

## INTRODUCTION

The chironomid midges are accomplished objects of nuisance to the human society. These midges do neither bite human creatures nor transmit any disease to them, but emerge in profuse numbers and settle on the tracts of vegetation near waterpools. They are known to form one of the most common components of all freshwater biotopes and do occur in subaquatic situations as damp moss or algal flora or inclined moist rock-surface covered with microflora. The specialised habitats occupied by these midges within the Indian territory include tree-holes, hollow stumps of bamboo-shoots and water filled leaf-axes (Sublette and Sublette, 1973). They are also known to inhabit running water usually avoided by mosquitoes (Bates, 1949) and are positively phototropic congregating as 'pest-swarms' on the lighted window walls and other places where they, after death, pile up and emit offensive/unpleasant odour. Sometime their number swell to an extent so much so that outdoor living on the water front becomes practically impossible. The hotels are said to suffer economic losses due to tourists' allerginess to the very presence of these insects. There are instances where the dead midges littered motorable roads so that the latter become slippery for safe driving and had to be temporarily closed to vehicular traffic (Beck and Beck, 1966).

The larvae of chironomid insects are popularly known as blood-worms which are being used as ideal material for cytological studies. These worms often turn up in water supplies and cause considerable concern to persons who are frightened by their presence in the drinking and bathing waters. That many fishes thrive on the larvae, pupae and imagines of these midges is an established fact.

The increasing urbanisation in U.S.A. of the lakes and streams has resulted in a large-scale eutrophication of these water pools creating a situation which is highly suited to the increased production of the chironomid midges (Odum, 1953). The various extraneous materials which are put into the lakes and streams from the sources like domestic sewage, industrial effluents, ground crop fertilisers etc. create a situation highly conducive to vigorous breeding of the midges. Such a nutrient load obviously augments their food-supply by increasing growth of algae and other plants and also by diminishing the population of predators, carnivorous fishes and insects through depletion of oxygen in water. Some developed countries including U.S.A. are alive to this menacing situation and have started to evolve national policies for an effective eradication of these midges.

Of the chironomid midges, those belonging to the subfamily Orthocladiinae are wide-spread both ecologically and geographically. They are usually frequent in upland, cool, fast-flowing streams with some of them living in low land streams and lakes. A few of them are known to be tubicolous and plankton feeders.

Amongst the European workers engaged on midge-taxonomy, studies of entire life-history of these insects form the essential basis. It is interesting that this approach is becoming more popular amongst the workers in U.S.A. and Canada. The works of Eivaris (1929, '31) and Freeman (1954-61) who favoured the idea/concept of a large broad-based genera might have produced considerable impact on the subsequent American workers. It may be noted in this connection, that at the time when Eivaris's (1929, '31) works were published, a few students outside Europe had little experience as to the collection of midges from the nature and any worth-mentioning knowledge on the morphology of the immature stages. Despite the excellent taxonomic works done by Thienemann (1944) and Brundin (1956) based on the morphology of the immature forms, it is curious that even now greater emphasis is being laid by the European workers on the adult structures for the purpose of taxonomic study. It was Fittkau (1962) who introduced a new approach

to the study of taxonomy by taking into consideration the morphology of both the juvenile and the imaginal forms in an integrated manner.

The taxonomic works on the Indian forms of Orthocladinae are indeed meagre compared to those on American and European forms and date back to Kieffer (1906, '11, '13). Till date, the sub-family Orthocladinae are represented by nineteen nominal genera from the Oriental region, of which only four valid genera such as Brillia Kieffer, Cricotopus van der Wulp, Heterotrissocladus Sparck and Parametrissocladus Goetghebuer, have so far (prior to the present study) been recorded from India. The taxonomic position of each of the ten genera reported in this study is reviewed as follows :

The genus Brillia Kieffer was erected by Kieffer in 1913 on the basis of Brillia bifida Kieffer from Clare Island, U.K. Later, three species of this genera such as, glyptaria Goet. modesta Meigen and patronia Kieffer were synonymised with it. The first Indian species, Brillia kulkia which was described by Singh (1958) on the basis of specimens collected from Punjab, happens to be the only representative from hitherto known from the Orient.

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The genus Ekiefferiella was coined by Thionemann (1926a) on the basis of Dactylocladius longicaudus Kieffer (1911). Subsequently, the genus Hemocladius Freeman was synonymised with it. Later on, Edwards (1929) considered Ekiefferiella as a subgenus of the genus Spaniotoma created by him. However, Brundin (1956) reaffirmed the generic status of Ekiefferiella. Only one unnamed species has been recorded by Reiss (1968) from Nepal.

