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The response of larvae of *Trogoderma granarium* Everts to -10°C

Some preliminary observations of the response of fully grown larvae of *Trogoderma granarium* Everts to low temperatures have been made by placing samples of approximately 50 larvae in a deep freeze cabinet at -10°C for various periods of time. The larvae were taken directly to the cabinet from cultures maintained at 30°C and after exposure were placed on food and returned to 30°C . The larvae were then examined, initially at weekly intervals and then fortnightly or three weekly, for six months.

Periods of exposure to -10°C of from two hours to 14 days were tested. Exposures of up to 3.5 hours appeared to have no lasting effect on the larvae. From 7.5 to 72 hours larval mortality increased to 96%. No larvae survived exposures of five days or longer.

All the exposures tested immobilized the larvae. On their return to 30°C some larvae remained immobile for a long time. Such larvae displayed no sign of damage and it was impossible to tell from their appearance whether they would eventually die or resume development. Dead larvae became desiccated and dark in color.

After short exposures some larvae were still immobile at the end of the observation period. Increase in exposure not only increased mortality but also appeared to decrease the period of immobility before the larvae could be seen to be dead.

These findings are demonstrated in Table 1 below. In this summary which combines the results of three separate tests some slight approximations in dates have been made in order to divide the observation period into the five intervals shown. Results for exposures giving less than 100% kill have been combined into groups.

Table 1. Numbers of survivors and dead larvae found during the observation period at 30°C following exposure to -10°C.

Length of exposure to -10°C	Stages found	Observation period, days from start of exposure					Total insects found		
		0-30	31-60	61-90	91-125	126-166	Larvae		
							Adults	live at end	dead
0, 1.5, 3.5 h	adults	129	3	2	0	0			
	dead larvae	2	1	0	1	0	134	1	4
7.5-41 h	adults	33	5	0	1	8			
	dead larvae	91	65	13	5	4	47	7	178
48-72 h	adults	8	3	1	4	1			
	dead larvae	170	30	20	2	0	17	4	222
5 days	dead larvae	47	2	0	1	0	0	0	50
7 days	"	36	8	2	1	0	0	0	47
10 days	"	37	17	1	0	0	0	0	55
12 days	"	38	10	1	0	0	0	0	49
14 days	"	43	7	0	0	0	0	0	50

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Allelism of "mottled" (mt) and "melanotic stink glands" (msg) in *Tribolium castaneum*

Two mutations of similar phenotype have been reported, "melanotic stink glands," msg (Sokoloff and Hoy, TIB 8:55-56), and "mottled," mt (Englert, TIB 9:59-60). Both of these mutations are affected by apparent deposition of polymerized darkly pigmented secretions composed of ethylquinones in the region of the stink glands.

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Both mutations are inherited as autosomal recessives exhibiting incomplete penetrance and variable expressivity. Under ordinary laboratory conditions "mottled" exhibits an average penetrance of 63 per cent. In the stock received from the Berkeley Stock Center, msg was found to exhibit a penetrance of approximately 60-70 per cent under our laboratory conditions, however, the viability of the stock was less than good. Linkage tests of the two had indicated a relationship with linkage group III (includes "black," b). Therefore, a test for allelism utilizing single pair matings between the two stocks was conducted. From 29 single pair matings, only 16 of 178 beetles (8.9 per cent) exhibited what could be called the mutant phenotype.

A second test was conducted, this time utilizing mass matings in an attempt to increase productivity. A total of 464 progeny were examined, 17 of which exhibited the mutant phenotype (3.7 per cent). Neither of these tests could be considered conclusive, so to further establish allelism, the msg stock was crossed to the Purdue wild foundation stock to give a similar genetic background to that of mt. Mutant progeny from F₂ segregants were used to start the "new" msg stock.

Beetles from the reconstituted msg stock were crossed with mt beetles to again check for allelism. The results revealed only 3 of 132 beetles which were of the "mutant" phenotype (0.8 per cent), indicating that similar genetic background did not increase the penetrance of the "mutant" phenotype. Thus, in the classical sense of allelism the two mutants cannot be considered to be allelic.

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The chromosome numbers of some stored product Coleoptera

<u>Species</u>	<u>Karyotype</u>	
DERMESTIDAE		
<u>Dermestes maculatus</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	} JOHN & SHAW 1966
" "	8 _{II} + Xy ₁ y ₂	
" "	8 _{II} + Xy ₁ y ₂ y ₃	
<u>D. frischii</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>D. frischii</u>	8 _{II} + Xy ₁ y ₂	
<u>D. ater</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>D. haemorrhoidalis</u>	8 _{II} + XY	
<u>D. lardarius</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>D. peruvianus</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	

<u>Species</u>	<u>Karyotype</u>	
<u>Trogoderma parabile</u>	9 _{II} + Xyp	} SHAW (Unpublished)
<u>T. glabrum</u>	9 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>Anthrenus verbasci</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>A. flavipes</u>	8 _{II} + Xyp	
OSTOMATIDAE		
<u>Tenebroides mauritanicus</u>	11 _{II} + Xyp	
TENEBRIONIDAE		
<u>Alphitobius diaperinus</u>	9 _{II} + XO	
<u>Tenebrio molitor</u>	9 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>T. obscurus</u>	9 _{II} + Xyp	
<u>Gnathocerus cornutus</u>	9 _{II} + Xyp	

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Sex chromosome variation in *D. maculatus* and *D. frischii*

Five cultures of *Dermostes maculatus* were available for cytological examination. The individuals from stocks originating in Australia, South Africa, Nigeria and Sudan all showed a standard Xy parachute sex bivalent but all the individuals examined from an Indian culture were characterized by multiple y's. In 32 out of 33 individuals examined, two y chromosomes were present leading to the formation of a sex multiple of three at meiosis. This multiple shows regular meiotic behavior giving a consistent X-2y segregation with no observed deviation.

In a single individual of the Indian strain, three y chromosomes were found and here the meiotic behavior was less regular. At first metaphase, two principal patterns of orientation were observed.

First, and most frequently (35 out of 40 cells scored), the three y's co-orientated with the single X giving a regular X-3y segregation. In five other cells one of the y's was orientated to the same pole as the X giving an Xy-2y pattern of segregation. The consequences of this irregular behavior were seen at second division for in addition to (8 + X) and (8 + 3y) cell types, (8 + X + y) and (8 + 2y) cells were also seen.

Five of the 25 males of *D. frischii* examined also turned out to be the Xy₁y₂ type.

Two possible explanations can be offered to account for these multiple y variants. Either they represent a polymorphism which exists in nature or, alternatively, we are dealing with a system of supernumerary y-chromosomes which have arisen in culture presumably as a consequence of inbreeding coupled with reduced competition.

A 3y strain of D. maculatus has now been selected and it is hoped to isolate females which may possess a y-chromosome due to the irregular behavior of the 3 y's at meiosis. (In conjunction with Dr. B. John, Department of Genetics, Birmingham University, England.)

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*The effects of synchrony of egg batches on fitness characters and competition in Tribolium castaneum.

In a previous study (Sokal and Karten, 1964) the effects of density on three characters affecting fitness (survival to adulthood, dry weight of adults, and length of developmental period) were described for ++, +b and bb individuals in pure culture and in mixed cultures at varying proportions. It was believed that these findings would help explain the results of a selection experiment (Sokal and Sonleitner, 1965; a more extensive manuscript is in preparation) in which by 10 generations the frequency of b increased from 0.25 to 0.53, other cultures started at gene frequency 0.50 had increased to 0.58, while yet others started at 0.75 had maintained themselves approximately at this value. Analysis of the data revealed, however, that the results of the earlier study differed in two important details from those of the selection experiment. In the study of Sokal and Karten (1964) black had consistently higher or at least equal survival to adulthood when compared to ++, while in the selection experiment the wild type strain invariably had appreciably higher survival than bb. Also, developmental period of bb was less than that of the wild type in the experiment of Sokal and Karten (at least at the lower densities), while in the selection experiment, the black strain developed considerably slower than the wild type strain (by as much as 19 days).

Study of these results and another experiment reported later in this issue (Sokal, 1967) ruled out genetic differences between the original stocks and the selected strains as responsible for the differences in survival and developmental period. Another possible cause of the divergent results of the two sets of experiments is that Sokal and Karten used egg batches obtained from 4-hr egg collections while the selection study was based on 3-day egg yields. It is assumed that the latter egg batches are less synchronous and may therefore be responsible for differences in survival and developmental period. The present paper tests this hypothesis.

The materials and techniques employed are identical to those reported in Sokal and Karten (1964). The design differed in that only two densities, 20/g and 100/g were set up with pure cultures of ++, +b and bb, and with mixed cultures representing Hardy-Weinberg proportions for gene frequencies 0.1, 0.5 and 0.9 of black. For each combination of conditions 4-hr as well as 3-day eggs were tested. Replication for each experimental condition was four vials for the pure cultures and 0.5q_b, and eight vials for the other gene frequencies at density 20/g, while at density 100/g the respective replications were three and six vials. The entire experiment was repeated four times.

Survival to adulthood: The overall survival not broken down by genotype is shown in Table 1. The 4-hr data compare well with previous results by Sokal and Karten (1964) and Sokal and Huber (1963). Percentages of survival at densities 20/g are higher than at 100/g, even for the ++ cultures which previously did not show this trend. At density 20/g the 3-day egg batches did not differ from the 4-hr vials in per cent survival, but at 100/g they are significantly lower than the same eggs at density 20/g and also the 4-hr cultures at density 100/g. The lowest single per cent survival is in the 3-day cultures of ++ which dip to 49.61%.

Table 1. Overall adult survival at different gene frequencies, and two densities for 4-hr and 3-day egg batches.

Egg batch	Density	Gene frequency					
		0.00	0.10	0.50	+ <u>b</u>	0.90	1.00
4 hrs	20/g	81.98	79.84	85.78	87.97	83.20	85.31
	100/g	71.01	64.39	76.65	60.24	77.98	71.21
3 days	20/g	83.90	83.33	80.26	86.72	78.25	86.25
	100/g	49.61	55.43	60.75	62.85	63.76	66.79

Figure 1 illustrates the survivorships as percentages of input (averaged over the four experiments) for pure and mixed cultures at the three gene frequencies, two densities and for the two types of egg batches. Although the details of this figure differ somewhat from corresponding Figures 1 and 4 in Sokal and Karten (1964), the general trends are identical, showing heterozygous superiority under most conditions and a trend toward higher survival of wild type with increasing gene frequency of black at the highest density. Some instances of genetic facilitation are again demonstrated. However, with respect to the main feature of the experiment, the effect of synchrony of the egg batches on survival, no apparent difference can be illustrated. This is borne out by a factorial analysis of variance which shows only density and replication as significant main

effects. Most significant interactions involve replication as one of the factors, the outcomes of the several experiments having fluctuated considerably.

Dry weight of adults: These results (not illustrated here) are quite comparable to the findings of Sokal and Karten (1964). Again, weights are in the relation $+b > ++ > \underline{bb}$. This relation is maintained at both densities and for both types of egg batches. Weight is not affected by synchrony of egg batches. Beetles at density 20/g are considerably heavier than those at 100/g.

Length of developmental period: This variable is affected by density and differs considerably among genotypes. Table 2 shows the relations among developmental periods of the three genotypes in this experiment and in that of Sokal and Karten. Note the reversal in relationship between ++ and \underline{bb} for the two densities of the 4-hr cultures. However, in the 3-day egg batches, patterned after the selection experiment, this reversal does not occur. Thus, the 4-hr cultures actually come closer to the $\underline{bb} > ++$ pattern of the selection experiment (based on 3-day egg yields at high densities) than do the 3-day cultures. Mean developmental period was apparently affected markedly by the synchrony of the egg hatch, yet when mean hatching period, the time from the start of the experiment until the hatching of each individual egg, was calculated it was seen that the increase in developmental period in the 3-day eggs could be accounted for by their greater mean hatch time.

Table 2. Relation among developmental periods of the three genotypes.

Density		Egg batch	
		4 hours	3 days
20/g	This study	$++ > \underline{bb} = +b$	$++ = \underline{bb} = +b$
	Sokal & Karten '64	$++ > \underline{bb} > +b$	
100/g	This study	$+b > \underline{bb} > ++$	$++ > +b > \underline{bb}$
	Sokal & Karten '64	$\underline{bb} > +b > ++$	

More informative than means are cumulative frequency distributions of emerging adults of the three genotypes shown in Figure 2. Figures 2a and 2b

are representative of the general findings. They illustrate density 100/g of the 3-day batches in pure culture and at gene frequency 0.9, respectively. It is clear from these graphs that the ++ strain lags consistently behind the other two, which for most of the experimental conditions produced coincident curves, or if they did separate, showed the bb to be slightly ahead of the +b. This relationship (of ++ lagging behind bb) was also found in separate, unpublished experiments carried out by F. J. Sonleitner in our laboratory. Notice how in the pure strains (Figure 2a) the emergence patterns are much more diffuse and development takes longer than in the mixed strains at gene frequency 0.9. This culture exhibits genetic facilitation, with all three strains developing faster and closer together as shown by the steeper slope of the curves. Under only one condition (100/g of the 4-hr egg batches in pure culture; see Figure 2c) was ++ not the slowest strain.

Conclusion: While the relations described above have considerable interest, they do not demonstrate any major effects due to greater or lesser synchronization in egg batches and are thus not able to explain the differences between the early results of Sokal and Karten (and now also the present results) and those observed in the selection experiment of Sokal and Sonleitner.

