ZONAL AND SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION OF INSECTS IN NORTH CAROLINA SALT MARSHES¹

LUCKETT V. DAVIS² AND I. E. GRAY

Department of Zoology, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, and Duke University Marine Laboratory, Beaufort, North Carolina

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction	275		90
PHYSICAL AND CLIMATIC FEATURES OF THE STUDY AREA	275	VARIATION THE SUMMER ASPECT: SPECIFIC COMPOSITION AND ZONAL DISTRIBUTION	
SALT MARSH PLANT ASSOCIATIONS	276	TROPHIC RELATIONSHIPS	28
PROCEDURES THE SAMPLING PROGRAM	$\frac{278}{278}$	TIDAL INUNDATION, SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION	
DESCRIPTIONS OF STATIONS		SUMMARY	29
METHOD OF SAMPLING		ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	29
Decree Mar AND Decrees ON	281	LATERATURE CITED	29

INTRODUCTION

Although their obnoxious insect inhabitants have received much attention, it seems to not be generally recognized that salt marshes support a diverse insect fauna. For example, in summarizing reports of insects from marine habitats, Usinger (1957) merely remarked that "Grassy salt marshes and Pickleweed (Salicornia) marshes are the favorite habitats of salt marsh mosquitoes throughout the world. Also under these conditions, particularly near high tide mark, biting midges of the genera Culicoides and Leptoconops occur." Salt marsh midges and mosquitoes are certainly very common in some instances, but usually are far outnumbered by other species of insects. One purpose of this paper is to demonstrate that salt marshes are a type of marine-influenced habitat in which insects are present in both great variety and abundance.

The work described here began in June, 1959, and continued for fifteen months. The facilities of the Duke University Marine Laboratory and the salt marshes in Carteret County, North Carolina were utilized. The main objective was to provide a basic description of the insect assemblages of each of the major types of zonally distributed associations that comprise these salt marshes. Because the ecology of salt marsh insects is poorly known, their habits. interrelationships, and interactions with other types of organisms were observed and recorded whenever possible. Only the insects that inhabit the herbaceous strata are considered here.

The only previous investigation of zonal distribution of insects in intertidal phanerogamic communities was carried out in New Zealand by Paviour-Smith (1956). She took cylinder samples at six points on a transect that passed across four zones of vegetation, and obtained animals from both the vege-

1. Manuscript first received Aug. 18, 1965. Accepted for Publication Mar. 28, 1966.
2. Present address: Department of Biology, Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Garolina.

tation and the soil down to the depth of one centimeter. Her samples contained a wide variety of terrestrial insects, but most of these were subterranean or surface-dwelling forms. Only one species (the coccid, Trionymus sp.) occurred consistently in the herbaceous strata, and it was present in all four zones.

Literature dealing with salt marsh insects is extremely scattered. Much of its consists of brief notes, species descriptions, check-lists, and scraps of information from various other sources. Only a few papers deal particularly with the ecology of insects from the herbaceous strata of marshes of the North American coasts, and these will be referred to

PHYSICAL AND CLIMATIC FEATURES OF THE STUDY AREA

The study area, Carteret County, North Carolina, occupies the major portion of a peninsula situated between the estuaries of the Neuse River and the New River. Offshore bars, called Outer Banks, protect the mainland from wave action. The bars are broken at intervals by inlets which connect the ocean to the shallow sounds that separate the Outer Banks from the mainland. The mainland coast of Carteret County is deeply indented by the estuaries of the North and Newport Rivers. Many small bays and creeks increase the complexity of the coastline (Fig. 1).

According to United States Coast and Geodetic Survey Tide Tables (1960), the mean range of tides at Atlantic Beach, on the ocean side of Bogue Banks, is 1.15 meters. The tidal range is less in the sounds, averaging 0.76 meters at Beaufort and 0.85 meters at Morehead City. Tidal fluctuations occur in the levels of nearly all creeks and rivers in the county. The range of spring tides is usually from fifteen to thirty centimeters greater than the mean range. Because much of the land adjoining the sounds, estu-

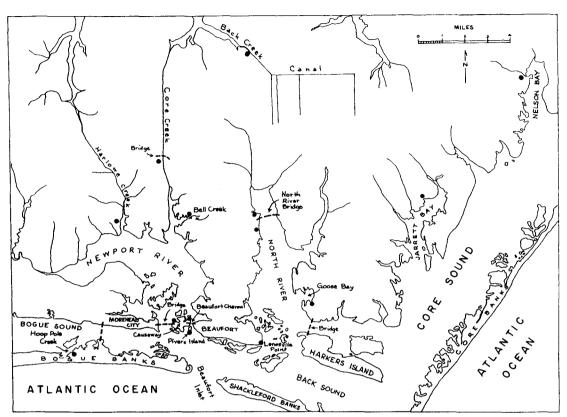


Fig. 1. Map of southeastern Carteret County, North Carolina, showing the locations of stations.

aries, and streams lies almost at sea level and is extremely flat, even this small increase in the tidal range floods much land that ordinarily remains dry at high tide.

The climate of the Beaufort area is classified by Trewartha (1954) as humid subtropical, with no dry season. United States Weather Bureau data (1960) reveal that the coolest months are usually January and February, with mean temperatures of about 7° C. However, in March, 1960, the mean temperature was only 5.6° C. Mid-summer temperatures average about 27° C. The total precipitation in 1959 at Morehead City was 131.85 cm, and in 1960 was 122.24 cm. Snowfall is infrequent, although three light accumulations of snow occurred in the winter of 1959-1960. Hurricanes strike the area frequently and cause unusually high tides, but none occurred while this study was in progress. During winter, strong northeast winds frequently push water down the sounds and flood thousands of acres of salt marshes.

SALT MARSH PLANT ASSOCIATIONS

Salt marshes cover a total area in Carteret County of nearly 56,000 acres (Perkins, 1938). Wave action prevents establishment of salt marshes on the ocean and estuaries, wherever there is sufficient deposition of mud, salt marsh usually gains a foothold. Almost every creek, canal, and small river is bordered by salt marsh to the limit of tidal influence.

The salt marsh associations of the North Carolina coast have been classified by Wells (1928) and Adams (1963). Adams' classification is more consistent with other studies of Atlantic coast salt marsh floras and is in much closer accord with our observations. He holds that there are three "low marsh" associations, and one "high marsh" association, all receiving their names from the dominant plants. The low marsh associations are: (1) Spartina alterniflora; (2) Spartina alterniflora-Salicornia perennis-Limonium carolinianum, hereafter referred to as Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium; and (3) Juncus roemerianus. The high marsh association is more complex and is named after its five dominants, Aster tenuifolius-Distichlis spicata-Fimbristylis castanea-Borrichia frutescens-Spartina patens. These associations form a zonal sequence, in the order given above. from below the mean high water level to above the level of the high spring tides. The distribution of the dominant salt marsh plants is determined primarily by the tide-elevation influences, especially hydroperiod, or the fraction of time during which the ground is inundated.

Adams' classification is simpler than the situation usually encountered in the field. To facilitate the discussion that follows, and to take into account the principal deviations from the ideal zonation given above, the tidal marshes of Carteret County are arranged in three sequences.

Mong the borders of the sounds and estuaries, the slope of the shore in many places is comparatively steep because spoil from dredging operations has been dumped there. In such situations there is usually found a zonal sequence of Spartina alterniflora to Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium to high marsh dominated by Spartina patens (Fig. 2). Depending on the degree of shore slope, the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium zone may be narrow or absent, and only a band of drift may separate the upper limit of S. alterniflora from S. patens. S. patens is always mixed with other plant species, especially Borrichia frutescens, Strophostyles helvola, and scattered bushes of Ira frutescens. This sequence is referred to hereafter as Sequence I.

Along the borders of many creeks, rivers, and canals, and occasionally along the borders of the sounds and estuaries, may be seen a second sequence (hereafter called Sequence II). This sequence consists of S. alterniflora to Juneus roemerianus to high marsh dominated by Distichlis spicata. The Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium zone is not ordinarily developed in this sequence except along the sounds and estuaries. The high marsh zone is often represented only by a very narrow belt located between extensive stands of Juneus and higher pine woods, but reaches its best development as enclaves on very low hummocks within Juneus stands. In areas of fresh-water seepage, stands of Panicum virgatum, Cladium jamaicense, or Scirpus americanus may occur immediately above Juncus and high marsh.

A third sequence is associated with creeks having low salinity and a high rate of silt deposition. Spartina cynosuroides replaces S. alterniflora in the lower zone of this sequence, and J. roemerianus occupies the higher zone. At these sites, high marsh is not ordinarily present.

The Spartina alterniflora association is intertidal, and occurs on ground that is regularly inundated twice daily. S. alterniflora is a grass, characterized by flat, succulent leaves, that often forms extensive pure stands in which conspicuous variation occurs

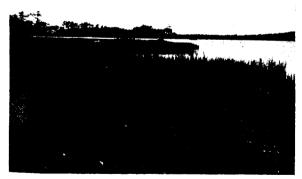


Fig. 2. Salt marsh zonal sequence showing Spartina alterniflora at the water's edge, and Spartina patens at the left. The intermediate area of short vegetation is the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium zone.

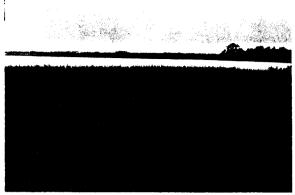


Fig. 3. A stand of Spartina alterniflora.

in the heights of culms growing at different elevations (Fig. 3). The extent to which the plants are submerged at high tide varies greatly, depending on the height of the culms, their elevation, and the level to which the tide rises. S. alterniflora is seldom entirely covered by water; usually the stems and leaves project fifty centimeters or more above the surface of the water even when the tide is highest.

S. alterniflora grades into the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association. S. alterniflora culms in this association are always quite short, less than fifty centimeters tall. Salicornia is a fleshy, leafless plant with branching green stems, and is usually less than thirty centimeters tall. Limonium is a branching herb with fibrous stems and sparse foliage; it is also usually less than fifty centimeters tall. This association occurs on ground that is inundated at irregular, but frequent, intervals. Spring tides often entirely submerge the vegetation.