The genus Heterotriocnadius was erected by Sparck in 1923 on the basis of the morphological distinctiveness of the larvae and pupae of three species namely, Metriocnemus longicollis Kieffer, Metriocnemus subitalis Kieffer and Metriocnemus triangulifer Kieffer. Edwards (1929) though considered it to be a subgenus of the genus Metriocnemus van der Wulp, its generic status was <sup>revived</sup> revoked by Brundin (1956). Metriocnemus subitalis Kieffer was fixed as the type-species of this genus by Goetghebuer (1940). Two species, Metriocnemus chandra and Metriocnemus kuluensis described by Singh (1958) from India were later placed by Sublette and Sublette (1973) under the genus Heterotriocnadius Sparck.

The genus Lisnophyes was introduced by Eaton (1875) on the basis of Lisnophyes mullins reported from Kerguelan Island, Antarctic Ocean. Edwards (1929) considered it as a subgenus of

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the genus Spaniotoma Edwards, presumably owing to his failure to distinguish the type-specimens lying in the British Museum (Natural History) from Campocladus exiguus. However, on the basis of the striking differences between the immature and adult stages of Limnophyes and those of Campocladus (Ehmannocladus) shown by Thienemann (1921) and others the taxonomic status of the genus was given a fresh look. The first Oriental species, Spaniotoma (Limnophyes) fussuivana was described by Tokunaga (1940) from Formosa and subsequent workers like Strenzke (1950) and Brundin (1956) upheld the generic status of Spaniotoma as distinct from Limnophyes Eat.

The genus Metriocnemus was coined by Van der Wulp in 1874 and subsequently, its generic status was confirmed by many workers such as Johansen (1932), Thienemann (1937c), Edwards (1939), Gostchev (1932), Zavrel (1941), Brundin (1956) and others. Chironomus albolineatus was fixed up as its type-species by Coquillett (1901) from a mixed population containing more than one genus. Later, Edwards (1939) selected Metriocnemus fussipes as its type-species for its more appropriateness than any other species, and it is in this background Brundin (1956) interpreted the genus Metriocnemus to be followed by subsequent workers.

Brundin (1956) also sank the genus Chamaetocladius Kieffer as the synonym of Metricnema v.d. Wulp. Two valid Oriental species, Metricnema discretus and Metricnema nigrescens were described by Johansen (1932) from Java. Kieffer (1911) recorded one species, Metricnema callinotus from India, but owing to the non-availability of the type-materials at the Indian Museum its validity could not be checked up.

Parametricnema was erected by Coetghebuer (1932) as a subgenus of the genus, Metricnema v.d.Wulp on the basis of the type-species, Metricnema stylatus Kieffer (1924) collected from Egypt. It was again raised to the status of a genus by Brundin (1956). The single Oriental species, Parametricnema fusciger was described by Kieffer under the genus Metricnema from Sindia, India.

The genus Paraphaenocladius was established by Thienemann (1926) and Metricnema musillaceus (qq) Kieffer was fixed by him as its type-species. Edwards (1929) considered it as a subgenus of the genus Metricnema and selected Metricnema japonicus (Walker) as the type-species of the subgenus. Subsequently, Brundin (1956) reaffirmed the distinct generic status of Paraphaenocladius to be followed by others till now.

The genus Rheocricotopus was erected by Thionemann and Hamish (1932). Previously, Edwards (1929) considered it as a subgenus of the genus Spiniotoma which was his own creation. Later, Brundin (1956) reaffirmed the valid generic status of Rheocricotopus to be followed by Lehman (1969) and other workers. Chironomus effusus Walker was selected as the type-species of the genus by Brundin (1956). Three species namely, Rheocricotopus lobalis, Rheocricotopus medicoria and Rheocricotopus xisida described earlier erroneously under the genus Spiniotoma Edw. are, prior to the present study, known from the Oriental region (Java). Recently, two more species, Rheocricotopus godwinianus and Rheocricotopus nepalensis have been described by Lehman (1968) from Nepal.

The genus Thionemannia was coined by Kieffer (1911) on the basis of species Thionemannia alvaticornis (~~-lobatus~~) described from Arran, North Wales, U.K. Edwards (1929) held it a subgenus of the genus Metriocnemus V.d.Wulp and fixed up Thionemannia gracilis (Kieffer) as the type-species of the subgenus. Subsequently, Brundin (1956) confirmed its generic entity and also sank the genus Synmetriocnemus Thionemann as the synonym of Thionemannia. Prior to the present study, no species of this genus had been recorded from India.



