

Diversity. The genus consists of one species, E. aethiops (Fabricius), found in Eurasia and throughout North America (Smith 1971a).

Host. Larvae are external feeders on roses (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Genus Caliroa O. Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of Caliroa are distinguished from those of Endelomyia by the hairless, or almost so, mesoscutellar appendage and by the length of flagellomere 4, which is three-quarters that of flagellomere 3 .

Diversity. The genus consists of about 30 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In North America 14 species are known (Smith 1971a). In Canada six species are known, but 11 are expected.

Host. Larvae are external feeders on oak, willow, cherry, apple and other Rosaceae, buckeye, and tupelo (Smith 1971a).

Comments. Smith (1971a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Heterarthrini

Diagnosis. Adults of Heterarthrini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the complete veins 2 A and 3A in the fore wing and by the wide minimal malar space.

Diversity. The tribe consists of one genus, Heterarthrus (Smith 1971a).

## Genus Heterarthrus Stephens

Diversity. The genus Heterarthrus consists of about 10 species, nine of which are restricted to Eurasia (Smith 1971a). In North America, including Canada, one introduced species, H. nemoratus (Fallén), is known (Smith 1971a).

Host. Larvae are leaf miners of birch (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Fenusini

Diagnosis. Adults of Fenusini are distinguished from those of other tribes by the incompletely outlined veins 2 A and 3 A in the fore wing.

Diversity. The tribe consists of 19 genera and 53 species found in Eurasia, North and South America, and North Africa (Smith 1976c). In North America 11 genera and 20 species are known (Smith 1971a; H. Goulet unpublished data). In Canada eight genera and 15 species are recorded, but 19 species are expected.

Host. All known larvae are leaf miners (Smith 1976c, 1971a).

## Genus Metallus Forbes

Diagnosis. Adults of Metallus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairy mesonotum and by the wide pedicel.

Diversity. The genus consists of about eight species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1971a).

Host. Larvae feed on Rubus (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) revised the North American species of the genus, recently adding one more species (1988b).

Diagnosis. Adults of Messa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairless mesonotum at least on the medial half of the median lobe, by the short flagellomeres, by the closed or almost closed $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ cell in the hind wing, and by the white tegula.

Diversity. The genus consists of eight species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In North America five species are known (Smith 1971a). In Canada three species are recorded, but five are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on poplar, willow, and birch (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Setabara Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Setabara are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairless mesonotum at least on the middle half of the median lobe, by the short flagellomeres, by the closed or almost closed $\mathrm{R}_{2}$ cell of the hind wing, and by the black tegula.

Diversity. The genus consists of one species, S. histrionica (MacGillivray), recorded in the western United States (Smith 1971a). The species is expected in southern British Columbia.

Comments. Smith (1971a) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Genus Profenusa MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Profenusa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairless mesonotum at least on the middle half of the median lobe, by the short flagellomeres, by the widely open $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ cell of the hind wing, by the 7 flagellomeres, and by the small membranous area between terga 1 and 2.

Diversity. The genus consists of about eight species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In North America five species are known (Smith 1971a). In Canada three species are recorded, but four are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on oak, cherry, hawthorn, and birch (Smith 1971a).

Comments. Smith (1971a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Nefusa Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Nefusa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairy mesonotum and the elongate pedicel.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species, one from Burma and N. ambigua (Norton) from eastern North America (Smith 1976c).

Host. Larvae feed on violets (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Scolioneura Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Scolioneura are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the very elongate flagellomeres and by the occipital ridge on the posterior margin of the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in Europe and North America (Smith 1976c). One species, S. betuleti (Klug), was recently introduced in southeastern Canada.

Host. Larvae feed on birch (Smith 1976c).
Comments. Benson (1952) characterized the single North American species of the genus. Kathryn and Evans (1989) describe the larval instars and the biology.

## Genus Fenusa Leach

Diagnosis. Adults of Fenusa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairless mesonotum at least on the middle half of the median lobe, by the short flagellomeres, by the widely open $R_{1}$ cell of the hind wing, by the 7 flagellomeres, and by the wide membranous area between terga 1 and 2.

Diversity. The genus consists of three species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In North America, including Canada, three species are known (Smith 1971a).

Host. Larvae are leafminers on birch, alder, and elm (Smith 1971a).

Comments. Smith (1971a) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Fenella Westwood

Diagnosis. Adults of Fenella are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the hairless mesonotum at least on the middle half of the median lobe, by the short flagellomeres, by the widely open $R_{1}$ cell of the hind wing, and by the 9 or 10 flagellomeres.

Diversity. The genus consists of about six species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1971a). In eastern North America one species, F. nigrita Westwood, is known (Smith 1971a).

Host. Larvae feed on Potentilla (Smith 1971a).
Comments. Smith (1971a) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Subfamily Blennocampinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Blennocampinae are generally distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the angle formed by the veins $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of the fore wing, which is between $120-150^{\circ}$; and by the veins 2 A and 3 A of the fore wing, which are not completely outlined or, if outlined, are slightly constricted in the basal cell.

Diversity. The range of the subfamily extends throughout humid temperate and tropical regions of the world (Smith 1969c).


Figs. 247, 248. Fore wing. 247, Blennogeneris spissipes (Cresson); 248, Erythraspides carbonarius (Cresson).
Figs. 249, 250. Ventral view of metatarsus. 249, E. carbonarius; 250, Stethomostus fuliginosus (Schrank).
Figs. 251-253. Metapleuron, lateral view (membranous surface stippled). 251, Halidamia affinis (Fallen); 252, E. carbonarius; 253, Phymatocera smilacinae Smith.

## Key to tribes, genera, and subgenera of Blennocampinae

Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing completely outlined and narrowly joined to 1A (Fig. 247)

Lycaotini 2
Vein 2A and 3A of fore wing incompletely outlined and not joined to 1A (Fig. 248)

2(1) Legs black, fore wing darkened
Lycaota Konow (p. 155)
Legs reddish brown, fore wing clear
Blennogeneris MacGillivray (p. 154)
3(1) Pulvillus not developed on tarsomeres 1 and 2 (Fig. 249). Ventral surface of all or any of flagellomeres 4-7 pale (pale surface thinly sclerotized and generally collapsed in dry specimens) and each much shorter than 3. Metepimeron with two furrows or dark outlines forming an angle near junction with metacoxa (Fig. 251). (Tarsal claw with long subapical tooth and basal lobe.) ............ Waldheimiini ..... 4


Figs. 254, 255. Fore wing. 254, Erythraspides carbonarius (Cresson); 255, Halidamia affinis (Fallen).

Pulvillus clearly developed on tarsomeres 1 and 2 (Fig. 250). Ventral surface of flagellomeres 4-7 thickly sclerotized (not collapsed in dry specimens) and about as long as or slightly shorter than 3 . Metepimeron without furrow near metacoxa or with slightly curved furrow near margin of metacoxa (Fig. 253) 5

4(3) Fore wing with vein 2A and 3A curved up at apex (Fig. 255). Membranous area between mesopleuron and metapleuron small or absent, because posterior margin of mesepimeron convex and anterior margin of metepimeron slightly concave (Fig. 251) ...... Halidamia Benson (p. 163)


Figs. 256, 257. Dorsal half of mesepisternum. 256, Tethida barda (Say); 257, Phymatocera smilacinae Smith.
Figs. 258-261. Tarsal claw. 258, Ardis brunniventris (Hartig); 259, Periclista diluta (Cresson); 260, Phymatocera smilacinae; 261, Phymatocera rusculla (MacGillivray).

Fore wing with vein 2 A and 3 A straight (Fig. 254). Membranous area between mesopleuron and metapleuron large, because posterior margin of mesepimeron straight or slightly concave and anterior margin of metepimeron deeply concave (Fig. 252)

Erythraspides Ashmead (p. 163)
5 (3) Epicnemial region clearly outlined by narrow furrow and occurring on same plane as mesepisternum (Fig. 256)

Tomostethini 6

Epicnemial region not outlined, or outlined by wide furrow, and occurring on different plane from mesepisternum (Fig. 257) ............................................. 7

6(5) Mesonotum densely pubescent. Mesoscutellum and mesepisternum with fine pits. Basal 0.2 of clypeus impressed and without setae Tomostethus Konow (p. 155)
Mesonotum with scattered setae mainly in central portion of each sclerite. Mesoscutellum and mesepisternum smooth. Basal 0.2 of clypeus not impressed and mostly covered with setae

Tethida Ross (p. 156)


Figs. 262, 263. Lateral view of head. 262, Ardis brunniventris (Hartig); 263, Monophadnoides geniculatus (Hartig).
Fig. 264. Hind wing of Periclista diluta (Cresson).
Figs. 265, 266. Mesepimeron (membranous area stippled). 265, P. diluta; 266, M. geniculatus.
Figs. 267, 268. Abdominal tergum 9 of female. 267, P. pallipes (Provancher); 268, P. diluta.
7(5) Tarsal claw with long preapical tooth (Fig. 258) andepicnemial region not outlined. Tarsal claw with (Fig. 259)or without basal lobeBlennocampini8
Tarsal claw without or with short preapical tooth (Fig.261 ), or with long inner tooth and with clearly outlinedepicnemial region. Tarsal claw without basal lobe(Fig. 260)12
8(7) Groove near posterior margin of eye wide and deep, with large pits (Fig. 263) Ardis Konow (p. 159)
Groove near posterior margin of eye narrow and shallow, without pits (Fig. 262) ..... 9
9(8) Anepimeron of mesopleuron with small to largemembranous area (except in Periclista marginicollis) (Fig.265). Fore wing with veins 2 A and 3 A curved up at apex(Fig. 255) ................................... Periclista Konow ..... 11Anepimeron of mesopleuron without membranous area(Fig. 266). Fore wing with vein 2A and 3A straight at apex(Fig. 254)10
10(9) Katepimeron of mesepimeron sharply divided into anterior and posterior areas (Fig. 281). Tergum 1 narrow medially (Fig. 273). Cenchrus about three times wider than long Monophadnus Hartig (p. 158)
Katepimeron of mesepimeron not clearly divided (Fig.276). Tergum 1 long medially (Fig. 274). Cenchrus lessthan twice as wide as long
Monophadnoides Ashmead (p. 162)
11(9) Hind wing in male with peripheral vein (Fig. 264). Tergum 9 in female small (Fig. 268)
Periclista (Periclista) Konow (p. 161)
Hind wing in male without peripheral vein. Tergum 9 in female large (Fig. 267)
Periclista (Neocharactus) MacGillivray (p. 162)
12(7) Length of flagellomere 1, 1.0-1.2 times as long as 2. Flagellomere 6, at least 2.5 times as long as wide or, in adults of few species, less than 2.5 times as long as wide Phymatocerini ..... 13
Length of flagellomere 1 about 1.5 times as long as 2 . Flagellomere 6, 1.2-2.5 times as long as wide ..... 16


Figs. 269, 270. Mesoscutellar appendage. 269, Phymatocera fumipennis (Norton); 270, Rhadinoceraea insularis (Kincaid).
Figs. 271, 272. Ventral view of metatarsus. 271, P. fumipennis; 272, Paracharactus rudis (Norton).
Figs. 273, 274. Abdominal terga 1 (membranous area stippled). 273, Phymatocera smilacinae Smith; 274, Paracharactus rudis.
Figs. 275, 276. Mesepimeron. 275, Paracharactus rudis; 276, Phymatocera fumipennis.

13(12) Mesepisternum with large pits. (Epicnemial region not outlined.) Lagonis Ross (p. 158)
Mesepisternum not pitted 14

14(13) Epicnemial region not outlined. Mesoscutellar appendage short: medial length less than one-fifth that of mesoscutellum (Fig. 270)

Rhadinoceraea (Veratra) Smith (p. 157)
Epicnemial region clearly, weakly, or not (Paracharactus rudis) outlined by furrow. Mesoscutellar appendage long: medial length greater than one-quarter that of mesoscutellum (Fig. 269)

15(14) Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 small: tergum 1 long submedially (Fig. 274). Katepimeron of mesothorax sharply divided into anterior and posterior halves (Fig. 275). Pulvilli in female long: length of pulvillus of metatarsomere 1, two-thirds of distance (or more) between pulvilli of tarsomere 1 and 2 (Fig. 272)

Paracharactus MacGillivray (p. 157)
Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 large: tergum 1 short submedially (Fig. 273). Katepimeron of mesothorax not clearly divided into anterior and posterior halves (Fig. 276). Pulvilli in female short: length of pulvillus of metatarsomere 1, one-third of distance (or less) between pulvilli of tarsomeres 1 and 2 (Fig. 271)

Phymatocera Dahlbom (p. 156)


Figs. 277, 278. Lateral view of head. 277, Eutomostethus ephippium (Panzer); 278, Stethomostus fuliginosus (Schrank).
Figs. 279, 280. Dorsal view of head. 279, Monardis pulla Smith; 280, Apareophora dyari (Benson).
Figs. 281, 282. Mesepimeron. 281, Monophadnus pallescens (Gmelin); 282, Monardis pulla.
Figs. 283, 284. Lateral view of head. 283, Eupareophora parca (Cresson); 284, A. dyari.

