# Aspects of systematics, morphology, life history and feeding of western Atlantic sciaenidae (pisces: perciformes) 

Labbish Ning. Chao<br>College of William and Mary - Virginia Institute of Marine Science

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# ASPECTS OF SYSTEMATICS, MORPHOLOGY, LIFE HISTORY AND FEEDING OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE (PISCES:PERCIFORMES) 

## A Dissertation

Presented to The Faculty of the School of Marine Science The College of William and Mary in Virginia

## In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
by
Labbish Ning Chao
1976

## APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy


Approved, May 1976


Bruce B. Collette, Systematics
Laboratory, NMFS, Washington, D. C.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ..... v
ABSTRACTS: ..... viii
PART I. A BASIS FOR CLASSIFYING WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE ..... 1(PISCES: PERCIFORMES)
LIST OF TABLES. ..... 2
LIST OF FIGURES ..... 3
INTRODUCTION. ..... 6
MATERIALS ..... 8
METHODS ..... 10
A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE ..... 12
DESCRIPTION AND RELATIONSHIPS ..... 17
I. RELATIONSHIPS BASED ON THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE SWIMBLADDER. ..... 18
II. RELATIONSHIPS BASED ON THE MORPHOLOGY OF THE OTOLITHS ..... 27
III. RELATIONSHIPS BASED ON EXTERNAL MORPHOLOGY. ..... 38
A SYNOPSIS OF THE SUPRA-GENERIC GROUPS, GENERA AND SPECIES OF ..... 48 WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE
I. DIAGNOSIS AND PRIMARY SYNONYMY OF THE SUPRA-GENERIC GROUPS, ..... 48GENERA AND SPECIES.
II. PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONSHIPS OF THE SUPRA-GENERIC GROUPS AND GENERA. ..... 98
FIELD KEY TO THE GENERA AND SPECIES OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE. ..... 108
LITERATURE CITED. ..... 129Page
‘PART II. LIFE HISTORY, FEEDING HABITS AND FUNCTIONAL MORPHOLOGYOF JUVENILE SCIAENID FISHES IN THE YORK RIVER ESTUARY,VIRGINIA. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
LIST OF TABLES. ..... 184
LIST OF FIGURES ..... 186
INTRODUCTION. ..... 188
MATERIALS AND METHODS ..... 190
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS ..... 193
I. HYDROGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION ..... 193
II. TEMPORAL AND SPATIAL DISTRIBUTIONS ..... 195
III. LENGTH FREQUENCIES AND DISTRIBUTIONS ..... 198
IV. FEEDING MECHANISMS. ..... 210
V. FOOD SPECIALIZATION ..... 221
VI. CORRELATION OF FEEDING STRUCTURES AND FOOD HABITS ..... 227
LITERATURE CITED. ..... 235
APPENDIX. ..... 301
VITA. ..... 342

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valuable comments on the otolith section. E. Trewavase (BMNH) offered advice in all stages of this study. John Wintersteen kindly offered his unpublished information on the genus Stellifer.

My greatest appreciation goes to Sara and Bruce Collette; they made me one of their family.


#### Abstract

Part I. A Basis for Classifying Western Atlantic Sciaenidae (Pisces; Perciformes)


The sciaenids of the western Atlantic consist of 21 genera and 56 species placed in 11 supra-generic groups. They are the Cynoscion, Larimus, Lonchiurus, Menticirrhus, Micropogonias, Nebris, Pogonias, Sciaena, Sciaenops, Stellifer and Umbrina groups. The phylogenetic relationships of all western Atlantic genere are assessed on the basis of swimbladder, otolith (sagitta and lapilius) and external morphology. The Stellifer group differs from all other western Atlantic sciaenids by having a two-chambered swimbladder and an enlarged lapillus. Phylogenetic and ontogenetic trends of the swimbladder is proposed as from simple carrot-shaped to a more complicated structure with anterior diverticula and horns, to a very complicated lateral diverticula system. The sagitta usually is oval or elongated in shape. The thickness and the impression of the sulcus on the inner surface of the inner surface of the sagitta are diagnostic among genera. External morphology, especially related to the feeding habits, habitat, or both are adaptive, but a trend is evident that the closely related genera often have similar body shape, mouth position and other external features. The species of the genus Stellifer are unique by having many diverse mouth positions or feeding habits. The synopsis section of the paper includes a diagnosis, a primary synonymy and types of nominal species for each taxonomic category. Four genera and 23 nominal species of New World freshwater sciaenids are also Included. A tested field key to species and genera of all western Atlantic sciaenids is included. The range of distribution and some meristic counts are listed under each species. This paper serves as a basis for further revision of western Atlantic sciaenids.