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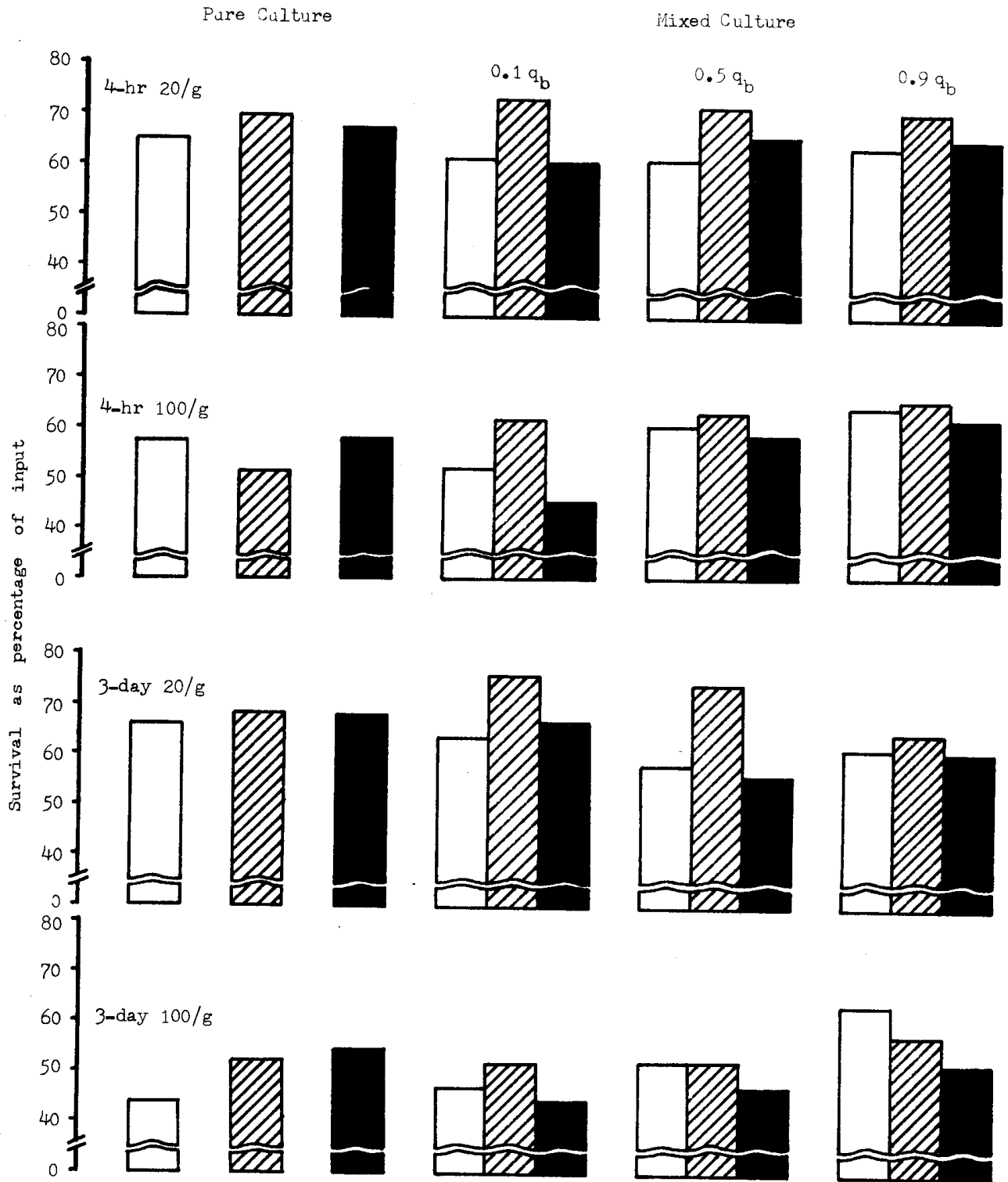
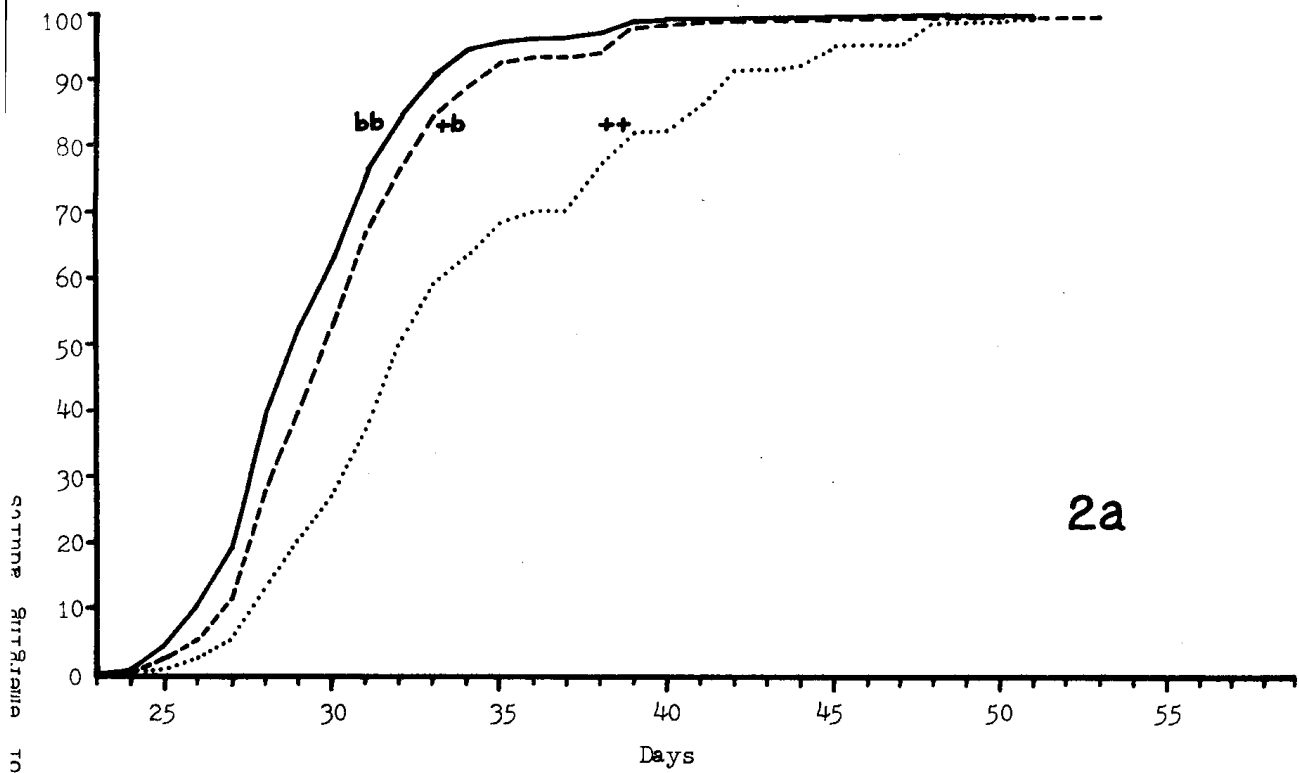
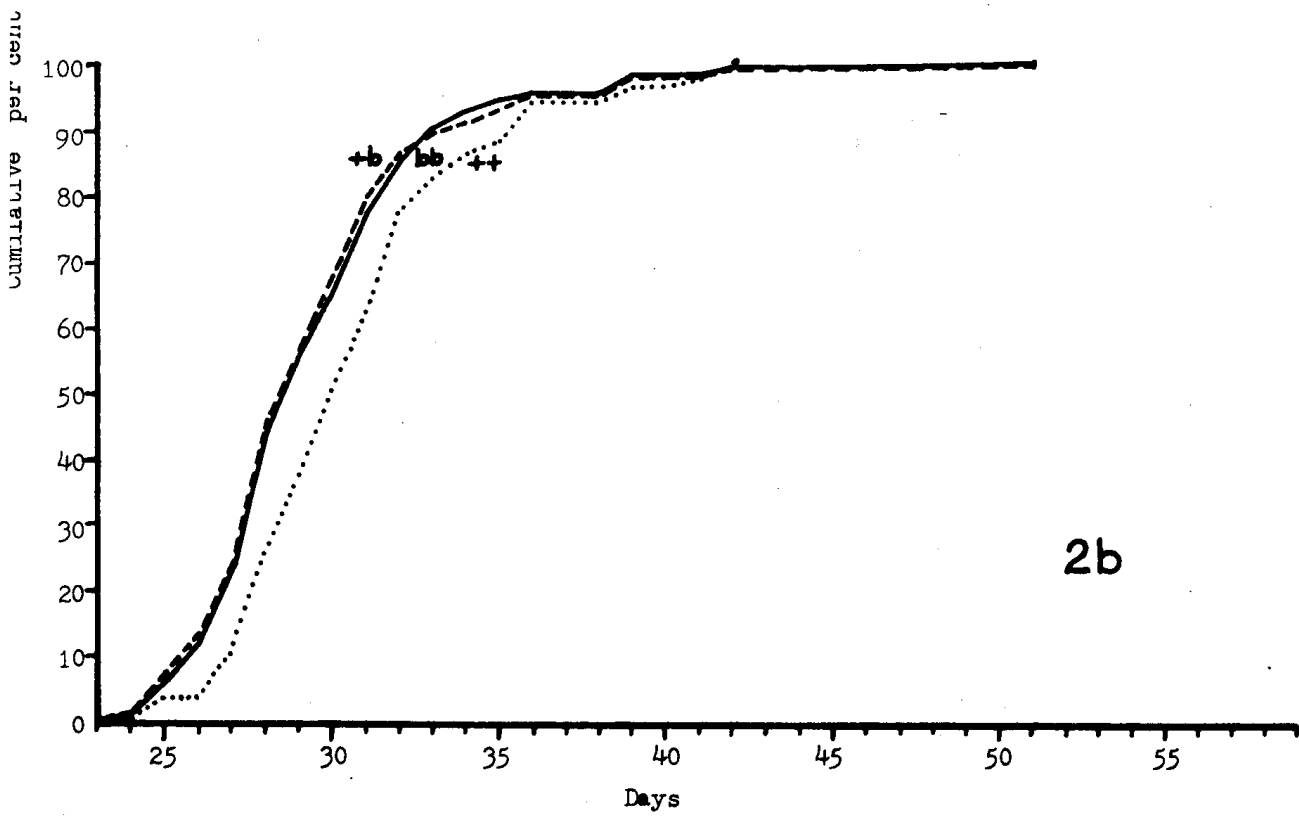


Figure 1. Adult survival expressed as percentages of egg input averaged over the replicates and experiments of the study and shown for the two types of egg batches, two densities and three gene frequencies employed. Leftmost column with noncontiguous bars represents the results of rearing the beetles in pure culture. Hollow bars represent the ++ genotype, hatched bars +b and black bb.



2a



2b

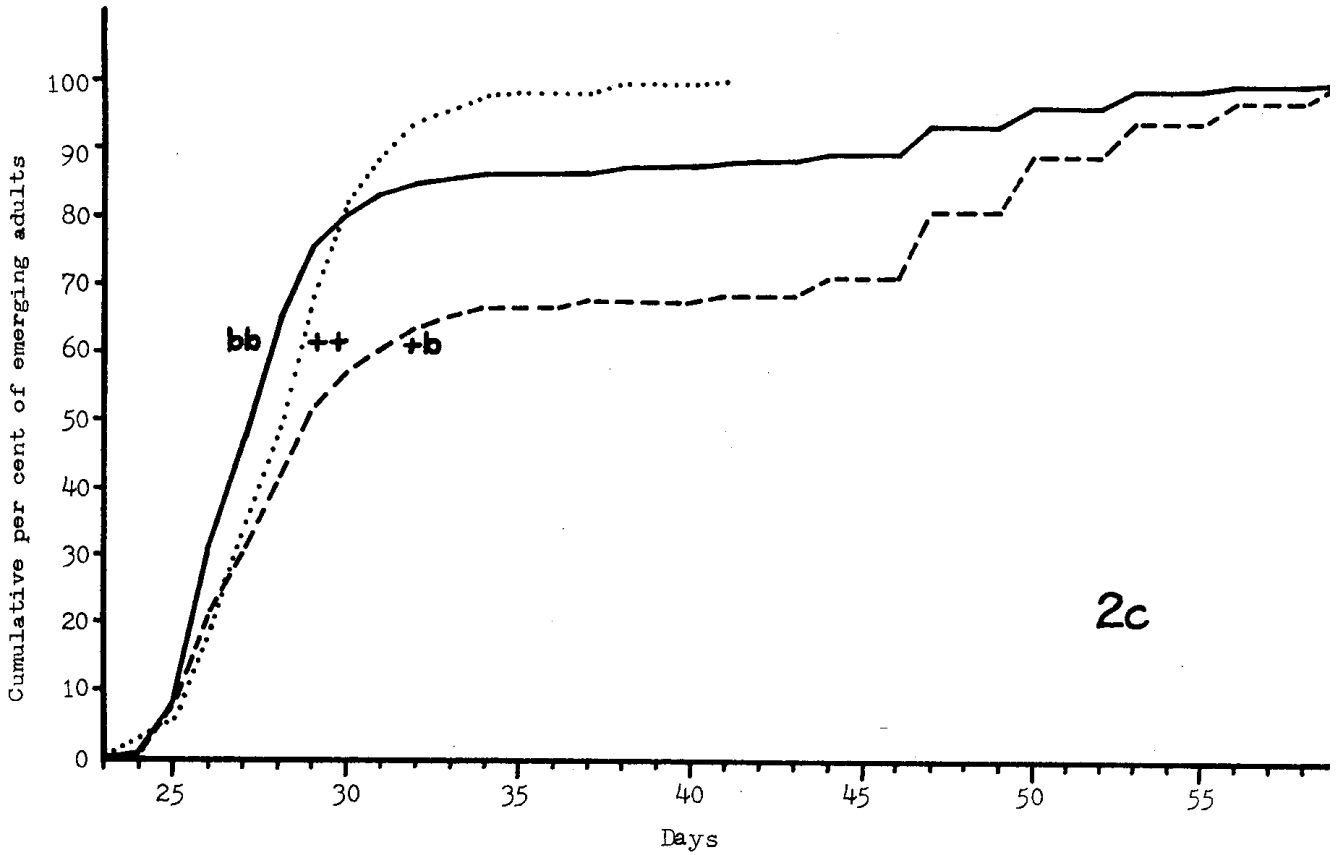


Figure 2. Cumulative frequency distributions showing percent of adult emergence over time (in days).
2a. 3-day, 100/g, pure culture.
2b. 3-day, 100/g, mixed culture 0.9q_b.
2c. 4-hr, 100/g, pure culture.