The genus Trichocladus was erected by Kieffer (1906) on the basis of Trichocladus fascicornis Kieffer, recorded from Chile. Edwards (1929) considered it as a subgenus of the genus Spaniotoma Mlv. and in his opinion Trichocladus Kieffer represented a 'species-group' occupying a position in between Orthocladus v.d.Wulp and Cricotopus v.d.Wulp. However, it cannot be ascertained properly whether Trichocladus Kieffer, is a valid genus or not as the original description of Kieffer is too inadequate being fragmentary and further because the original material on the basis of which Trichocladus was erected is reported to be damaged or missing. However, one valid species of the genus namely, Trichocladus grimaldus described by Kieffer in 1911 from Darjeeling is known from the Oriental region.

Taxonomic terminologies and other procedures : The modes of specific description accepted here mainly follow those of Sæther (1975) for the species belonging to the genus Limonchus Mat. and of Sæther (1969), Sublette and Sublette (1966-74) and Reiss (1968, '71) for the species belonging to other genera. In some cases, the modes of description presented by authors like Bourdin (1949, '56), Beck and Beck (1959), Fittaker (1962), Fittaker and Lehman (1969) and Wirth (1947) have been taken into account as and when it was deemed fit.

The specific characters have been described as well as illustrated mostly on the basis of the male individuals of a species while the females of the same species have been described in certain selected features only. Throughout this work, the holotype and allotype have been determined on the basis of a male and a female individual respectively. In describing the antennal segments of any species the first segment i.e. scape which remains suppressed very much and overlain by the large globular pedicel (second segment) in Orthocladinae particularly in males (Fittkau, 1962 and Frommer, 1967) has not been considered except in some cases of female individuals where the scape appears to be as large and prominent as the pedicel.

The terminologies used in this study are mostly after Brundin (1956), Chaudhuri and Das Gupta (1971, '72), Grempton (1942), Cook (1949, '56), Fittkau (1954), Matsuda (1970), Schlee (1968), Saether (1969, '71, '74, '75), Schlette (1966) and Townes (1945). These are explained here in reference to a hypothetical figure (Fig. 1) as follows :

The term 'seta' has been preferred to 'bristles', 'hairs', 'spines' and 'chaeta' following the work of Saether (1971).

The vertex represents the top of cranium in between and behind the compound eyes; postocular setae refer to those situated behind the compound eyes, while the coronal setae mean setae situated over the corona (Fig. 1) including the coronal suture. The term 'palpomere' has been used in place of palpal segment following Das Gupta and Wirth (1968); the palpomere I appears to be weakly sclerotised and faintly delimited from the rest of the maxilla. Similarly the term 'tarsomere' and 'flagellomere' have been referred to the tarsal segment and antennal segment respectively. The terms 'anrostichals', 'dorsocentrals' are used here in places of 'dorsomedian' and 'dorsolateral' setae respectively. The terms like pronotals, <sup>e</sup>median pronotal and lateral pronotal and prealar have been used for better understanding of chaetotaxy.

The notations used here in reference to the wing venation (Fig. 1) in general follow those of Linderberg (1964, '66) except that i)  $M_2 + Cu_1$  is taken as  $Cu_1$  and  $M_2$  is called as  $M_{3+4}$ , since Linderberg's rudimentary vein  $M_3$  cannot be accepted as a vein of separate entity and ii) fork of R is considered here as Fr. The position and the number of sensory organs on or near the vein R are also taken into account (Fig. 1).

In understanding the morphological characteristic of the hypopygium, the term 'gonocoxite' and 'gonostylus' previously used by Smith (1969) in reference to the male hypopygium of chironomid insects have been retained here in preference to 'coxite' (basistyle) and 'stylus' (dististyle). In case of females, the term 'genitalia' has been used in place of hypopygium. The apodemes of gonocoxite and sternum I (Wausler and Rempel, 1962) are referred to as 'compodeme', and 'sternapodeme' the latter being often divided into transverse sternapodemes and two lateral sternapodemes. The term 'phallopodeme' has been taken for apodemes of hypopygia while the preapical projection of the gonostylus has been called as 'crista dorsalis' (Saether, 1975). The term 'notum' indicates the sclerotized bridge formed by the fusion of the dorsal <sup>2</sup> rami of gonapophysis IX along most of the length.

The measurements of the structural parts including setae have been considered in millimetres (mm) except otherwise stated. The figures mentioned in the first and second parenthesis of the text indicates the range of variation and usual number respectively.