The J. roemerianus association occupies extensive areas of flat ground that is reached by tides of above-average height. J. roemerianus is a tall (up to two meters) spike-tipped rush that forms nearly pure stands, but an understory of low herbs is sometimes present. The most extensive Juncus marshes in Carteret County are in the mainland coast above the S. alterniflora zone bordering Core Sound, and are a mile or so wide (Fig. 4). Juncus vegetation is

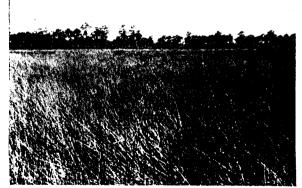


Fig. 4. An extensive stand of Juneus roemerianus.

olina and

and consalt 1 our "low sociainant ertina ornia

Junmore
Aster
aneasociabove,
e the
on of

erred

ation e dist the given

pricially which

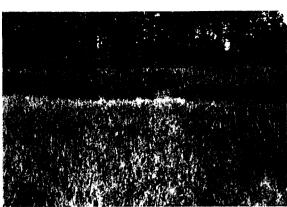


Fig. 5. A stand of *Distichlis spicata* (foreground), with *Juncus roemerianus* and pine woods in background.

seldom submerged for more than one-third of its height.

High marsh dominated by Spartina patens is reached only by exceptionally high tides, such as those caused by hurricanes. S. patens is usually distinguished from S. alterniflora by its more slender stems and leaves. High marsh dominated by Distichlis spicata occurs on ground that is inundated by spring tides, where the hydroperiod is slightly less than in J. roemerianus marsh. D. spicata is a short grass that often forms a carpet of uniform height, but is usually mixed with scattered clumps of Fimbristylis castanea, or sometimes with S. patens (Fig. 5). During high spring tides, the vegetation of Distichlis marsh may be almost entirely submerged.

Unfortunately, little information has been published concerning the length of time that the vegetation in these associations is actually submerged, or partially submerged. In the cases of vegetation that may be entirely submerged during spring tides (Dis-Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium), submergence would be limited to a few hours per month, and sometimes less. Northeast winds in the fall and winter may cause these same types of vegetation to be submerged for several hours daily for periods of two or three days; such conditions occurred less than half-a-dozen times during this study. Hurricanes may cause temporary complete submergence of all types of salt marsh vegetation. Adams (1963) provides considerable information concerning tideelevation influences and the distribution of the dominant types of plants of the North Carolina salt marshes.

PROCEDURES

THE SAMPLING PROGRAM

The words "station" and "stand" are used here in accordance with the meanings assigned to them by Diee (1952), where a "station" is "each particular situation that is described in detail," and a "stand" is "a local example of an association composed of those individual plants and animals that live together in a particular situation." Each station mentioned

here consisted of a stand, or part of a stand.

The criteria used in the selection of stations were: (1) degree of accessibility; (2) whether or not the stands appeared to be representative; (3) availability of satisfactory adjacent stands, since it was convenient to establish more than one station at each field locality that was visited.

The insects of all three low marsh associations, and of the two principal facies of the high marsh association, were studied. Several stations were established in each of the two principal low marsh associations, Spartina alterniflora and Juncus roemerianus. A single station in Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium was investigated. The Distichlis spicata and Spartina patens facies of the high marsh association were treated separately, and stations were set up in each.

Because summer is the season of greatest abundance and diversity of insect life, many stations were intensively sampled between June 1 and September 1, 1960. Ten visits were made to each of those stations during that period. Successive visits always occurred from five to ten days apart. Certain stations were also visited once each month between September 1, 1959, and June 1, 1960. The following outline summarizes the entire sampling program and gives the locations of all stations.

- The summer sampling program. Locations of stands from which ten samples were obtained between June 1 and September 1, 1960.
 - A. Spartina alterniflora association.

Bogue Banks
Piver's Island
Beaufort Channel
Bell Creek
Harlowe Creek

- B. Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association.

 Bogue Banks
- C. Juncus roemerianus association.
 Bogue Banks

Core Creek Bell Creek Nelson Bay

D. High marsh association.a. Spartina patens facies.

Bogue Banks Piver's Island Beaufort Channel Harlowe Creek Lennoxville Point

b. Distichlis spicata facies.
 Core Creek
 Harlowe Creek
 Lennoxville Point
 Nelson Bay

sit

ere: the vailwas

was each ions, arsh

parwere each. bunions Sephose vays sta-Sep-

of ined

out-

and

- 2. Locations of stands from which monthly samples were obtained between September 1, 1959 and June 1, 1960.
 - A. Spartina alterniflora association.

Bogue Banks Beaufort Channel Goose Bay North River B

- B. Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association.
 Bogue Banks
- C. Juneus roemerianus association.

 Bogue Banks
 Goose Bay
 Core Creek
- North River B

 D. High marsh association.
 - a. Spartina patens facies.
 Bogue Banks
 Beaufort Channel
 North River B
 - b. Distichlis spicata facies.Core CreekNorth River B
- 3. Locations of stands from which monthly samples were obtained in June, July, and August, 1960.
 - A. Spartina alterniflora association.

Core Creek North River A Goose Bay North River B

B. Juncus roemerianus association.

Goose Bay Harlowe Creek North River A Back Creek North River B Jarrett Bay

- C. High marsh association.
 - A. Spartina patens facies.

 Newport River

 North River B
 - b. Distichlis spicata facies.
 North River A
 North River B

DESCRIPTIONS OF STATIONS

The localities of all stations are indicated on Figure 1. Each station was located on, or adjacent to, the geographic feature for which it is named. Stations were established at two locations (A and B in the preceding outline) along the west side of North River; location A is the more northerly of these two sites. Detailed descriptions of each station are not given here, but, with the exceptions noted in the following discussion, all were established in stands that

appeared to be representative. The sizes and shapes of stands of these salt marsh associations vary greatly. To minimize these differences and make stations as comparable as possible, the sample size was standardized, and samples from a station were always obtained within a circumscribed area.

The salt marshes at Lennoxville Point, Piver's Island, and adjacent to Beaufort Channel, belong to Sequence I. In each case, S. alterniflora occupies the intertidal zone, Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium is poorly represented, and S. patens-dominated high marsh lies above a drift line on sloping, sandy ground. At Lennoxville Point, a small stand of Distichlis is present in a poorly drained depression behind the S. patens zone.

The marshes at Goose Bay, Bell Creek, Nelson Bay, Jarrett Bay, Back Creek, and Core Creek all belong to Sequence II. At all of these locations, except Nelson Bay and Core Creek, high marsh was too poorly represented for stations to be established. The S. alterniflora zone at Nelson Bay and Jarrett Bay was too inaccessible for study. At Back Creek the S. alterniflora zone was too narrow to be utilized.

Both zonal sequences are present at Bogue Banks and at Harlowe Creek. At Bogue Banks, Sequence II predominates, but the *Distichlis* facies is not developed, probably because of fresh-water seepage from nearby hills. A spoilbank is present in one part of this marsh, and a fine example of Sequence I occurs along its margin. The Harlowe Creek stations are located near the junction of that creek with Newport estuary. A small tributary empties into Harlowe Creek here. The tributary creek is bordered by marshes of Sequence II, and Harlowe Creek (at this point) is bordered by Sequence I marshes. Consequently, four stations could be established.

A stand of high marsh, dominated almost equally by S. patens and Fimbristylis castanea was studied. This station was located adjacent to the principal mouth of the Newport River on a damp, sandy area formed by the dumping of spoil.

Cattle-grazed marshes along the west side of North River were investigated. These marshes are heavily trampled, with many bare patches, poorly drained depressions, and small pools. Distichlis occupies the zone just above S. alterniflora, and below Juncus. This unusual situation probably results from the ability of Distichlis to tolerate highly saline conditions caused by evaporation of water from hoof tracks.

METHOD OF SAMPLING

DeLong (1932) and Gray and Treloar (1933) have pointed out that the sweep-net method is not suitable for making estimates of absolute insect density because an unknown portion of the population escapes the net. Beall (1935) concluded that the most legitimate use of the sweep-net was in comparing populations from one area at different times, or from different areas. The cylinder method, which involves placing a cylindrical trap over the vegetation and poisoning, collecting, and counting the insects caught

Tal

aggre

were

Home

tions,

other

at ei

four,

rank

twen

curre

numl

sente

geatl

prod

conta

take

Bel

Hau

.

THE RESERVE THE PROPERTY OF THE PARTY OF THE

Th

within, has been used to sample insect populations, but has the disadvantages of being tedious, cumbersome, and of obtaining specimens from a very small area. Beall, Ronney (1945), and Fenton and Howell (1957), have all compared the efficiency of the sweepnet to that of the cylinder, and other sampling methods

The sweep-net method was chosen for use in this study because it gives a quantitative measure of the relative abundance of the insects, is not excessively time-consuming, and samples a relatively large area, thus eliminating errors caused by the irregular distribution of insects within the limits of a station. The sweep-net method has not been used here to determine absolute insect densities, but rather for obtaining density indices (estimates of the relative abundance of individuals of one, or more, species in different stands, or in the same stand at different times). If the limitations of the sweep-net method are understood, and the differing habits of the insects are taken into account when the data is examined, a great deal of useful information may be obtained in this way.

A beating net with a handle one inch in diameter and twenty-two inches long was used. The handle is an important feature because many so-called "sweeping nets" have slender handles and can not be effectively passed through resistant vegetation such as Juncus. A heavy metal ring fifteen inches in diameter supported the net bag. The bag itself was twenty-eight inches deep and made of muslin.

The handle of the net was grasped in both hands and swung vigorously back and forth, the net bag eutting a swath through approximately three feet of vegetation at each stroke. A step forward was taken with each swing, so that the same vegetation was not swept twice. It was necessary always to move upwind, while sampling, to prevent the net from being blown shut, but gusts of wind occasionally spoiled sets of sweeps.

Ninety strokes constituted a sample. This number was selected on the basis of preliminary summer studies, in which samples of several sizes were taken in representative stands of each association to be studied. The number of species obtained in samples of each size was plotted against the number of strokes. The resulting curves levelled off rapidly at sample sizes of sixty strokes or less, indicating that samples of that magnitude would obtain all common species. But to allow for the decrease of insect populations in winter, a larger sample was used.

The net was emptied three times during the taking of each sample, at intervals of thirty strokes. This practice reduced the escape rate of active insects from the net. Captured insects, along with the plant debris that accumulated in the bag, were transferred into large, wide-mouthed, cyanide killing-jars. Separation of insects from debris was performed in the laboratory, and the specimens were preserved in 70% alcohol in two-ounce specimen bottles. When necessary, specimens could be transferred from alcohol

to pins by the method described by Oman and Cushman (1948).

Most of the difficulties encountered in the sampling program fell into three categories, the first including problems associated with daily changes in the environment. The effects of weather on insect activity are not well known. Menhinick (1963) found that sweep-net sampling of some kinds of insects is not greatly affected by the presence or absence of clouds, but ants and grasshoppers are not so frequently collected on overcast days. The problem is complex, especially when diverse species are sampled. It was not possible to restrict sampling to days of rigidly specified weather conditions, and still carry out an extensive program.