16(12) Epicnemial area clearly outlined by furrow
Phymatocerini ..... 17
Epicnemial area not outlined ................................................. 18
17(16) Occipital ridge of head in lateral view extended above dorsal limit of eye (Fig. 277); ridge pitted. Mesoscutellar appendage long: medial length $0.25-0.3$ that of mesoscutellum (Fig. 269). Body with orange patterns Eutomostethus Enslin (p. 159)
Occipital ridge of head in lateral view outlined near mandible only (Fig. 278); ridge not pitted. Mesoscutellar appendage short: medial length $0.15-0.2$ that of mesoscutellum (Fig. 270). Body black $\qquad$ Stethomostus Benson (p. 158)

18(16) Inner margin of antennal socket in dorsal view markedly
raised (Fig. 279) ..................................................................... 19
Inner margin of antennal socket in dorsal view slightly or not raised (Fig. 280)

Blennocampini 20

19(18) Fore and hind wing darkened. Veins 2A and 3A of fore wing curved up at apex. Tibiae black or dark brown. Pits on mesoscutellum large (about $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in diameter) and clearly outlined. Katepimeron of mesopleuron not divided into anterior and posterior areas (Fig. 282)

Blennocampini: Monardis Enslin (p. 160)
Fore and hind wing clear. Veins 2A and 3A of fore wing straight. Tibiae straw-colored. Pits of mesoscutellum absent or small ( $25-30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), or small to large and not clearly outlined. Katepimeron of mesopleuron clearly divided into anterior and posterior areas (Fig. 281)

Phymatocerini: Monophadnus Hartig (p. 158)
20(18) Mesepisternum dull and sculptured. Mesoscutum with fine pits. Head surface rough. Furrow near posterior margin of eye narrow and shallow (Fig. 284)

Apareophora Sato (p. 160)
Mesepisternum bright and smooth. Mesoscutum not pitted. Head surface smooth. Furrow near posterior margin of eye wide and deep (Fig. 283)

Eupareophora Enslin (p. 160)

Clé des tribus, des genres et des sous-genres de Blennocampinae

1 Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure complètement définies et étroitement reliées à la nervure 1A (fig. 247)

Lycaotini ..... 2
Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure pas complètement définies et non reliées à la nervure 1A (fig. 248) 3

2(1) Pattes noires, aile antérieure de couleur sombre Lycaota Konow (p. 155)
Pattes brun rougeâtre, aile antérieure de couleur claire Blennogeneris MacGillivray (p. 154)
3(1) Pulville non présent sur les articles 1 et 2 du tarse (fig. 249). Surface ventrale de tous les articles ou de l'un des articles 4 à 7 du flagelle de teinte pâle (surface pâle légèrement sclérotisée et généralement affaissée chez les spécimens desséchés) et chacun de ces articles beaucoup plus petit que l'article 3. Métépimère avec deux sillons ou lignes foncées formant un angle près de la jonction avec le métacoxa (fig. 251). (Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une longue dent subapicale et d'un lobe basal.) ....... Waldheimiini ..... 4

Pulville nettement apparent sur les articles 1 et 2 du tarse (fig. 250). Surface ventrale des articles 4 à 7 du flagelle fortement sclérotisée (pas affaissée chez les spécimens desséchés) et presque aussi longue ou légèrement plus courte que l'article 3. Métépimère sans sillon près du métacoxa ou pourvu d'un sillon légèrement courbé près du bord du métacoxa (fig. 253)

4(3) Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure courbées vers le haut à l'apex (fig. 255). Surface membraneuse entre le mésopleure et le métapleure petite ou absente, parce que le bord postérieur du mésopleure est convexe et le bord antérieur du métépimère légèrement concave (fig. 251)

Halidamia Benson (p. 163)
Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure rectilignes (fig. 254). Surface membraneuse entre le mésopleure et le métapleure grande, parce que le bord postérieur du mésépimère est rectiligne ou légèrement concave et le bord antérieur du métépimère profondément concave (fig. 252) Erythraspides Ashmead (p. 163)

5(3) Epicnémium clairement défini par un sillon étroit et situé
sur le même plan que le mésépisternum (fig. 256)
Tomostethini
6

Epicnémium non défini, ou défini par un large sillon, et
non situé sur le même plan que le mésépisternum
(fig. 257) ..... 7

6(5) Mésonotum fortement pubescent. Mésoscutellum et mésépisternum pourvus de fines fosses. Le 0,2 du clypéus à la base déprimée et dépourvue de soies

Tomostethus Konow (p. 155)
Mésonotum pourvu de soies éparses principalement dans la partie centrale de chaque sclérite. Mésoscutellum et mésépisternum lisses. Le 0,2 du clypéus à la base non déprimée et presque entièrement couverte de soies Tethida Ross (p. 156)

7(5) Griffe du tarse pourvue d'une longue dent préapicale (fig.
258) et épicnémium non défini. Griffe du tarse pourvue
(fig. 259) ou non pourvue d'un lobe basal

Blennocampini ..... 8

Griffe du tarse sans dent préapicale ou pourvue d'une courte dent préapicale (fig. 261), ou avec une longue dent interne et un épicnémium nettement défini. Griffe du tarse non pourvue d'un lobe basal (fig. 260) .................... 12

8(7) Sillon près du bord postérieur de l'oeil large et profond,
avec de grandes fosses (fig. 263) ....... Ardis Konow (p. 159)
Sillon près du bord postérieur de l'oeil étroit et peu profond, sans fosses (fig. 262) ........................................... 9
9(8) Anépimère du mésopleure avec surface membraneuse variant de petite à grande (sauf chez Periclista marginicollis) (fig. 265). Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure courbées vers le haut à l'apex (fig. 255) Periclista Konow ..... 11
Anépimère du mésopleure sans surface membraneuse (fig. 266). Nervures 2 A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure rectilignes à l'apex (fig. 254) 10

10(9) Catépimère du mésopleure profondément divisé en régions
antérieure et postérieure (fig. 281). Tergum 1 étroit en
partie médiane (fig. 273). Cenchrus approximativement
trois fois plus large que long

Monophadnus Hartig (p. 158)

Catépimère du mésopleure pas nettement divisé (fig. 276). Tergum 1 long en partie médiane (fig. 274). Cenchrus moins de deux fois plus large que long

Monophadnoides Ashmead (p. 162)

| (9) | Présence d'une nervure périphérique dans l'aile postérieure du mâle (fig. 264). Tergum 9 de la femelle petit (fig. 268) $\qquad$ Periclista (Periclista) Konow (p 161) |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | Absence de nervure périphérique dans l'aile postérieure du mâle. Tergum 9 de la femelle grand (fig. 267) .......... Periclista (Neocharactus) MacGillivray (p. 162) |

12(7) Longueur de l'article 1 du flagelle de 1,0 à 1,2 fois celle de l'article 2. Article 6 du flagelle au moins 2,5 fois plus long que large, ou, chez les adultes de quelques espèces, moins de 2,5 fois plus long que large

Phymatocerini ..... 13
Longueur de l'article 1 du flagelle approximativement 1,5 fois celle de l'article 2 . Article 6 du flagelle de 1,2 à 2,5 fois plus long que large ......................................................... 16
13(12) Mésépisternum pourvu de larges fosses. (Epicnémium non défini) ............................................ Lagonis Ross (p. 158) Mésépisternum non ponctué ........................................... 14

14(13) $\begin{aligned} & \text { Epicnémium non défini. Appendice mésoscutellaire court: } \\ & \text { longueur médiane inférieure au cinquième de celle du } \\ & \text { mésoscutellum (fig. 270) ........................................... }\end{aligned}$
Epicnémium nettement, faiblement, ou non défini (Paracharactus rudis) par un sillon. Appendice mésoscutellaire long : longueur médiane supérieure au quart de celle du mésoscutellum (fig. 269) ...................... 15
15(14) Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 petite : tergum 1 long dans la partie sous-médiane (fig. 274). Catépimère du mésothorax profondément divisé en moitiés antérieure et postérieure (fig. 275). Pulvilles de la femelle longs : longueur du pulville de l'article 1 du métatarse, au moins les deux tiers de la distance entre les pulvilles des articles 1 et 2 du tarse (fig. 272)

Paracharactus MacGillivray (p. 157)
Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 grande : tergum 1 court dans la partie sous-médiane (fig. 273). Catépimère du mésothorax pas nettement divisé en moitiés antérieure et postérieure (fig. 276). Pulvilles de la femelle courts : longueur du pulville de l'article 1 du métatarse, au plus un tiers de la distance entre les pulvilles des articles 1 et 2 du tarse (fig. 271)

Phymatocera Dahlbom (p. 156)

16(12) Epicnémium nettement défini par un sillon

Phymatocerini ..... 17

Epicnémium non défini .................................................. 18
 Eutomostethus Enslin (p. 159)
En vue latérale, carène occipitale de la tête visible près de la mandibule seulement (fig. 278); carène non ponctuée. Appendice mésoscutellaire court : longueur médiane de 0,15 à 0,2 fois celle du mésoscutellum (fig. 270). Corps noir .................................. Stethomostus Benson (p. 158)
18(16) Bord interne de la cavité antennaire nettement surélevé
en vue dorsale (fig. 279) ............................................... 19
Bord interne de la cavité antennaire peu ou pas surélevé en vue dorsale (fig. 280)

Blennocampini
20

19(18) Ailes antérieures et postérieures de teinte sombre. Nervures 2A et 3 A de l'aile antérieure courbées vers le haut à l'apex. Tibias noirs ou brun foncé. Fosses du mésoscutellum grandes (environ $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ de diamètre) et nettement définies. Catépimère du mésopleure non divisé en régions antérieure et postérieure (fig. 282) Blennocampini : Monardis Enslin (p. 160) Ailes antérieures et postérieures de teinte claire. Nervures 2A et 3A de l'aile antérieure rectilignes. Tibias de couleur paille. Fosses du mésoscutellum absentes ou petites (de 25 à $30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), ou variant de petites à grandes et pas nettement définies. Catépimère du mésopleure nettement divisé en régions antérieure et postérieure (fig. 281)

Phymatocerini : Monophadnus Hartig (p. 158)
20(18) Mésépisternum terne et sculpté. Mésoscutum ponctué. Surface de la tête rugueuse. Sillon près du bord postérieur de l'oeil étroit et peu profond (fig. 284)

Apareophora Sato (p. 160)
Mésépisternum brillant et lisse. Mésoscutum non ponctué. Surface de la tête lisse. Sillon près du bord postérieur de l'oeil large et profond (fig. 283)

## $\qquad$

Eupareophora Enslin (p. 160)

## Tribe Lycaotini

Diagnosis. Adults of Lycaotini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by veins 2 A and 3 A of the fore wing, which are completely outlined and fused for a short distance.

Diversity. The tribe consists of nine genera found in Eurasia and North and South America (Smith 1973). In North America two genera and six species are known (mainly west of the Rocky Mountains) (Smith 1979a). In Canada two genera and three species are recorded.

## Genus Blennogeneris MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Blennogeneris are distinguished from those of Lyacota by the clear wings and the reddish brown legs.

Diversity. The genus consists of three species and is restricted to North America (Smith 1969c). In Canada two species are recorded, but three are expected.

Host. Larvae of one species form bud galls on Symphoricarpos (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Lycaota Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Lycaota are distinguished from those of Blennogeneris by the darkened fore wings and the black legs.

Diversity. The genus consists of three species and is restricted to North America (Smith 1969). In Canada one species, L. sodalis (Cresson), is recorded.

Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the species of the genus.

## Tribe Tomostethini

Diagnosis. Adults of Tomostethini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the well-developed pulvilli on tarsomeres 1 and 2 and by the sharply outlined epicnemial area.

Diversity. The tribe is recorded in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America the tribe consists of two genera and two species (Smith 1969c).

## Genus Tomostethus Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Tomostethus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the depressed and hairless basal 0.2 of the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 12 species mainly centred in eastern Asia (Smith 1969c). In North America, including Canada, one species, T. multicinctus (Rohwer), is known (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on ashes (Smith 1979a).
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Tethida Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Tethida are distinguished from those of Tomostethus by the densely pubescent mesonotum.

Diversity. The genus consists of a single eastern North American species, T. barba (Say) (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on ashes (Smith 1979a)
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Tribe Phymatocerini

Diagnosis. Adults of Phymatocerini are difficult to define on external character states and are best defined by the character combination given by Smith (1969c).

Diversity. The tribe is known in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952; Smith 1969c). In North America seven genera and 27 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada seven genera and 18 species are recorded, but 20 species are expected.

## Genus Phymatocera Dahlbom

Diagnosis. Adults of Phymatocera are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of seven species from Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). The genus is most diverse in North America. In North America, including Canada, five species are known (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on various species of Smilacina (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Goulet (1981) characterized males and females of the North American species of the genus. Smith (1969c) characterized the North American species mainly on female characters.

Diagnosis. Adults of Paracharactus are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of seven species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America three species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada two species are recorded, but three are expected.

Host. Larvae of some Eurasian species feed on members of the iris and lily families (Benson 1952).

Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Rhadinoceraea Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Rhadinoceraea are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of at least 12 species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America nine species are known (Smith 1969c, 1990). In Canada three species are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on Calochortus, Zigadenus, and Veratrum (Smith 1969c, 1990).

Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus. Smith (1990) added one more species living on Zigadenus.

## Subgenus Veratra Smith

Diagnosis. Adults of Veratra are distinguished from those of Rhadinoceraea by the absence of an inner tooth on the claw.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of five species found in Eurasia and mainly in North America (Smith 1969c). In North America five species are known (Smith 1969c, 1990). In Canada three species are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on Veratrum (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Lagonis Ross

Diagnosis. Adults of Lagonis are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the large punctures on the mesepisternum and the mesoscutellum.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species, one in Eurasia and L. nevadensis (Cresson) in North America (Smith 1969c). In North America, including Canada, L. nevadensis is found in the Rocky Mountains and westward (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on elderberry (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Monophadnus Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Monophadnus are distinguished from those of other genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of 13 species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America seven species are known (Smith 1969c). In Canada four species are recorded, but five are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on buttercups (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Stethomostus Benson

Diagnosis. Adults of Stethomostus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In eastern North America, including Canada, one introduced species, S. fuliginosus (Shrank), is known (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on buttercups (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Eutomostethus Enslin

Diagnosis. Adults of Eutomostethus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of $25-30$ species found across Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). Eastern Asia is the region of greatest diversity (Smith 1969c). In North America, including Canada, two species are known (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on Poa and other soft grasses, as well as on rushes (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Blennocampini

Diagnosis. Adults of Blennocampini are difficult to define by external character states and are best distinguished by the combination of characters in Smith (1969c).

Diversity. The tribe's range extends throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America six genera and 33 species are known (Smith 1969c). In Canada six genera and 18 species are recorded, but 22 species are expected.

## Genus Ardis Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Ardis are distinguished from other North American genera of the family by the large and pitted groove along the posterior margin of the eye.

Diversity. The genus consists of three species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America and in Canada two species are recorded (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae are shoot borer of roses (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Monardis Enslin

Diagnosis. Adults of Monardis are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In central and western North America, including Canada, one species, M. pulla Smith, is recorded (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Apareophora Sato

Diagnosis. Adults of Apareophora are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of six species found in eastern Asia and North America (Smith 1969). In eastern North America, including Canada, two species are known (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on spirea (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Eupareophora Enslin

Diagnosis. Adults of Eupareophora are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by the deep and smooth groove along the ventral half of the posterior margin of the eye.