++
+b -----
bb _____

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*A comparison of fitness characters and their responses to density in stock and selected cultures of wild type and black Tribolium castaneum.

The wild type and black control strains of a selection experiment (Sokal and Sonleitner, 1965; a more extensive manuscript is in preparation) differed in two important respects from the stock cultures from which they were derived. Invariably the wild type strain had appreciably higher adult survival than the bb cultures, this difference increasing at the higher densities. By contrast, experiments with the stock cultures carried out by Sokal and Karten (1964) and Sokal (1967) had shown that black had consistently higher, or at least equal, survival to adulthood when compared with ++. However, these experiments were carried out in 8 g of flour in 6-dram shell vials, while the observations in the selection experiment had been made in 40 g of flour contained in half-pint Mason jars. A second discrepancy between the two types of experiments is that the developmental period of bb was less than that of the ++ strains under all but one set of conditions in the stock cultures, while in the selection experiment bb took consistently longer to develop than ++.

The purpose of the present experiments is to delineate more sharply the nature of the differences in survival to adulthood, dry weight of adults, and length of developmental period between the controls of the selection experiment and the stock cultures from which they were derived. These comparisons were carried out under conditions of the earlier experiments by Sokal and Karten (1964) and Sokal (1967), i.e., in 8 g of flour in shell vials. While an analysis of these differences is of primary importance for an understanding of the results of the selection experiment, the findings are here interpreted in terms of the treatment to which the controls in the selection experiment had been subjected and are of some general interest from this point of view.

The materials and techniques are identical to those reported in Sokal and Karten (1964). However, only pure strains ++ and bb were tested at four densities, 5/g, 20/g, 50/g, and 100/g. The two strains were the standard UPF wild type and black stock cultures employed in work in our laboratory (see stock list) and the ++ and bb controls from the RSE selection experiment (Sokal and Sonleitner, 1965). The controls were taken from generations 25 and 26, respectively, of the second replicate for these two strains. The eggs for these experiments were obtained during a 4-hour period. Replication for each experimental condition was 10 vials at density 5/g, 4 vials at density 20/g, and 3 vials each at densities 50/g and 100/g. The entire experiment was repeated two times.

Survival to adulthood: Survival as percentage of egg input is graphed in Figure 1, which shows that survival decreases with an increase in density for all tested cultures. In both the stock and selection controls, the

black strain had a consistently higher survival, quite in contrast with our findings under the conditions of the selection experiment. Thus, the genetically determined differences in survival between the black and wild type stocks have not changed in the selection controls, or if they have, these differences are not expressed under the conditions of these experiments (8 g of flour in 6-dram shell vials). It may therefore be that the reverse relationship observed in the selection experiment is due to the environment peculiar thereto (40 g of flour in half-pint jars) or is only expressed in that environment. An overall decrease in survival of the selection controls is noticeable in Figure 1. The survival is expressed in degrees (because of the angular transformation); on the average the selection controls have five degrees lower survival than the corresponding stock cultures. Investigation of per cent hatchability of eggs revealed that these differences in survival are due to differences in larval or pupal survival.

Dry weight of adults: These relations (not illustrated) are generally consistent with previous findings in various experiments (e.g., Sokal and Karten, 1964). The ++ strain is heavier than the bb strain and there are no differences between the stock cultures and the selection controls.

Length of developmental period: Here, relations in the stock cultures are as described in earlier studies, with the ++ strain having a longer developmental period than bb at the low densities. While even at density 100/g the average developmental period of the ++ is half a day longer than that of the bb, the steeper increase of the developmental period of bb in response to density is evident. Studies by Sokal and Karten (1964) and Sokal (1967) have shown that under these conditions of high density bb has a longer developmental period than ++. This relationship is illustrated in the selection controls in Figure 2. Since the actual selection experiment was run at asymptotic densities, between 82/g and 90/g, it may simply be that differences in developmental period observed in that experiment are reactions to the density in the cultures. Notice, however, that the selected strains have on the average a developmental period two days longer than their counterparts from stock cultures. These findings can be corroborated by unpublished data by F. J. Sonleitner who, using the earlier generations 12 and 13 of the selection controls at density 12.5/g, found that the ++ control had a mean of 30.5 days while the bb controls had a mean of 29.3 days. Comparable figures obtained by him for stock cultures were 29.8 days versus 28.5 days.

Conclusions: This experiment is unable to explain the reversion of survival of ++ and bb in the selection experiment. This may be due to the difference in environmental conditions in the jars as contrasted with the vials of this experiment. This point is now being investigated. As for length of developmental period, the genotype-density interaction evident for the selection controls in Figure 2 and matching experiences in stock cultures by Sokal and Karten (1964) and Sokal (1967) may be able to explain the longer developmental period of bb in the selection experiment, although the differences observed there are far greater than the difference of about two days noted in this experiment.

Of general interest are the overall differences in survival and developmental period between the stock cultures and the selection controls. The selection controls had been subjected to a pattern of stock-keeping in which adults from a culture were permitted to oviposit for three days, then removed from the culture and the eggs reared until almost all of the adults had emerged. This has apparently resulted in inadvertent selection for long developmental periods. No effort was made to use only the earliest emerging beetles as progenitors, such as might be done in a Drosophila experiment where the investigator is eager to carry out as many generations as possible. Such selection might have led to short developmental period (see Hunter, 1959, for a striking example). In our selection experiment, the most successful beetles were those which remained as relatively small larvae for a considerable period of time, not pupating until most other pupae had already done so. Thus, their chances of being cannibalized were minimized. Selection for such slow-developing larvae would, of course, retard the mean developmental period of the entire strain, which appears to have taken place both in the wild type and bb selection controls (also in hybrid strains not reported on here). The lower overall survival of the selection controls vis-a-vis the stock cultures may simply be due to their longer developmental period, during which they are exposed to more vicissitudes of the environment or may reflect that more of the earlier pupae are cannibalized by the larger numbers of remaining larvae in the selection controls.

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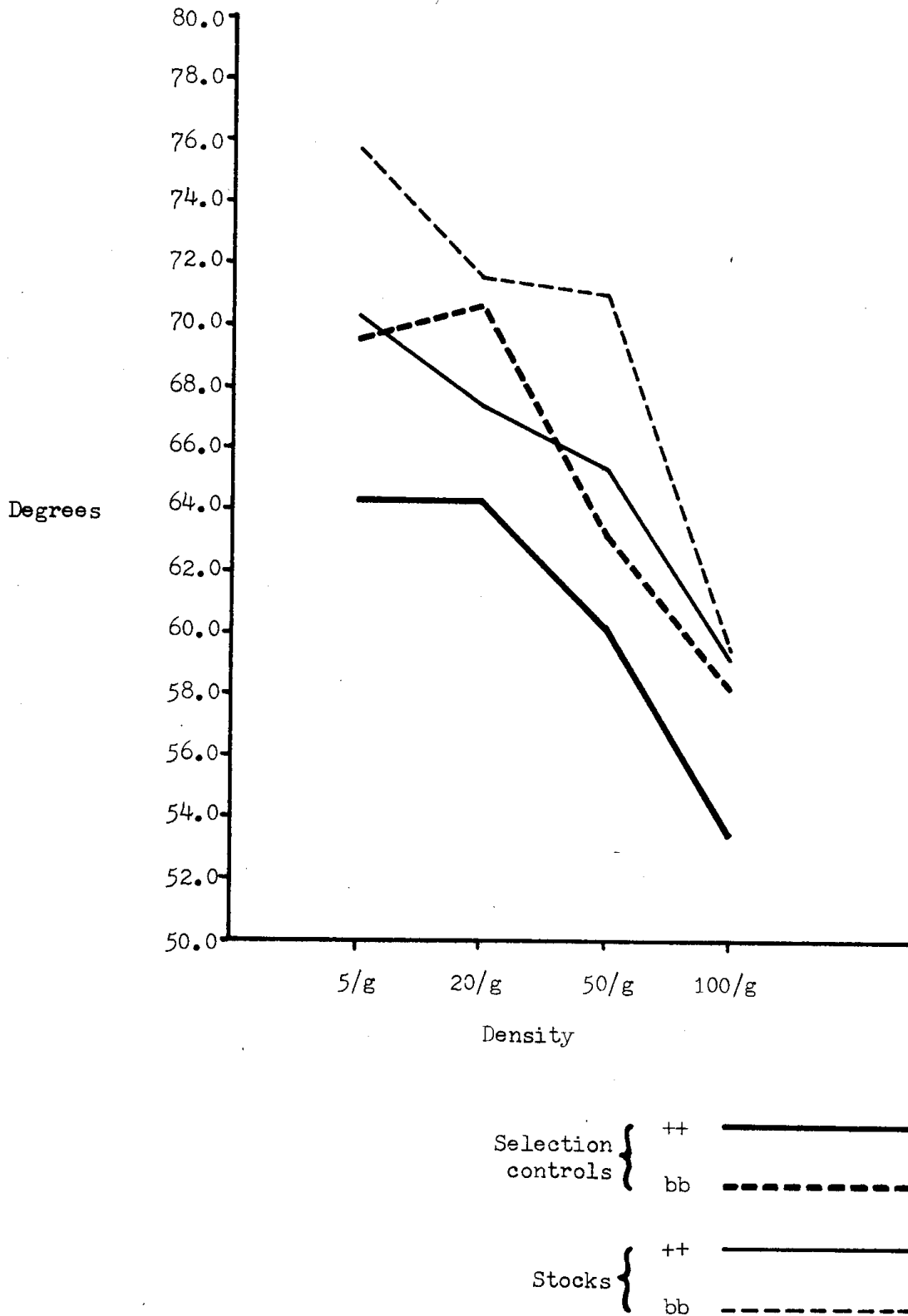


Figure 1. Adult survival expressed as degrees (angular transformation of percentage of egg input) averaged over the replicates and experiments of the study. Results are shown for the four strains tested at the four densities.

Table 1. Phenotype and gene frequency of paddle. (The initial population consisted of 25 ♂, 25 ♀, 25 pd ♂, and 25 pd ♀.)

Replicates	Months elapsed	Adults found								Gene frequency	
		Live				Dead				♂	♀
		+ ♂	+ ♀	pd ♂	pd ♀	+ ♂	+ ♀	pd ♂	pd ♀		
1	2	343	467	285	172	24	43	25	13	.4538	.5272
2	2	376	471	269	125	13	25	15	7	.4170	.4579
3	2	313	516	278	119	(50)	(26)	(3)	(4)	.4704	.4375
4	2	241	559	362	105	13	17	10	16	.6003	.3976
5	2	213	624	382	46	(4)	(10)	(9)	(9)	.6420	.2620
6	2	272	449	301	129	(38)	(21)	(8)	(8)	.5253	.4724

The founding population of each of the six replicates involving pd consisted of 25 + ♂♂, 25 + ♀♀, 25 pd ♂♂, 25 pd ♀♀. The data are given in Table 1, where wild type and paddle progeny, whether living or dead, are given according to sex. The gene frequencies, obtained directly from the males, and estimated for the females are also given. It is clear that for the short period of observation there is no consistent trend, male's frequencies sometimes exceed those of females and vice versa. It is clear, however, that the gene frequencies obtained for the two sexes are clearly different.

The pd gene is not very useful if one wants to identify the genotype or phenotype of dead males and females, because the antennae and/or tarsi often break off.

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Preliminary population studies with mutants of Tribolium castaneum Herbst. II. The black gene.

Two allelic mutations were available: the black mutant derived from the Chicago wild type strain, and the black mutant derived from the McGill wild type strain. Eight replicate populations were set up with 25 +/+ ♂♂; 25 +/+ ♀♀ (Chicago wild) and 25 b/b ♂♂; 25 b/b ♀♀ (derived from Chicago +/+). Eight replicate populations were set up with 25 +/+ ♂♂, 25 +/+ ♀♀ (Chicago wild) and 25 b/b ♂♂; 25 b/b ♀♀ derived from the much more productive McGill wild type strain (Sokoloff, Shrode and Bywaters, 1965? Phys. Zool). The data as well as estimated and real frequencies are given in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Half of the replicates in each had to be discontinued at the end of three months because of incubator failure, and the last two observations 17 and 23 months after the experiments were begun, were made after the populations had been taken out of the incubator and subjected to room and lower temperatures while they were being transported across the country. The gene frequencies (estimated and real) of the two populations are, however, initially different, the McGill black being greater than the Chicago black. At the end of two years, however, the Chicago black populations consist of black at a gene frequency between 0.40 and 0.50 while the McGill black populations ended up with a gene frequency between 0.10 and 0.40.

Aside from these differences it is clear that the two populations differ in:

Table 1. Phenotype and gene frequency of black. (The initial population consisted of 25 ♂ + 25 ♀ Chicago wild type and 25 ♂ + 25 ♀ Chicago black.)