In this study, samples were taken only between the hours of 9:00 A.M. and 4:00 P.M. in summer, and between 10:00 A.M. and 3:00 P.M. at other seasons. No samples were taken during periods of tidal inundation, or when rain was falling. Humidity was determined by cog psychrometer, air temperature was measured, and other atmospheric conditions were noted, whenever samples were obtained. Attempts were made to correlate weather conditions with variations in the total size and composition of samples, but none was successful, and further consideration of this aspect is omitted.

Another sampling problem was caused by differences in the growth habits and structure of the vegetation. It is impossible to maintain an exact standard of sweeping in all stands of an association because of variations in both space and time of the height and density of the dominant plant species. Comparing samples from stands of different associations is even harder. For example, a stroke of the net cuts a much shorter swath through *Distichlis* than through *Juncus*, because the latter is a much taller plant. Comparison of sweep-net samples from different associations must be on a basis that does not require the samples to be from equal areas, or amounts of vegetation.

The third major sampling problem was caused by differences in the agility and tenacity of the insects. For example, grasshoppers frequently clude the net but most species of planthoppers do not. A vigorous stroke of the net will dislodge and capture a greater proportion of the individuals of some kinds of insects. This selectivity can be compensated for only by supplementing the sampling process with observations of the behavior of the insects that appear in the samples.

A few other difficulties peculiar to the situation were encountered. In S. alterniflora stands the peri-winkle, Littorina irrorata, occurs on the leaf blades in large numbers. When the vegetation was struck by the net, these snails tumbled into the bag along with insects and other animals, and the subsequent shifting about of the snails pulverized the softer-bodied insects and sometimes prevented accurate counting and identification.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

THE SUMMER ASPECT: ORDINAL COMPOSITION AND VARIATION

Table 1 shows the ordinal composition of the insect aggregations at those stations, twenty in all, that were included in the summer sampling program. The Homoptera were first in abundance at fourteen stations, and the Diptera were preponderant at the other six. The Diptera were second in abundance at eight stations, Homoptera at five, Orthoptera at four, and Hemiptera at three. Thus, the Homoptera ranked either first or second at all but one of the twenty stations. Coleoptera and Hymenoptera occurred at practically all stations, but never in large numbers, and other orders of insects were represented very meagerly.

The total number of insects per sample varied geatly in S. alternistora. Samples from the most productive S. alterniflora station, at Harlowe Creek, contained (on the average) forty-two times more

Table 1. Ordinal composition of sets of ten samples taken in five types of salt marsh vegetation in the summer of 1960.

						****		_		
	MEAN PERCENTAGE COMPOSITION									
Stations	Homoptera	Diptera	Hemiptera	Orthoptera	Coleoptera	Hymenoptera	Other orders	Average number of insects per sample		
Spartina alterniflora										
Bogue Banks*	75.15 53.47 55.09	40.28	0.70		0.46 2.78 3.02	0.61 2.08 2.26		1316 288 265		
Beaufort Channel Bell Creek*	1	10.20	5.28 0.16	1.22	0.26		0.05	1893		
Harlowe Creek**	95.73			i 1	0.21			11095		
	31.65		3.16		2.22	2.53		316		
All stations	90.11	6.72	1.76		0.38		0.04	2529		
Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium										
Bogue Banks	<u>78</u> .10	13.41	3.89	2.67	0.98	0.73	0.24	411		
Juncus roemerianus										
Bogue Banks	85.61		1.52		i	2.27		132		
Core Creek		15.00				10.00	2.27	20		
Nelson Bay	73.17	1 '		15.85				82		
Bell Creek		50.00			11.11		0.40	18		
All stations	72.22	9.92	2.78	11.11	0.79	2.78	0.40	63_		
Distichlis spicata	1									
Lennoxville Point	60.83	13,64	21.83	2.35	0.51		0.06			
Core Creek	72.29	14.13	9.45	0.39	ı		0.08			
Nelson Bay		40.71					0.09			
Harlowe Creek		10.12					0.08			
All stations	57.32	18.66	19.18	1.17	2.04	0.91	0.07	1345		
Spartina patens										
Bogue Banks	41.00	25.17	17.22	2.65	9.27	3.31	1.32	115		
Piver's Island		61.22					1.53			
Beaufort Channel						10.81				
Harlowe Creek						11.22				
Lennoxville Point		54.69			1	1	0.80	1		
All stations	30.41	43.88	8.78	2.96	4.39	8.78	1.02	196		
	1	1	1	<u> </u>			1	1		

^{*}Prokelisia marginala (Homoptera) estimated in two samples.
**P. marginala estimated in four samples.

insects than samples from the least productive station, at Beaufort Channel. Homoptera (principally the delphacid, Prokelisia marginata) comprised 30% or more of the insects from each of the six stations. Variations in the population growth of P. marginata, discussed in another section, are responsible for the large differences in average sample size from different stands of S. alterniflora.

There was also considerable variation in the average number of insects per sample from Juncus stations, caused largely by differences in the population size of Keyflana hasta (Homoptera: Delphacidae). This planthopper occurred at all Juncus stations, usually in small numbers, but abundantly at Bogue Banks and Nelson Bay.

The two facies of the high marsh associations support insect assemblages that are quite unlike in size and composition. The average number of insects per sample from four Distichlis stations was almost seven times greater than from five S. patens stations. All Distichlis stands supported a very large insect fauna, of which 80% or more consisted of four species: Delphacodes detecta (Homoptera: Delph-Amphicephalus littoralis (Homoptera: Cicadellidae): Trigonotylus americanus (Hemiptera: Miridae); and Conioscinella infesta (Diptera: Chloropidae). Approximately 35% of S. patens insects were C. infesta, but no other species comprised a large percentage of the catch. Both of the high marsh facies differed from Juncus and S. alterniflora in that the average number of insects per sample from different stations did not vary greatly.

Hydroperiod and other tidal effects do not limit the total size of the insect aggregations of the five types of marshes included in this study. Of the five, Distichlis, which has a short hydroperiod, but is almost submerged by spring tides, supports the largest insect assemblage. Juncus has a similar hydroperiod, and is seldom more than one-fourth submerged, yet sustains a very sparse insect fauna. S. alterniflora and Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium are reached most frequently by the tides, but support more insects than S. patens, which is flooded only during storms.

Shelter and food are factors that affect the size of these insect assemblages more than tidal influences. Juncus marsh supports few insects because the vegetation consists of slender, fibrous stems that provide little protection from predators or wind, and a scant food supply for primary consumers. By contrast, Distichlis forms a dense carpet that gives ample cover and food for a large number of herbivorous insects. Of the two Spartinas, S. alterniflora has larger and more succulent culms and supports more herbivores. S. alterniflora forms stands that are much more open than those of Distichlis, and probably for that reason does not sustain as large an insect fauna.

It is evident from Table 1 that the Homoptera decrease in importance as zone elevation increases. while other orders show just the reverse trend. There

me ah

 $D\epsilon$

an

pa

m

th

ŝ

から

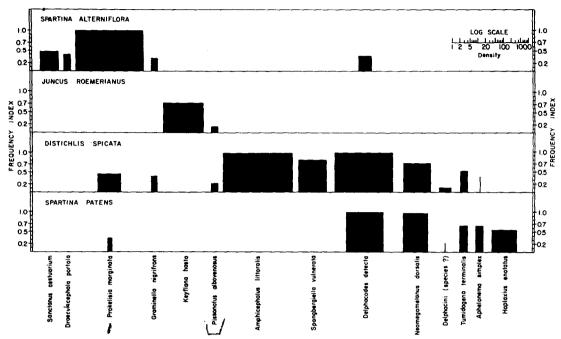


Fig. 6. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Homoptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

are some exceptions to this rule, the most obvious being that the Orthoptera constitute a much greater proportion of the insects of *Juncus* than of the high marshes. It appears that Orthoptera are relatively most successful in those salt marshes (particularly *Juncus*) that consist of open stands of coarse vegetation, probably because they can utilize tough plant tissues for food better than most other insects.

Hymenoptera are best represented in S. patens, where several species of ants occur commonly. Ant hills were frequently seen in the sandy soil in which S. patens grows, whereas ants that nest in the ground are excluded by the tide from the other types of salt marshes, except as occasional visitors.

THE SUMMER ASPECT: SPECIFIC COMPOSITION AND ZONAL DISTRIBUTION

Two important features of insect aggregations that can be described from sweep-net samples are the frequencies and densities of the component species. The frequency of a species is the fraction of samples in which it is present. Density refers to the average number of specimens per sample. Frequencies and densities of the same species in different types of marshes, and of different species in the same or in different types of marshes, can be validly compared, but are subject to the errors described previously.

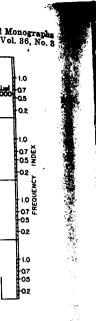
Figures 6-11 are frequency-density diagrams, in each of which the four principal salt marsh associations and facies are represented vertically, in their proper zonal order. Ideally, in each diagram, the insect assemblage of each zone should intergrade with the assemblages of the zones just above and below it. However, this ideal pattern is modified by two fac-

tors: (1) the marshes actually occur in two sequences, instead of in a simple zonal pattern; (2) the food of herbivorous insects is frequently restricted to two or more closely related plant species, and in one instance here, dominant plants of different zones (S. alterniflora and S. patens) belong to the same genus. Results of sampling from Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium are not included in these diagrams because only one station in that association was studied.

Figure 6 shows the frequencies and densities of common salt marsh homopterans. Several species belong to the family Cicadellidae (Sanctanus aestuarium, Draeculacephala portola, Amphicephalus littoralis, Spangbergiella vulnerata, Graminella nigrifrons); except for Haplaxius enotatus (Cixiidae) and Aphelonema simplex (Issidae), the others are delphacids. Rhynchomitra microrhina (Dictyopharidae) is a characteristic inhabitant of Juncus, but does not appear in the diagram because it is elusive and often avoided capture.

Both kinds of high marsh support a greater diversity of Homoptera than do either Juncus or S. alterniflora, and have more species in common with each other than with these low marsh associations. The same species of homopterans occur in Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium as in S. alterniflora, with the addition of Sanctanus sanctus (Cicadellidae).