#### Abstract

ABSTRACI Part II. Life history, feeding habits and functional morphology of juvenile sciaenid fishes in the York River estuary, Virginia.

Four abundant sciaenid fishes, Cynoscion regalis, Bairdiella chrysoura, Micropogonias undulatus and Leiostomus xanthurus use the York River, Virginia as a nursery ground and as an adult seasonal feeding ground. In addition, six species of sciaenids, Menticirrhus saxatilis, M. americanus, Sciaenops ocellata, Cynoscion nebulosus, Pogonias cromis and Larimus fasciatus are present in the estuary occasionally. Yearling C. regalis were first caught in April and young of the year in July or August. Yearling B. chrysoura were first caught in March or April and young of the year in July or August. Juvenile M. undulatus and L. xanthurus may be present in the York River all year round. Young of the year $L$. xanthurus were first caught in April and M. undulatus were first caught in August. Small M. undulatus (15 to 20 mm TL) were caught from August to June, which may indicate a prolonged spawning season or a late spawning stock. Emigration to the ocean was found in all the four species during late fall or early winter. The relative abundance (catch per unit effort) of these four species indicated that water temperature and dissolved oxygen seemed to be the most important factors in the spatial and temporal distributions of these four species in the York River.

Six sciaenid species, Larimus fasciatus, Cynoscion regalis, Bairdiella chrysoura, Micropogonias undulatus, Menticirrhus saxatilis and Leiostomus xanthurus were examined for their food habits and functional morphology of feeding apparatus. The mouth position, dentition, gill rakers, digestive tract, pores and barbels, nares and body shape were found to be important for these sciaenids in locating and ingesting prey in the water column. Stomach contents indicated that the food partitioning of these six species was closely correlated with the habitat where each species was adapted to feed in. Leiostomus fasciatus, Cynoscion regalis, and Bairdiella chrysoura fed mainly above the bottom, whereas $M$. undulatus, M. saxatilis and $L$. xanthurus fed on epifauna, infauna or both.

Juvenile sciaenids are able to coexist in the same area because of differences in spatial and temporal distribution, relative abundance and food habits.


PART I

## A BASIS FOR CLASSITYING WESTERN

## ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE (PISCES:PERCIFORMES)

## LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1. Summary of morphological characters of the supra- generic groups of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. . . . . . 142

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1. Terminology of pore system on head of western Atlantic sciaenids ..... 143
2. Terminology of otoliths ..... 144
3. The inner ears of sciaenids ..... 145
4. Phylogenetic relationships of genera and supra-generic groups of western Atlantic Sciaenidae ..... 146
5. Swimbladders of the Sciaena pattern ..... 147
6. Swimbladders of two species of Pachyurus. ..... 148
7. Swimbladders of Menticirrhus saxatilus (x2) ..... 149
8. Development of swimbladder in Nebris microps. ..... 150
9. Variation and development of swimbladders of the Micropogonias (x1) ..... 151
10. Ontogenetic development of swimbladders in Pogonias cromis ..... 152
11. Ontogenetic development of swimbladder in Sciaenops ocellata. ..... 153
12. Swimbladders of the Cynoscion pattern ..... 154
13. Variation of the swimbladders in the genus Cynoscion. ..... 155
14. Relative size and development of swimbladders in the Lonchiurus pattern (x2) ..... 156
15. Swimbladders of the Stellifer pattern ..... 157
16. Variation of the swimbladder diverticula in the genus Stellifer ..... 158
17. Phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by swimbladder patterns ..... 159
18. Inner surface (capital.Ietters) and lateral view (lower case letters) of sagittae of the Sciaena pattern ..... 160
19. Sagittae of the Pogonias pattern ..... 161
20. Sagitta of the Larimus pattern. ..... 162
21. Sagitta in Nebris microps ..... 163
22. Sagittae of the Cynoscion and the Menticirrhus patterns ..... 164
23. Specific and ontogenetic variations of sagittae in species of Cynoscion. ..... 165
24. Sagittae of the Lonchiurus pattern ..... 166
25. Sagittae of the Isopisthus and the Macrodon pattern ..... 167
26. Ontogenetic variations of the sagittae of the Micropogonias ..... 168
27. Inner surface of right sagittae and lapilli of the Stellifer pattern ..... 169
28. Inner surface of right sagittae and lapilli in species of Stellifer. ..... 170
29. Phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by otolith patterns ..... 171
30. Phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by external morphology. ..... 172
31. Snout pore patterns (diagramatic) of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. ..... 173
32. Mental pore and barbel patterns (diagramatic) on the lower jaw of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. ..... 174
33. Variation in snout pores with five or more marginal pores. ..... 175
34. Variation in mental pore arrangements on the lower jaw. ..... 176
35. Western Atlantic Sciaenidae with one mental barbel on the lower jaw ..... 177
36. Variation in mental pore patterns on the lower jaw in the species of Stellifer. ..... 178
Figure ..... Page
37. Four typical mouth positions and dentitions of western Atlantic Sciaenidade. ..... 179
38. Three levels of mouth position in the species of Stellifer. ..... 180
39. Dorsal view (diagramatic) of the head of the Stellifer group. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ..... 181
40. Portions of lateral line scales of plagioscion surinamensis ..... 182