Replicates	Months Later	Adults found								Gene frequency estimated	Gene frequency real
		+/+		+ / b		b / b		live	dead		
1	3	109	17	490	35	282	29	.5657	.5982		
	9	142	47	575	109	350	51	.5727	.5975		
	17	117	203	334	519	121	377	.4599	.5035		
	23	194	86	295	232	152	121	.4869	.4672		
2	3	238	69	684	62	389	31	.5447	.6576		
	3	188	11	513	21	317	20	.5579	.5634		
	9	187	26	724	141	383	88	.5441	.6757		
3	3	161	16	500	38	251	14	.5246	.5493		
	9	180	35	568	156	282	66	.5233	.5495		
4	17	132	173	389	530	202	296	.5286	.5484		
	23	179	104	308	261	118	312	.4416	.4496		
5	3	242	41	639	23	507	20	.6044	.5955		
	9	146	18	422	28	190	30	.5006	.5290		
6	17	156	33	559	134	232	46	.4950	.5401		
	23	92	141	376	521	146	252	.4876	.5440		
7	3	120	90	258	338	120	158	.4909	.5000		
	9	265	13	658	32	401	28	.5503	.5514		
8	3	125	19	543	50	305	56	.5599	.5925		
	9	158	41	528	108	304	69	.5542	.5737		
8	17	128	128	463	453	209	200	.5111	.5506		
	23	96	190	208	447	34	305	.3172	.4083		
8	3	154	14	605	25	346	24	.5596	.5869		

Table 2. Phenotype and gene frequency of black. (The initial population consisted of 25 ♂ + 25 ♀ Chicago wild type and 25 ♂ + 25 ♀ McGill black.)

Replicates	Months Later	Adults found										Gene frequency		
		+/+		+ / b		b / b		live	dead	live	dead	estimated	real	
1	3	188	10	743	21	594	28					.6331	.6241	.6331
	9	272	23	950	149	688	217					.6089	.6002	.6089
	17	231	162	706	494	304	547					.5294	.4950	.5294
	23	187	288	285	536	65	312					.3864	.3479	.3864
2	3	345	28	1220	88	705	39					.5793	.4716	.5793
	3	104	4	724	17	633	42					.6810	.6583	.6810
3	9	232	32	957	78	777	166					.6386	.6286	.6386
	17	196	111	737	551	276	634					.5330	.4778	.5330
	23	170	368	229	541	30	381					.3968	.2644	.3968
	3	422	8	1128	40	765	7					.5741	.5749	.5741
5	3	118	5	746	21	692	25					.6844	.6669	.6844
	9	292	24	918	81	880	181					.6407	.6489	.6407
	17	253	774	963	510	305	772					.5171	.4478	.5171
	23	203	275	257	632	15	325					.1302	.1778	.1302
6	3	446	18	1008	50	803	23					.5791	.5965	.5791
	3	123	8	791	19	534	26					.6419	.6073	.6419
7	9	281	23	1041	95	171	115					.6069	.5930	.6069
	17	223	103	779	285	223	338					.5000	.4266	.5000
	23	186	307	246	552	35	300					.1012	.2737	.1012
	3	457	14	1343	19	732	14					.5377	.5377	.5377
8	10	584	*	1355	*	728	322					.5225	.5225	.5270

* (Total of 642 +/+ and +/b)

- (1) density (i.e. number of adults observed at census).
 (2) mortality.

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Preliminary population studies with mutants of *Tribolium castaneum* Herbst. III. The jet gene.

The autosomal recessive body color gene jet, and the Chicago wild type (from which it was originally derived) were introduced in equal numbers in regard to sex and genotype (25 + σ ; 25 + ♀ ; 25 j σ ; 25 j ♀). Half of the cultures were continued for 23 months in the same manner as the other populations. The data and gene frequencies are summarized in Table 1.

This work was supported in part by USPHS grant GM 08942.

Table 1. Phenotype and changes in gene frequency of jet. (The founding population consisted of 25 + σ , 25 + ♀ ; 25 j σ , 25 j ♀ .)

Replicate	Months later	Adults found				Estimated gene frequency
		+/+		j/j		
		live	dead	live	dead	
1	3	923	95	164	12	.3883
	9	699	383	143	58	.4121
	17	565	741	121	153	.4200
	23	321	359	34	37	.3952
2	2	1411	98	333	28	.4369
	10	1071	1242	258	238	.4406
3	3	928	87	187	12	.4095
	9	754	505	166	89	.4247
	17	576	840	107	165	.3959
	23	589	815	72	75	.3300
4	2	1341	180	321	83	.4893
4 repeat	2	1042	43	388	12	.4209
	8	1234	429	384	90	.4871
5	3	754	80	215	27	.4711
	9	547	380	166	85	.4825
	17	520	658	136	165	.4553
	23	376	448	45	71	.3270

Table 1. (cont.)

Replicate	Months later	Adults found				Estimated gene frequency
		+/+		j/j		
		live	dead	live	dead	
6	3	1277	120	367	15	.4724
7	3	871	79	247	15	.4700
	9	676	471	215	134	.4912
	17	544	696	106	211	.4039
	23	380	948	33	85	.2826
8	2	1672	72	475	22	.4703
	10	1316	1393	291	360	.4702

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Preliminary population studies with mutants of Tribolium castaneum Herbst. IV. The pearl gene.

In these experiments the gene was introduced as homozygotes and as heterozygotes according to the following scheme:

Set 1				Set 2					
+/+		p/p		+/p		+/+		p/p	
♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀
50	50	--	--	--	1	50	49	--	--
50	49	--	1	--	10	50	40	--	--
50	45	--	5	--	50	50	--	--	--
50	25	--	25	50	50	--	--	--	--
50	--	--	50	25	--	--	50	25	--
--	50	50	--	--	25	50	--	--	25
--	25	50	25	--	10	50	--	--	40
--	5	50	45	--	1	--	--	50	49
--	1	50	49						
--	--	50	50						

The results are summarized in Tables 1 and 2. Essentially the results show that in most of the replicates set up the frequency of the pearl gene remains as that introduced almost ad infinitum.

Table 1. Phenotype and gene frequency of pearl in populations with varying initial gene frequencies of pearl introduced as homozygotes.

Founders	Months elapsed	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
<u>A. 50 + ♀; 50 + ♂</u>						
1	3	849	136	---	---	
2	3	1367	47	---	---	
2 repeat	3	1343	78	---	---	
3	3	844	161	---	---	
4	3	1665	71	---	---	
4 repeat	3	1051	70	---	---	
<u>B. 49 +/+ ♀; 1 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	3	807	165	---	---	
2	3	1653	56	1	1	.02408
	4	1419	354	---	1	.02366
	6	1255	643	---	4	.04584
3	3	883	142	1	---	.03122
4	3	1425	40	---	---	
	6	941	81	1	---	.03125
<u>C. 45 +/+ ♀; 5 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	3	942	101	3	---	.05355
2	3	1508	55	3	1	.05053
	4	1262	124	2	2	.05364
3	3	847	148	4	---	.06328
4	3	1565	47	5	---	.05561
	4	1386	205	3	3	.06129

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months elapsed	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
D. 25 +/+ ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂						
1	3	981	138	24	---	.1449
2	2	1229	50	24	1	.1385
	4	1615	146	49	13	.1844
3	3	997	124	25		.1477
4	2	1271	43	25		.1366
	5	1512	189	40	13	.1738
E. 25 + ♀; 25 p ♀; 25 + ♂; 25 p ♂						
1	3	954	79	135	16	.3571
2	3	1016	76	298	35	.4834
	5	1194	135	346	43	.4758
	6	1365	345	391	76	.4631
	14	1058	1832	297	326	.4211
3	3	893	107	109	12	.3285
3 repeat	3	846	---	208	---	.4442
	7	1177	318	214	85	.4095
4	3	1122	62	367	16	.4917
4 repeat	4	1164	97	378	44	.5007
	3	946	128	255	53	.4730
	9	796	855	173	191	.4250
5	3	747	102	135	12	.3841
6	2	1111	43	304	15	.4653
	4	1151	128	310	40	.4636
	6	1348	507	361	124	.4553
	9	1139	774	340	177	.4613
	14	760	872	220	194	.4498
7	3	766	73	124	11	.3723
	9	740	428	121	49	.3565
	17	632	814	105	175	.3955
	22	240	---	40	---	.3793

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months elapsed	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>E. 25 + ♀; 25 p ♀; 25 + ♂; 25 p ♂ (cont.)</u>						
7 repeat	3	736	---	206	---	.4677
	7	1352	294	288	54	.4147
8	2	961	66	329	21	.5041
	4	915	106	279	43	.4897
8 repeat	2	884	57	266	19	.4822
	5	1184	456	277	130	.4459
	10	1032	858	238	178	.4247
<u>F. 25 +/+ ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	652	53	244	25	.5255
2	2	642	35	489	29	.6584
	4	736	59	553	59	.6595
	6	675	520	495	509	.6767
3	3	653	54	257	29	.5367
4	3	819	51	551	32	.7080
	4	360	457	114	380	.6139
	6	1252	89	543	35	.5488
<u>G. 5 +/+ ♀; 45 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	3	208	26	558	82	.8557
2	2	129	27	978	53	.9320
	4	139	13	1015	132	.9397
3	3	124	11	438	84	.8913
4	2	106	3	709	52	.9353
	4	151	30	929	184	.9274
<u>H. 1 +/+ ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	11	4	694	96	.9814
2	2	17	---	1049	39	.9821
	4	24	8	1083	148	.9873
3	3	28	7	674	128	.9789

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months elapsed	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>H. 1 +/+ ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂ (cont.)</u>						
4	2	20	---	989	25	.9903
	4	29	3	1122	227	.9883
	10	41	17	972	916	.9850
<u>I. 50 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						Pearl frequency
1	3	---	---	610	148	1.0
2	2	---	---	1034	44	1.0
	4	---	---	1122	219	1.0
3	3	---	---	469	105	1.0
4	2	---	---	1072	54	
	4	---	---	869	262	

Table 2. Phenotype and gene frequency of pearl in populations with various initial gene frequencies of pearl introduced as heterozygotes.

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Pearl frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>J. 1 +/p ♀; 49 +/+ ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	3	926	150	0	0	
2	3	1342	45	0	0	
	4	1285	228	0	0	
	6	1321	485	0	0	
3	3	989	173	0	0	
4	2	1111	38	0	0	
	4	1562	248	0	0	
<u>K. 1 +/p ♀; 49 +/+ ♀; 1 +/p ♂; 49 +/+ ♀</u>						
1	3	988	136	0	0	?
2	3	1170	33	2		.04074
	5	1568	245	3	1	.04691
	7	1531	93	1	0	.02481
3	3	921	140	0	0	?
4	3	1148	64	0	0	?
	4	1553	191	0	0	?
	6	1296	673	1	0	.02254
<u>L. 5 +/p ♀; 45 +/+ ♀; 5 +/p ♂; 45 +/+ ♀</u>						
				mutant		Gene
				live	dead	frequency
1	3	1038	117	0	0	?
2	2	1082	48	2	0	.04204
	4	1331	298	4	5	.07412
	6	1358	425	5	3	.06684
3	3	903	132	0	0	?
4	3	1398	41	8	0	.07439
	3	1736	218	13	2	.08728
	6	1488	659	12	4	.08801

Table 2. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	mutant live	mutant dead	
<u>M. 25 +/p ♀; 25 +/+ ♀; 25 +/p ♂; 25 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	3	1000	85	69	4	.2511
2	3	1406	69	90	8	.2516
	4	1543	186	104	10	.2487
3	3	976	114	81	5	.2708
4	2	1060	28	70	2	.2626
	5	1431	215	103	5	.2481
	6	986	547	78	29	.2554
<u>N. 25 +/p ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 25 +/p ♂; 25 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	741	77	360	39	.5719
2	3	599	37	493	33	.6728
	5	590	146	414	131	.6522
	7	858	426	517	238	.6085
3	3	531	82	364	36	.6284
4	3	708	29	637	29	.6889
	5	599	117	532	150	.6984
	6	632	266	522	212	.6780
<u>O. 5 +/p ♀; 45 p/p ♀; 5 +/p ♂; 45 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	112	13	427	85	.8965
2	2	177	6	1033	43	.9244
	4	153	23	1025	188	.9345
3	3	181	22	497	86	.8612
4	3	181	11	994	72	.9205
	5	195	31	1071	147	.9184

Table 2. (cont.)

Founders	Months elapsed	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	mutant live	mutant dead	
<u>P. 1 +/p ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 1 +/p ♂; 49 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	16	3	555	146	.9867
2	2	24	2	979	49	.9876
	4	24	8	1119	343	.9892
3	3	65	6	562	106	.9507
4	2	10	2	872	43	.9935
	4	18	3	1028	208	.9916
	6	25	6	1062	508	.9903
<u>Q. 1 +/p ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	3	8	0	631	150	.9949
2	2	12	0	841	38	.9932
	4	22	6	996	378	.9899
3	3	5	2	656	168	.9958
4	2	8	1	1077	47	.9960
	4	7	1	1062	198	.9968

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Preliminary population studies with mutants of *Latheticus oryzae* Waterh. I. The pearl gene.

These experiments were designed to test, in a comparative way, the performance of pearl in populations. For this reason the founders in the various sets were introduced in a manner similar to the experiment reported above for *Tribolium castaneum*. The first notable difference between the two species is that the number of adults produced by *Latheticus* is far lower than that obtained in *Tribolium* cultures. Furthermore, the developmental period of *Latheticus* in these cultures is astonishingly slow. Cultures set up six to eight months before may contain only the original adults, the progeny being in the late larva or in the pupa stage. The cultures appear as if the larvae are all of the same age, and they remain thus for a long period of time. Eggs and small larvae apparently are eaten by the older larvae as they are produced. At the other end, the first few pupae forming are destroyed by the younger larvae. The small size of the populations as well as the long developmental period makes it impractical to pursue population studies with this organism.