The homopterans have a more nearly zonal distribution pattern than do members of the other insect orders, but two major departures from the ideal are evident. *Prokelisia marginata*, although principally associated with *S. alterniflora*, frequently occurred in all marsh types except *Juneus*. *P. marginata* speci-



strata of

in two seattern; (2) quently relant species, ts of differ-) belong to m Spartina-1 these diaassociation

densities of eral species nus aestuarephalus litinella nigrico (Cixiidae); others are Dictyophari-Juncus, but it is elusive

reater diveror S. alteron with each
iations. The
n Spartinara, with the
dae).

zonal distriother insect the ideal are principally occurred in ginata speci-

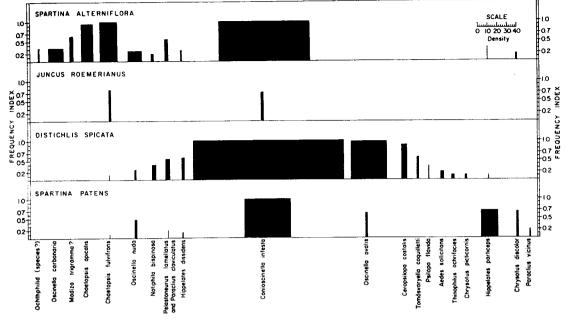


Fig. 7. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Diptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

mens collected in Distichlis and S. patens were probably strays from the huge S. alterniflora populations. Delphacodes detecta is more widely distributed than any other homopteran, being very abundant in S. patens and Distichlis in summer, and equally common in S. alterniflora in autumn. D. detecta from S. patens and Distichlis bear markings that differ from those of specimens collected in S. alterniflora, so it is possible that these are two species currently called by one name.

Most of the common salt marsh dipterans (Fig. 7) belong to three families, the Chloropidae (Oscinella carbonaria, O. nuda, O. ovalis, Hippelates particeps, H. dissidens, Madiza trigramma, Conioscinella infesta), Dolichopodidae (Chrysotus discolor, C. picticornis, Paraclius vicinus, P. claviculatus, Pelastoneurus lamellatus, Thinophilus ochrifacies), and Ephydridae (Psilopa flavida, Ceropsilopa costalis, Notiphila bispinosa). Other families represented are the Otitidae (Chaetopsis fulvifrons, C. apicalis), the Pipunculidae (Tomösvaryella coquilletti), the Culicidae (Aedes sollicitans), and the Ochthiphilidae.

S. alterniflora and Distichlis both accommodate large and diverse dipteran assemblages. The fly fauna of Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium usually includes the ephydrid, Dimecoenia austrina (Ephydridae), but is otherwise similar to that of S. alterniflora. The small fly assemblage of Juncus is composed of strays from other types of vegetation. Flies comprise a larger proportion of the S. patens insect fauna than any other group, but fewer common species occur there than in Distichlis or S. alterniflora. Conioscinella infesta is the commonest fly species in all five types of salt marshes.

Only six species of Hemiptera were abundant (Fig. 8), and these belong to three families, the Miridae (Tytthus vagus, Trigonotylus uhleri, T. americanus), the Lygaeidae (Ischnodemus badius, Cymus breviceps), and the Pentatomidae (Rhytidolomia saucia). Four species (T. vagus, T. americanus, I. badius, R. saucia) are restricted to one marsh type. T. uhleri occurred in both S. patens and S. alterniflora, but not in other zones, indicating that its distribution is related to the occurrence of Spartina. T. uhleri was most common in S. patens in late spring and early summer, and in S. alterniflora in late summer. Cymus breviceps occurred in all five types of salt marshes, and also in adjoining stands of Panicum virgatum, being most abundant in the higher marsh zones.

The species of Orthoptera included in Figure 9 belong to three families, the Tettigoniidae (Orchelimum fidicinium, Conocephalus spp.), the Acrididae (Paroxya clavuliger, Orphulella olivacea, Clinocephalus elegans, Mermiria intertexta), and the Gryllidae (Anaxipha scia, Cycloptilum antillarum, Oecanthus quadripunctatus, Nemobius sparsalsus. O. fidicinium is restricted to S. alterniflora, N. sparsalsus to Distichlis, and P. clavuliger to Juncus. The other orthopterans are not limited to any single type of vegetation. O. olivacea, abundant in Distichlis, is also common in Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium. C. elegans and M. intertexta are characteristic of high marsh, the former occurring most often in Distichlis, and the latter mainly in S. patens. At least four species of Conocephalus are common, but unfortunately they are hard to distinguish, especially in the nymphal stages. Enough identifications were made to show

 $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{h}$

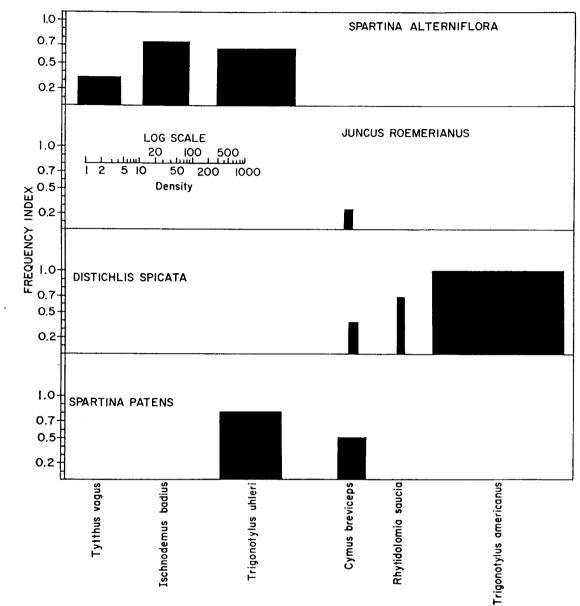


Fig. 8. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Hemiptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

that none of these species is restricted to any one kind of marsh.

Six families of Coleoptera are represented by the species included in Figure 10. These are the Coccinellidae (Naemia serriata), the Cleridae (Isohydnocera tabida, I. aegra), the Malachiidae (Collops nigriceps), the Mordellidae (Mordellistena spp.), the Elateridae (Glyphonyx sp.), and the Chrysomelidae (Chaetocnema sp., Pachybrachys atomarius, Cryptocephalus venustus). Most common salt marsh beetles are restricted to one type of marsh. Exceptions are C. nigriceps, which occurs in S. alterniflora and Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium, and N. serriata, found in Distichlis and S. alterniflora. The distribution of

N. serriata in S. alternistora is very erratic; it is absent from most stands, but extremely abundant in a few.

All of the common Hymenoptera (Fig. 11) are ants (Crematogaster clara, Pseudomyrmex pallida, Formica sp., Monomorium minimum, Iridomyrmex pruinosus, Dorymyrmex pyramicus, Tapinoma sessile), or belong to parasitic groups (chalcids, Braconidae, Tiphiidae, Scelionidae). C. clara is the only one of these ant species that occurs in the lower marsh zones; it nests in upright, dead, hollow stems of S. alterniflora.

The following outline (based on frequencies, densities, field observations, and special collections) indi-

これのなるなど、などにはいるが、これのなかないないとうできると

ida, mex

ses-

3ra-

nly

wer

ems

len-

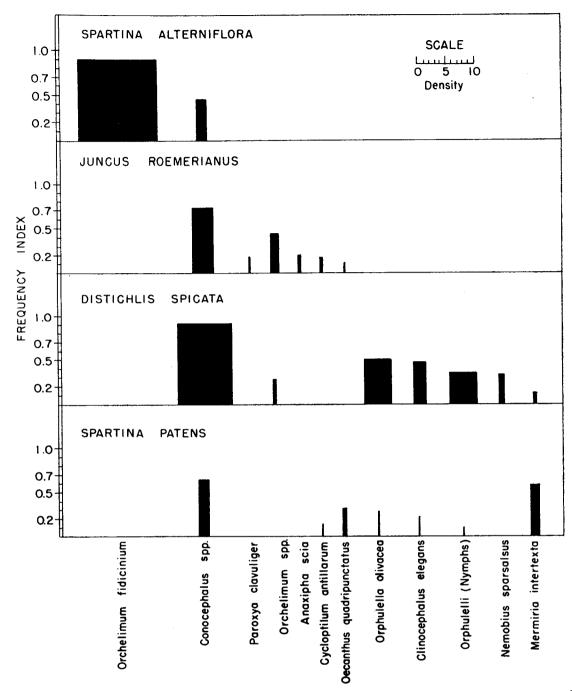


Fig. 9. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Orthoptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

cates the characteristic insect inhabitants of each of the five types of salt marshes included in this study. These are the insects that comprised the great majority of the individuals obtained in samples, plus others that were conspicuous, but able to avoid capture.

Spartina alterniflora association

Prokelisia marginata (Homoptera: Delphacidae)

Sanctanus aestuarium (Homoptera: Cicadellidae)
Draeculacephala portola (Homoptera: Cicadellidae)

Chaetopsis apicalis (Diptera: Otitidae) Chaetopsis fulvifrons (Diptera: Otitidae) Conioscinella infesta (Diptera: Chloropidae) Ischnodemus badius (Hemiptera: Lygaeidae) Trigonotylus uhleri (Hemiptera: Miridae)

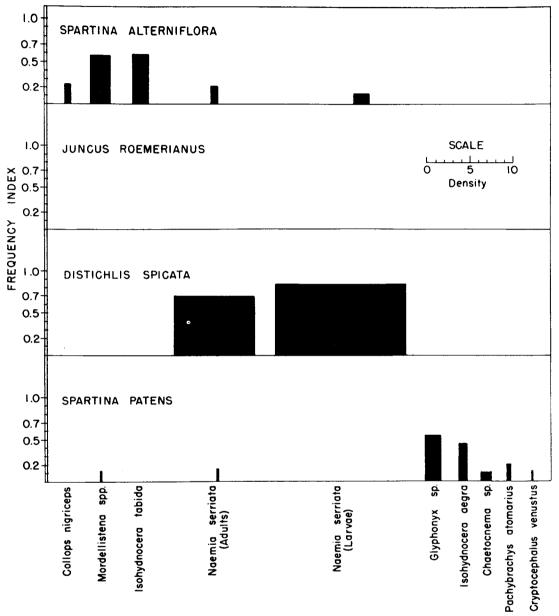


Fig. 10. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Coleoptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

Orchelimum fidicinium (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae)

Conocephalus spp. (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae) Isohydnocera tabida (Coleoptera: Cleridae) Mordellistena spp. (Coleoptera: Mordellidae) Collops nigriceps (Coleoptera: Malachiidae)

Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association
Prokelisia marginata (Homoptera: Delphacidae)
Sanctanus sanctus (Homoptera: Cicadellidae)
Conioscinella infesta (Diptera: Chloropidae)
Chaetopsis apicalis (Diptera: Otitidae)
Chaetopsis fulvifrons (Diptera: Otitidae)