Diversity. The genus consists of two species found in Europe and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America, including Canada, E. parca (Cresson) is the only species known (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on hickory, ash, and perhaps Chionanthus (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Periclista Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of the genus Periclista are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the small membranous surface on the anepimeron of the mesothorax, except for adults of $P$. marginicollis (Norton), which are best characterized by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of 23 species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). The genus is especially diverse in North America, where 19 species are known (Smith 1969c). In Canada five species are recorded, but nine species are expected.

Host. Larvae feed almost exclusively on oak, though those of one species also feed on hickory (Smith 1969c).

Comments. Stannard (1949) revised the North American species of the genus. Smith (1969c) characterized one additional species.

## Subgenus Periclista Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of the subgenus Periclista are distinguished from those of the subgenus Neocharactus by the presence of a peripheral vein in the hind wing in the male and by the rather long tergum 9 of the female in lateral view.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of 19 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America 15 species are known (Smith 1969c). In Canada five species are recorded, but six are expected.

Comments. See genus Periclista.

Diagnosis. Adults of Neocharactus are distinguished from those of Periclista by the absence of a peripheral vein on the hind wing of the male and by the relatively short tergum 9 of the female in lateral view.

Diversity. The subgenus consists of four species restricted to North America (Smith 1969c). In Canada no species are recorded, but two are expected.

Comments. See genus Periclista.

## Genus Monophadnoides Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Monophadnoides are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the combination of characters in the key.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 20 species from Eurasia and North America (Smith 1969c). In North America, including Canada, seven species are recorded (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on Rubus (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Waldheimiini

Diagnosis. Adults of Waldheimiini are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the absence of pulvillus on tarsomeres 1 and 2 and by the presence of a divergent furrow on the metepisternum near the metacoxa.

Diversity. The tribe occurs around the world but is especially diverse in South and Central America (Smith 1969c). In North America three genera are known (Smith 1969c), and in Canada two are recorded.

Diagnosis. Adults of Erythraspides are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the straight veins 2 A and 3 A of the fore wing.

Diversity. The genus consists of 12 species from Africa, Mexico, and South America (Smith 1969c). In North America two species are known (Smith 1969c). In Canada one species is recorded, but two are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on primroses and grapes (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Halidamia Benson

Diagnosis. Adults of Halidamia are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the curved apex of veins 2 A and 3 A of the fore wing.

Diversity. The genus consists of one species, H. affinis (Fallen), found in Eurasia and introduced in eastern North America (Smith 1969c).

Host. Larvae feed on Galium (Smith 1969c).
Comments. Smith (1969c) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Subfamily Allantinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Allantinae are distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the fore wing veins $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$ and $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$, which form an angle of $140-150^{\circ}$; by the short distance of the fore wing vein $R$ between junctions of veins $M$ and $R s+M$; and by veins 2 A and 3 A , which are completely outlined and clearly constricted in the basal cell.

Diversity. A diverse assemblage of genera are recorded from Eurasia and from North and South America (Benson 1952; Smith 1979b). The range of the subfamily extends throughout temperate, boreal, and southern arctic regions. In North America 14 genera and 63 species are known (Smith 1979b). In Canada 12 genera and 50 species are recorded, but 57 species are expected.


Figs. 285, 286. Mesepimeron. 285, Dimorphopteryx abnormis Rohwer; 286, Taxonus terminalis (Say).
Figs. 287, 288. Dorsal view of head (ocellar area stippled). 287, Eriocampa ovata (Linnaeus); 288, D. abnormis.

## Key to tribes and genera of Allantinae

1 Pits of mesepisternum and mesoscutellum dense and large over surface. Katepimeron of mesopleuron much enlarged in posterior half (Fig. 285)

Eriocampini 2
Pits of mesepisternum and mesoscutellum scattered and small or absent and surface smooth or rough. Katepimeron of mesopleuron slightly enlarged in posterior half (Fig. 286) 4



290
291

Figs. 289, 290. Median lobe of mesoscutum (stippled). 289, Dimorphopteryx abnormis Rohwer; 290, Eriocampa ovata (Linnaeus).
Fig. 291. Lateral view of head of D. abnormis.
2(1) Median ocellus surrounded by sharp ridges (Fig. 287). Posterior half of median lobe depressed into a distinct flat surface (Fig. 290). Abdomen black. Pulvillus developed on tarsomeres 3 and 4 only

Eriocampa Hartig (p. 172)
Median ocellus not surrounded by sharp ridges (Fig. 288). Posterior half of median lobe convex, not depressed, and continuous with anterior half (Fig. 289). Abdomen with some pale segments. Pulvillus developed on tarsomeres 1-4 3

3(2) Occipital ridge of head in lateral view developed only near mandible. Pits of mesoscutum and head dense. Femora mainly black and tergum 1 white or reddish brown

Pseudosiobla Ashmead (p. 172)
Occipital ridge of head in lateral view developed from mandible to ocellar furrow (Fig. 291). Pits of mesoscutum and head scattered. Femora mostly reddish brown and tergum 1 completely black

Dimorphopteryx Ashmead (p. 173)
4(1) Medial length of postnotum of metathorax 0.8 or more of maximal length of postnotum, about halfway between side and midline (Fig. 292). Mesepisternum pitted or surface roughened in dorsal half. Anterior margin of clypeus widely concave (Fig. 297)

Allantini ..... 5
Medial length of postnotum of metathorax 0.7 or less of maximal length of postnotum, halfway between side and midline (Figs. 293-294). Mesepisternum not pitted and surface smooth or sculptured. Anterior margin of clypeus less widely concave than above (Figs. 295-296)

Empriini
7


Figs. 292-294. Metathoracic postnotum. 292, Taxonus terminalis (Say); 293, Aphilodyctium fidum (Cresson); 294, Phrontosoma belfragei (Cresson).
Figs. 295-297. Clypeus. 295, Ametastegia pallipes (Spinola); 296, Aphilodyctium fidum; 297, Macremphytus tarsatus (Say).
Figs. 298, 299. Lateral view of metatarsus. 298, M. tarsatus; 299, Allantus cinctus (Linnaeus).

5(4) Mesoscutellar appendage without setae. Pedicel clearly longer than wide. First free sector of vein Rs of fore wing present (Fig. 300a). Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing in female absent or very short (Fig. 300b)

Taxonus Hartig (p. 177)
Mesoscutellar appendage with setae. Pedicel as wide as or wider than long. First free sector of vein Rs of fore wing absent (Fig. 301a). Vein at apex of anal cell of hind wing in female clearly developed (Fig. 301b) 6

6(5) Antenna bicolored or tricolored: at least scape and pedicel clearly different in color from flagellomeres 4-7. Mesepisternum clearly pitted. Length of metatarsomere 1, 1.2 times that of combined 2-5 (Fig. 298). Cell M of hind wing closed (Fig. 308)

Macremphytus MacGillivray (p. 177)


Figs. 300, 301. Fore wings (a) and hind wings (b). 300, Taxonus borealis MacGillivray; 301, Allantus cinctus (Linnaeus).
Fig. 302. Dorsal view of abdomen of Empria multicolor (Norton).
Antenna concolored and black. Mesepisternum markedly roughened in dorsal half but not pitted. Length of metatarsomere $1,0.9$ times or less that of combined $2-5$ (Fig. 299). Cell M of hind wing open (Fig. 307)

Allantus Panzer (p. 176)
7(4) Terga 2-5 each with pair of pale spots (Fig. 302). Minimum malar space in female $0.5-1.2$, or in male $0.5-0.7$, times as long as diameter of antennal socket

Empria Lepeletier (p. 173)
Terga 2-5 without spots. Minimum malar space in female $0.3-0.5$, or in male $0.2-0.4$, times as long as diameter of antennal socket 8

8(7) Posterior margin of head in lateral view with ridge extended from mandible to at least level of dorsal margin of eye (Fig. 303). Medial length of postnotum of metathorax $0.5-0.7$ of maximum length of postnotum halfway between side and midline (Fig. 293)
Posterior margin of head in lateral view without occipital ridge or ridge developed only near mandible (Fig. 304). Medial length of postnotum of metathorax $0.2-0.3$ of maximum length of postnotum halfway between side and midline (Fig. 294) 11

9(8) Flagellomere 1, 1.0-1.2 times as long as 2. Mesoscutellar appendage smooth. Postocellar area about 1.5 times wider than long. Hind wing without M cell (Fig. 307). Cercus in female 1.5-2.0 times as long as wide


307

306
308

Figs. 303, 304. Lateral view of head. 303, Ametastegia glabrata (Fallén); 304, Phrontosoma belfragei (Cresson).
Figs. 305, 306. Ventral view of prothorax. 305, P. belfragei; 306, Monostegia abdominalis (Fabricius).
Figs. 307, 308. Hind wing. 307, A. glabrata; 308, Monosoma inferentia (Norton).
Flagellomere 1, 1.5 times as long as 2. Mesoscutellar appendage sculptured. Postocellar area about as long as wide. Hind wing with M cell (Fig. 308). Cercus in female four to five times as long as wide $\qquad$
$\qquad$ Monosoma Viereck (p. 174)
10(9) Anterior margin of clypeus circularly concave: depth of concavity 0.5 to 1.0 of medial length of clypeus (Fig. 296). Anal crossvein of fore wing oblique. Female with dense setae on metascutellum

Aphilodyctium Ashmead (p. 175)
Anterior margin of clypeus almost sligthly concave: depth of concavity 0.3 of medial length of clypeus (Fig. 295). Anal crossvein of fore wing almost perpendicular. Female with scattered setae on metascutellum

Ametastegia Costa (p. 175)
11(8) Mesoscutellar appendage without setae. Posterior third of mesoscutellum clearly pitted. Postocellar area twice as wide as long. Occipital ridge on posterior margin of head in lateral view developed near mandible only (Fig. 304). Propleura not touching at midline on ventral surface (Fig. 305)

Phrontosoma MacGillivray (p. 174)

Mesoscutellar appendage with numerous setae. Mesoscutellum not pitted. Postocellar area slightly wider than long. Occipital ridge on posterior margin of postocular area in lateral view absent. Propleura touching at midline on ventral surface (Fig. 306) ...... Monostegia Costa (p. 174)

## Clé des tribus et des genres d'Allantinae

1 Fosses à la surface du mésépisternum et du mésoscutellum denses et grandes. Catépimère du mésopleure très élargi dans la moitié postérieure (fig. 285) ........ Eriocampini ..... 2
Fosses du mésépisternum et du mésoscutellum éparses et petites, ou absentes et surface lisse ou rugueuse. Catépimère du mésopleure légèrement élargi dans la moitié postérieure (fig. 286)

2(1) Ocelle médian entouré de carènes tranchantes (fig. 287). Moitié postérieure du lobe médian déprimée et formant une surface aplatie distincte (fig. 290). Abdomen noir. Pulville présent sur les articles 3 et 4 du tarse seulement Eriocampa Hartig (p. 172)
Ocelle médian non entouré de carènes tranchantes (fig. 288). Moitié postérieure du lobe médian convexe, non déprimée, et en continuité avec la moitié antérieure (fig. 289). Abdomen pourvu de quelques segments de couleur pâle. Pulville présent sur les articles 1 à 4 du tarse ........ 3

3(2) En vue latérale, carène occipitale de la tête visible seulement près de la mandibule. Fosses du mésoscutum et de la tête denses. Fémur principalement noir et tergum 1 blanc ou brun rougeâtre

Pseudosiobla Ashmead (p. 172)
En vue latérale, carène occipitale de la tête visible de la mandibule au sillon ocellaire (fig. 291). Fosses du mésoscutum et de la tête éparses. Fémur presque entièrement brun rougeâtre et tergum 1 complètement noir

Dimorphopteryx Ashmead (p. 173)
4(1) Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax égale ou supérieure à 0,8 fois la longueur maximale du postnotum, environ à mi-chemin entre le côté et la ligne médiane (fig. 292). Mésépisternum ponctué ou à surface rugueuse dans la moitié dorsale. Bord antérieur du clypéus largement concave (fig. 297)

Allantini

Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax égale ou inférieure à 0,7 fois la longueur maximale du postnotum, à mi-chemin entre le côté et la ligne médiane (fig. 293, 294). Mésépisternum non ponctué et surface lisse ou sculptée. Bord antérieur du clypéus moins largement concave que ci-dessus (fig. 295, 296)

Empriini ..... 7
5(4) Appendice mésoscutellaire dépourvu de soies. Pédicelle nettement plus long que large. Premier secteur libre de la nervure Rs de l'aile antérieure présent (fig. 300a). Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure absente chez la femelle ou très courte (fig. 300b) Taxonus Hartig (p. 177)
Appendice mésoscutellaire pourvu de soies. Pédicelle aussi large ou plus large que long. Premier secteur libre de la nervure Rs de l'aile antérieure absent (fig. 301a). Nervure à l'apex de la cellule anale de l'aile postérieure nettement visible chez la femelle (fig. 301b)

6(5) Antenne bicolore ou tricolore : au moins le scape et le pédicelle d'une couleur nettement différente de celle des articles 4 à 7 du flagelle. Mésépisternum nettement ponctué. Longueur de l'article 1 du métatarse 1,2 fois les longueurs combinées des articles 2 à 5 (fig. 298). Cellule M de l'aile postérieure fermée (fig. 308)

Macremphytus MacGillivray (p. 177)
Antenne complètement noire. Mésépisternum nettement rugueux dans la moitié dorsale mais non ponctué. Longueur de l'article 1 du métatarse égale ou inférieure à 0,9 fois les longueurs combinées des articles 2 à 5 (fig. 299). Cellule M de l'aile postérieure ouverte (fig. 307) $\qquad$ Allantus Panzer (p. 176)

7(4) Terga 2 à 5 portant chacun une paire de taches pâles (fig. 302). Surface malaire minimale de 0,5 à 1,2 fois la longueur du diamètre de la cavité antennaire chez la femelle, ou de 0,5 à 0,7 fois la longuer chez le mâle Empria Lepeletier (p. 173)
Terga 2 à 5 sans taches. Surface malaire minimale 0,3 à 0,5 fois la longueur du diamètre de la cavité antennaire chez la femelle, ou 0,2 à 0,4 fois la longueur chez le mâle