The data, summarized in Tables 1 and 2, insofar as they go, appear to indicate that when pearl is frequent and wild type infrequent the results in the two species are comparable.

Table 1. Frequency changes of pearl in *Latheticus oryzae* introduced initially at frequencies from 0-1.0 into each of six replicates as homozygotes.

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
A. 50 + ♀; 50 + ♂						
1	8	114	29	---	---	0
2	6	124	44	---	---	0
	11	218	176	---	---	0
3	8	93	7	---	---	0
4	7	188	92	---	---	0
	11	241	179	---	---	0

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
<u>A. 50 + p; 50 + σ (cont.)</u>						
5	8	93	7	---	---	0
6	7	136	91	---	---	0
	11	190	178	---	---	0
<u>B. 49 + σ; 1 p/p σ; 50 + σ</u>						
1	8	111	40	1	---	
2	5	74	31	1	---	
	7	231	39	---	---	
3	8	102	18	1	---	
4	7	186	66	1	---	
	11	166	162	0	2	
5	8	96	4	2	---	
6	7	124	55	1	---	
	11	256	105	---	1	
<u>C. 45 +/+ σ; 5 p/p σ; 50 + σ</u>						
1	8	99	11	6	---	
2	5	72	23	5	---	
	7	204	68	9	2	.1972
3	8	101	18	4	1	
4	7	112	79	4	---	
	11	209	152	2	3	.1189
5	8	89	7	5	---	
6	7	142	92	4	1	
	11	174	177	3	2	.1185

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
D. 25 +/+ ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂						
1	8	85	32	25	---	
2	5	67	6	25	---	
	7	131	131	21	12	.3345
3	8	70	20	26	---	
4	7	66	43	21	4	
	11	175	95	22	8	.3162
5	8	73	9	26	---	
6	7	200	96	21	2	
	11	178	97	21	13	.3317
E. 25 +/+ ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 25 +/+ ♂; 25 p/p ♀						
1	8	55	17	49	---	.6364
	20	47	19	34	5	.6094
	26	85	56	33	36	.5732
2	5	32	18	41	9	
	7	194	61	37	5	.3761
3	8	55	7	50	---	.6681
	20	19	33	23	7	.6984
	26	0	15	13	27	.8528
4	7	34	16	47	2	
	11	74	76	37	25	.5408
5	8	59	11	48	2	.6455
	20	23	18	20	5	.6155
	26	54	37	32	19	.5993
6	7	113	98	41	5	.4231
	11	163	74	29	20	.4139

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>F. 50 +/+ ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	8	61	20	47	1	
2	5	46	4	44	6	.4162
	7	145	65	35	9	
3	8	68	21	48	2	
4	7	87	43	35	11	.3444
	11	222	105	11	33	
5	8	56	10	45	4	
6	7	94	79	41	10	.3799
	11	221	111	31	25	
<u>G. 25 +/+ ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	8	30	5	82	10	
2	6	21	4	63	12	.7926
	8	102	14	164	32	
3	8	29	4	71	7	
4	7	49	42	71	51	.7432
	11	102	65	144	62	
5	8	25	4	75	7	
6	7	54	27	102	37	.7766
	11	46	56	75	80	
<u>H. 5 +/+ ♀; 45 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	8	4	4	97	7	
2	5	3	2	75	20	.9772
	7	10	2	194	60	
3	8	10	4	92	8	

Table 1. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
<u>H. 5 +/+ ♀; 45 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂ (cont.)</u>						
4	7	13	6	121	52	.9594
	11	15	10	204	85	
5	8	5	---	90	6	
6	7	6	2	84	27	.9770
	11	6	5	145	86	
<u>I. 1 +/+ ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	8	1	---	96	15	
2	5	1	---	86	13	.9891
	7	3	2	150	76	
3	8	1	---	95	11	
4	7	---	1	88	15	
	11	---	---	282	133	
5	8	2	---	98	10	
6	7	1	---	79	20	.9923
	11	2	1	108	85	
<u>J. 50 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂</u>						
1	8	---	---	101	18	
2	7	---	---	131	40	
	11	---	---	229	116	
3	contaminated with wild type					
4	7	---	---	85	23	
	11	---	---	202	82	
5	8	---	---	96	5	
6	7	---	---	92	48	
	11	---	---	216	128	

Table 2. Phenotype and gene frequency of pearl in populations with various gene frequencies of pearl introduced as heterozygotes.

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>K. 1 +/p ♀; 49 +/+ ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	8	101	10	---	---	
2	7	173	92	2	---	.05075
	11	257	130	---	1	
3	8	100	9	---	---	
4	5	104	19	---	---	
	9	278	101	---	---	
5	8	101	5	---	---	
6	5	116	24	---	---	
	9	207	152	---	---	
<u>L. 10 +/p ♀; 40 +/+ ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	8	93	7	1	---	
2	7	94	11	---	---	.07332
	11	206	164	2	---	
3	8	102	15	---	---	
4	5	87	13	---	---	
	9	181	97	---	---	
5	8	97	8	---	---	
6	5	90	9	1	---	.05439
	9	207	130	1	---	
<u>M. 50 +/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂</u>						
1	4	97	4	1	---	
2	4	94	5	1	---	.1676
	8	152	90	6	1	
3	5	97	2	1	---	

Table 2. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+		p/p		
		live	dead	live	dead	
<u>M. 50 +/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂ (cont.)</u>						
4	5	97	3	---	---	
	9	59	39	---	---	
5	5	98	3	---	---	
6	4	95	3	2	---	.1771
	8	172	106	9	---	
<u>N. 50 +/p ♀; 50 +/p ♂</u>						
1	5	98	2	---	---	
2	4	95	5	---	---	.4139
	8	181	90	47	9	
3	5	98	2	---	---	
4	4	95	3	1	---	.3491
	8	114	69	16	6	
5	5	99	3	---	1	
6	4	99	---	1	---	
	8	71	1	28	---	
<u>P. 50 +/+ ♀; 25 +/p ♂; 25 p/p ♂</u>						
1	6	74	8	24	1	
2	5	72	4	23	1	.2744
	9	184	123	10	15	
3	6	76	4	25	1	
4	5	59	16	19	6	.2858
	9	150	113	5	14	
5	6	77	5	24	1	
6	5	70	5	22	3	.2967
	9	163	137	6	23	

Table 2. (cont.)

Founders	Months later	Adults found				Gene frequency
		+/+ live	+/+ dead	p/p live	p/p dead	
Q. 25 +/p ♀; 25 p/p ♀; 50 +/+ ♂						
1	6	75	6	26		
2	5	64	9	25		
	9	91	55	19	6	.3824
3	6	80	8	25		
4	5	69	4	23	1	
	9	129	108	14	8	.2914
5	6	66	6	25		
6	5	73	2	20	5	
	9	178	91	19	9	.3071
S. 10 +/p ♀; 40 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂						
1	6	10	---	85	7	
2	5	9	1	82	7	
	9	12	8	96	62	.9421
3	6	10	---	90	5	
4	5	9	---	83	7	
	9	17	10	83	130	.9421
5	6	10	2	86	6	
6	5	10	---	86	4	
	9	18	6	118	89	.9466
T. 1 +/p ♀; 49 p/p ♀; 50 p/p ♂						
1	6	1	3	97	---	
2	5	1	---	97	22	
	9	2	1	151	109	.9943
3	6	2	---	97	3	
4	5	1	---	90	8	
	9	2	---	176	75	.9960
5	6	2	---	96	3	
6	5	1	---	87	66	.9967

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*Additions to established linkage groups

I. T. castaneum

A. X-chromosome

1. lethal-5 (1-5), located about 25 units to the left of py (away from r). Allelic with l₂ and l₄.
2. lethal-6 (1-6), located about 12 units to the left of py (away from r).
3. lethal-7 (1-7), located about 20 units to the left of py (away from r).

B. Autosomes

aureate is located about 42 units away from black. Three-point crosses to locate it in respect to other genes are now in progress.

II. T. confusum

A. X-chromosome

1. alate prothorax, apt, is between es^{lt} and lp, about four units to the left of lp.

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*Additional sex-linked lethals in Tribolium castaneum Herbst.

In an experiment designed to determine the frequency of lethals as a regression on the age of the maternal grandfather (see Lerner and Inoue in the present issue of TIB) several females gave aberrant sex-ratios and two of these, on retesting, proved to be heterozygous for lethals. The material was originally derived from the Berkeley synthetic strain marked with sooty (for details on its construction and maintenance see Lerner and Ho, 1961, Am. Nat. 95:329).

In order to locate these lethals and determine possible allelism, four virgin females from stock 29c and eight from stock 68a were mated with py r males. Because of lack of time it was not possible to set up the sequential matings immediately with a consequent overlap in generations. Female virgins were then mated with py r males, four from 29c and eight from 68a. In the former, one female proved to be heterozygous for the lethal producing 1+ and 4 py r males, and 6+ and 4 py r females. The "+" virgin females (py r +/+ + l_x) were placed in individual creamers and remated with py r males, allowed to lay eggs for a week and transferred to fresh medium four times at intervals of a week to increase the number of progeny. From 68a two females designated as 68a-1 and 68a-6 and producing 9 py r ♂♂ : 14+, 1 py, 6 py r ♀♀, and 3+, 1 py, 13 py r ♂♂ : 18 +, 1 r, 1 py, 10 py r ♀♀, respectively, were the source of the carriers of the other lethals. In 68a-1 eight "+" females and in 68a-6 twelve "+" females were heterozygous for the lethal. These females were separated in individual creamers and allowed to remain with their progeny until the latter emerged as adults.

Results and Conclusion

Experiment 29c

The various broods in experiment 29c have been tested and found homogeneous. Therefore, the data have been pooled and they are shown in Table 1. They make it possible to determine that the crossover frequency for the three genes involved is:

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
<u>r</u> - <u>py</u>	44/425 = 10.35	78/917 = 8.51
<u>r</u> - <u>l_{29c}</u>	136/425 = 32.00	
<u>py</u> - <u>l_{29c}</u>	104/425 = 24.47	

Therefore, the order is l_{29c} - py - r. Previous studies have located l₂ at 22.78 units from py (from 90/395 crossovers detected between py and l₂) and l₄ at 25.45 units from the same gene (from 70/275 crossovers between py and l₄). l₂ and l₄ have been found allelic (Sokoloff and Dawson, 1963, Can. J. Genet. Cytol. 5:138). Chi square tests of homogeneity between l₂, l₄ and l_{29c} indicate the data are homogeneous. Therefore, l_{29c} must be considered as a recurrence of l₂ and it is designated as l₋₅. (cf. section on New Mutants.)

Tables 2 and 3 summarize the data for experiment 68.

The data for 68a-1 indicate the crossover frequencies are:

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
<u>py</u> - <u>r</u>	47/398 = 11.81	92/613 = 15.01
<u>r</u> - lethal	87/398 = 21.86	
<u>py</u> - lethal	46/398 = 11.56	

so the order is: lethal - py - r.

The data for 68a-6 give the following crossover values:

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
<u>py</u> - <u>r</u>	30/416 = 7.21	84/822 = 10.22
<u>r</u> - lethal	99/416 = 23.80	
<u>py</u> - lethal	81/416 = 19.47	

and the order of the three genes is lethal - py - r.

68a-1 and 68a-6 have been tested for allelism by the Chi square test for homogeneity with l₂, l₄ and l₅. The statistical tests suggest these lethals are not allelic with them nor with each other. Neither are they allelic with l₃. Therefore, 68a-1 is redesignated l₆ and 68a-6 l₇.

We do not know whether the original female whose progeny indicated the presence of a sex-linked lethal carried both lethals or whether a second lethal occurred during the course of these experiments.

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Table 1. Progeny of py r +/++ 29c × py r +/.

Phenotype	Male	Female
<u>py r</u>	283	266
+ +	98	573
<u>py</u>	38	38
<u>r</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>40</u>
Total	425	917

Table 2. Progeny of py r +/++ 68a-1 × py r + (nine successful creamers)

Phenotype	Male	Female
<u>py r</u>	308	216
+ +	43	305
<u>py</u>	44	56
<u>r</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>36</u>
Total	398	613

Table 3. Progeny of py r +/++ 68a-6 × py r +/. (12 successful creamers)

Phenotype	Male	Female
<u>py r</u>	311	268
+ +	75	470
<u>py</u>	24	36
<u>r</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>48</u>
Total	416	822

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Further studies of productivity of *Tribolium castaneum* and *Tribolium confusum* in homo- and heterospecific matings

In a previous paper (Sokoloff, Shrode and Bywaters, 1965, Phys. Zool. 38:165), it was shown that productivity (defined as the number of adult progeny per female within a specific interval or the number of fertile eggs per female surviving to the adult stage) is a reliable genetic character. It was used in a previous study by Sokoloff and Inouye (TIB 6:61) to determine whether females of *T. castaneum* (CS) or *T. confusum* (CF) are affected in their reproductive capacities by the presence of males of the other species. It was found that when CF females are in association with CS males their productivity drops somewhat, but not as much as when CS females are in creamers together with CF males. This previous experiment left unanswered the question whether this drop in productivity, observed particularly for CS, was not the result of depriving the females from their mating partners. Tagarro and Rico (TIB 9:120) showed that when males are removed from cultures where females are already fecundated, they continue to lay fertile eggs at a slightly lower rate than when males were present, but that this difference is not significant. The period they tested was between days 7 and 11 after the females had eclosed. Since in the Sokoloff and Inouye experiments the females were left without males for a much longer period, the present experiments were performed.