Dimecoenia austrina (Diptera: Ephydridae)

Pelastoneurus lamellatus (Diptera: Dolichopodidae)

いているできなる

Orphulella olivacea (Orthoptera: Acrididae)

Juncus roemerianus association

Keyflana hasta (Homoptera: Delphacidae)
Rhynchomitra microrhina (Homoptera: Dietyopharidae)

Paroxya clavuliger (Orthoptera: Acrididae) Conocephalus spp. (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae) Erythrodiplax berenice (Odonata: Libellulidae)

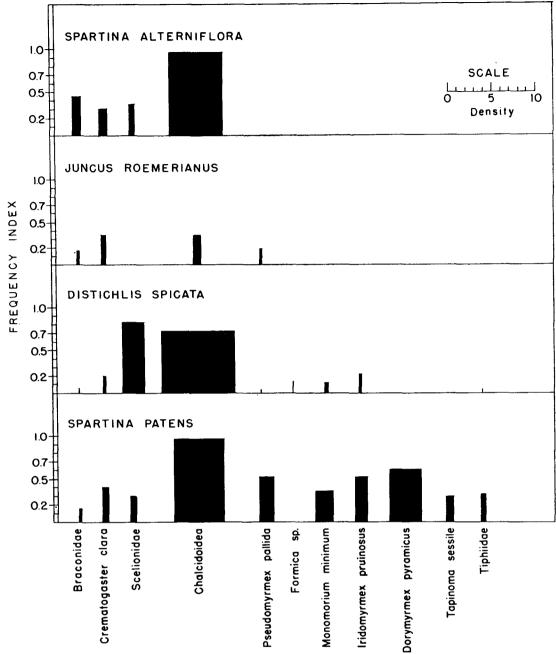


Fig. 11. Frequency-density diagram of the principal species of Hymenoptera from the herbaceous strata of four zones of salt marsh vegetation, based on samples taken during the summer of 1960.

High marsh association, Distichlis spicata facies
Amphicephalus littoralis (Homoptera: Cicadellidae)

Spangbergiella vulnerata (Homoptera: Cicadellidae)

Delphacodes detecta (Homoptera: Delphacidae)
Tumidagena terminalis (Homoptera: Delphacidae)
Neomegamelanus dorsalis (Homoptera: Delphacidae)

Conioscinella infesta (Diptera: Chloropidae)
Oscinella ovalis (Diptera: Chloropidae)
Ceropsilopa costalis (Diptera: Ephydridae)
Tomösvaryella coquilletti (Diptera: Pipunculidae)
Trigonotylus americanus (Hemiptera: Miridae)
Rhytidolomia saucia (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae)
Cymus breviceps (Hemiptera: Lygaeidae)
Nemobius sparsalsus (Orthoptera: Gryllidae)
Conocephalus spp. (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae)

of

podi-

ictyo-

ae)

ادما

Sumi

Orphulella olivacea (Orthoptera: Acrididae) Clinocephalus elegans (Orthoptera: Acrididae) Naemia serriata (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)

High marsh association, Spartina patens facies

Delphacodes detecta (Homoptera: Delphacidae)

Tumidagena terminalis (Homoptera: Delphacidae)

Neomegamelanus dorsalis (Homoptera: Delphacidae)

Haplaxius enotatus (Homoptera: Cixiidae)
Aphelonema simplex (Homoptera: Issidae)
Conioscinella infesta (Diptera: Chloropidae
Oscinella ovalis (Diptera: Chloropidae)
Hippelates particeps (Diptera: Chloropidae)
Trigonotylus uhleri (Hemiptera: Miridae)
Cymus breviceps (Hemiptera: Lygaeidae)
Mermiria intertexta (Orthoptera: Acrididae)
Conocephalus spp. (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae)
Isohydnocera aegra (Coleoptera: Cleridae)
Glyphonyx sp. (Coleoptera: Elateridae)
Dorymyrmex pyramicus (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

Pseudomyrmex pallida (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

Iridomyrmex pruinosus (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

From the preceding outline, the following species are under-represented, or not represented, in the frequency-density diagrams because of their ability to evade the sweep-net: Erythrodiplax berenice (dragonfly); Draeculacephala portola (leafhopper); Rhynchomitra microrhina (planthopper); Orchelinum fidicinium, Orphulella olivacea, Conocephalus spp., Clinocephalus elegans, and Mermiria intertexta (all grasshoppers). Not included in the outline are some ephydrids, culicids, dolichopodids, and other dipterans, and a few other species (such as the mirid, Tytthus vagus), that were occasionally very abundant in one or more marsh types, but did not appear with high frequency.

Most of these characteristic insect species are restricted to salt marshes, or at least to maritime and submaritime habitats. Some occur in fresh-water marshes and other hydric environments, and a few are found in a wide range of terrestrial conditions. Individuals belonging to numerous other, uncharacteristic, species were collected; most of these were strays from adjoining mesic habitats. Space does not permit presentation here of a full list of the insect species that were represented, but 252 kinds were collected and determined to species, and 74 others to genus. Between 50 and 100 kinds were recognized, but identified only to family.

TROPHIC RELATIONSHIPS

On the basis of their feeding habits, salt marsh insects (adults unless otherwise stated) are divided into the categories of herbivores, carnivores, omnivores, and parasites. It is difficult to draw clear distinctions between those insects that are external plant parasites, and those that are free-living herbivores,

because many herbivorous insects are sharply restricted in their diets and live virtually their entire lives on the "host" plants. Difficulties are also encountered in trying to distinguish between some so-ealled insect parasites of animals, such as mosquitoes, and predaceous insects. Therefore the term "parasitie" is restricted here to insects that invade the bodies of their hosts, and the terms "carnivorous" and "herbivorous" will refer to both free-living and "ectoparasitie" forms. The important omnivorous salt marsh insects are all scavengers, feeding mostly on detritus.

In Table 2, the herbivores are divided into three groups, according to the type of plant food that they use. The first group, those that feed on plant tissues, are all insects with chewing mouthparts. The principal herbivorous chewing insects in all five types of salt marshes are grasshoppers, but several species of ants, all presumably herbivorous, are common in S. patens. The second group are those that feed on plant sap, and possess piercing mouthparts that enable them to penetrate plant tissues. These sap feeders are abundant in all types of marshes except Juncus, and include all of the common species of homopterans and hemipterans. The third group are those that principally subsist on fluids secreted by marsh plants, although it is possible that bacteria. detritus, and other materials on the leaf blade surfaces, also contribute to their diet. Included here are several common species of dipterans, particularly Chaetopsis fulvifrons, C. apicalis, and Conioscinella infesta. These flies were often seen to feed by holding their sponging mouthparts against plant surfaces. while walking along blades or stems.

Smalley (1959, 1960) studied the energy flow from S. alterniflora to the two principal primary consumers of the living plant, Prokelisia marginata and Orchelinum fidicinium. P. marginata assimilated more than 6%, and O. fidicinium less than 1% of the annual S. alterniflora production. Energy flow in other types of salt marshes has not been reported.

In Table 2, the predaceous arthropods are divided into two groups: (1) those that feed on solid tissues primarily; (2) those that suck out the body fluids of their prey. Belonging to the first group are the dragonflies, Erythrodiplax berenice, Pachydiplax longipennis, and Erythemis simplicicollis, individuals of which were often seen fluttering about Juneus marsh, feeding on small flying insects. The malachiid beetle, Collops nigriceps, was seen to feed on injured flies, and will probably eat any small insects that it can get. The clerids, Isohydnocera tabida and I. aegra (from S. alterniflora and S. patens marshes respectively), and the coccinellid, Nacmia serriata (from Distichlis), are assumed to be predaceous, because most other clerids and coccinellids are, but their feeding habits were not actually observed.

Belonging to the second group of predators are the asilid flies that were sometimes seen preying upon grasshoppers. Midges and culicids are locally abundant in poorly drained marshes, especially Dis-

sharply retheir entire ire also enm some somosquitoes, erm "parainvade the arnivorous" -living and omnivorous ding mostly

into three d that they lant tissues, The prinve types of ral species common in at feed on parts that Thes: sap shes except species of group are secreted by it bacteria. blade surluded here articularly mioscinella d by holdit surfaces,

flow from mary conginata and assimilated 1% of the y flow in reported. re divided lid tissues y fluids of o are the chydiplax ndividuals it Juncus I'he malao feed on all insects abida and s marshes ı serriata ceous, beare, but rved.

preying re locally ially Dis-

TABLE 2. Trophic relationships of characteristic invertebrates from the herbaceous strata of five types of North Carolina salt marshes.

Habits		DOMINANT PLANTS											
Feeding Habits	FOOD	Spartina alterniflora	Sp. rtina-Salicornia- Limonium	Juncus roemerianus	Distichlis spicata	Spartina patens							
	Plant Tissucs	Orchelimum fidicinium Conocephalus spp. Mordebistena spp.	Orphi lella olivacea	Paroxsa clavuliger Conocephalus spp.	Orphulella olivacea Conocephalus spp. Clinocephalus elegans Nemobius sparsalsus	Conocephalus spp. Mermiria intertexta Glyphonyx sp. Dorymyrmex pyramicus Pseudom; rmex pallida Iridomyrmex pruinosus							
Herbivorous	Plant Sap	Prokelisia marginata St. netanus aestvarium Dr. eculacephala portola Ischnodemus badius Trigonotylus uhleri	Prokelisia marginala Sanclanus sanclus	Keyficna hasta Rhynchomitra micro- rhina	Amphicephalus littoralis Spangbergiella vulnerata Delphacodes detecta Tumidagena terminalis Neomegamelanus dorsalis Trigonolylus americanus Rhytidolomia saucia Cymus breviceps	Delphacodes detecta Tumidagena terminalis Neomegamelanus dorsalis Haplazius enotatus A phelonema simplez Trigonotylus uhleri Cymus breviceps							
	Plant Secretions	Chaetopsis apicalis Chaetopsis fulvifrons Conioscinella in festa	Chaetopsis apicalis Ckaetopsis fulvifrons Conioscinella infesta		Conioscinella infesta Oscinella oralis	Conioscinella infesta Oscinella oralis Hippelctes particeps							
	Animal Tissues	Isohydnocera tabidz Collops nigriceps	Spiders	Erythrodiplax berenice Spiders	Naemia serriata Spiders	Isohydnocera aegra Spiders							
Carnivorous	Animal Body Fluids	Dictya oxybeles Hoplodictya spinicornis Spiders	Dictya oxybeles Hoplodictya spinicornis Spiders	Reduviids Asilids Spiders	Tom osvaryella coquilletti Reduviids Culicids Asilids Spiders	Reduviids Asilids Spiders							
Omnir- orous	Detritus	Ephydrids Dolichopodids Littorina irrorata	Ephydrids Dolichopodids		Ephydrids Dolichopodids								
<u>.</u>	Plant Tissues and Sap	Dipterous larvae	Dipterous larvae		Dipterous larvae	Dipterous larvae							
Parasitic	Animal Tissues and Body Fluids	Larvae of parasitic Hymenoptera	Larvae of parasitic Hymenoptera	Larvae of parasitic Hymenoptera	Larvae of parasitic Hymenoptera	Larvae of parasitic Hymenoptera							

tichlis. Sciomyzid flies (Dictya oxybeles, Hoplodictya spinicornis), although never abundant, were widely encountered in S. alterniflora and Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium. It has been suggested that all sciomyzid larvae attack snails (Berg, Karlin and Mackiewicz, 1955). If so, it is likely that the larvae of D. oxybeles and H. spinicornis feed upon the marsh periwinkle, Littorina irrorata. Predaceous bugs (the reduviids, Doldina interjungens, Sinea diadema, Zelus cervicalis, and the nabid, Nabis capsiformis) are widely distributed, but not numerous, in the higher marsh zones.