8(7) Bord postérieur de la tête, en vue latérale, pourvu d'une carène s'étendant au moins de la mandibule au bord dorsal de l'oeil (fig. 303). Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax de 0,5 à 0,7 fois la longueur maximale du postnotum mesurée à mi-chemin entre le côté et la ligne médiane (fig. 293) 9
Bord postérieur de la tête, en vue latérale, sans carène occipitale ou avec une carène visible seulement près de la mandibule (fig. 304). Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax, de 0,2 à 0,3 fois la longueur maximale du postnotum prise à mi-chemin entre le côté et la ligne médiane (fig. 294)

11
9(8) Article 1 du flagelle, 1,0 à 1,2 fois plus long que l'article 2. Appendice mésoscutellaire lisse. Région postocellaire environ 1,5 fois plus large que longue. Aile postérieure sans cellule M (fig. 307). Cerque de 1,5 à 2,0 fois plus long que large chez la femelle 10
Article 1 du flagelle, 1,5 fois plus long que l'article 2. Appendice mésoscutellaire sculpté. Région postocellaire presque aussi longue que large. Aile postérieure avec cellule M (fig. 308). Cerque de quatre à cinq fois plus long que large chez la femelle

Monosoma Viereck (p. 174)
10(9) Bord antérieur du clypéus présentant une concavité circulaire : profondeur de la cavité de 0,5 à 1,0 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 296). Nervure transversale de l'aile antérieure oblique. Métascutellum de la femelle pourvu de soies denses

Aphilodyctium Ashmead (p. 175)
Bord antérieur du clypéus à peine concave : profondeur de la cavité 0,3 fois la longueur médiane du clypéus (fig. 295). Nervure transversale de l'aile antérieure presque perpendiculaire. Métascutellum de la femelle pourvu de soies dispersées

Ametastegia Costa (p. 175)
11(8) Appendice mésoscutellaire dépourvu de soies. Tiers postérieur du mésoscutellum nettement ponctué. Région postocellaire deux fois plus large que longue. Carène occipitale du bord postérieur de la tête visible seulement près de la mandibule en vue latérale (fig. 304). Propleure ne se rejoignant pas à la ligne médiane de la surface ventrale (fig. 305)

Phrontosoma MacGillivray (p. 174)

Appendice mésoscutellaire garni de nombreuses soies. Mésoscutellum non ponctué. Région postocellaire légèrement plus large que longue. Carène occipitale du bord postérieur de la région postocellaire absente en vue latérale. Propleure se rejoignant à la ligne médiane de la surface ventrale (fig. 306) ....... Monostegia Costa (p. 174)

## Tribe Eriocampini

Diagnosis. Adults of Eriocampini are distinguished from those of other North American tribes of the subfamily by the large pits, which are dense over the mesepisternum and the mesoscutellum.

Diversity. The tribe is small, with genera found in temperate portions of Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America three genera and nine species are known (Smith 1979b). In Canada three genera and seven species are recorded but eight species are expected.

## Genus Pseudosiobla Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Pseudosiobla are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the dense punctures on the mesoscutum and by the partly pale pattern of the abdominal terga.

Diversity. The genus consists of two Nearctic species (Smith 1979b). In Canada one species is recorded, but two are expected in southeastern regions.

Host. Larvae feed on Cephalanthus (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Eriocampa Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Eriocampa are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the posterior half of the median lobe, which is depressed and sharply set apart from the anterior half as a flat surface.

Diversity. The genus consists of 10 species in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America and Canada two species are known (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on walnuts and alders (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Dimorphopteryx Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Dimorphopteryx are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the scattered pits on the mesoscutum and by the partly pale pattern of the abdominal terga.

Diversity. The genus consists of five North American species (Smith 1979b). In Canada four species are recorded. The range of the genus is restricted to regions east of the Rocky Mountains (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on cherry, plum, pear, apple, serviceberry, hawthorn, birch, oak, alder, and buckeye (Smith 19796).

Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the species of the genus.

## Tribe Empriini

Diagnosis. Adults of Empriini are distinguished from those of other North American tribes of the subfamily by the short postnotum of the metathorax medially and by the absence of punctures on the mesepisternum.

Diversity. This is a moderately diverse tribe, with a range extending throughout the temperate, boreal, and southern arctic regions of Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b).

## Genus Empria Lepeletier

Diagnosis. Adults of Empria are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the family by a pair of pale spots (usually white in dried specimens) on the basal abdominal terga.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 35 species found throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America 12 species are known (Smith 1979b, 1980), and in Canada 10 are recorded.

Host. Larvae feed on leaves of birch, hazelnut, willow(?), strawberry, Potentilla, Rubus, rose, and alder (Smith 1979b).

Comments. Smith (1979b, 1980) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Phrontosoma MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Phrontosoma are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the concolorous abdominal terga, by the short medial length of the metathoracic postnotum, and by the presence of pits on the mesoscutellum.

Diversity. The genus consists of three North American species, all of which are found in Canada (Smith 1979b). The range of the genus is restricted to regions east of the Rocky Mountains (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae of one species feed on dogwood (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Monosoma MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Monosoma are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the concolorous abdominal terga, by the long medial length of the metathoracic postnotum, and by the long flagellomere 1 ( 1.5 times longer than 4 ).

Diversity. The genus consists of two species, one in temperate regions of Europe and the other, M. inferentia (Norton), in eastern North America and Canada (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on alders (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Genus Monostegia Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of Monostegia are distinguished from other North American genera of the tribe by the concolorous abdominal terga, by the short medial length of the metathoracic postnotum, and by the many setae on the mesoscutellar appendage.

Diversity. The genus consists of four species found across Eurasia (Taeger 1987). In eastern United States and in Canada only M. abdominalis (Fabricius), an introduced species, is known (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on Lysimachia and Anagallis (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) characterized the single species of the genus. Price (1970) described the biology of M. abdominalis.

## Genus Ametastegia Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of Ametastegia are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of pale spots on basal abdominal terga, by the well-developed occipital ridge along the posterior margin of the head in lateral view, and by the almost straight anterior margin of the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 28 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America 15 species are known. In Canada 10 species are recorded, but 13 are expected. The range of the genus extends throughout temperate and boreal regions (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on Rumex, Polygonum, violet, and willow (Smith 1979b).

Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Aphilodyctium Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Aphilodyctium are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of pale paired spots on the basal abdominal terga, by the welldeveloped occipital ridge along the posterior margin of the head in lateral view, and by the deeply concave anterior margin of the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of a single North American species, A. fidum (Cresson), found across the temperate and southern boreal regions of North America (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on roses (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Tribe Allantini

Diagnosis. Adults of Allantini are distinguished from those of other tribes of the subfamily by the very long medial length of the metathoracic postnotum.

Diversity. The range of the tribe extends throughout Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America, including Canada, three genera are known (Smith 1979b).

## Genus Allantus Panzer

Diagnosis. Adults of Allantus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the presence of setae on the mesoscutellar appendage and by the concolorous antennae.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 35 species found across Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). In North America eight species are known (Smith 1979b). In Canada six species are recorded, but seven are expected.

Host. Larvae feed on rose, strawberry, birch, and Rubus (Smith 1979b).

Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Macremphytus MacGillivray

Diagnosis. Adults of Macremphytus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the bicolorous or tricolorous antennae and by the very long medial portion of the metathoracic postnotum.

Diversity. The genus consists of four North American species found throughout the temperate regions of North America (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on dogwood (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the species of the genus.

## Genus Taxonus Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Taxonus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of setae on the mesoscutellar appendage.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 30 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1979b). The genus is most diverse in eastern Asia (Benson 1952). In North America nine species are recorded (Smith 1979b). In Canada eight species are known, but nine are expected. The genus is most diverse in eastern North America (Smith 1979b).

Host. Larvae feed on strawberry and Rubus (Smith 1979b).
Comments. Smith (1979b) revised the North American species of the genus.


Figs. 309-315. Metepimeron. 309, Tenthredo originalis (Norton); 310, Tenthredo basilaris Say; 311, Rhogogaster californica (Norton); 312, Lagium atroviolaceum (Norton); 313, Aglaostigma quattuordecimpunctatum (Norton); 314, Zaschizonyx montana (Cresson); 315, Filacus pluricincta (Norton).


Figs. 316, 317. Metathoracic postnotum. 316, Leucopelmonus annulicornis (Harrington); 317, Tenthredo basilaris Say.
Figs. 318, 319. Anal cells of fore wing: (a) apical, (b) basal. 318, L. annulicornis; 319, Rhogogaster californica (Norton).
Fig. 320. Frontal view of head of $L$. annulicornis.
Figs. 321, 322. Lateral view of head. 321, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby; 322, L. annulicornis.

## Key to tribes and genera of Tenthredininae

1 Angle of posteroventral margin of metepimeron almost lacking or obtuse (Figs. 309-311)
Angle of posteroventral margin of metepimeron almost square (Figs. 312-315) 5

2(1) Medial length of postnotum of metathorax half of distance (or more) between cenchri (Fig. 316). Length of basal anal cell of fore wing $0.5-0.6$ that of apical anal cell (Fig. 318). Maximum postocular width in lateral view 0.5-0.6 that of eye (Fig. 322). Inner margin of eye in anterior view straight to slightly convex (Fig. 320)
......... Perineurini: Leucopelmonus MacGillivray (p. 186)
Medial length of postnotum of metathorax about one-third of distance between cenchri (Fig. 317). Length of basal anal cell of fore wing 0.7-1.0 that of apical anal cell (Fig. 319). Maximal postocular width in lateral view 0.7-1.1 maximum width of eye (Fig. 321). Inner margin of eye in anterior view slightly to markedly concave (Figs. 326, 327) ............................................................. Tenthredinini ..... 3



Figs. 323-325. Lateral view of head. 323, Ischyroceraea arctica (Thomson); 324, Rhogogaster californica (Norton); 325, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby.
Figs. 326, 327. Frontal view of head. 326, I. arctica; 327, T. leucostoma.


Figs. 328-330. Dorsal view of head. 328, Macrophya bifasciata (Say); 329, Ischyroceraea arctica (Thomson); 330, Tenthredo leucostoma Kirby.
Figs. 331-333. Lateral view of head. 331, Aglaostigma semiluteum (Norton); 332, Filacus pluricincta (Norton); 333, M. trisyllaba (Norton).
Fig. 334. Metathoracic postnotum of Lagium atroviolaceum (Norton).
3(2) Minimum malar length 1.2 times or more that of antennal socket (Fig. 323)

Ischyroceraea Kiaer (p. 189)
Minimum malar length 0.8 times or less that of antennal socket (Fig. 324)

4(3) Eye small: in lateral view, surface adjacent to inner margin of eye visible in front of at least ventral half of eye (Fig. 324). Main axis of eye extending to frontal condyle of mandible (Fig. 326). Apical margin of labrum straight or slightly concave. In lateral view, pronotum without groove near ventral and anterior margins

Rhogogaster Konow (p. 188)
Eye large: in lateral view, surface adjacent to inner margin of eye not visible in front of eye (Fig. 325). Main axis of eye extending to frontoclypeal suture (Fig. 327). Apical margin of labrum convex (Fig. 327). In lateral view, pronotum with groove near anterior margin and usually near ventral margin (Fig. 325)

Tenthredo Linnaeus (p. 189)

5(1) In dorsal view, inner ridge of antennal socket clearly projected beyond median area (Fig. 330). In lateral view, head without occipital ridge (Fig. 331). Minimum malar space $0.6-0.9$ of diameter of antennal socket (Fig. 331). (Clypeus straight)

Tenthredopsini: Aglaostigma Kirby (p. 187)
In dorsal view, inner ridge of antennal socket slightly (or not) projected beyond median area (Figs. 328-329). In lateral view, head with clearly defined occipital ridge extended from the mandible to the postocellar furrow (Fig. 332). Minimum malar space $0.2-0.5$ of diameter of antennal socket (Figs. 332-333)
6(5) Main axis of eye extending between mandibular condyles (Fig. 331). Medial length of postnotum of metathorax about half of distance between cenchri (Fig. 334). Ventroposterior margin of metepimeron forming a sharp angle (Fig. 312). Mesoscutellar appendage smooth and not pitted. Length of basal anal cell of fore wing about half as long as that of apical anal cell (Fig. 318)

Tenthredinini: Lagium Konow (p. 188)
Main axis of eye extending towards frontal condyle (Fig. 333). Medial length of postnotum of metathorax 0.2-0.3 of distance between cenchri. Ventroposterior margin of metepimeron round or slightly extended and not sharp (Fig. 313, 315). Mesoscutellar appendage sculptured or with few to many pits (or both). Length of basal anal cell of fore wing about three-quarters as long as or longer than that of apical anal cell (Fig. 319)


Fig. 335. Antenna; flagellomeres 1 and 2 of male of Pachyprotasis rapae (Linnaeus).
Fig. 336. Clypeus and labrum of Filacus pluricincta (Norton).
Figs. 337, 338. Tergum 1 (membranous area stippled). 337, Zaschizonyx montana (Cresson); 338, F. pluricincta.
Figs. 339, 340. Anal cells of fore wing. 339, Z. montana; 340, P. rapae.