## INTRODUCTION

Sciaenid fishes are characterized by their large otoliths and, with few exceptions, by the large vacuous lateral line pores on the snout and lower jaw, and by the extension of the lateral line to the tip of the caudal fin. They are also characterized by a large and often complex swimbladder and by the presence of well-developed drumming muscles. This paper treats 21 genera and 56 species of Sciaenidae in the western Atlantic Ocean. There are also four genera and 23 nominal species of sciaenid fishes present in freshwater river systems of the New World.

Current concepts of sciaenid classification are largely based on the morphology of swimbladder, otoliths (sagitta and lapillus), snout (rostral) and mental (mandibular) pores and/or barbels (Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963; Trewavas 1962, 1964; Robins and Tabb, 1965; Gilbert, 1966; Mohan, 1969; and Chao and Miller, 1975). Other characters, such as the position of the mouth, dentition, body form, size of the second anal spine, marginal serration of the preopercle, arrangement of lateral line scales, color of peritoneal lining, and numbers of gill rakers, fin ray counts and vertebrae are important in distinguishing species, and have been used by many authors (see section "A brief history of the study of western Atlantic Sciaenidae") to assign species to genera or to assess the generic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. However, the generic boundaries have not been well-defined and many nomenclatural problems prevail.

The purpose of this paper is to clarify the generic boundaries, to define supra-generic groups, and to describe the evolutionary trends of western Atlantic Sciaenidae primarily on the basis of the morphology of the swimbladder, otolith and snout and mental pore and/or barbel systems.

To classify the taxa above the generic level, the term suprageneric group is used here. Different attempts have been made to group sciaenid genera. Trewavas (1962) grouped eastern Atlantic sciaenids Into tribes. Chu, Lo and $W u$ (1963) grouped sciaenids of the Chinese coasts into subfamilies. Mohan (1969) grouped Indian sciaenids into both subfamilies and tribes. The supra-generic groups used here are comparable to the tribes of Trewavas (1962) and the subfamilies of Chu, Lo and Wu (1963), and avoid the taxonomic problems inherent in utilizing formal taxonomic categories. Like those studies, the present assessment is also a regional study. Variations in swimbladder, otolith, and external morphology are found at different taxonomic levels. Therefore, a comparative study of sciaenids from several geographic regions, especially the eastern Pacific area, is necessary before allocating the western Atlantic sciaenid genera to formal taxonomic categories (tribes or subfamilies).