Marples and Odum (1964) reported that spiders are the principal earnivores in S. alterniflora. Barnes (1953) collected, from the herbaceous strata, 22 species of spiders in S. alterniflora, twelve in Juncus, and eight in S. patens. Our observations indicate that spiders are important predators upon insects in all the kinds of salt marshes included in this study. Comparison of our data with those of Barnes shows that spiders usually outnumber carnivorous insects

in all types of marshes, except *Distichlis*, which Barnes did not study.

Detritus, derived principally from plant tissues, is an abundant source of food in S. alterniflora (Teal, 1959). Marples and Odum (1964) report that the dolichopodids and ephydrids that inhabit S. alterniflora feed on detritus. These flies are often abundant in other types of marshes, in spring and early autumn, often occurring in a stand in large numbers for a short time, and then disappearing for weeks or months. At North River, where the marshes are modified by the presence of cattle, dolichopodids and ephydrids were seen on the bare ground, undoubtedly feeding on the rich detritus supply. Another important detritus feeder, in S. alterniflora marshes, is Littorina irrorata (Odum and Smalley, 1959). These snails spend part of their time in the herbaceous stratum, but feed while on the ground and surfaces of the lower parts of the plants.

The marsh plants, especially S. alterniflora, are attacked by dipterous larvae, which live in the stems.

The adults of parasitic Hymenoptera (chalcids, braconids, ichneumonids, tiphiids, scelionids) occurred in all types of vegetation, and their larvae undoubtedly infect various types of salt marsh insects.

TIDAL INUNDATION

Tidal inundation is the feature of salt marshes that most distinguishes them from other insect environments. The insects of the herbaceous strata are fundamentally terrestrial, and evidently lack aquatic adaptations. A question then arises as to how they survive periods of high water. Do they retreat to higher ground, or do they remain in their usual habitat? In an attempt to answer this question, observations and simple experiments were performed.

The behavior of salt marsh insects was observed in the field during all stages of the tidal cycle, including spring high tides. However, field observations of animals that are as small as most insects are difficult to make, so attempts were made to simulate conditions of rising water and high tide in the laboratory. In these, clumps of marsh vegetation, still embedded in soil, were placed in large glass battery jars. Insects of any desired type were placed on, or with, the plants, and the jar then covered. Sea water was introduced through a notch in the cover, into a tube that extended down to the surface of the soil. The reactions of the insects were noted as the water level was slowly raised. The results of this work follow.

(1) Prokelisia marginata. Arndt (1914) reported that Megamelus marginatus (now called Prokelisia marginata) in S. alterniflora marsh at Cold Spring Harbor Bay, New York, elings to grass blades during periods of inundation, and can remain under water for two days without suffering ill effects. Despite many efforts to do so, we are unable to confirm this statement. In the field, P. marginata was never found to occur on submerged plants. But the conjecture of Metcalf and Osborn (1920) that P. marginata lays its eggs in leaves or stems that are frequently submerged is verified. The eggs are laid in S. alterniflora leaf blades that are often under water, although the effect of inundation on the eggs is still questionable.

The reactions of P. marginata to rising water were observed in the laboratory. Individuals responded to slowly rising water by retreating up the stems of the plants, and hopping over the surface film to any available dry surface. However, it was possible to submerge feeding individuals by putting them in test tubes with pieces of Spartina and, after feeding activities began, filling the tubes rapidly with water. In these experiments, the open ends of the tubes were covered with gauze, and the closed ends were embedded in a layer of sand in the bottom of a glass aquarium filled with water. This procedure insured the submergence of individuals that released their grasps, for the duration of the test. Twelve of eighteen P. marginata survived four hours of immersion at water temperatures of 22-25° C. No individuals, including those that retained their grasps on the

grass blades, successfully withstood submergence for five hours.

It is likely that *P. marginata* individuals in natural surroundings are seldom submerged. They bound over the surface film to taller plants, when menaced by rising water. In the field, it was observed that if they are knocked onto the water, they then hop toward any nearby object, and leap up onto it. This behavior should be an effective response when they are swept from their holds by waves, or otherwise dislodged.

(2) Amphicephalus littoralis. Metealf and Osborn (1920) speculated that Deltocephalus littoralis (now called A. littoralis) is unable to avoid high water, and therefore must be able to withstand submergence. We are not able to substantiate this hypothesis. Clumps of the host plant, Distichlis, were examined in the field during periods of flood, but no specimens were found on them. If A. littoralis individuals are pushed beneath the water surface, they will seize any available grass blade, hold on briefly, then lose their holds and rise to the surface. Like P. marginata, they readily hop over the surface film, and can easily escape rising water in this way.

(3) Trigonotylus americanus and T. uhleri. When subjected in the laboratory to slowly rising water, these plant bugs retreated to the ends of the grass blades. As the water approached, they either flew away or walked over the surface film to taller blades. However, they sometimes broke through the film, adhered to it, and were helpless.

(4) Ischnodemus badius. This lygaeid, having rudimentary wings, cannot escape high water by flying. In the laboratory, individuals left their holds whenever rising water approached, and swam to new perches. They are efficient swimmers, and probably always avoid submergence in natural surroundings.

(5) Rhytidolomia saucia. This pentatomid is too large and heavy to walk on the surface film. In the laboratory, R. saucia first reacts to rising water by climbing to the highest available hold. When it can no longer remain above water, it climbs down the grass stem to which it is holding, and enters the water. As it continues to climb downward, it may encounter another stem and ascend it, or descend to the ground, walk about, and then select a new stem to ascend. These aquatic explorations last for six to eight minutes, or less, and are often terminated by a sudden rapid climb to the surface on any stem that is available, even the one previously used for descent. R. saucia will not usually submerge until its original hold is untenable. Individuals cling awkwardly to the ends of leaf blades even when only two of their spiracles are exposed to the air. If an individual loses its grasp while under water, it rises to the surface and struggles in the surface film until it encounters a solid object by which it can climb out, or until it drowns.

(6) Orchelimum fidicinium. Smalley (1960) reported that O. fidicinium "will dive under water readily at the approach of man or boat. . . ." This

behav labor when strok

grass tarily (8

dipte are bran effec

spon and into ibly Five hour twen subn (1

clim

not

they

minı

and quer olde 1920 and obse hap

Zea

cids

cole

hig wal the ger ity as

> tag sec her

からから

sa va uj

M O

s ly r

r

対域の対しの対

ey

ıd

36

a, F

behavior was not observed by us in the field, but in laboratory experiments, individuals left their perches when menaced by rising water, and swam by vigorous strokes of the posterior legs to new positions.

(7) Orphulella olivacea. Like O. fidicinium, this grasshopper swims strongly, but will only momen-

tarily hold to vegetation while submerged.

(8) Chaetopsis apicalis and C. fulvifrons. These dipterans avoid rising water by flying away. They are completely helpless in water; their large, membranous wings adhere to the surface film and prevent effective movement.

(9) Collops nigriceps. These beetles first responded to rising water by moving about nervously, and then flew away. They are clumsy and often fell into the water and struggled ineffectually. If forcibly submerged for long periods, they may survive. Five individuals that were kept under water for an hour each resumed normal activity in from three to twenty minutes. Two of four individuals that were submerged for four hours recovered.

These coccinellid beetles (10) Naemia serriata. climbed grass blades to avoid rising water, but did not attempt to fly. When overtaken by the water, they floated quietly at the surface for two to five minutes, struggled briefly, became motionless again,

and repeated this behavior until drowned.

The hypothesis that salt marsh insects are frequently inundated has appeared several times in the older literature (Arndt, 1914; Metcalf and Osborn, 1920: Metcalf, 1920; Osborn and Metcalf, 1920), and again more recently (Shelford, 1963, p. 85). Our observations show that this is a highly improbable happening, except possibly for salt marsh coccids found in S. alterniflora (Sasseer, 1907), and in New Zealand salt meadows (Paviour-Smith, 1956). Coccids were rarely encountered during our study.

Many insect species have been able to successfully colonize salt marshes because of their ability to escape high water, either by flying or swimming, or by walking or hopping on the surface film. Some of these kinds of insects can endure prolonged submergence, but it is not known if they differ in this capacity from insects of other habitats. Some insects, such as large, clumsy beetles, are at an obvious disadvantage in salt marsh vegetation. However, most insects that occur in other communities dominated by herbaceous plants would be as capable of avoiding inundation as those that live in salt marshes.

SEASONAL DISTRIBUTION

Samples were taken in stands of all five types of salt marshes throughout the year. The seasonal variations of the salt marsh insect fauna are summed up below, with each aspect considered separately. Most of the trends referred to are shown in Table 3. Of course, when based on the results of a one year study, as here, this type of information will be strongly biased by the weather conditions of the study period. The only notable deviation from "average" weather was the occurrence of unusually low tem-

peratures in March, the effects of which are apparent in Table 3.