7(6) Medial length of labrum shorter than that of clypeus (Fig. 336). Longest spur at apex of metatibia subequal to maximum width of tibia

Sciapterygini ..... 8
Medial length of labrum as long as or longer than that of clypeus. Longest spur at apex of metatibia markedly longer than maximum width of tibia ..... Macrophyini ..... 9

8(7) Apical margin of clypeus widely and deeply concave. Minimum malar space about half of diameter of antennal socket. Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 large: tergum 1 short near middle (Fig. 337)

Zaschizonyx Ashmead (p. 186)
Apical margin of clypeus straight or slightly concave (Fig. 336). Minimum malar space about 0.2 of diameter of antennal socket. Membranous area between terga 1 and 2 small: tergum 1 long near middle (Fig. 338)

Filacus Smith \& Gibson (p. 187)
9(7) Flagellomere 1 about as long as 2 (Fig. 335). Eye small: in lateral view, surface adjacent to inner margin of eye visible (as in Fig. 324). Basal and apical anal cells of fore wing fused for a distance longer than width of anal cells (Fig. 340). Flagellomeres 1-7 in male with sharp lengthwise ridge (Fig. 335)

Pachyprotasis Hartig (p. 190)
Flagellomere 1 at least 1.5 times longer than 2. Eye large: in lateral view, surface adjacent to inner margin of eye not visible in front of eye (as in Fig. 325). Basal and apical anal cells of fore wing fused for a distance as long as (longer in a few aberrant specimens) or less than width of anal cells (Fig. 339). Flagellomeres 1-7 in male without lengthwise ridge

Macrophya Dahlbom (p. 190)

## Clé des tribus et des genres de Tenthredininae

1 Angle postéroventral du métépimère presque absent ou
Angle postéroventral du métépimère presque droit (fig. 312 à 315) 5

2(1) Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax égale (ou supérieure) à la moitié de la distance entre les cenchri (fig. 316). Longueur de la cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure 0,5 à 0,6 fois celle de la cellule anale apicale (fig. 318). Largeur postocellaire maximale de 0,5 à 0,6 fois celle de l'oeil en vue latérale (fig. 322). Bord interne de l'oeil, en vue antérieure, variant de rectiligne à légèrement convexe (fig. 320)

Perineuri : Leucopelmonus MacGillivray (p. 186)
Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax approximativement égale au tiers de la distance entre les cenchri (fig. 317). Longueur de la cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure de 0,7 à 1,0 fois celle de la cellule anale apicale (fig. 319). Largeur postoculaire maximale de 0,7 à 1,1 la largeur maximale de l'oeil en vue latérale (fig. 321). Bord interne de l'oeil, en vue antérieure, variant de légèrement à fortement concave (fig. 326, 327) Tenthredinini ..... 3
3(2) Longueur malaire minimale égale ou supérieure à 1,2 fois celle de la cavité antennaire (fig. 323)

Ischyroceraea Kiaer (p. 189)
Longueur malaire minimale égale ou inférieure à 0,8 fois celle de la cavité antennaire (fig. 324) 4

4(3) Oeil petit : en vue latérale, surface adjacente au bord interne de l'oeil visible au moins devant la moitié ventrale de l'oeil (fig. 324). Axe principal se prolongeant jusqu'au condyle frontal de la mandibule (fig. 326). Bord apical du labre rectiligne ou légèrement concave. En vue latérale, absence de sillon sur le pronotum près des bords ventral et antérieur

Rhogogaster Konow (p. 188)
Oeil grand : en vue latérale, surface adjacente au bord interne de l'oeil non visible devant l'oeil (fig. 325). Axe principal de l'oeil se prolongeant jusqu'à la suture frontoclypéale (fig. 327). Bord apical du labre convexe (fig. 327 ). En vue latérale, pronotum pourvu d'un sillon près du bord antérieur et généralement près du bord ventral (fig. 325)

Tenthredo Linnaeus (p. 189)
5(1) En vue dorsale, carène interne de la cavité antennaire nettement en saillie au-dessus de la région médiane (fig. 330). En vue latérale, tête sans carène occipitale (fig. 331). Surface malaire minimale de 0,6 à 0,9 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 331). (Clypéus rectiligne)
.................... Tenthredopsini : Aglaostigma Kirby (p. 187)

En vue dorsale, carène interne de la cavité antennaire légèrement en saillie (ou pas en saillie) au-dessus de la région médiane (fig. 328, 329). En vue latérale, tête pourvue d'une carène occipitale nettement définie s'étendant de la mandibule au sillon postocellaire (fig. 332). Surface malaire minimale de 0,2 à 0,5 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire (fig. 332, 333) 6

6(5) Axe principal de l'oeil s'étendant entre les condyles de la mandibule (fig. 331). Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax environ la moitié de la distance entre les cenchri (fig. 334). Bord ventropostérieur du métépimère formant un angle aigu (fig. 312). Appendice mésoscutellaire lisse et non ponctué. Longueur de la cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure approximativement la moitié de celle de la cellule anale apicale (fig. 318)

Tenthredinini : Lagium Konow (p. 188)
Axe principal de l'oeil s'étendant vers le condyle frontal (fig. 333). Longueur médiane du postnotum du métathorax de 0,2 à 0,3 fois la distance entre les cenchri. Bord ventropostérieur du métépimère arrondi ou se prolongeant légèrement et ne formant pas d'angle aigu (fig. 313, 315). Appendice mésoscutellaire sculpté ou pourvu de fosses variant de quelques-unes à beaucoup (ou les deux). Longueur de la cellule anale basale de l'aile antérieure environ les trois quarts de celle de la cellule anale apicale (fig. 319) 7

7(6) Longueur médiane du labre inférieure à celle du clypéus (fig. 336). Éperon le plus long à l'apex du métatibia presque égal à la longueur maximale du tibia

Sciapterygini ..... 8
Longueur médiane du labre égale ou supérieure à celle du clypéus. Éperon le plus long à l'apex du métatibia nettement plus long que la largeur maximale du tibia Macrophyini ..... 9

8(7) Bord apical du clypéus largement et profondément concave. Surface malaire minimale environ la moitié du diamètre de la cavité antennaire. Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 grande : tergum 1 court près du centre (fig.337)

Zaschizonyx Ashmead (p. 186)
Bord apical du clypéus rectiligne ou légèrement concave (fig. 336). Surface malaire minimale environ 0,2 fois le diamètre de la cavité antennaire. Surface membraneuse entre les terga 1 et 2 petite : tergum 1 long près du milieu (fig. 338)

Filacus Smith \& Gibson (p. 187)

9(7) Article 1 du flagelle presque aussi long que l'article 2 (fig. 335). Oeil petit : en vue latérale, surface adjacente au bord interne de l'oeil visible (comme sur la fig. 324). Cellules anales apicale et basale de l'aile antérieure fusionnées sur une distance supérieure à la largeur des cellules anales (fig. 340). Articles 1 à 7 du flagelle pourvus d'une carène longitudinale tranchante chez le mâle (fig. 335)

Pachyprotasis Hartig (p. 190)
Article 1 du flagelle au moins 1,5 fois plus long que l'article 2. Oeil large : en vue latérale, surface adjacente au bord interne de l'oeil non visible devant l'oeil (comme sur la fig. 325). Cellules anales apicale et basale de l'aile antérieure fusionnées sur une distance égale (supérieure chez certains spécimens aberrants) ou inférieure à la largeur des cellules anales (fig. 339). Articles 1 à 7 du flagelle du mâle sans carène longitudinale

Macrophya Dahlbom (p. 190)

## Subfamily Tenthredininae

Diagnosis. Adults of the subfamily are distinguished from those of other subfamilies of Tenthredinidae by the fore wing deviation of the vein $R$ between junctions of $M$ and $S c$ and by the long distance of $R$ between the junctions of $M$ and $R s+M$.

Diversity. The subfamily consists of over 1000 species and 44 genera (M. Abe and D.R. Smith, personal communication). The range of the subfamily extends throughout temperate, boreal, and arctic regions of the northern hemisphere (Benson 1952). In North America five tribes, 11 genera, and about 150 species are known (Ross 1937; Smith 1979a). In Canada five tribes, nine genera, and over 90 species are recorded, but 10 genera and over 120 species are expected.

Host. Larvae are external feeders on leaves of numerous families of flowering plants, conifers, and even ferns (Benson 1952).

## Tribe Perineurini

Diversity. Perineurini is a small tribe consisting of two genera and three species (Benson 1952). The tribe's range extends throughout temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952). In North America, including Canada, only one genus is known (Smith 1979a).

Diagnosis. Adults of Leucopelmonus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the medially long postnotum of the metathorax and by the slightly or not angular dorsal margin of the metepimeron in the posterior third.

Diversity. The genus consists of a single eastern North American species, L. annulicornis (Harrington) (Smith 1979a). However, I have seen an additional species from Japan.

Comments. Ross (1937) characterized the genus and its single species.

## Tribe Sciapterygini

Diversity. Sciapterygini consists of five genera (Smith and Gibson 1984) and about 40 species (Benson 1959). The tribe's range extends throughout temperate regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1959). In North America two genera and five species are recorded (Smith and Gibson 1984). In Canada two genera and two species are known.

## Genus Zaschizonyx Ashmead

Diagnosis. Adults of Zaschizonyx are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the angular ventroposterior margin of the metepimeron, by the short labrum (length shorter at middle than that of the clypeus), and by the widely emarginate clypeus medially.

Diversity. The genus consists of only one species, Z. montana (Cresson), widespread throughout North America (Smith and Gibson 1984).

Host. Larvae of Z. montana feed on leaves of Symphoricarpos (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Smith and Gibson (1984) characterized the genus and its single species.

## Genus Filacus Smith and Gibson

Diagnosis. Adults of Filacus are characterized as for Zaschizonyx, but the clypeus is straight anteriorly.

Diversity. The genus consists of four western North American species (Smith and Gibson 1984). Two specimens of $F$. doanei (Rohwer) are recorded in western Canada. Smith and Gibson (1984) assume that these specimens are mislabeled. Filacus doanei is otherwise recorded as far north as San Francisco, Calif.

Host. Larvae of the genus have been reported in Amsinckia and Phacelia (Smith and Gibson 1984).

Comments. Smith and Gibson (1984) revised the species of the genus.

## Tribe Tenthredopsini

Diversity. Tenthredopsini consists of three genera and about 50 species from temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952). In North America, including Canada, one genus is known (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Aglaostigma Kirby

Diagnosis. Adults of Aglaostigma are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the clearly angular ventroposterior margin of the metepimeron and by the absence of an occipital ridge on the head in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus is known in Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a). In North America seven species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada four species are recorded, but five are expected. The range of the genus in North America extends throughout temperate and southern fringes of boreal regions (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on Galium (Benson 1952), Podophylum, and Impatiens (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ross (1943a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Tribe Tenthredinini

Diversity. In North America, including Canada, four genera of Tenthredinini are known (Smith 1979a). The tribe's range extends throughout temperate, boreal, and southern arctic regions of North America and Eurasia (Benson 1952).

## Genus Lagium Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Lagium are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the postnotum of the metathorax, which is long medially, and by the sharply extended ventroposterior margin of the metepimeron.

Diversity. The genus consists of one North American species, L. atroviolaceum (Norton) (Smith 1986a). It is recorded in southeastern Canada.

Host. Larvae feed on Sambucus (elderberry) and Viburnum bushes (Smith 1979a, 1986b).

Comments. Smith (1986b) characterized the genus and its single species.

## Genus Rhogogaster Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Rhogogaster are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the ventroposterior margin of the metepimeron, which is only obtusely angular; by the lowest angle of the eye in frontal view, which is nearest to the frontal condyle; and by the clearly outlined surface of the head capsule above part of the inner margin of the eye in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus consists of 24 species found throughout temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1965). In North America, including Canada, four species are known (Smith 1979a).

Host. The larvae of two of the North American species feed on a wide variety of plants: poplar, alder, buttercup, Filipendula, Stellaria, and Circaea.

Comments. Benson (1965) revised the species of the genus. Ross (1943c) revised the North American species.

## Genus Ischyroceraea Kiaer

Diagnosis. Adults of Ischyroceraea are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the minimum malar space, which is 1.2 times longer than the diameter of the antennal socket.

Diversity. The genus consists of one species, $I$. arctica (Thomson), found in arctic and subarctic regions of Eurasia and Alaska (Smith 1974b). This species is expected in the Yukon Territory.

Comments. Smith (1974b) characterized the single species of the genus.

## Genus Tenthredo Linnaeus

Diagnosis. Adults of Tenthredo are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by characters discussed under Rhogogaster, but the head capsule is not visible above the inner margin of the eye in lateral view, and the lowest angle of the eye in frontal view is nearest to the clypeus.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 700 species (Smith 1979a). The range of the genus extends throughout temperate, boreal, and southern arctic regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a). In North America over 80 species are known (Smith 1979a). In Canada 40 species are recorded, but over 75 are expected.

Host. Adults often feed on insects in flowers that are not necessarily associated with larval food plants. Larvae feed on a very wide variety of plants, though larvae of each species are often restricted to one plant host. Larvae have been recorded in Europe from the following plant genera: bracken fern, Athyrium, Petasites, Tussilago, Brassica, Lamium, mint, fireweed, honeysuckle, hazelnut, rose, willow, mountain ash, Viburnum, Filipendula, cherry and plum, alder, Hypericum, Circaea, Heracleum, Scrophilaria, Verbascum, ash, Jasminium, Ligustrum, Symphoricarpos, lilac, Oreganum, and clover (Benson 1952).

Comments. In North America the genus is in need of study. Smulyan (1923) studied the species of New England. Strickland (1954) studied females of the Canadian prairies.

## Tribe Macrophyini

Diversity. Macrophyini consists of three genera and probably over 300 species from temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952; Gibson 1980a, 1980b). In North America three genera and 50 species are recorded (Gibson 1980a, 1980b). In Canada two genera and 36 species are known, but 46 are expected.

## Genus Macrophya Dahlbom

Diagnosis. Adults of Macrophya are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by the expanded metepimeron dorsally, by the long labrum (longer medially than the medial length of the clypeus), and almost always by the narrowly joined anal cells of the fore wing near the middle.

Diversity. The genus consists of over 200 species (Benson 1952; Gibson 1980a). In North America 46 species are known (Gibson 1980a). In Canada 35 species are recorded, but 45 are expected.

Host. Larvae may feed on a wide variety of plants or on one species only. Larvae have been recorded in Europe from the following plant genera: elderberry, mint, Geum, Plantago, Filipendula, ash, Scropularia, goldenrod, Senecio, Solanum, Ligustrum, Rubus, Geranium, hickory, Valeriana, sedge, many genera of grasses, Potentilla, aster, cherry and plum, Viburnum, buckeye, and lilac (Benson 1952).

Comments. Gibson (1980a) revised the North American species of the genus.

## Genus Pachyprotasis Hartig

Diagnosis. Adults of Pachyprotasis are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the subfamily by characters discussed under Macrophya, except that the anal cells of the fore wing are fused for a distance longer than the width of the anal cells, and the surface of the head capsule nearest to the eye is visible above the inner margin of the eye in lateral view.

Diversity. The genus consists of probably 90 or more species from temperate and boreal regions of Eurasia and North America (Benson 1952). In North America, including Canada, only one species is known, P. rapae (Linnaeus) (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed on goldenrod, Scrophularia, Betonica, ash, and Anthirrhinum (Benson 1952; Smith 1979a).

Comments. Benson (1952) characterized the single North American species of the genus.

## Superfamily Cephoidea

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephoidea are distinguished from those of other Symphyta by the absence of cenchri on the metanotum and by the slight dorsoventral constriction between abdominal segments 1 and 2.

Diversity. This superfamily includes only the family Cephidae.