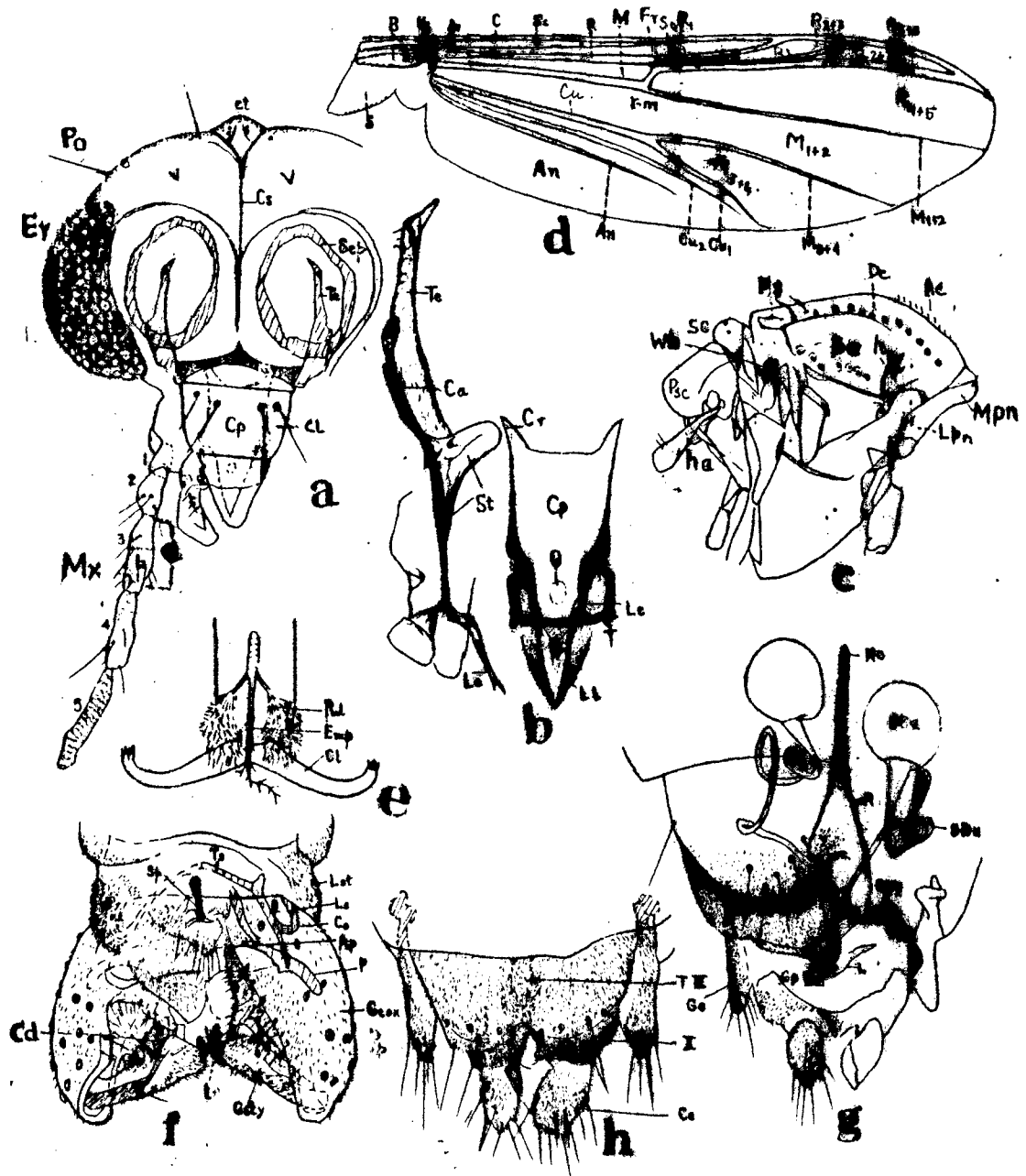


Fig.1. Morphological structures of a typical Orthocladid midge  
(Wide explanation on Pages 14-17 )

Explanation of Fig. 1

Morphological structures of a typical Orthocladid midge.

- A. Head showing different structures
- B. Mouth parts showing tentorium and cibarial pump
- C. Thorax
- D. Wing
- E. Terminal part of a hind leg.
- F. Male hypopygium
- G-H. Female Genitalia

Abbreviations :

- Ac - Acrostichale
- An - Anal vein/Anal cell
- Ap - Anal point
- Ar - Arculus
- B - Brachiolum
- C - Costal vein
- Ca - Cardo
- Cd - Crista dorsalis or preapical projection
- Co - Anal cercus
- Cl - Claw