## MATERIALS

Type material and other preserved specimens were examined from the following institutions:

```
AMNH - American Museum of Natural History, New York, New York.
ANSP - Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, Pennsylvanla.
BMNH - British Museum (Natural History), London, England.
CAS - California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco, California.
FMNH - Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, Illinois.
LACM - Los Angeles County Museum of Natural History, Los Angeles, California.
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MCZ - Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

MNHN - Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France.
NHMV - Naturhistorisches Museum, Vienna, Austria.

NMFS - National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA, J.S.A.
RMNH - Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie, Leiden, Netherland.

USNM - United States National Museum, Washington, D. C.

VIMS - Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Gloucester Point, Virginia.
ZMA - Institute voor Taxonomische Zoologie, Universiteit van Amsterdam, Amsterdam, Netherland.

ZMK - Zoological Museum, Copenhagen, Denmark.
Freshly frozen and formalin-preserved specimens were also obtained from various biological surveys, along the Atlantic Seaboard
of the U. S. These surveys were conducted by the Virginia Institute of Marine Science on various research vessels, by NMFS, Woods Hole, on R/V Albatross IV and Sandy Hook, on R/V Atlantic Twin, and by National Science Foundation's R/V Eastward, Beaufort. Specimens examined from Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic coast of South America were collected mainly by NMFS research vessels, the M/V Oregon $I$ and Oregon II from 1962 to 1975. Type-specimens examined are indicated under the synonymy of each species. Numerous additional specimens have been studied, most of which are deposited at VIMS and USNM.

## METHODS

The comparative morphology of swimbladder, otolith and pore systems were examined. Other characters important in the recognition of spectes and genera were the arrangement and size of lateral line scales, serrations of the preopercular margin, size of the second anal fin spines, color of the branchial chamber and peritoneal linings, meristics and morphometrics. The standard methods of Hubbs and Lagler (1958) were used for all counts and measurements except for some modifications described by Chao and Miller (1975). In addition, scales perforated by lateral line tubes or pores were counted as lateral line scales from the upper end of the gill slit to the end of the hypural plate. On those species lacking well-defined lateral line tubules or pores, counts were made on the scale series immediately above the lateral line. Vertebral counts were determined from radiographs and from cleared and stained specimens (Taylor, 1967). The.first caudal vertebra was identified by the absence of pleural ribs on the haemal process and usually by a short haemal spine just behind the elongated proximal pterygiophore of the anal fin.

Otoliths of most species were extracted from freshly caught specimens but some came from preserved specimens. The inner surface of the right sagitta and lapillus (in the Stellifer group) were illustrated. Ontogenetic changes of otoliths and swimbladder were studied in some species.

## METHODS

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All available type-specimens were examined to assure the true identities of species and genera of sciaenids studied in this paper. A primary synonymy is listed for each species to clarify nomenclatural problems.

Morphological terminology used here follows Chu, Lo and Wu (1963), Trewavas (1962, 1964) and Chao and Miller (1975). A modification of the terms used for the snout pores was suggested by Dr. E. Trewavas of BMNH, and for otoliths by Mr. J. Fitch of the California Department of Fish and Game. Snout pores along the margin of the rostral fold are termed marginal (snout) pores and pores in front or above them are termed upper (snout) pores (Fig. 1). The surface of the sagitta, with a "tadpole-shaped" sulcus is the inner surface and the obverse side is the outer surface (Fig. 2) because of the in situ position of the sagitta (Fig. 3). Also, the lateral margins of the sagitta are termed dorsal and ventral margins (Frizzell and Dante, 1965). The "head section" of the sulcus is called the "ostium" and the "tail section" is called the "cauda" (Stinton, 1975 and J. Fitch, personal communication).