For each of the species or species combination the experimental set-up was as follows: into each of 10 creamers were introduced four pairs of beetles 10 days old (females and males had been isolated as pupae) on a Thursday. At the same time on Monday the imagoes were transferred into new containers, the old medium with eggs being returned to the original creamers after counting the eggs. The adults were moved to new quarters every twenty-four hours for three days, and the eggs were counted before returning them to their respective creamers. Every week the beetles were manipulated in the following way: the first week the females in all 10 creamers had males of the same species as partners. The second week the set was broken into two subsets. From subset A the males were removed altogether, and these females are referred as "widows." From subset B half of the males were removed and replaced by males of the other species. We refer to these females as "bigamists." On the third week the females of subset A are supplied with males of the other species, and refer to them as "miscegnists, type I." From subset B the remaining two males of the same species are removed and replaced by males of the other species, and the females referred to as "miscegnists, type II." Finally, on the fourth week, the foreign males are removed from both subsets and males of the same species re-introduced. (The two subsets will be referred to as "repurified I" and "repurified II," respectively.)

Table 1. Mean number of eggs and larvae produced by four females of *T. confusum* (CF) and *T. castaneum* (CS) in a three-day period following homo-, heterospecific, or mixed-species mating in succeeding weeks (N = number of observations).

Week	Type of mating	CF		CS		N
		eggs	larvae	eggs	larvae	
		$\bar{m} \pm S.E.$	$\bar{m} \pm S.E.$	$\bar{m} \pm S.E.$	$\bar{m} \pm S.E.$	
1	"Pure species"	48.73	44.73	57.53	48.93	30
2	"Widows"	48.73	39.60	46.47	40.73	15
3	"Bigamists"	44.07	38.60	40.13	31.33	15
3	"Miscegnists I"	45.53	35.60	28.27	15.80	15
3	"Miscegnists II"	45.73	41.33	28.33	15.67	15
4	"Repurified I"	44.73	38.47	51.73	43.13	15
4	"Repurified II"	43.80	38.00	43.07	36.20	15

If any dead beetles were found, they were sexed and replaced by beetles of the same age, sex and species.

Fertility of the eggs was determined by counting larvae when they were three weeks old.

The data have been analyzed to determine any significant difference between the three successive 24-hour periods. Since no significant difference has been found, the values of the three successive days have been pooled providing 30 observations for the pure species (10 replicates \times 3 days) and 15 for the subsets (5 replicates \times 3 days). The results are summarized in Table 1.

Comparisons of the means by t-test indicates that none of the differences observed for CF are significant. For CS significant differences can be shown at the .02 level for the means of eggs produced by "pure species" and "widows" and at the .01 level for "pure species" vs. "miscegnists-I", "miscegnists-II," and "repurified." Significant differences are obtained at the .01 level for fertility of eggs of "pure species" vs. "bigamists," "miscegnists-I" and "miscegnists-II." The values obtained for "pure species" and "re-purified II" are significantly different at the .02 level.

This experiment appears to indicate that when inseminated CF females are introduced with CS males either they reject them, or if copulation takes place between them, the foreign sperm play no role in fertilization of CF eggs. On the other hand, if CS females are confined with CF males (and no CS males are present) they inseminate them, and the foreign sperm may fertilize a fairly large number or all of CS eggs. The result is that females exhibit partial or complete sterility. These sterile or semisterile CS females recover almost immediately from any "damage" the foreign males may have produced if CS males are reintroduced.

Therefore, it is concluded that in mixed species cultures heterospecific matings should not influence greatly the outcome of competition if the numbers of the two species are large. Where the numbers of CS are small (and CF large), the absence of sufficient CS males to service the CS females present might result in the loss of CS from those cultures.

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Influence of collecting frequency on egg-laying rate of
fecundated and virgin females in *Tribolium castaneum*

Egg-laying rate is the quantitative character we are using more in our genetic research with *Tribolium castaneum*. We have defined a period

comprised between the 7th and the 11th days after adult emergence to measure that character.

Egg collecting and counting is a time-consuming task, so we were interested to reduce as much as possible the number of collections in such testing period. At 33°C and 70% RH larvae hatch 66 ± 6 hours after the eggs are laid. So with fecundated females it is necessary to collect no later than every other day (two collections in the four-day period). With virgin females this problem does not exist, so it is possible to collect once at the end of the testing period.

However, we wondered whether collecting every day, every other day, or at the end of the four-day period could have some influence in the total number of eggs laid or counted. Favorable effect of fresh medium after a collection, disturbing effect of the suction sifting, cannibalism, etc., could contribute to find different figures in the total lay of the four days.

Four trials were run comparing 24 vs. 48 hours collecting frequencies both with fecundated and with virgin females. Two more trials were run to compare 48 vs. 96 hours collecting frequencies only with virgin females. We used our "Consejo" strain of Tribolium castaneum. Fecundated females were mated at adult emergence and the males (one per female) were maintained during the testing period. At day 7th after emergence the medium in each vial was changed. Egg collecting was made by suction sifting every day, every other day or at day 11, according to the corresponding treatment, and afterwards fresh medium was added. The figure analyzed was the total number of eggs laid per female during the four-day testing period.

Table 1 includes the analysis of each of the four experiments run with fecundated females comparing 24 vs. 48 hours collecting frequencies, together with a pooled analysis of the four as a whole. We can see that in no case there exist differences between treatments.

Table 2 includes similar information as in Table 1 but with the data obtained with virgin females. The results in this case are not as clear as with fecundated females because in the A trial we find significant differences to the .05 level in favor of 48 h. and in the B one slightly significant (only to .10 level) but in favor of the 24 h. frequency. However, when considering the pooled analysis we do not find significant differences to any level between treatments and the significance for the interaction reflects the difference of results obtained in A and B. The greater influence of uncontrolled effects in egg laying of virgin females as compared with the lay of fecundated ones, widely observed by us in many experiments, could explain the anomalous results of A. In a practical sense we can consider the non-significant differences found for treatments in the pooled analysis as favorable.

Table 3 contains the analysis of the two experiments comparing 48 vs. 96 hours collecting frequencies with virgin females and the pooled analysis

Table 1. Means, standard errors, df, MS and F values of the analysis of four experiments studying the influence of 24 vs. 48 hours collecting frequencies on the laying rate of fecundated females.

Experiment	Means and S.E.	Sources	df	MS	F
A	24 h. 63.5 ± 2.7	Treatments	1	46.04	0.27
	48 h. 65.5 ± 2.7	Error	45	173.50	
B	24 h. 76.9 ± 3.6	Treatments	1	218.11	0.69
	48 h. 72.5 ± 4.0	Error	43	317.11	
C	24 h. 34.4 ± 2.9	Treatments	1	154.47	0.96
	48 h. 38.3 ± 2.8	Error	37	161.00	
D	24 h. 61.0 ± 3.3	Treatments	1	108.15	0.40
	48 h. 58.0 ± 3.5	Error	45	273.09	
Pool	24 h. 60.4 ± 1.6	Experiments	3	10,881.46	46.61*
	48 h. 58.9 ± 1.6	Treatments	1	110.06	0.47
		Exp. × Treat.	3	138.90	0.59
		Error	170	233.47	

* Significant to .005 level.

Table 2. Means, standard errors, df, MS and F values of the analysis of four experiments studying the influence of 24 vs. 48 hours collecting frequencies on the laying rate of virgin females.

Experiment	Means and S.E.	Sources	df	MS	F
A'	24 h. 9.8 ± 1.1	Treatments	1	252.01	6.62 [†]
	48 h. 13.7 ± 1.1	Error	62	38.04	
B'	24 h. 19.4 ± 1.7	Treatments	1	243.95	3.77*
	48 h. 14.9 ± 1.6	Error	46	64.65	
C'	24 h. 9.3 ± 1.5	Treatments	1	21.03	0.48
	48 h. 7.9 ± 1.5	Error	38	44.17	
D'	24 h. 14.1 ± 1.9	Treatments	1	89.78	1.01
	48 h. 16.8 ± 1.9	Error	48	89.05	
Pool	24 h. 12.9 ± 0.8	Experiments	3	635.57	10.93 [‡]
	48 h. 13.6 ± 0.8	Treatments	1	25.59	0.44
		Exp. × Treat.	3	193.73	3.33 [†]
		Error	194	58.17	

* Significant to .10 level; † to .04 level; ‡ to .005 level.

Table 3. Means, standard errors, df, MS and F values of the analysis of two experiments studying the influence of 48 vs. 96 hours collecting frequencies on the laying rate of virgin females.

Experiments	Means and S.E.	Sources	df	MS	F
E	48 h. 12.8 ± 1.2	Treatments	1	0.66	0.01
	96 h. 13.0 ± 1.2	Error	96	69.09	
F	48 h. 28.4 ± 2.3	Treatments	1	0.66	0.00
	96 h. 28.3 ± 2.3	Error	96	250.33	
Pool	48 h. 20.6 ± 1.3	Experiments	1	11,694.88	73.23*
	96 h. 20.6 ± 1.3	Treatments	1	0.00	0.00
		Exp. × Treat.	1	1.30	0.01
		Error	192	159.71	

* Significant to .005 level.

of both. No differences at all are found between treatments in any experiment nor in the pooled analysis. This result also helps to interpret the figures in Table 2 in the sense that the significant differences observed in A and B must be due to chance effects.

In all sets of trials differences between experiments are always significant. This is not surprising because many uncontrolled effects influence the number of eggs laid by females of Tribolium castaneum. Pooling the analysis of different trials is quite fair because we have proportional or nearly proportional subclass numbers; analysis with means of treatments × experiments cells give the same results reported here.

Therefore, we can conclude that under our experimental conditions, when we are interested to measure the egg-laying rate from day 7 to day 11 after adult emergence, it does not make any difference whether we collect eggs every day or every other day in both fecundated and virgin females and even in doing only one collection at the end of the four days with virgin females. The longest "between collections" period with fecundated females is 48 hours because larvae may hatch before three days.

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*Sex pheromones and defensive secretions from Tenebrionid beetles

Studies on the sex pheromones and defensive secretions of Tenebrionid beetles are under way in this laboratory. Sex pheromones have been demonstrated in Tenebrio molitor and Zophobas rugipes (a large Central American species) and a biological assay for the pheromone of Tenebrio molitor has been devised (Tschinkel, Willson and Bern, 1967). Attempts to isolate the sex pheromone of Tenebrio molitor are in progress.

The secretion of the prothoracic defensive glands of Zophobas rugipes is being studied by various chromatographic and spectral techniques. These glands secrete phenols, but are otherwise homologous to the quinone-secreting prothoracic stink glands of Tribolium (Roth, 1943).

Disturbed larvae of Zophobas rugipes frequently squirt hemolymph along with an acrid odor. This phenomenon and an effect of larval crowding on pupation are under study.

Attempts are being made to establish a number of Tenebrionid beetles (especially subfamily Tenebrioninae) in laboratory cultures for comparative studies on their sex pheromones and defensive secretions. Success has been limited. The results are summarized in Table 1.

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Table 1. Success of laboratory culture of Tenebrionid beetles

Subfamily	Classification	Genus and Species	Source	Degree of Success			
				Adult Survival in Lab.	Egg Production	Larval Survival	Successful Metamorphosis
Tenebrioninae		<u>Tenebrio molitor</u>	Museum Vert. Zool., Berkeley	+	+	+	+
		<u>Tenebrio obscurus</u>	Entomol. Dept., Berkeley	+	+	+	+
		<u>Argoporis</u> ?	S. Arizona, near Yuma	+	+	+	+
		<u>Amphidora</u> ?	Concord, Calif., salt marshes	+	+	+	+
		1-?	Concord, Calif.	+	+	+	+
		<u>Zophobas rugipes</u>	Near San José, Costa Rica	+	+	+	+
		<u>Eleodes</u>	Near Fairview Pk., Nevada	+	+	+	-
		<u>Eleodes</u>	Near Yuma, Arizona	+	+	+	± (poor survival)
		<u>Eleodes</u>	California, near Berkeley Marina	+	+	+	+
		<u>Eleodes</u>	California, near Berkeley Marina	+	-	-	-
		<u>Coelocnemis</u> ?	California, Del Puerto Canyon	+	-	-	-

Table 1. (cont.)

Subfamily	Classification		Degree of Success			
	Genus and Species	Source	Adult Survival in Lab.	Egg Production	Larval Survival	Successful Metamorphosis
Tenebrioninae	<u>Cibdelis blaschkei</u>	California, Berkeley Hills	+	+	+	+
	<u>Alobates</u> ?	California, Sunol Park	+	+	+	-
	<u>Tribolium brevicornis</u>	(Sokoloff)	+	+	+	+
	<u>Tribolium castaneum</u>	(Sokoloff)	+	+	+	+
	<u>Tribolium confusum</u>	(Sokoloff)	+	+	+	+
	<u>Tribolium destructor</u>	(Sokoloff)	+	+	+	+
Asidinae	2-? ?	California, San Diego	+	+	+	-
	<u>Cryptoglossa verrucosa</u>	near Yuma, Arizona	+	+	-	-
	<u>Zopherus</u> sp.	near Yuma, Arizona	+	-	-	-
	<u>Coniontus</u> sp.	California, near Antioch	+	-	-	-
	3-? ?	?	+	-	-	-
Tentyrinae	<u>Edrotes rotundata</u>	California, Mojave River	+	-	-	-
	<u>Triophorus</u> sp.	near Yuma, Arizona	+	-	-	-

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*Some observations on mating frequencies in Tribolium castaneum strains

Introduction. In a series of papers, Ehrman and associates (Ehrman, 1965, 1966; Ehrman et al., 1965) described a phenomenon observed earlier by Petit (1958) with important evolutionary implications. When two strains of *Drosophila* are mated in unequal proportions, in some cases the rarer strain, regardless of genotype, will mate more often than expected on the basis of its frequency in the observation chamber. The series of experiments reported here was designed to look for a similar phenomenon in two strains of Tribolium. In the course of the experiment, some interesting observations on the mating habits of these strains were made, which are also reported here.