## Family Cephidae

Diagnosis. See Cephoidea.
Diversity. Cephidae consists of two subfamilies, three tribes, 13 genera, and about 100 species (Benson 1946). It is recorded in Europe, Asia, North America, and Madagascar (Benson 1946). I have also seen two specimens from Australia. The family is most diverse in temperate regions of Eurasia. In North America six genera belonging to Cephinae are known (Ries 1937; Ross 1937; Smith 1979a). In Canada five genera are recorded, but six are expected. In North America the family is most diverse in temperate regions east of the Great Lakes and west of the Rocky Mountains (Smith 1979a).


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Figs. 341-343. Antenna. 341, Hartigia trimaculata (Say); 342, Janus abbreviatus (Say); 343, Cephus cinctus Norton.
Figs. 344-346. Tarsal claw. 344, H. trimaculata; 345, C. cinctus; 346, J. abbreviatus. Figs. 347, 348. Hind wing. 347, Coenocephus aldrichi Bradley; 348, J. abbreviatus.

## Subfamily Cephinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephinae are distinguished from those of the other subfamilies by the presence of 4 labial palpomeres and 6 maxillary palpomeres.

Diversity. This subfamily consists of three tribes, 12 genera, and 97 species (Benson 1946). The area of greatest diversity is in temperate Eurasia (Benson 1946). In North America, including Canada, two tribes and six genera are known (Smith 1979a).

## Key to tribes and genera of Cephidae

(modified from Benson 1946)
1 Flagellum thread-like (viewed from widest flagellar side) or slightly swollen from flagellomere 1 (Figs. 341, 342). Tarsal claw curved sharply at apex; preapical tooth subequal to and stouter than apical one (Figs. 344, 346). Length of metatarsomere 1 as long as or longer than that of combined tarsomeres 2-4

Hartigini2

Flagellum slightly swollen from flagellomere 3 (Fig. 343). Tarsal claw slightly curved at apex; preapical tooth shorter and thinner than apical one (Fig. 345). Length of metatarsomere 1 clearly shorter than that of combined tarsomeres 2-4

Cephini ..... 4

2(1) Metatibia without preapical spurs. Cercus in female longer than 0.7 of length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view. Vein $3 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of hind wing absent (Fig. 347) $\qquad$
Caenocephus Konow (p. 198)
Metatibia with 1 or 2 preapical spurs. Cercus in female shorter than half the length of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view. Vein $3 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of hind wing developed (Fig. 348) 3

3(2) Maxillary palpomere 6 attached at apex of 5; palpomere 4 about as long as 6 (Fig. 351). Eye 1.5 times higher than its width (Fig. 349). Base of tarsal claw barely enlarged (Fig. 344)

Hartigia Schiodte (p. 198)
Maxillary palpomere 6 attached near base of 5; palpomere $4,1.5$ times as long as or longer than 6 (Fig. 352). Eye 1.3 times as high as, or less than, its width (Fig. 350). Base of tarsal claw clearly enlarged (Fig. 346)

Janus Stephens (p. 198)


Figs. 349, 350. Lateral view of head. 349, Hartigia trimaculata (Say); 350, Janus abbreviatus (Say).
Figs. 351, 352. Maxillary palpomeres 3-6. 351, H. trimaculata; 352, J. abbreviatus.
Figs. 353, 354. Frontal view of head. 353, Cephus cinctus Norton; 354, Calameuta clavata Norton.


Figs. 355, 356. Cercus and valvula 3. 355, Cephus cinctus Norton; 356, Trachelus tabidus (Fabricius).
Figs. 357-359. Abdominal sterna 7-9 of male. 357, C. cinctus; 358, T. tabidus; 359, Calameuta clavata (Norton).

4(1) Head in frontal view narrow: distance between inner margins of antennal sockets less than 0.7 times that between ventral margin of antennal socket and centre of ventral tentorial pit on same side (Fig. 354). Length of cercus in female about as long as that of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view. Sternum 8 in male without medial cavity, with long setae, or without modified setae on apical margin (Fig. 359) ..... Calameuta Konow (p. 200)
Head in frontal view wide: distance between inner margin of antennal sockets $0.8-1.2$ times that between ventral margin of antennal socket and centre of ventral tentorial pit on same side (Fig. 353). Length of cercus in female less than 0.6 that of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 356). Sternum 8 in male with medial cavity either with long setae (Fig. 358) or with modified setae on apical margin (Fig. 357)5

5(4) Abdominal terga 4 and 6 with pale transverse band or completely pale. Length of cercus in female about 0.3 that of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 355). Sternum 8 in male without medial cavity but with modified setae on apical margin (Fig. 357)

Cephus Latreille (p. 199)
Abdominal terga 4 and 6 black or with spot laterally. Length of cercus in female about half that of dorsal margin of valvula 3 in lateral view (Fig. 356). Sternum 8 in male with modified setae developed in deep medial cavity (Fig. 358)

Trachelus Jurine (p. 200)

# Clé des tribus et des genres de Cephidae 

1 Flagelle filiforme (observé du côté le plus large du flagelle) ou légèrement enflé à partir de l'article 1 (fig. 341, 342). Griffe du tarse fortement recourbée à l'apex; dent préapicale presque de la même longueur et plus forte que la dent apicale (fig. 344, 346). Longueur de l'article 1 du métatarse égale ou supérieure à la longueur des articles 2 à 4 combinés

Hartigiini 2
Flagelle légèrement enflé à partir de l'article 3 (fig. 343). Griffe du tarse légèrement recourbée à l'apex; dent préapicale plus courte et plus mince que la dent apicale (fig. 345). Longueur de l'article 1 du métatarse nettement inférieure à la longueur des articles 2 à 4 combinés Cephini 4

2(1) Métatibia dépourvu d'éperons préapicaux. Chez la femelle, cerque plus long que 0,7 fois la longueur du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale. Nervure $3 r-m$ de l'aile postérieure absente (fig. 347)

Caenocephus Konow (p. 198)
Métatibia pourvu de 1 ou 2 éperons préapicaux. Chez la femelle, cerque plus court que la moitié du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale. Nervure $3 r-m$ de l'aile postérieure présente (fig 348)3

3(2) Article 6 du palpe maxillaire attaché à l'apex de l'article 5 ; article 4 presque aussi long que l'article 6 (fig. 351). Oeil 1,5 fois plus haut que large (fig. 349). Base de la griffe du tarse à peine élargie (fig. 344)

Hartigia Schiodte (p. 198)
Article 6 du palpe maxillaire attaché près de la base de l'article 5; article 4 d'une longueur égale ou supérieure à 1,5 fois celle de l'article 6 (fig. 352). Hauteur de l'oeil égale ou inférieure à 1,3 fois sa largeur (fig. 350). Base de la griffe du tarse nettement élargie (fig. 346)

Janus Stephens (p. 198)

4(1) Tête étroite en vue frontale : distance entre les bords internes des cavités antennaires inférieure à 0,7 fois la distance entre le bord ventral de la cavité antennaire et le centre de la fosse tentoriale ventrale du même côté (fig. 354). Chez la femelle, longueur du cerque presque égale à celle du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale. Sternum 8 du mâle sans cavité médiane, garni de longues soies, ou sans soies modifiées sur le bord apical (fig. 359)

Calameuta Konow (p. 200)
Tête large en vue frontale : distance entre le bord interne des cavités antennaires de 0,8 à 1,2 fois la distance entre le bord ventral de la cavité antennaire et le centre de la fosse tentoriale du même côté (fig. 353). Chez la femelle, longueur du cerque inférieure à 0,6 fois celle du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 356). Sternum 8 du mâle avec une cavité médiane munie de longues soies (fig. 358) ou de soies modifiées sur le bord apical (fig. 357) 5

5(4) Terga abdominaux 4 et 6 pourvus d'une bande transversale de couleur pâle, ou complètement de couleur pâle. Chez la femelle, longueur du cerque presque 0,3 fois celle du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 355). Sternum 8 du mâle sans cavité médiane mais pourvu de soies modifiées sur le bord apical (fig. 357)

Cephus Latreille (p. 199)
Terga abdominaux 4 et 6 noirs ou garnis de taches sur le côté. Chez la femelle, longueur du cerque égale à environ la moitié du bord dorsal de la valvule 3 en vue latérale (fig. 356). Sternum 8 du mâle pourvu de soies modifiées visibles dans une cavité médiane profonde (fig 358)

Trachelus Jurine (p. 200)

## Tribe Hartigiini

Diagnosis. Adults of Hartigiini are distinguished from Cephini by the thread-like flagellum.

Diversity. Three of the nine genera of the tribe are recorded in North America, including Canada (Benson 1946; Ries 1937; Smith 1979a). Most genera are Eurasian (Benson 1946).

Host. Larvae are in stems of woody plants (Benson 1946).


Cephidae: Janus

## Genus Caenocephus Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Caenocephus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the absence of preapical spurs on the metatibia.

Diversity. The genus consists of one eastern Asiatic and one western North American species, C. aldrichi Bradley (Benson 1946). In Canada this species is recorded in southern British Columbia.

Host. Adults are reported from Conium maculatum (Middlekauff 1952), but Hanson and Miller (1988) found the larvae girdling stems of Holodiscus discolor, a rosaceous plant.

Comments. Ries (1937) revised the single North American species.

## Genus Hartigia Schiodte

Diagnosis. Adults of Hartigia are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the presence of 1 or 2 spurs before the apex of the metatibia and by the maxillary palpomere 6 attached at the apex of 5 .

Diversity. Six of 16 species are recorded in North America (Benson 1946; Smith 1979a, 1986c). Four species are recorded in Canada, although a fifth is expected. Most species are Eurasian (Benson 1946).

Host. Larvae found in stems of roses and Rubus (Smith 1979a).
Comments. Smith (1986c) revised the North American species of the genus. Middlekauff (1969) and Champlain (1924) discussed the biology of some species.

## Genus Janus Stephens

Diagnosis. Adults of Janus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the presence of 1 or 2 preapical spurs on the metatibia and by the maxillary palpomere 6 attached at the base of 5 .

Diversity. Five of 14 species are known in North America (Benson 1946; Ries 1937; Smith 1979a). Of these, four are in temperate regions of eastern Canada (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae of two of the North American species have been found in stems of poplar, willow, oak, Viburnum, and Ribes (Smith 1979a, Smith and Solomon 1989).

Comments. Ries (1937) revised the North American species of the genus. Middlekauff (1969) keyed out and discussed the biology of the North American species, and Smith and Solomon (1989) added one more species and provided a key to North American species.

## Tribe Cephini

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephini are distinguished from those of Hartegiini by the slightly and gradually swollen antenna.

Diversity. The tribe consists of three genera, all of which are found in Canada (Benson 1946; Ries 1937; Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feeds in the stems of many genera of grasses (Smith 1979a).

## Genus Cephus Latreille

Diagnosis. Adults of Cephus are distinguished from those of the other genera of the tribe by the wide head and by the presence of a transverse pale band on terga 4-6.

Diversity. The genus consists of about 25 species found mostly in Eurasia (Benson 1946). In North America, including Canada, two species are recorded (Ries 1937; Smith 1979a).

Host. The larvae of each species are polyphagous. They have been reported in many genera of grasses: Agropyron, Bromus, Calamagrostis, Deschampsia, Elymus, Festuca, Hordeum, Phleum, Secale, Triticum, and Avena (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ries (1937) revised the North American species of the genus. Wallace and McNeil (1966) discussed the life history of North American species. Among the species of the genus, C. cinctus (known as the wheat stem sawfly), is one of the most economically important sawflies.

## Genus Calameuta Konow

Diagnosis. Adults of Calameuta are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the narrow head and, in females, by the relatively long cercus.

Diversity. The genus consists of 21 species, most of which are Eurasian (Benson 1946). In North America a single species, C. clavata (Norton), is recorded in western North America as far north as southern British Columbia (Ries 1937; Smith 1979a).

Host. The exact host is not known, but Middlekauff (1969) found numerous adults in localities where the grass genera Bromus and Deschampsia grew abundantly. Adults were commonly seen on the yellow flowers of Ranunculus (Middlekauff 1969).

Comments. Ries (1937) keyed this species under Cephus.

## Genus Trachelus Jurine

Diagnosis. Adults of Trachelus are distinguished from those of other genera of the tribe by the wide head and by the absence of a transverse pale band on terga 4-6.

Diversity. The genus consists of eight species, all of which are Eurasian (Benson 1946). In North America a single introduced species, T. tabidus (Fabricius), is recorded in the eastern United States (Ries 1937; Smith 1979a). Adults should be sought in southernmost Ontario.

Host. Larvae are recorded from stems of the following genera of grasses: Hordeum, Secale, and Triticum (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Ries (1937) revised the North American species of the genus, and Wallace and McNeil (1966) discussed their life history.

## Superfamily Anaxyeloidea

Family Anaxyelidae

Diversity. Anaxyelidae consists of three subfamilies, 10 genera, and 22 species (Rasnitsyn 1967; Smith 1978). All but one species in the family are extinct. The single extant species, Syntexis libocedrii Rohwer, is restricted to the western North America (Smith 1979a).

Comments. This family, previously assigned to Siricoidea, is not assigned to any superfamily because it is part of a lineage that very likely consists of a group related to some of the following superfamilies.

## Subfamily Syntexinae

Diversity. Syntexinae consists of one genus, Syntexis Rohwer (Rasnitsyn 1967; Smith 1978).

## Genus Syntexis Rohwer

Diagnosis. Adults of Syntexis are distinguished from those of other Symphyta by the pedicel, which is as long as flagellomere 1.

Diversity. The genus consists of only one species, S. libocedrii Rohwer (Ross 1937; Rasnitsyn 1967; Smith 1978). This species is recorded in California and Oregon and extends as far north as south-central British Columbia.

Host. Adults oviposit in freshly burned incense-cedar, juniper, and cedar (Westcott 1971; Middlekauff 1974; Sm'th 1979a). Larvae are wood borers.


Anaxyelidae: Syntexis

## Superfamily Siricoidea

Diagnosis. Adults of Siricoidea are distinguished from those of other superfamilies by the apical tube-like projection on the last tergum in the female or the last sternum in the male and by the collar-shaped pronotum.

Diversity. The superfamily consists of only one family that occurs naturally in Eurasia, North America, and central Africa and accidentally in Australia, New Zealand, and South America (Benson 1943; Smith 1978).