# A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE STUDY OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE 

Prior to the binominal system of Linnaeus, Catesby in his 1743 edition of "The natural history of Carolina, Florida and the Bahama Islands", illustrated "Perca marina" (= Micropogonias undulatus), the croker (plate 3), from Chesapeake Bay and "Alburnus Americanus" (= Menticirrhus americanus), the whiting (plate 12), from Charleston, South Carolina. Edwards (1751) in the appendix of "A Natural history of birds" illustrated (plate 210) a "Ribband Fish" (= Eques lanceolatus) from the Carıbbean Islands. Linnaeus (1758) in his tenth edition of "Systema naturae", Pisces Thoracici, recorded the genus Sciaena with five species, none of them from the western Atlantic. However, two species of western Atlantic Sciaenidae were named as Chaetodon lanceolata (= Equetus lanceolatus) based on Edwards' plate and Cyprinus americanus (= Menticirrhus americanus) from "the whiting" of Catësby. In the 12th edition of "Systema naturae", 1766, Linnaeus added Labrus chromis (= Pogonias cromis), Perca alburnus (a Menticirrhus americanus), Perca punctata (= Bairdiella chrysoura), Perca ocellata (= Sciaenops ocellata) and Perca undulata (= Micropogonias undulatus), although he did not place them with the Sciaenidae of Europe.

Bloch and Schneider (1801) in their "Systema ichthyologiae" reported six genera and nine species of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. They were Johnius regalis (= Cynoscion regalis), J. saxatilis (= Menticirrhus saxatilis), Sciaena chromis (= Pogonias cromis),
(= Pogonias cromis), Lonchurus depressus (= Lonchiurus lanceolatus), Lonchurus ancylodon (= Macrodon ancylodon), Eques americanus (= Equetus lanceolatus), Eques punctatus, Grammistes accuminatus (= Pareques acuminatus) and Bodianus stellifer ( $=$ Stellifer stellifer). A year later (1802) Lacépède in volume three of "Historie Naturelle des Poissons" recorded Dipterodon chrysourus (= Bairdiella chrysoura), Pogonias fasciatus (= P. cromis) and Cheilodipterus acoupa (= Cynoscion acoupa) and in volume four (1803) he added Lutjanus cayennensis (= Cynoscion acoupa), Lutjanus triangulum (= Sciaenops ocellata), Centropomus alburnus (= Menticirrhus americanus), Sciaena croaker (= Micropogonias undulatus) and Leiostomus xanthurus of the western Atlantic and also a fresh water sciaenid Perca furcroi (= Pachypops fourcroi) from Surinam.

The boundaries of the species, genera and family Sciaenidae were not well-defined, until Cuvier. In the first edition of "Regnè Animal" (1817) Cuvier defined limits to the application of some generic names (e.g. Umbrina and Sciaena). Also four new genera of western Atlantic Sciaenidae were described: scientific names Stellifer, Umbrina, Otolithes and Ancylodon were derived from Cuvier's vernacular names by Oken (Isis, 1817). In the second edition, Cuvier (1829) added a new generic name Corvina. Cuvier and Valenciennes (1830) in volume five of "Histoire Naturelle des Poissons", described seven genera and 21 species of western Atlantic sciaenids. There were four new genera, i.e., Larimus, Nebris, Lepipterus and Micropogon and five freshwater nominal species, Corvina oscula ( $=$ Aplodinotus grunniens), C. furcroea (= Pachypops fourcroi) and Lepipterus francisci (= Pachyrus francisci) were included. They also described and illustrated the swimbladders of
six western Atlantic sciaenid fishes. Günther (1960) recorded 12 genera and 45 species of Sciaenidae from the western Atlantic including three genera and nine species from freshwater. He used the shape of the swimbladder as one of the diagnostic characters in some of his generic descriptions. Jordan and Eigenmann (1889) listed 22 genera and 60 species, including four genera and 11 species of freshwater sciaenids. Jordan and Everman (1895) included only 21 genera and 50 species of Sciaenidae from the Atlantic in the "Fishes of North and Middle America" including three genera and five species from freshwater. The studies of Desmarest (1823), Agassiz (1829), Castlenau (1855), Steindachner (1863), Bleeker (1865 \& 1873), Poey (1881), Berg (1895) and more recently of Miranda Ribeiro (1915), Meek and Hildebrand (1925), Ginsburg (1929), Fowler (1941\& 1954), Schultz (1945\& 1949), Travassos and Paiva (1957), Cervigon (1966a \& 1973), Vazzoler (1969), Travassos and Rego-Barros (1971), Roux (1973) and Jardim (1973) have contributed to the knowledge of taxonomy and distribution of western Atlantic sciaenids in different geographic regions. At present, 21 genera and 56 species of sciaenids are recognized from the western Atlantic. In addition, there is one monotypic genus (Aplodinotus) recognized from the freshwaters of North America, and three genera (Pachypops, Plarioscion and Pachyurus) from the freshwaters of South America.

Few studies have been made on the relationships of genera, and higher divisions of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. Gill (1861 a,b,c \& d) revised the genera and named six subfamilies for North American sciaenids, i.e. Corvininae, Haploidonotinae, Lariminae, Liostominae,