Materials and Methods. The standard UPF wild type and black strains of T. castaneum employed in work in this laboratory (see stock list) served as experimental material. Large numbers of pupae were recovered from multiple cultures of the two stocks, sexed and then put, in unisexual groups of 10, in 6-dram holding vials containing about 4g of flour. The bb beetles emerged two days later than the ++ adults and therefore were two days younger throughout the experiment. The first experiment was set up four days after the emergence of bb adults, and the last one two weeks later.

Mating was observed in two-inch Syracuse dishes with 20 ♂ and 20 ♀♀ in varying genotypic proportions. All the males were marked by paint at least three days before the experiment to distinguish true mating pairs from the frequent ♂ × ♂ mounts (see results). The genotype of each sex and time of mating was recorded. Each observation dish was watched constantly for two consecutive 30-minute periods, during which a considerable number of copulations was observed. Two series of observations were made. In the first, after the end of the fixed observation period, all the males were removed, and the females were transferred individually to vials with about 4g of flour, where they were left to oviposit for three days, after which they were discarded. The genotype of the ♀ was recorded on the vial, and the resulting brood was classified by genotype to infer the type or types of males that had sired it.

In the second series, the ♀♀ and ♂♂ were separated after the first 30 minutes' observation period. The "old" ♂♂ were given a new group of virgin ♀♀ and the "old" ♀♀, a fresh group of ♂♂ (the previous genotypic proportions being maintained). The two dishes were observed simultaneously for another 30 minutes, after which all the beetles were discarded. No brood analysis was carried out in this series.

The first series was set up at proportions 10:90 and 25:75, with both wild type and black being rare in turn. The second series was run at

10:90 only. Two 50:50 observations were carried out as controls.

Results. Previous to the main experiment, couples (in copula) were recovered from large wild type and black populations and the sex of the participants determined by microscopic examination. It appeared that wild type or black ♂ will mate with any Tribolium available, regardless of sex. Mounting of ♂ on other ♂ occurred in 30.5% of the cases among the wild type and 34.5% among the blacks (based on 127 pairs); a test of independence yielded $X^2 = 0.277$ and fails to show any difference in behavior between the strains in this respect. In all subsequent experiments the males were marked, and only true ($\sigma \times \text{♀}$) matings are considered in the following sections.

The observations in the Syracuse dishes may be summarized in the following form; the asterisks refer to total X^2 for all replicates.

<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Combination</u>	<u>Number of replicates</u>	<u>Rare genotype</u>			
			<u>++</u>		<u>bb</u>	
			<u>♂♂</u>	<u>♀♀</u>	<u>♂♂</u>	<u>♀♀</u>
25:75	new ♂♂ × new ♀♀	8	*(++)	--	*(++)	**(<u>bb</u>)
	old ♂♂ × old ♀♀	8	--	--	--	*(<u>bb</u>)
10:90	new ♂♂ × new ♀♀	10	--	--	**(++) ^h	***(<u>bb</u>)
	old ♂♂ × old ♀♀	4	**(++) ^h	--	--	--
	new ♂♂ × old ♀♀	6	**(++)	--	--	***(<u>bb</u>) ^h
	old ♂♂ × new ♀♀	6	--	--	--	***(<u>bb</u>)

* .05 > P > .01; ** .01 > P > .001; *** P < .001.

The symbols (++) or (bb) following asterisks indicate the genotype that mated more often. Significant heterogeneity among the replicates is shown by the superscript h.

All new × new cases were observed in the first 30-minute periods. All other combinations were in the second 30-minute periods.

The mean number of copulations in 30 minutes for 10:90 proportions differed greatly among the four combinations: new ♀♀ × new ♂♂ (21.7), new ♀♀ × old ♂♂ (12.5), old ♀♀ × new ♂♂ (15.0), and old ♀♀ × old ♂♂ (6.75). Analyzing the variance of the 26 replicates, the following table shows a highly significant mean square among combinations.

<u>Source of variation</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>
Genotype of rare strains	1	1.78
Combinations	3	248.26***
Interaction	3	28.74
Error	18	17.35

Single degree of freedom comparisons showed a highly significant difference between the mean number of copulations between new ♀♀ × new ♂♂ and the mean of the other three taken as a whole ($P \ll .001$), and a significant difference between old ♀♀ × old ♂♂ and the two (old ♀♀ × new ♂♂ and new ♀♀ × old ♂♂) combinations taken together ($P < .01$). No significant difference was found between the mean of new ♀♀ × old ♂♂ versus old ♀♀ × new ♂♂.

Similar results were obtained in the eight 25:75 replicates, which contained only old ♀♀ × old ♂♂ and new ♀♀ × new ♂♂ combinations.

Surprisingly, the results of the brood analysis of the 10:90 proportions showed that very few of the ♀♀ in the observation dish were fertilized although, based on the average mating frequency, every one of the 20 ♀♀ could have been fertilized. (Similar results were obtained in the 25:75 series.)

<u>Rare strain</u>	<u>Number of matings observed</u>	<u>Number of fertilized females</u>
++	25	6
	29	7
<u>bb</u>	24	12
	27	13
control (50:50)	23	5

In a few cases, a ♀ was mated in sequence to a heterotypic ♂ and then a homotypic ♂. Only 5 of 10 ♀♀ were fertilized by any of the males: 3 bb ♀♀ and 2 ++ ♀♀. The brood of the bb ♀♀ contained only the offspring of the first (++)♂♂. The brood of the ++ ♀♀ contained mainly the first (bb) male's offspring, although 3.5 - 8.5% of the offspring were from the second mating.

Discussion. As can be seen from the results presented above, the Petit-Ehrman phenomenon does not occur in these two strains of Tribolium under our test conditions. However, it was found that black ♀♀, when rare,

consistently mated much more frequently than expected, mostly with wild type males. In all cases where a significant deviation from expected mating frequencies for $\sigma\sigma$ or ♀♀ was present, the frequency of $++ \sigma\sigma \times \text{bb } \text{♀♀}$ matings was very much higher than expected ($P \ll .001$ by the G-test). This trend in the $\text{bb } \text{♀♀}$ was consistent for all replicates. The only case in which heterogeneity was significant for the ♀♀ was caused by an exceptionally large deviation from expectation in one of the six replicates. No clear trend could be shown for the $\sigma\sigma$.

Such a behavior, if reflected in the offspring, could result in an increasing gene frequency of black.

Virgin pairs showed the highest mating frequency per half hour. When both $\sigma\sigma$ and ♀♀ had mated in the half hour preceding the experiment, they showed the lowest number of mating. In cases where one sex was virgin, while the other had mated in the half hour preceding the experiment, the mating frequency was in-between, with no significant difference between the reciprocal crosses. Possibly mated ♀♀ may resist a subsequent mating shortly after the first one, and the $\sigma\sigma$ may need a period of rest between matings.

It is interesting to note that even in the old $\text{♀♀} \times$ new $\sigma\sigma$ and new $\text{♀♀} \times$ old $\sigma\sigma$ combinations, the black females, when rare, mated significantly more often than expected. Presumably they are unable to resist the males as effectively as the wild-type females.

Why the number of fertilized females should be so much lower than the number of observed copulations is obscure. When b was rare (wild-type common) more ♀♀ were fertilized than when wild type was rare. Some of the matings could have been infertile because of the unusual conditions of light and substrate in the observation dish. By contrast, when in another experiment 20 $\sigma\sigma$ and 20 ♀♀ at proportions 10:90 and 50:50 were left in flour for 12 hours, 18, 18 and 20 females were fertilized in the cases where + was rare, the two alleles equally frequent, and b rare, respectively.

The brood analysis data are not helpful in testing the Petit-Ehrman phenomenon because the evidence shows a considerable number of double matings (mating of one female with more than one male). Regrettably, this can be demonstrated only if the female mated with both types of males. Ignoring all evident double matings, no significant higher mating frequency of the rare form can be shown.

Contribution No. 1350 from the Department of Entomology, The University of Kansas. This is paper No. 7 in a series on the ecological genetics of Tribolium. Numbers 1 through 5 are listed at the end of paper No. 6 (Sokal, 1967) in this issue of TIB. This research was supported by a National Science Foundation Grant GB-2170 (Robert R. Sokal, principal investigator).

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*Selection for 13-day larval size in Tribolium under two nutritional levels

Selection experiments for larval growth under two nutritional levels were conducted for sixteen generations so as to evaluate the effectiveness of various selection methods in the presence of genetic-environmental interaction.

A strain of Tribolium castaneum, Purdue "+" Foundation stock was used as the experimental organism. The two levels of nutrition, so-called Good and Poor rations, which were originally formulated by R. H. Hardin, were used as the environments. The primary difference between the two rations depends on the content of brewer's dry yeast and corn oil. The Good contains 10% of dry yeast and 5% corn oil but none at all in the Poor.

The character for selection is the 13-day larval weight in two directions. Genetic parameters of the initial population for the character were: 0.40 in heritability under both environments and the genetic correlation between Good and Poor performance was 0.80.

The experimental populations which were originated from the base population by random sampling are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Symbols of experimental populations

GL	= Selected for large under the Good level every generation.
PL	= Selected for large under the Poor level every generation.
$\overline{\text{GPL}}$	= Selected for large on average performance under both levels every generation.
GPL	= Selected for large under Good and Poor in alternating generations.
GS	= Selected for small under Good every generation.
PS	= Selected for small under Poor every generation.
$\overline{\text{GPS}}$	= Selected for small on average performance under both levels every generation.
GPS	= Selected for small under Good and Poor in alternating generations.
C	= Unselected controls consisted of 20 pair matings, each contributes one male and one female to the next generation.

The experiment was repeated twice but one week apart. Each set of replicated experimental populations was sampled from two different sublimes derived from the base population a few generations prior to the initiation of selection.

The mating and selection were made in such a way that each pair produces eggs in the creamer which contains standard wheat medium for 48 hours, and then the parents are transferred to Good medium for 24 hours, Poor ration for 24 hours and additional Good or Poor ration for 24 hours, so as to have two creamers of the same ration for selection purpose depending on the population, until the 7th generation. For instance, GL had two Goods and one Poor, while PL had two Pooors and one Good. The GPL and $\overline{\text{GPS}}$ had only one Good and one Poor. Each mating randomly sampled five larvae for each creamer weighed and the sum of two creamers was used as the selection criterion. The measurement taken under the opposite environment rather than for selection was used as the measure of correlated trait. Since the 8th generation inclusively, two Goods and two Pooors were measured for all populations in the same manner. Once the families for selection were decided, the full sibs raised under the standard medium were picked up randomly and sexed for mating to produce the next generation. Therefore, the parental individuals in all lines were never exposed to either Good or Poor but standard medium. The individuals measured were discarded after weighing. This technique eliminates any carry-over environmental effect from parental generation.

Experimental resultsAverage gain per generation

Average selection and correlated responses of the selected character under two environments in terms of change per generation is listed in Table 2. As is seen from the table, direct selection responses exceeded

Table 2. Selection gains per generation over sixteen generations by replication (10^{-2} mg)

Replication	Population	Good	Poor	Average
I	GL ₁	5.6 ± 0.4	5.5 ± 5.3	5.6 ± 0.5
	PL ₁	3.9 ± 0.5	9.3 ± 0.9	6.6 ± 0.6
	$\overline{\text{GPL}}_1$	5.2 ± 0.5	8.7 ± 0.7	7.0 ± 0.4
	GPL ₁	4.9 ± 0.4	8.5 ± 1.2	6.7 ± 0.7
	GS ₁	-8.7 ± 0.6	-5.5 ± 0.9	-7.1 ± 0.6
	PS ₁	-8.8 ± 0.7	-7.9 ± 1.0	-8.4 ± 0.8
	$\overline{\text{GPS}}_1$	-9.5 ± 0.5	-6.3 ± 0.8	-7.9 ± 0.5
	GPS ₁	-9.7 ± 0.7	-6.2 ± 0.8	-7.9 ± 0.7
	II	GL ₂	7.3 ± 0.7	6.5 ± 1.0
PL ₂		6.9 ± 0.7	10.4 ± 0.6	8.6 ± 0.4
$\overline{\text{GPL}}_2$		5.4 ± 0.8	5.7 ± 0.7	5.5 ± 0.6
GPL ₂		6.7 ± 0.6	7.6 ± 0.6	7.2 ± 0.4
GS ₂		-12.5 ± 0.8	-4.9 ± 0.8	-8.7 ± 0.7
PS ₂		-8.6 ± 1.0	-6.4 ± 0.8	-7.5 ± 0.9
$\overline{\text{GPS}}_2$		-7.4 ± 0.9	-5.5 ± 0.6	-7.4 ± 0.7
GPS ₂		-9.3 ± 0.7	-5.5 ± 0.6	-7.4 ± 0.5
Average of I + II		GL	6.5 ± 0.5	6.0 ± 0.7
	PL	5.4 ± 0.4	9.9 ± 0.7	7.6 ± 0.4
	$\overline{\text{GPL}}$	5.3 ± 0.3	7.3 ± 0.4	6.2 ± 0.4
	GPL	5.8 ± 0.3	8.1 ± 0.7	7.0 ± 0.5
	GS	-10.6 ± 0.6	-5.2 ± 0.6	-7.9 ± 0.5
	PS	-8.7 ± 0.8	-7.2 ± 0.8	-8.0 ± 0.7
	$\overline{\text{GPS}}$	-8.4 ± 0.6	-5.9 ± 0.6	-7.2 ± 0.5
	GPS	-9.5 ± 0.6	-5.8 ± 0.5	-7.7 ± 0.5

indirect or correlated gains except that the populations selected for average (GPL and GPS) were inferior to others in most cases. It is also interesting to note that asymmetrical selection responses in two directions after pooling all lines with the same direction of selection are clearly dependent upon the environment tested. That is, asymmetry is favored to small selection under Good ration but the reverse is true under Poor ration.