## Family Siricidae

Diversity. Siricidae consists of four subfamilies, 16 genera, and 101 species (Smith 1978, 1988). Only two subfamilies, 10 genera, and 94 species are extant (Benson 1943; Smith 1978, 1988a). In North America siricid wasps are represented by two subfamilies, five genera, and 25 species (Smith 1979a). In Canada four genera and 13 species are recorded, but 16 species are expected. Most forested region of Canada have an equally diverse fauna (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae of all species are wood borers of trees (Smith 1978).

Comments. Smith (1975b) characterized the North American genera. The North American species of the family need study. However, the reader may wish to refer to old or local revisions by Bradley (1913) and Middlekauff (1960). Morris (1967), Stillwell (1966), and Wolf $(1968,1969)$ discussed the behavior and biology of many siricid wasps.


Figs. 360, 361. Antenna. 360, Tremex columba (Linnaeus); 361, Sirex juvencus (Linnaeus).
Figs. 362-364. Dorsal view of head. 362, T. columba; 363, S. juvencus; 364, Xeris spectrum (Linnaeus).
Fig. 365. Fore wing of $S$. cyaneus (Fabricius).
Figs. 366, 367. Tergum 9 of female. 366, S. cyaneus; 367, Urocerus gigas flavicornis (Fabricius).

## Key to subfamilies and genera of Siricidae

(modified from Benson 1943)
1 Flagellum thread-like (Fig. 361). Second to last flagellomere about twice as long as wide. Distance between antennal sockets shorter or about as long as length of scape (Fig. 363). Cenchrus twice as wide as long. Vein $2 r-m$ of fore wing developed (Fig. 365)

Siricinae ..... 2
Flagellum swollen from middle to apex (Fig. 360). Second to last flagellomere about as long as wide. Distance between antennal sockets clearly greater than length of scape (Fig. 362). Cenchrus about as wide as long. Vein $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ of fore wing absent

Tremecinae: Tremex Jurine (p. 209)
2(1) Head concolor. Horn-like structure of tergum 9 in female triangular and not constricted near base (Fig. 366). Vein $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing partly or fully developed (Fig. 365) Sirex Linnaeus (p. 206)

Head with pale spot behind eyes. Horn-like structure of tergum 9 in female long and constricted basally (Fig. 367). Vein $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ of fore wing lacking or reduced to a stump

3(2) Posterior margin of postocular area of head in dorsal view with occipital ridge (Fig. 364). Combined length of valvifer 2 and valvula 3 (complete ovipositor sheath) 1.5 times longer than that of fore wing. Metatibia with 1 apical spur Xeris Costa (p. 208)

Posterior margin of postocular area of head in dorsal view without ridge. Combined length of valvifer 2 and valvula 3 (complete ovipositor sheath) as long as or shorter than that of fore wing. Metatibia with 2 apical spurs Urocerus Geoffroy (p. 208)

## Clé des sous-familles et des genres de Siricidae

## (modifiée de Benson 1943)

1 Flagelle filiforme (fig. 361). Article 2 au dernier article du flagelle environ deux fois plus long que large. Distance entre les cavités antennaires inférieure ou presque égale à la longueur du scape (fig. 363). Cenchrus deux fois plus large que long. Nervure $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ de l'aile antérieure présente (fig. 365)

Siricinae 2

Flagelle enflé à partir du milieu jusqu'à l'apex (fig. 360). Article 2 au dernier article du flagelle presque aussi long que large. Distance entre les cavités antennaires nettement supérieure à la longueur du scape (fig. 362). Cenchrus presque aussi large que long. Nervure $2 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ de l'aile antérieure absente

Tremecinae: Tremex Jurine (p. 209)
2(1) Tête de couleur uniforme. Structure en forme de corne du tergum 9 de la femelle triangulaire et non étranglée près de la base (fig. 366). Nervure $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure partiellement ou entièrement visible (fig. 365)

Sirex Linnaeus (p. 206)
Tête avec une tache pâle derrière les yeux. Structure en forme de corne du tergum 9 de la femelle long et étranglé près de la base (fig.367). Nervure $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ de l'aile antérieure absente ou sous forme de moignon 3

3(2) Bord postérieur de la région postoculaire de la tête en vue dorsale pourvu d'une carène occipitale (fig. 364). Longueur du valvifère 2 et de la valvule 3 combinés (fourreau complet de l'ovipositeur) 1,5 fois supérieure à celle de l'aile antérieure. Métatibia garni d'un éperon apical

Xeris Costa (p. 208)

Bord postérieur de la région postoculaire de la tête en vue dorsale sans carène occipitale. Longueur du valvifère 2 et de la valvule 3 combinés (fourreau complet de l'ovipositeur) égale ou inférieure à celle de l'aile antérieure. Métatibia garni de deux éperons apicaux

Urocerus Geoffroy (p. 208)

## Subfamily Siricinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Siricinae are distinguished from those of the Tremicinae by the thread-like flagellum.

Diversity. Three of seven world genera occur in North America, including Canada (Smith 1978).

Host. Larvae of all species feed and bore in coniferous trees (Smith 1978).

## Genus Sirex Linnaeus

Diagnosis. Adults of Sirex are distinguished from other North American genera by the black head capsule and by the short and triangular horn-like extension of tergum 9 in females.

Diversity. The genus consists of 16 species (Smith 1978). Six or potentially eight of nine North American species are found in Canada. Most species are found in temperate forested regions across Canada (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae have been reported in the following coniferous genera of trees: bald cypress, fir, spruce, Douglas-fir, hemlock, pine, larch, juniper, Libocedrus, cypress, sequoia, and cedar (Smith 1979a). Larvae of each species of Sirex attack a wide range of trees (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The genus needs study. However, Cameron (1967) and Middlekauff (1960) have published local reviews of the genus. Kirk (1974) discussed the biology of southeastern species.


Siricidae: Urocerus

Diagnosis. Adults of Urocerus are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the white spot behind the eyes in dorsal view, by the elongate horn-like extension of tergum 9 in females, and by the absence of an occipital ridge on the posterior margin of the head.

Diversity. Most species are found in eastern Asia (Smith 1978). Six out of 22 world species are recorded in North America (Smith 1978, 1987). Four species are recorded in Canada, but five are expected. Three of the four species are widespread in forested regions of Canada, but $U$. cressoni Norton is restricted to eastern Canada (Smith 1979a).

Host. Like larvae of Sirex, those of this genus are markedly polyphagous and attack a wide range of genera of coniferous trees (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The North American species of the genus were keyed out by Smith (1987). Middlekauff (1960) reviewed the West Coast species.

## Genus Xeris Costa

Diagnosis. Adults of Xeris are distinguished from those of other North American genera of the tribe by the presence of a white spot behind the eyes in dorsal view and by an occipital ridge on the posterior margin of the head. Females, which have an extremely long ovipositor, are unique among North American siricids.

Diversity. Of four species known in the world, three are North American (Smith 1978). Two species are recorded in Canada, but a third one is expected. The genus is restricted to Eurasia and North America (Smith 1978). Three species are found west of the Rocky Mountains (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae of each species are polyphagous, attacking many species of fir (Smith 1979a).

Comments. Adults are unusual in that mating occurs on hilltops (personal observation). Middlekauff (1960) reviewed the Californian species. Maa (1949) keyed the North American species and subspecies.

## Subfamily Tremecinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Tremecinae are distinguished from those of Siricinae by the slightly swollen flagellum.

Diversity. Two out of four genera in the world are recorded in North America (Smith 1978). In Canada, only one genus is known. In addition, members of this subfamily are reported in Africa, Eurasia, and Cuba (Smith 1978).

Host. Larvae attack angiospermous trees (other than conifers) (Smith 1978).

## Genus Tremex Jurine

Diagnosis. Adults of Tremex are distinguished from other Canadian genera of the family by the short antennae and by the reddish brown head and thorax.

Diversity. The genus is diverse in Eurasia, with 21 species, and is represented in North America and in Canada by a single species, T. columba (Linnaeus) (Smith 1978). This species is widespread in temperate forested regions of North America (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed in the trunks of maple, elm, oak, hickory, beech, and probably other deciduous trees (Smith 1979a).

Comments. The single North American species is characterized in Ross (1937). Stillwell (1967) discussed the biology of $T$. columba.

## Superfamily Xiphydrioidea

## Family Xiphydrildae

Diagnosis. Adults of Xiphydriidae are easily distinguished from those other Symphyta by the unusually long propleura, or "neck," which clearly separate the head from the thorax, and by the usually shiny dome-shaped head.

Diversity. The family consists of two subfamilies, three tribes, 22 genera, and 95 species (Smith 1978). It is represented in Eurasia, Australia, New Zealand, and temperate South and North America (Smith 1978).

Host. Larvae are wood borers that attack mainly small dying branches (Smith 1978).

Comments. This family, previously assigned to Siricoidea, is not assigned to any superfamily because it is part of a lineage that is very likely a group related to Orussoidea.

## Subfamily Xiphydriinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Xiphydriinae are easily distinguished by the deeply concave hind margin of the pronotum, which is several times deeper than the medial length of the pronotum (the medial length is about as long as that of the tegula).

Diversity. The subfamily consists of 18 genera in the world, but only Xiphydria is reported in North America, including Canada (Benson 1954; Smith 1978). The greatest diversity occurs in southeast Asia, though some genera are known in New Zealand, Australia, and temperate Eurasia (Smith 1978).

## Genus Xiphydria Latreille

## Diagnosis. See Xiphydriinae.

Diversity. Xiphydria consists of 25 species found in Eurasia and North America (Smith 1978). In North America 10 species are recorded (Smith 1976, 1983). In Canada five species are known, but 10 are expected. Except for one species, X. mellipes Harris, all others are found east of the prairie region (Smith 1979a).

Host. Larvae feed in branches of basswood, elm, hickory, birch, hophornbeam, ash, oak, beech, hawthorn, sumac, plum, and cherry. There are questionable records of one species on spruce, fir, and pine (Smith 1979).

Comments. Smith (1976) revised the North American species of the genus and characterized (1983) an additional species recently introduced. Deyrup (1984) presented an excellent study of the life history of a few species.


Xiphydriidae: Xiphydria

## Superfamily Orussoidea

Diagnosis. Adults of Orussoidea are readily distinguished from those of other Symphyta by the antennae, which are below the lowest margin of the eyes under a marked transverse ridge.

Diversity. The superfamily consists of one family.

## Family Orussidae

Diagnosis. See Orussoidea.
Diversity. Orussidae consists of two subfamilies, six tribes, 17 genera, and over 75 species (Benson 1955, Guiglia 1965, Middlekauff 1983). The greatest diversity in genera and species is in Africa, with 16 species, but in each continent 8-11 species occur (Benson 1955). In North America the family is represented by two subfamilies, four genera, and nine species (Middlekauff 1984). In Canada only one genus occurs, Orussus.

Host. Larvae are external parasites of wood-boring insects such as buprestid beetles (Middlekauff 1984).

## Subfamily Orussinae

Diagnosis. Adults of Orussinae are distinguished from those of the other subfamily by vein 2 r of the fore wing, which originates in the middle of the stigma, and (in males) by the absence of tubercles on the last tergum.

Diversity. The subfamily consist of four tribes (Benson 1955). In North America only Orussini is recorded (Middlekauff 1984).

## Tribe Orussini

Diagnosis. Members of Orussini are distinguished from other tribes of the subfamily by vein M of the fore wing, which does not reach vein $R$ and is clearly longer than vein $1 \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{cu}$; by the length of the flagellomere 1, which is about as long as the combined length of 3 and 4; and by the lack of lengthwise ridges between the eyes.

Diversity. The tribe consists of only two genera (Benson 1955), one of which, Orussus, is known in Canada and the United States (Middlekauff 1984). The greatest diversity is in Eurasia (Benson 1955).

## Genus Orussus Latreille

Diagnosis. Adults of Orussus are distinguished from those of the other genus by the sharp apex of the mesoscutellum.

Diversity. Of the 20 species described (Benson 1955), five are recorded in North America (Middlekauff 1984). In Canada four species are known. Three species are reported in temperate regions east of the Rocky Mountains (Middlekauff 1984).

Host. Larvae are external parasites of Buprestis and Polycista (buprestid beetles) (Middlekauff 1984).

Comments. Middlekauff (1984) revised the North American species of the genus.