Winter Aspect. At this season, the stems and leaves of the dominant types of salt marsh plants, except Juncus roemerianus, were brownish or yellowish in appearance, and dead. J. roemerianus showed little outward change throughout the year. Homopterans of the family Delphacidae (Prokelisia marginata, Delphacodes detecta, Tumidagena terminalis, Neomegamelanus dorsalis, Megamelus lobatus, Pissonotus albovenosus. Pentagramma vittatifrons), and the issid, Aphelonema simplex, occurred in moderate numbers until March, and then virtually disappeared. Occasionally a few members of typical summer species were seen, especially in S. patens on warm days; for example, adult grasshoppers (Melanoplus femur-rubrum, family Acrididae) were collected in January. The hemipteran, Ischnodemus badius, occurred in small numbers in S. alterniflora throughout the winter; individuals were sometimes found beneath the bases of leaves, even in the midst of the coldest periods of weather. The predaceous sciomyzid flies, Dictya oxybeles, and less commonly Hoplodictya spinicornis, were present, their numbers apparently little diminished from the summer. Ephydrid flies, particularly Neoscatella obscuriceps and Dimecoenia austrina, were often present in Salicornia-Spartina-Limonium and Distichlis. In some localities, the chironomid Hydrobaenus sp. appeared in January, and was extremely abundant during February and March, gradually decreasing in the spring. Hydrobaenus was not restricted to any particular type of vegetation; wherever it appeared, as at North River, it occurred impartially in all types of marshes.

Most species of salt marsh insects pass the winter in the egg stage. Dead stems of S. alterniflora and other types of salt marsh plants were examined, and eggs were found within. Individuals of some insect species probably deposit their eggs in the ground, for example Orphulella olivacea, Clinocephalus elegans, and other acridids. The specific details of the reproductive habits of salt marsh insects were

not investigated.

Spring Aspect. In 1960, the growing season for salt marsh plants began in mid-April. Insect populations were very small in all communities until late April, grew rapidly in May, and reached summer levels in June. No species of Homoptera became abundant until June, when Keyflana hasta in Juncus, and Delphacodes detecta and Neomegamelanus dorsalis in Distichlis, reached summer population sizes. Several species of the dipteran families Dolichopodidae and Ephydridae were temporarily abundant in Distichlis and Salicornia-Spartina-Limonium in late April and May. These flies were very erratic in occurrence, and probably emerge in short-lived broods; some of these same dolichopodids and ephydrids were also present briefly in late summer and fall. The hemipterans, Trigonotylus uhleri and T. americanus, appeared in late April, reached their numerical peaks in May, and continued to be common throughout the summer. Nymphs of all the common salt marsh grasshoppers hatched in April and May, and therefore the numerical peaks for each grasshopper species occurred in late spring. Several

species of Coleoptera (Pachybrachys atomarius, Chaetocnema sp., and Cryptocephalus venustus, all chrysomelids) were most common in S. patens marsh in May and June.

TABLE 3. Seasonal distribution of dominant species of insects from salt marsh herbaceous strata. Symbols: x— presence; xx— period of peak abundance; numbers— dates of first or last collections of season.

Insect species and types of vegetation	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
HOMOPTERA								<u> </u>	\	\ <u> </u>	-	-
from Spartina alterniflora												
Prokelisia marginata Sanctanus aestuarium	x	х	х	х	9 _X	X X	XX XX	XX	xx	16x	XX	- -
Draeculacephala portola					13x	X	X	XX	X	X	15x	1
Graminella nigrifrons					11x	x	x	xx	xx	x	x	11
Delphacodes detecta	XX	х	15x		16x	х	х	x	x	x	XX	X
from Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium Prokelisia marginata	x	10x		8x								
Sanctanus sanctus	^	101		οx	$\frac{\mathrm{x}}{24\mathrm{x}}$	x x	x x	X	X	XX	24x	X
Delphacodes detecta	x	10x			24x	x	x	XX X	x x	x	XX	X
from Juncus roemerianus								_ ^	^	-		- 1 "
Keyflana hasta Pissonotus albovenosus	11x	10	1	•	7x	xx	xx	x	x	x	x	
Pissonotus albovenosus Rhynchomitra microrhina	x	10x		9x 9x	X	X	X	x	x	x	X	
from Distichlis spicata				ЭX	х	X	XX	х	12x			
Amphicephalus littoralis			l i	15x	х	x	xx	xx	x	x	x	9
Spangbergiella vulnerata	1	·)	9x	х	x	xx	XX	x	13x	1	1
Delphacodes detecta	14x		19x	x	X	xx	xx	xx	х	x	x	
Tumidagena terminalis Neomegamelanus dorsalis			İ	9x	18x	х	xx	xx	x	17x		
Megamelus lobatus] [9x 10x	X X	XX	xx x	x	1x			10
Graminella nigrifrons				101	4x	X X	X	X	X XX	xx	12x	9
> Pissonotus alhovenosus			-		11x	x	x	X	XX	x	13x	
Pissonotus albovenosus from Spartina patens Delphacodes detecta								^	^	-		
	xx	х	x	х	x	х	x	x	x	xx	XX	X
Tumidagena terminalis Neomegamelanus dorsalis	X	10x	х	x 8x	X	х	X	x	х	Х	x	
Haplaxius enotatus	x	101		OX	x	14x	x x	X	X	X	12x	
A phelonema simplex	xx	11x		27x	x	X	x	x x	x x	X XX	XX	x
Pentagramma vittatifrons	xx	10x	1			27x	x	x	x	x	xx	x
DIPTERA								"	, ,,	-		
from Spartina alterniflora Chaetopsis apicalis		12x		0							İ	İ
Chaetopsis apicaris Chaetopsis fulvifrons	x	12X	1	8x 8x	x x	XX	XX	xx	xx	X	X	11
Conioscinella infesta	14x			$11_{\rm X}$	X	XX XX	XX XX	XX XX	XX	x x	X X	11
Oscinella carbonaria				23x	x	X	x	XX	17x	^		
Madiza trigramma?					4x	x	х	X	xx	xx	14x	
Oscinella nuda Dictya oxybeles						6x	х	xx	x	12x		
from Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium	x	х	X	х	х	х	x	X	x	X	X	
Dimecoenia austrina	x	x	x	x	х	x	x	x	x	x	X	
from Distichlis spicata						^	<u> </u>	^	1	^	"	
Conioscinella infesta			9x	x	х	xx	xx	xx	xx	xx	x	13
Oscinella ovalis				07	4x	х	XX	xx	x	13x		
Ceropsilopa costalis Psilopa flavida	x	12x		27x 11x	X	х	X	x	17x	1	l	
Notiphila bispinosa	^	121		26x	X X	X X	X X	X	X	X X	$\frac{x}{13x}$	-
Neoscatella obscuriceps	x	xx	xx	xx	6x		^	x	x	\ \ \	10.1	
Thinophilus ochrifacies				14x	X	х	х	x	X	x	x	
Chrysotus picticornis Tomösvaryella coquilletti					10xx	х	х	27x	ĺ	}		
from Spartina patens) i	'		'	18x	х	x	x	17x	1	1	
Conioscinella infesta				27x	x	x	x			X	14x	
Oscinella ovalis				-• ^	6x	X	X	X X	6x	1 ^	1	
Oscinella nuda			[[13x	x	x	xx	4x	1	1	
Hippelates particeps					6x	x	x	x	17x]	1.,	
Hippelates dissidens					13x	x	x	x	x	x	14x	
Chrysotus discolor Paraclius vicinus]		4xx 9x	X	X	17v	4x			
from all types of vegetation		}	1		l ax	X	Х	17x	1	1	1	-
Aedes sollicitans	}			25x	X	x	x	x	XX	XX	X	10
Hydrobaenus sp.	14x	xx	XX	х	13x							:
Pelastoneurus lamellatus*	1	1	1	8x	XX	l x	x	x	XX	X	11x	١

HEMI

from Tri Isc Tyfrom Cy: from Tri Rh Cyfrom
Tri
Cyr from Ory from Pa An from Ori Cli from Me from Cy

from
Coi
Iso
Mo
from
Na
from
Gli
Iso
Ch
Pa

COLEC

from
Ta
Do
Iri
Ps
Mo

Ent You Sum

tion at mer.] this p assemb did no orthor severa ali

TABLE 3. continued.

TABLE 3. continued.												
Insect species and Types of vegetation	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
HEMIPTERA from Spartina alterniflora Trigonotylus uhleri Ischnodemus badius Tylthus vagus from Juncus roemerianus	x 13x	X	x	x	6xx x 10x	XX X X	XX X X	xx x xx	x xx xx	x xx x	14 _x x x	x x
Cymus breviceps from Distichlis spicata Trigonotylus americanus Rhytidolomia saucia Cymus breviceps				9xx 23x 9x 11xx	XX XX X	23x xx x x	xx x x	xx x 18x	x 5x	17x		
from Spartina patens Trigonotylus uhleri Cymus breviceps ORTHOPTERA				27x	xx	xx 6xx	XX XX	27x	x	x	11x	
from Spartina alterniflora Orchelimum fidicinium from Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium				26x	xx	xx	xx	x	16x			
Orphulella olivacea from Juncus roemerianus Paroxya clavuliger Anazipha scia					24x	10x	x x	x	X	13x 13x	10	
Anazipia scia from Distichlis spicata Nemobius sparsalsus Orphulella olivacea** Clinocephalus elegans**					13x x	10x 29x x x	x x x	x x x 26x	x 17x	17x	12x	
from Spartina patens Mermiria intertexta from all types of vegetation					13x	x	x	x	x	16x		
Cycloptilum antillarum Oecanthus quadripunctatus Conocephalus spp. COLEOPTERA					16x 10x	18x x xx	x x x	X X X	x x x	17x 17x 17x		
from Spartina alterniflora Collops nigriceps Isohydnocera tabida Mordellistena spp. from Distichlis spicata				26x	27x 4x x	x x x	x x x	8x x x	x 14x	12x		
Naemia serriata (adults) Naemia serriata (larvae) from Spartina patens				11x	x 4x	x x	x x	xx xx	x x	17x	13x	
Glyphonyx sp. Isohydnocera aegra Chaetocnema sp. Pachybrachys atomarius Cryptocephalus venustus HYMENOPTERA				27x	х	11x x 13xx 11xx 18xx	x x x x	30x 27x x 21x 11x	17x			
from Spartina patens Tapinoma sessile Dorymyrmex pyramicus Iridomyrmex pruinosus Pseudomyrmex pallida Monomorium minimum				27 _x	11x x 6x	12x x x	x x x x	x x x x	15x 14x 14x x	X	x	11x
from all types of vegetation Crematogaster clara	15x			8x	11x	x	x	x	x x	12x x	x	x

Summer Aspect. All types of salt marsh vegetation attained maximum development during the summer. Most of the discussion in previous sections of this paper deals especially with the summer insect assemblages. The population levels of most species did not remain constant during this season. The orthopterans and hemipterans gradually declined, several common summer species becoming rare by

September. Most of the homopterans that were abundant in the summer had a definite peak period. Of special interest is Prokelisia marginata, in which the populations occurring in different stands of S. alterniflora increased to various levels. In some stands of S. alterniflora, one sweep-net sample taken during the peak period was sufficient to obtain tens of thousands of adults and nymphs; in other stands, only

^{*}Entry probably includes specimens of Paraclius claviculatus.
**Young nymphs of Orphulella olivacea and Clinocephalus elegans are indistinguishable.

a very modest peak occurred. The time of population increase of *P. marginata* in the same stand can vary considerably from year-to-year; for instance, at Bogue Banks in 1959 the *P. marginata* population did not enlarge until October, but in 1960 it grew

tremendously in August.