Gly	-	Glypeus
Co	-	Coxapodeme
Op	-	Cibarial pump
Cr	-	Cornea
Ca	-	Coronal suture
Csa	-	Coxosternapodeme
Ct	-	Coronal triangle
Cu	-	vein Cu
Cu <sub>1</sub>	-	vein Cu <sub>1</sub>
Cu <sub>2</sub>	-	vein Cu <sub>2</sub>
Dc	-	Dorsocentral
Ey	-	Eye
Emp	-	Empodium
Fr	-	Fork of Vein R
Gc	-	Gonocoxite of female genitalia
Gcox	-	Gonocoxite of male hypopygium
Gsty	-	Gonostylus of male hypopygium
Gp VIII-	-	Gonapophysis VIII
H	-	Humeral pit
Ha	-	Haltere

Hc	-	Humeral cross-vein
L	-	Labium
La	-	Lacina
Le	-	Labrum-epipharynx
Ll	-	Labial lacinia
La	-	Lateral sternopodeme
Lat	-	Laterosternite
Lpn	-	Lateral pronotal
M	-	Vein M
M <sub>1+2</sub>	-	Vein M <sub>1+2</sub> / Cell M <sub>1+2</sub>
M <sub>3+4</sub>	-	Vein M <sub>3+4</sub> / Cell M <sub>3+4</sub>
Mpn	-	Median pronotal
Mx	-	Maxillary palp
No	-	Notum of abdomen of female
O	-	Orifice
P	-	Phallopodeme
Pa	-	Prealar
Ps	-	Prescutellar
Psc	-	Postscutellum
Pvl	-	Pulvillus



Po	-	Postocular
R	-	Vein R
R <sub>1</sub>	-	Vein R <sub>1</sub> / Cell R <sub>1</sub>
R <sub>2+3</sub>	-	Vein R <sub>2+3</sub> / Cell R <sub>2+3</sub>
R <sub>4+5</sub>	-	Vein R <sub>4+5</sub> / Cell R <sub>4+5</sub>
S	-	Squama
So	-	Vein So.
Sea	-	Seminal capsule
Set	-	Scutellum
Scp	-	Scapus
SDu	-	Duct of Seminal capsule
SE	-	Spermathecal eminence
Sp	-	Spine of the penis cavity
St	-	Stapes
So	-	Sensory organ sensilla chaetica and their positions
T	-	Torna
Ts	-	Transverse sternapodeme
Te	-	Tentorium
T IX	-	Tergum IX
t	-	tooth of gnostylus
V	-	Vertex
Wb	-	Base of the wing
X	-	Tenth abdominal segment

The abbreviations used in this work have been explained later. The colour of the head, thorax, scutum, scutellum, legs and other parts were noted from both dry and preserved specimens. The shadings of the several illustrations incorporated here, however, indicate the differences of colour tones rather than the actual colour of the body parts. How the measurements have been taken are explained as follows :

Length of body : length of the thorax from the apex of pronotum to the posterior end of metanotum plus the length of abdomen from the anteromedian margin of Tergum I to the apex of gonocoxite as introduced by Saether (1969).

L/W (spinal ratio) : length of the palpomere III divided by its maximum width (Fig.1 )

AR (axillary ratio) : length of the elongated flagellomere (last one in most cases) plus that of the segments distal to it divided by the combined length of basal flagellomeres (Tones, 1945).

Length of wing : distance from the basal arculus to the tip of wing in both sexes.

Breadth of wing : distance from the outer margin of vein  $R_1$  to the tip of vein  $Cu_1$  in both sexes.

Costal length : distance from the basal arculus to the tip of costa (C) in both sexes.

CR (Costal ratio) : Length of the costa divided by length of the wing.

VR (venarea ratio) : distance between the arculus and the fork of Cubitus (f-cu) divided by the distance between the arculus and the base of r-m cross-vein (Fittakun, 1954).

LR (leg ratio) : the length of tarsomere I divided by the length of tibia.

TR (tarsal ratio) of hind leg : length of the tarsomere I of the hind leg divided by length of the tarsomere II of the same leg.

Length of seminal capsule : distance from the tip of capsule to the base of its neck.

GR (gonostylus ratio) : the length of gonocoxite divided by the length of gonostylus (Schles, 1966).

HV (stypocystus value) : length of the gnocoxite divided by the length of the gonostylus multiplied by 10 (Saether, 1967a and 1968).

The materials of this study including types have provisionally been kept in the collections of insects in the museum of the department of Zoology, The University of Burdwan. The types and other specimens will, in due course, be deposited to the National collections of insects at the Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta, U.S. National Museum, Washington, British Museum (Nat.Hist.), London, Canadian National collections of insects, Ottawa, Bishop Museum, Honolulu and Zoological Institute of Leningrad, U.S.S.R.