Realized heritabilities in large and small populations were 0.33 for the large and 0.44 for the small populations and this difference being significant at 5% level. The difference of heritability in two directions suggests that selection for different directions may involve different genetic and physiological mechanisms of the trait. Nevertheless, realized heritabilities of 0.33 ~ 0.44 agreed closely with the estimated heritability in the base population.

Genetic correlation between larval weights under two environments by taking the square root of the product of two genetic regressions obtained from two lines selected in the same direction but under two environments was 0.77, which is close to the estimated correlation in the initial generations.

Generally speaking, genetic changes resulting from our selection experiment agreed fairly well with those expected from the analyses of the initial population.

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*Relative fitness of selected strains under different environments

Sixteen populations selected for large and small larval size and reported in the preceding report were tested for their relative fitness under Good and Poor media. The measure of fitness was the number of adults of a strain expressed as the deviation from that of a tester stock, b . This measure of fitness may be called competitive ability relative to the tester stock. In each set of competition trials, fifty eggs each from the tester and a competent strain were placed together into a vial which contained 20 grams of either Good or Poor medium. After 30 days the number of black and wild type beetles were counted. Hatchability was tested prior to the trial in all populations but no difference among populations was recognized. Repeatability of this measure of fitness was 0.907 and 0.917 under Good and Poor respectively. This suggests that the measure was very consistent with replications.

Statistical analysis showed that there were highly significant differences among strains but not between rations. Strain by environment interaction was also highly significant. Those differences were, however,

non-existent among large populations, while more striking among small populations. The order of relative fitness in the small populations is summarized as follows based on the Duncan test at 1% level:

Under Good environment,

$$GS_2 = \overline{GPS}_2 < PS_2 < \overline{GPS}_1 = PS_1 < GPS_1 < GS_1 = GPS_2$$

Under Poor environment,

$$PS_1 < \overline{GPS}_2 = PS_2 < GS_1 = \overline{GPS}_1 = GPS_2 < GPS_1 = GS_2$$

The striking strain by environment interaction was ascribed primarily to a very characteristic behavior of GS_2 , whose 13-day weight was much larger under Poor than under Good.

NOTES TECHNICAL

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*A method for isolating C. turcicus to obtain virgin females

Virgin females of C. turcicus can easily be obtained by isolating larvae in gelatin capsules and incubating until the adults emerge. This is more efficient than isolating pupal cases which may be empty or "inhabited" by non-virgin adults.

Gelatin capsules of size No. 2 are separated and the larger "bottom" end is placed in a board drilled with rows of shallow holes (1/4 in. size drill bit). This "bottom" half is then filled with flour and yeast medium with an ordinary "eye dropper" type of bulb pipette. Large larvae close to the prepupal instar are placed singly in individual capsules with jeweler's forceps or a brush, and the smaller "top" half of the capsule firmly replaced. The capsules are then incubated in the rack or in labeled, net covered stock jars until the adults emerge. Then they can be sexed and maintained individually until needed. If large larvae are used there will generally be enough medium left in the capsule for the adult to subsist on for several days.

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*A method for enhancing propagation of poorly viable flour beetles

One often encounters flour beetles whose elytra or membranous wings droop at the sides, are oriented ventrally, or extend beyond the end of the abdomen. These appendages may interfere with copulation or with the tunneling activities of the beetle. One way to enhance the chances of mating is to remove the elytra of the mutant, or the hind legs of the mating partner if it is a female. This should not be done indiscriminately, however, because if the legs or wings are pulled or broken off there may be severe damage and the beetle may bleed to death. A more effective procedure is to cut the appendage off, and for this operation McLure iris scissors are very useful.

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Technique to determine the contents of cocoons of
Cryptolestes turcicus

In the course of experiments to determine the effects of low temperature on the various stages in the life history of C. turcicus (Coleoptera: Cucujidae) it was necessary to know whether cocoons contained pupae, or young adults without damaging the cocoon. The adult remains in the cocoon one or two days after it emerges from the pupal skin.

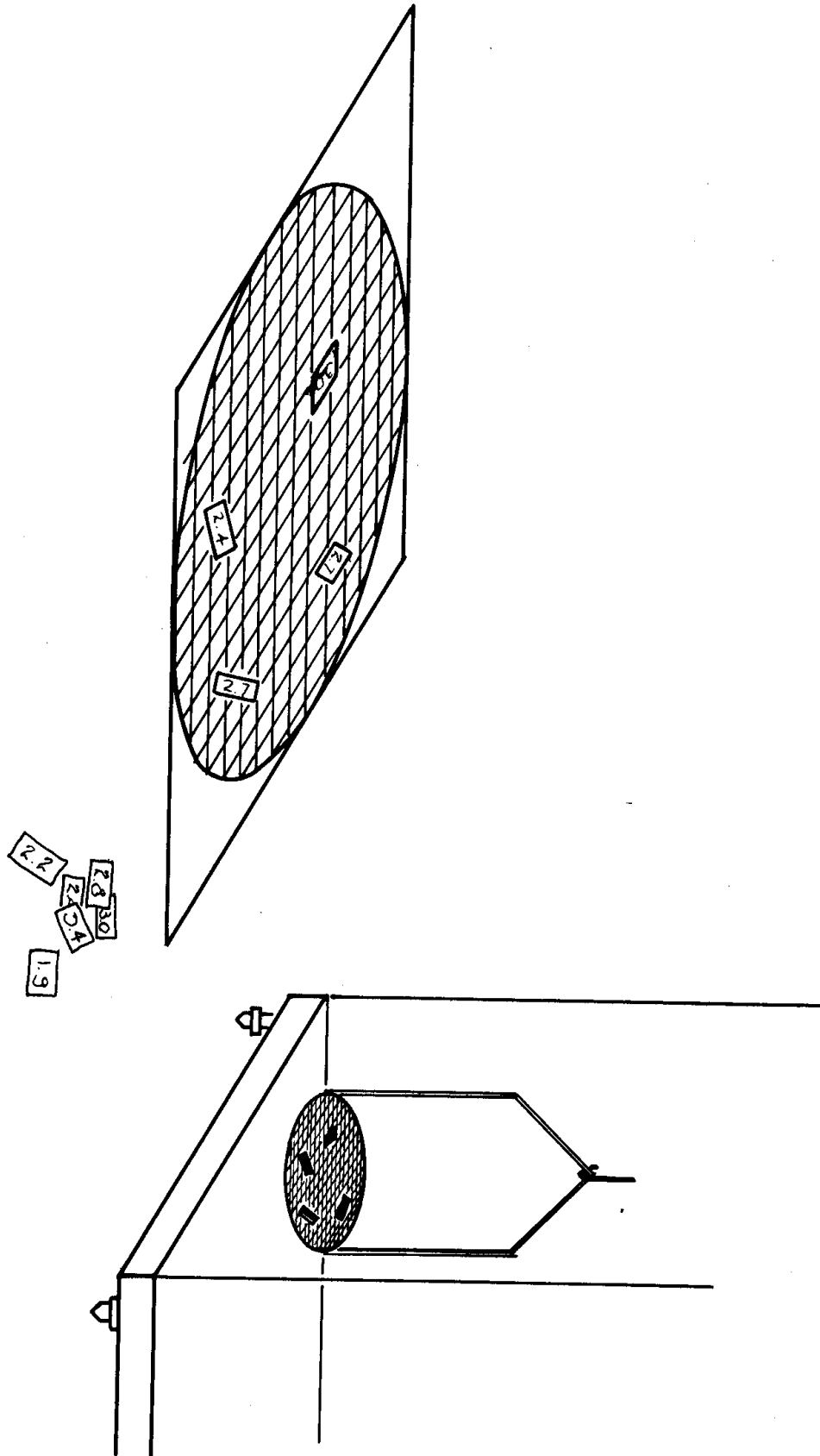
The method adopted was to place cocoons on a plate glass stage of a microscope which had the oculars removed. The stage was covered with black paper and a hole was cut in the paper large enough to accommodate the glass dish containing the cocoons. A light from a 125 W bulb was reflected up through the plate glass and the cocoons from a convex mirror. Best results were obtained in a darkened room using a 2X magnifier. With very little practice it was possible to distinguish two classes of cocoons: (1) those that appeared to be uniformly clear and (2) those that had a dark shadow inside of them. The clear cocoons contained pupae and the others contained young adults. This method was over 98% reliable.

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*New method for weighing Tribolium pupae

During a recent selection experiment with Tribolium castaneum, pressure of work created the need for an unusually efficient method of weighing large numbers of pupae singly. The conventional method is to place a pupa on the balance pan, measure its weight, then remove the pupa and replace it with another. This involves considerable time and possibly also wear on the switch mechanism. The alternative system described below, and used successfully at Massey, is adaptable to any weighing balance with a moving scale and a fairly large balance pan.

The balance pan is marked with a grid and a cardboard map of this pan is placed on the laboratory bench alongside the weighing balance. A system of "weighing by successive difference" is used, whereby pupae are added one by one to the pan and their weights noted by successive changes in the scale reading. As each reading is made, a small cardboard chip carrying the weight symbol is placed on the map in the position corresponding to the pupa it represents. When all pupae in a selection replicate are so weighed the author merely has to scan the map, refer from it back to the pan and so



collect the desired pupae for selection. The chips are then collected, their weights recorded, and returned to the pool.

The pupae show no tendency to roll about on the pan provided the weighing room is kept warm but, if necessary, the pan grid can be constructed of a wire mesh to prevent such movement. The number of pupae which can be weighed together is then limited only by the size of pan or size of scale.

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A method for rearing *Eleodes (longicollis?)* (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae) in the laboratory.

The stink beetle *Eleodes (longicollis?)*, an inhabitant of the desert areas of the Southwestern United States and Mexico, when irritated does a "headstand" (lowering its head and raising the posterior end of the abdomen) and discharges quinones (see illustrations in Eisner, T. and J. Meinwald, 1966. Defensive secretions of Arthropods. Science 153:1341-1350). Because of repeated encounters with this beetle outdoors as well as indoors (janitors often place specimens on my desk should I want to keep them), attempts have been made to maintain the adults in captivity and to find a medium in which these beetles can be maintained in stock in the laboratory.

The adult specimens were initially kept in baby food jars provided with grapes as sources of food and moisture. This food appeared to be adequate since the beetles lived on it for about a month and the female began to lay eggs in clusters. The latter were transferred to another jar containing standard flour beetle medium (whole wheat flour + brewer's yeast in a proportion of 19:1). The larvae were seen eating this medium, but a few days later they had died, still in the first larvae instar.

In order to stimulate oviposition, the adult female was placed in flour beetle medium, and this proved to be a highly satisfactory food for *Eleodes*, provided that a source of moisture was available. This was supplied by adding a piece of apple or some other fruit. The increase in moisture induces the growth of mold, so adult beetles have to be transferred rather frequently to fresh medium. Nonetheless, the effort pays off, for at this writing, the beetles have lived in this medium for about five months, and the female continues to lay eggs. The larvae also require transferring to fresh medium every so often because of the tendency of the medium to cake and eventually become moldy when pieces of fruit are added as a source of moisture. The eggs, somewhat larger than those in *Tribolium* but alike in this genus of a white color, are laid in clutches of about 20-30. The larvae were only about 1-1/2 to 2 mm long in the first instar. At about 24°C, the largest larvae have reached a size of almost three centimeters in three

months, and they resemble the larvae of Tenebrio molitor. Out of 110 small larvae introduced in this jar, only about 10 per cent survive because the immature stages of Eleodes are highly cannibalistic. It was possible to observe the cannibalistic activities of these organisms when the larvae were about 1 cm long. At least two tunnels within which the larvae traveled were evident. They were against the glass wall of the container, and a larva from the upper gallery had made its way to the lower gallery where it had encountered a larva of about the same size; it apparently had dealt the latter a bite on the tergite of the mesothorax which largely immobilized it--at least there was no apparent effort on the part of the larva preyed upon to escape--and the predator larva had half of its head within the body of the larva it was eating. When the larvae are removed from the medium one does not find any pieces of dead larvae, unless the larvae was recently killed.

The medium, insofar as it has been possible to observe, provides larvae the necessary nutritional requirements for good health and development. It is possible, therefore, that the tendency toward cannibalism is a trait characteristic of the family.

It is evident from the above that beetles in this family other than Tribolium and other flour beetles have potentialities of being raised in the laboratory and thus become potentially useful organisms in research population genetics and population ecology.

The writer has not tried it, but it comes to mind that Tenebrio molitor, the mealworm, and Zophobus, another Tenebrionid which normally lives on bat guano, can be reared on bran provided a source of water such as a slice of potato, is provided to the beetles every so often. The survival of Eleodes could also be enhanced by rearing this species in bran medium distributed in a container in layers between paper toweling and to which wood shavings are provided so the smaller larvae can escape the predatory activities of larger larvae. The lack of an incubator at San Bernardino for this particular purpose has prevented the exploration of the question of the optimal conditions of temperature and R.H. for the development of this beetle from egg to adult.

P.S. A visit to the laboratory of Dr. Clyde Willson, Biochemistry Department, University of California, Berkeley, after the above note was written, revealed that Mr. Walter Tschinkel is extremely interested in developing techniques for rearing a wide variety of Tenebrionidae (see Research Note elsewhere in this issue). Mr. Tschinkel informs me that according to Dr. Eisner, Eleodes can be kept on bran for as long as six or seven years in the laboratory (if supplied with water). During this time they produce numerous progeny, but they fail to reach the adult stage. Whether the present diet will prove to be more suitable so Eleodes will undergo metamorphosis remains to be seen.