Fall Aspect. The salt marshes stayed green until late fall. Some insects that were common in the summer remained abundant throughout most of this season, particularly several species of Homoptera (family Delphacidae) and Diptera. Three species of Homoptera attained their peak population level in the fall; these were Pentagramma vittatifrons, Delphacodes detecta (in S. patens only), and Aphelonema simplex. The salt marsh mosquito, Aedes sollicitans, reached its maximum abundance in September and October, and was collected then in large numbers in all types of salt marshes. Only occasional specimens of A. sollicitans were obtained at other seasons.

SUMMARY

- 1. The main purpose of this study was to describe the zonal and seasonal distribution of the principal species of insects from the herbaceous strata of the major types of salt marshes in Carteret County, North Carolina. The responses of these insects to flood conditions, and their trophic relationships, were also observed.
- 2. The salt marshes of the study area are classified as follows: (1) the Spartina alterniflora association, which occurs on substratum inundated at each high tide; (2) the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association, which occurs on substratum inundated at each high tide; (2) the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium association, which occurs on slightly higher ground, and forms a narrow zone just above S. alterniflora; (3) the Juncus roemerianus association, which grows on flats inundated by spring tides, and occurs just above Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium; (4) the high marsh association, of which there are two principal facies, the first dominated by Distichlis spicata and occurring principally within or on the margin of Juncus marshes and at about the same elevation, and the second dominated by Spartina patens and usually occurring on sandy ground above the Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium zone, at a level seldom reached by high tides.
- 3. The insect assemblages of each type of marsh were sampled by sweeping the vegetation. The period of most intense sampling was June, July, and August, 1960, when sets of ten samples were obtained from twenty stations, of which six were established in S. alterniflora, one in Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium, four in Juneus, four in Distichlis, and five in S. patens. Samples were also taken monthly from one or more stands of each type of marsh from September 1, 1959, to June 1, 1960.
- 4. The ordinal composition of samples from stations

included in the summer sampling program was determined. Homoptera predominated at fourteen stations, of which five were in S. alterniflora, one in Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium, three in Juncus, three in Distichlis, and two in S. patens. Diptera were most abundant at the other six stations, and were second in abundance in samples from most stations at which Homoptera were predominant. Hemiptera, Orthoptera, Coleoptera, and Hymenoptera were also present at all stations, usually in much smaller numbers. Homoptera decrease, and other orders increase, in abundance as zone elevation increases.

5. The specific composition of the insect assemblages of each type of marsh was determined. The zonal distribution, frequencies, and densities of the principal insect species are illustrated in diagrams.

6. Frequencies, densities, field observations, and special collections, were used to construct an outline of the characteristic insect species of the sum-

mer aspect of each type of marsh.

7. Most of the characteristic insect species from all types of marshes are herbivores, and fall into these three categories: (1) those with chewing mouthparts, the most important of which are grasshoppers, feed on plant tissues; (2) those with piercing and sucking mouthparts, the homopterans and most hemipterans, feed on plant sap; (3) those with sponging mouthparts, mainly species of Diptera, feed on plant secretions.

8. The principal carnivores in all types of marshes are spiders. The most abundant carnivorous insects are beetles, asilids, mosquitoes, and reduviids. Detritus-feeding ephydrid and dolichopodid flies are common in S. alterniflora, Spartina-Salicornia-Limonium and Distichlis. Dipterous larvae parasitize salt marsh plants, and the larvae of parasitic hymenopterans undoubtedly infect many species of salt marsh insects.

9. There is no evidence that members of any insect species encountered in this study ordinarily allow themselves to be inundated by rising water. Some kinds of salt marsh insects can swim, walk, or hop over the surface film, and others escape high

water by flying.

10. The seasonal distribution of the predominant types of insects, as indicated by their presence or absence in samples, is given. Several species of fulgorids and other homopterans, some dipterans, and a lygacid, occur throughout the year in the adult stage. Orthopterans, beetles, most species of ants, parasitic hymenopterans, most cicadellids, and most kinds of hemipterans and dipterans are absent in winter.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by National Science Foundation grant No. G-8655. The authors are indebted to the following authorities at the United States National Museum for the identification of insect specimens: R. H. Arnett, B. D. Burks, E. A.

Chapin,
D. H. K
W. Mue
Spilmar
L. H. V

anmmer 1

Adams, zonati 445-45 Arndt, zone. Barnes, spider fort, Beall, G metho Berg, C

Fly land Rept.

DeLong the emethod Dice, Land gan I Fenton, five representations.

popul Gray, I tion lection Marple trace alter 45:

tion

on r

Metcal tidal 193-Metcal on in lina Odum,

> feed Nat

:8. 8~

re

a,

p-

n-

es:

ıal

in-

nd

ut-

m-

all

ato

ing

are

op-

up;

aly

hes

in-

du-

po-

na

ous.

'V8e

fect

sect:

low

ome

or

nigh

e or s of ans, the ecies adelChapin, R. H. Foote, R. C. Froeschner, A. B. Gurney, D. H. Kistner, J. P. Kramer, K. V. Krombein, C. F. W. Muesebeck, L. M. Russell, C. W. Sabrosky, T. J. Spilman, A. Stone, L. M. Walkley, D. M. Weisman, L. H. Weld, and W. W. Wirth.

LITERATURE CITED

- Adams, D. A. 1963. Factors influencing vascular plant zonation in North Carolina salt marshes. Ecol. 44: 445-456.
- Arndt, C. H. 1914. Some insects of the between tides zone. Proc. Indiana Acad. Sci. 323-336.
- Barnes, R. D. 1953. The ecological distribution of spiders in non-forest maritime communities at Beaufort, North Carolina. Ecol. Monogr. 23: 315-337.
- Beall, G. 1935. Study of arthropod populations by the method of sweeping. Ecol. 16: 216-225.
- Berg, C. O., E. J. Karlin, & J. C. Mackiewicz. 1955. Fly larvae that kill snails. Am. Malacol. Union Ann. Rept. 1955. 9-10.
- DeLong, D. M. 1932. Some problems encountered in the estimation of insect populations by the sweeping method. Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 25: 13-17.
- method. Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 25: 13-17.
 Dice, L. R. 1952. Natural communities. Univ. Michigan Press, Ann Arbor. 547 p.
- Fenton, F. A. & D. E. Howell. 1957. A comparison of five methods of sampling alfalfa fields for arthropod populations. Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 50: 606-611.
- Gray, H. E. & A. E. Treloar. 1933. On the enumeration of insect populations by the method of net collection. Ecol. 14: 356-367.
- Marples, T. C. & E. P. Odum. 1964. A radionuclide tracer study of arthropod food chains in a Spartina alterniflora salt marsh. (Abstr.) Bull. Ecol. Soc. Am. 45: 81.
- Menhinick, E. F. 1963. Estimation of insect population density in herbaceous vegetation with emphasis on removal sweeping. Ecol. 44: 617-621.
- on removal sweeping. Ecol. 44: 617-621.

 Metcalf, Z. P. 1920. Some ecological aspects of the tidal zones of the North Carolina coast. Ecol. 1: 193-197.
- Metcalf, Z. P. & H. Osborn. 1920. Some observations on insects of the between tide zone of the North Carolina coast. Ann. Entomol. Soc. Am. 13: 108-120.
- Odum, E. P. & A. E. Smalley. 1959. Comparison of population energy flow of a herbivorous and a deposit-feeding invertebrate in a salt marsh ecosystem. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 45: 617-622.

- Oman, P. W. & A. D. Cushman. 1948. Collection and preservation of insects. U. S. Dept. Agr. Misc. Publ. 601, 42 p.
- Osborn, H. & Z. P. Metcalf. 1920. Notes on the life history of the salt marsh cicada (*Tibicen viridifasciata* Walker). Entomol. News 31: 248-252.
- Paviour-Smith, Kitty. 1956. The biotic community of a salt meadow in New Zealand. Trans. Roy. Soc. N. Z. 83: 525-554.
- Perkins, S. O. 1938. Soil survey of Carteret County, North Carolina. U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. Chem. and Soils, No. 3, 34 p.
- Romney, V. E. 1945. The effect of physical factors upon eatch of the beet leafhopper *Eutettix tenellus* (Bak.) by a cylinder and two sweep-net methods. Ecol. 26: 135-147.
- Sasseer, E. R. 1907. The salt-marsh grass scale. Proc. Entomol. Soc. Wash. 9: 141-142.
- Shelford, V. E. 1963. The ecology of North America. Univ. of Illinois Press, Urbana, Ill. 610 p.
- Smalley, A. E. 1959. The growth cycle of Spartina and its relations to the insect populations in the marsh. p. 96-97. In: R. A. Ragotzkie, chmn., Proc. Salt Marsh Conf. Marine Inst. Univ. Ga. Sapelo Island, Ga. March 25-28, 1958.
- Smalley, A. E. 1960. Energy flow of a salt marsh grasshopper population. Ecol. 41: 672-677.
- Teal, J. M. 1959. Energy flow in the salt marsh ecosystem. p. 101-104. In: R. A. Ragotzkie, chmn., Proc. Salt Marsh Conf. Marine Inst. Univ. Ga. Sapelo Island, Ga. March 25-28, 1958.
- Trewartha, G. T. 1954. An introduction to climate. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. 402 p.
- U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Coast and Geodetic Survey.
 1960. Tide tables, east coast of North and South America.
 U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington.
 275 p.
- U. S. Dept. of Commerce, Weather Bureau. 1960. Climatological data, North Carolina. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington.
- Usinger, R. L. 1957. Marine insects, p. 1177-1182. In: J. W. Hedgpeth (ed.), Treatise on marine ecology and paleoecology, Vol. 1, Ecology. Geol. Soc. Am. Mem. 67, Washington.
- Wells, B. W. 1928. Plant communities of the Coastal Plain of North Carolina and their successional relations. Ecol. 9: 230-242.