Orussidae: Orussus

## GLOSSARY

abdomen (adj., abdominal) The last part of the insect's body behind the thorax (Figs. 2a, 2b). In sawflies the abdomen is divided into 11 segments, but segments 9 and 10 are fused. Each segment consists of a dorsal tergum and ventral sternum.
acute The angle between two structures smaller than $90^{\circ}$.
anepimeron (pl., anepimera) The dorsal portion of the epimeron. In sawflies the mesepimeron is generally clearly divided into a dorsal and ventral (katepimeron) portion (Fig. 2a, anepimeron).
antenna (pl., antennae; adj., antennal) The appendage of the head above the clypeus and, in most sawflies, between the compound eyes (Fig. 3). The antennae are paired appendages, and each consists of a basal scape, followed by a pedicel and a flagellum, the last usually many-jointed (Fig. 4).
anterior Toward the head end of the body or structure.
apical Toward the end; farthest away from the body.
basal Toward the body; if in doubt, use anterior or posterior.
bicolor Pertaining to a surface of two colors.
cell The space between veins of the wing (Figs. 9a, 9b). A cell is closed when completely surrounded by veins (Fig. 9a, cell R); otherwise it is open (Fig. 9a, cell 3M). Cells are coded in capital letters.
cenchrus (pl., cenchri) A thinly sclerotized circular to oval structure between midline and side of the metascutum (Fig. 1, cenchrus).
cercus (pl., cerci) An appendage (one-segmented in adult sawflies). Posterolateral to tergum 10 (apparent tergum 9, which is a fusion of 9 and 10) (Fig. 1, cercus). Cerci are paired appendages.
claws A pair of sharp structures at the apex of tarsomere 5 in sawflies (Fig. 5, claw).
clypeus (adj., clypeal) A sclerite on the anterior margin of the head between the head capsule and the labrum (Fig. 3, clypeus).
concave Pertaining to a linear structure, margin, or surface that is curved inward; the opposite of convex.
concolor Pertaining to a surface of one color.
convergent Pertaining to linear structures or margins directed toward a point; the opposite of divergent.
convex Pertaining to a linear structure, margin, or surface that is curved outward; the opposite of concave.
coxa (pl., coxae; adj., coxal) The first cylinder-like sclerite at the base of a leg (Fig. 5, coxa). Coxae are paired and are developed on each of the three thoracic segments; hence procoxa, mesocoxa, and metacoxa (Fig. 2a).
crossvein The vein that is roughly at right angles with the base of the wing (Figs. $8 a, 8 b, 3 \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{m}$ ). Crossveins are abbreviated by lowercase letters.
disc (adj., discal) Pertaining to the central portion of a sclerite. Synonym: centre.
dorsal Toward the top or upper surface of the body or structure.
epicnemium (pl., epienemia; adj., epicnemial) The anterior area of the mesepisternum delimited by a furrow from the remainder of the mesepisternum and referred to as the epicnemial area; the prepectus of many authors (Figs. 256, 257). In the absence of a furrow, when the epicnemial area is not outlined, this area is referred to as the mesepisternum in this work.
epimeron (pl., epimera; adj., epimeral) The posterior part of a thoracic pleural sclerite separated from the anterior part (the episternum) by the pleural suture (Fig. 2a, mesepimeron, metepimeron). The epimeron is clearly outlined in sawflies on the mesothorax and metathorax.
episternum (pl., episterna; adj., episternal) The anterior part of a thoracic pleural sclerite separated from the posterior part (the epimeron) by the pleural suture (Fig. 2a, mesepisternum, metepisternum). The episternum is clearly outlined in sawflies on the mesothorax and metathorax.
femur (pl., femora; adj., femoral) The third cylinder-like segment of the leg between the trochanter and the tibia (Fig. 5, femur). The segment is usually long and wide in sawflies. The base of the femur forms a trochanter-like structure. In many hymenopterous works this basal portion of the femur is referred to, together with the trochanter, as the double trochanter. Femora are paired and are developed on each of the three thoracic segments: hence, profemur, mesofemur, and metafemur.
flagellomere A subdivision of the flagellum (Fig. 4, flagellomeres 1-7). Flagellomeres are numbered consecutively from the base of the flagellum.
flagellum (pl., flagella; adj., flagellar) (Fig. 4, flagellomeres 1-7). The third and last major division of the antenna (the third joint of the antenna follows the scape and pedicel). The flagellum consists of one or more subdivisions or flagellomeres.
frontal Pertains to the region that includes ocelli, clypeus, and labrum.
furrow A linearly depressed area of a sclerite, which may be a thickening of the cuticle internally rather than the fusion of two sclerites (see suture). Synonym: groove.
harpes A lateral appendage at the apex of the male copulatory organ. Most of the outer surface of the harpes is visible externally (Fig. 2b, harpes). Harpes are paired appendages.
katepimeron (pl., katepimera) The ventral portion of the epimeron (Fig. 2a, katepimeron on mesopleuron). In sawflies the mesepimeron is generally divided into a dorsal (anepimeron) and ventral katepimeron.
labium (adj., labial) A mouthpart appendage fused at the midline and behind to the maxillae. It consists of a prementum, a postmentum, one pair of palps, and of one pair of fused glossae.
labrum (adj., labral) A sclerite on the dorsal or anterior surface of the head between the clypeus and the mandibles (Fig. 3, labrum).
lateral Toward the side of the body or the edge of margin of a structure.
lobes Paired sclerites of the scutum (Fig. 1, median lobe, lateral lobe). The lobes are clearly outlined on the mesoscutum of most sawflies. The mesoscutum consists of a pair of median and lateral lobes; the metascutum consists of a pair of lateral lobes. The median lobes are apparently fused.
malar space The thickly sclerotized surface between the compound eye and the mandible (Fig. 182a). In this work, I refer to the minimum distance compared with the diameter of the antennal socket.
mandible (adj., mandibular) A mouthpart appendage found between the labrum and the maxillae (Figs. 2a, 3, mandible). Mandibles are paired appendages. In sawflies the mandibles are very thickly sclerotized and are usually used as a cutting device.
margin (adj., marginal) Pertaining to any edge of a structure.
maxilla (pl., maxillae; adj., maxillary) A mouthpart appendage between the mandible and the labium. Maxillae are paired appendages. The maxilla consists of the cardo, stipes, palp, and lacinia.
medial Towards the centre or toward the central area or line of the body or structure.
membrane (adj., membranous) The thinly sclerotized surface of the insect body. In live or freshly killed specimens the surface is white; in dry specimens it is usually yellowish brown. The surface is generally covered with cone-like microsculpture.
meso- A prefix associated with each sclerite of the middle thoracic segment; hence the mesothorax.
mesoscutellar appendage The mesoscutellar appendage (the posttergite of some authors) is a sclerite attached by a suture or fused to the mesoscutellum and is found in most sawflies (Fig. 1, mesoscutellar appendage).
meta- A prefix associated with each sclerite of the last thoracic segment; hence the metathorax.
notaulus (pl., notauli) A furrow on the mesoscutum (Fig. 30, notaulus). In sawflies the notaulus divides the median from the lateral lobes.
notum (pl., nota; adj., notal) The dorsal part of the thorax above the pleural region (Fig. 2a, pronotum). Each thoracic segment has a notum; hence pronotum, mesonotum, and metanotum. The mesonota and metanota are divided into scutum, scutellum, and postnotum, but the pronotum is not divided. The postnotum refers to a sclerite behind the scutellum. The postnotum is clearly outlined on the mesonotum and metanotum.
oblique A linear structure or margin meeting another structure at an angle other than $90^{\circ}$; hence, not perpendicular.
obtuse An angle between two structures that is greater than $90^{\circ}$.
occipital ridge A ridge near the posterior margin of the mandible and when fully developed, extending to the top of the head, behind ocelli.
occipital view Includes the occiput, labium, and maxilla (in Symphyta it is a posterior view, a region termed the occiput).
occiput (adj., occipital) A portion of the head capsule that is posterior to the occipital ridge (Fig. 1, occiput). When the ridge is absent, it is the area posterior to an imaginary line extended from the posterior articulation of the mandible to and behind the postocellar area.
ocellus (pl., ocelli; adj., ocellar) A single eye on the dorsal surface of the head near the dorsal margin of the compound eyes (Fig. 1, ocellus). Sawflies have three ocelli: a median and two laterals.
ocular Pertaining to the compound eye.
ovipositor sheath The combination of valvifers 1 and 2 and valvula 3 (Fig. 2a).
palp A jointed appendage of the maxilla or the labium (Fig. 3, Mp, Lp). Palps are paired appendages. Joints are called palpomeres.
palpomere A joint of a palp (Fig. 3). The joints are numbered consecutively from the base of the palp. Palpomeres are qualified as maxillary if they are from the maxilla or labial if they are from the labium.
pedicel The second major division of the antenna found between the scape and the flagellum (Fig. 4, pedicel). The pedicel is not subdivided.
penis valve An appendage near the middle, at the apex of the male copulatory organ. The posterior part of penis valves are often visible between the harpes. Penis valves are paired appendages.
pit A concave structure on a sclerite often associated with a seta. In sawflies pits are usually round and may be large to very small. Pits are multicellular structures that consist of nonsensory microsculpture cells, usually not outlined at the surface. They also usually consist of a sensory mechanoreceptor, often a seta. Synonym: puncture.
pleuron (pl., pleura; adj., pleural) The lateral surface of the thorax between the sternum and the notum (Fig. 2a, propleuron, mesopleuron, metapleuron). On the mesothorax and the metathorax, the pleuron is divided into an episternum and an epimeron, but it is not clearly subdivided on the prothorax. Each thoracic segment has a pleuron in sawflies; hence, propleuron, mesopleuron, and metapleuron.
posterior Toward the hind end of the body or structure.
postocellus (adj., postocellar) The area of the head between the lateral ocelli and the occipital ridge (or its imaginary position) (Fig. 3, postocellar area).
postocular area The part of the head between the occiput (the back portion of the head often delimited by a ridge extending from the mandible to the lateral ocellar furrow) and the posterior margin of the eye up to the lateral ocellar furrow (Fig. 1, postocular area). Synonyms: cheek, gena.
pro- A prefix associated with each sclerite of the first thoracic segment; hence, the prothorax.
pubescence (adj., pubescent) The fur-like aspect of a surface on the insect body.
pulvillus (pl., pulvilli; adj., pulvillar) A ventroapical outgrowth of tarsomeres 1-4 in most sawflies (Fig. 5, pulvillus). In sawflies the pulvilli are membranous.
ridge The linearly raised or protruding area of a sclerite. Synonym: carina.
scape The first major division of the antenna (Fig. 4, scape). The scape is the first joint of the antenna and is not subdivided in sawflies.
sclerite (adj., sclerotized) A hard surface on the insect body. Thickly sclerotized surfaces are usually pigmented, but thinly sclerotized or membranous surfaces are white with a cone-like microsculpture over most of the surface.
sculpture Pertaining to a mesh-like development over a sclerite. The space between meshes consists usually of one cell and affects the brightness of the surface. The meshes are visible in sawflies under diffused light at a magnification of 40x. When a surface is not sculptured it is smooth and bright.
scutellum (pl., scutella; adj., scutellar) The middle section of a notum behind the scutum and in front of the postnotum (Fig. 1, mesoscutellum, metascutellum). In sawflies the scutellum is clearly outlined on the mesonotum and metanotum; hence, mesoscutellum and metascutellum.
scutum (pl., scuta; scutal) The section of a notum in front of the scutellum (Figs. 1, 2a, mesoscutum). In sawflies the scutum is clearly outlined on the mesonotum and metanotum; hence, mesoscutum and metascutum. The metascutum supports the cenchri.
seta (pl., setae; adj., setal) A hair-like structure with a socket at the base. Setae are isolated or in group (see pubescence) and have sensory functions. They are an outgrowth from a cell at the base and do not consist of cells along the shaft; hence, they are not spurs.
spiracle (adj., spiracular) The external opening of the tracheae (part of the internal respiratory system) found in the membranous portion behind the pronotum and the mesepimeron and laterally on terga 1-8 (Fig. 2a, spiracle).
spur A large spike-like structure of the tibia found at the apex; in many sawflies also found along the ventral surface before the apex (Fig. 5, spur). Spurs are multicellular structures as shown in sawflies by the many seta-like cells on their surface. Spurs are not setae (see seta).
sternum (pl., sterna; adj., sternal) The ventral surface of the thorax and the abdomen (Fig. 1). In sawflies the sterna are clearly outlined on the prothorax (prosternum) and on abdominal segments $2-7$ in females or $2-9$ in males. However, the sterna are not clearly delimited or understood on the mesothorax and the metathorax, where they consist of at least a small fork in the middle of the posterior margin.
stigma A portion of the fore wing that is thickly sclerotized (usually darkly pigmented) just beyond the apex of the vein C (Figs. 6a, 7a, stigma). The inner portion of the stigma consists of the vein $R_{1}$, which is distinguishable in some specimens. The hind wing has no stigma, though the outline of one is clear near the junction of veins C and $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ (Figs. $6 b, 7 b, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{a}}$ ).
sub- A prefix associated with terms such as equal, lateral, basal, anterior and meaning almost or near, but not at.
suture (adj., sutural) A furrow-like or membranous junction between two sclerites, which results from the union of previously isolated sclerites. Example: the furrow between terga 9 and 10 of the female.
tarsomere A joint of a tarsus (Fig. 5). Tarsomeres are paired and occur on each thoracic segment; hence, protarsomere, mesotarsomere, and metatarsomere. Tarsomeres of a leg are numbered consecutively, starting with the joint nearest the tibia.
tarsus (pl., tarsi; adj., tarsal) The last segment of the leg found after the tibia. In sawflies the tarsus is five-jointed. Tarsi are paired and occur on each thoracic segment; hence, protarsus, mesotarsus, and metatarsus. Joints are called tarsomeres.
tegula (pl., tegulae) (Figs. 1, 2a, tegula) A small and scale-like sclerite at the base of the fore wing. The tegula is attached to the thorax along the anterior margin.
tentorial pit A depression near the clypeofrontal groove found below the antennal socket in sawflies (Fig. 3, tentorial pit).
tergum (pl., terga; adj., tergal) A sclerite on the dorsal surface of each abdominal segment (Figs. 1, 2). The abdomen consists of 10 terga. In males, tergum 9 is divided and restricted laterally and tergum 10 is narrow; both are usually hidden. In females terga 9 and 10 are fused but still outlined.
thorax (pl., thoraces; adj., thoracic) The second major division of the insect body (Figs. 1, 2a). The thorax includes legs and wings (when developed) and is subdivided into three segments: prothorax, mesothorax, and metathorax.
tibia (pl., tibiae; adj., tibial) The fourth cylinder-like segment of the leg between the femur and the tarsus (Fig. 5, tibia). In sawflies the tibia is usually long and narrow. Tibiae are paired segments found on each thoracic segment; hence, protibia, mesotibia, and metatibia.
transscutal articulation A transverse groove anterior to the mesoscutellum (Fig. 37). This articulation is found on adults of Xiphydriidae and Orussidae.
transverse Pertaining to a structure that is clearly wider than long in relation to the body midline.
trochanter (adj., trochanteral) The second cylinder-like segment of the leg between the coxa and the femur (Fig. 5, trochanter). In sawflies trochanters are short and not subdivided (see femur for information on double trochanter).
valvifer The first segment of the ovipositor. Sawflies have two valvifers (Fig. 2a, valvifer 1, valvifer 2), both of which are visible externally and form part of a sheath-like structure (the sheath of most authors). Valvula 1 is attached to valvifer 1, and valvulae 2 and 3 to valvifer 2.
valvula (pl., valvulae) The second segment of the ovipositor (Fig. $2 a$, valvula 3). There are three valvulae. In sawflies valvulae 1 and 2 (respectively, lance and lancet of Ross 1945b) form a sawlike structure and are usually hidden by the valvula 3.
vein A tube-like structure of the wings. Veins are usually thickly sclerotized and darkly pigmented. They extend from the base and may branch, join another vein or veins, or fuse with another vein.
ventral Toward the bottom or lower surface of the body or structure.

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[^0]:    * See section entitled "Diversity," under subgenus Decanematus (p. 131).

[^1]:    * Voir la section intitulée " Diversity» au sous-genre Decanematus (p. 131).