Otolithinae and Sciaeninae. Later, only five subfamilies of Sciaenidae were listed, the Corvininae was not mentioned (Gill, 1863a \& 1873). Genera and subfamilies were defined by external characters and the boundaries between them were not clear. Bleeker (1876) in part two of "Systema Percarum Revisum" names two phalanxes (= tribes), the Sciaenini and Hemisciaenini for the familiar "Sciaenoidei". He also described three subphalanxes (= subtribes) in the Sciaenini, i,e. Equili, Aplodinoti and Johnii, and two subphalanxes in the Hemisciaenini, i.e. Pseudosciaeni and Otolithi. The western Atlantic sciaenid genera were described under each subphalanx. The diagnostic characters for each taxon were determined from the external morphology, e.g. mouth position, dentition, scales and fin rays.

Jordan and Eigenmann (1889) and Jordan and Evermann (1895) divided the Sciaenidae into two subfamilies, the Otolithinae and Sciaeninae, based on the number of precaudal and caudal vertebrae, lower jaw position, dentition, and size of the second anal spines. In the present study, I did not find these characters useful above the generic level. The first comprehensive studies on the species and generic relationships of sciaenids were published by Trewavas (1962) for tropical west African sciaenids and Chu, Lo and Wu (1963) for Chinese sciaenids. Trewavas (1962) grouped the nine west African sciaenid species into five tribes, based mainly on swimbladder structure; and the diagnostic characters of each tribe were clearly defined. Chu, Lo and Wu (1963) grouped 37 species of Chinese sciaenid fishes into seven subfamilies based on both swimbladder and otolith structure. Relationships among genera and subfamilies were also
clearly defined. Because the authors lacked access to type material, the true identity of a few species may be in doubt. Trewavas (1964) discussed the relationships of sciaenid fishes with a single mental barbel. She used the number of barbels and the structure of the swimbladder to assess the relationships of some barbeled sciaenid genera of the New World and suggested possible links of certain genera with 01d World sciaenids. Similarly, Mohan (1969) used morphology of the swimbladders and otoliths as diagnostic characters to define each of the 14 genera of Indian Sciaenidae. Although Mohan (1969) placed 14 genera in five subfamilies and recognized two tribes in each of two subfamilies, the restrictions of some subfamilies and tribes remained unclear.

## DESCRIPTION AND RELATIONSHIPS

The morphology of the swimbladders, otoliths, snout and mental pores and barbels are diagnostic in the classification of sciaenid fishes. Within each of the characters, there are several structural patterns which may reflect phyletic relationships among groups of genera. The variations within each pattern are important in understanding the boundaries of different taxa. At the species level, the ontogenetic development of certain characters may suggest possible trends in phylogenetic relationships in higher taxa of the family. The presence of drumming muscles in males or in both males and females of certain taxa is also useful in assessing the relationships of sciaenids. Other characters essential for the study of relationships at the genus and species level but not at the family level are described in the key (see section "Field key to the genera and species of western Atlantic Sciaenidae").

Based on swimbladder, otoliths and external morphology of all western Atlantic sciaenid fishes, phyletic relationships are proposed here for 21 marine and two freshwater genera (Fig. 4). The relationships among the supra-generic groups were determined primarily by swimbladder morphology and secondarlly by the morphology of the otoliths. External morphology was of some use as long as the adaptive and potentially convergent nature of these characters was kept in mind. By following the tactics used by Bolin (1947) for
the marine Cottidae of California, the actual or "convenient" classification level for tribes may be drawn as between dotted lines $C$ and $D$ on Figure 4. The subfamily level may be drawn between lines $A$ and $B$.
I. Relationships Based on the Morphology of the Swimbladders.

Sciaenld fishes have a physoclistous swimbladder with a single or two inter-connected chambers. The usually well-developed swimbladder is attached very firmly to the ventral surface of the third to sixth vertebrae, under the post cardinal vein. The associated swimbladder (drumming) muscles usually present in males, are extrinsic except in Pogonias, in which they are intrinsic. The drumming muscles are composed of red striated fibres with abundant cytoplasm and conspicuous nuclei (Tower, 1908; Jones and Marshall, 1953). Tower (1908) also concluded that contractions of the druming muscle set up vibrations in the bladder walls, thus producing sounds. Sound production in sciaenid fishes may function as recognition signals associated with spawning, feeding and aggressive behavior (Dijkgraaf, 1947; Knudsen, et. al. 1948; Johnson, 1948, Jones and Marshall, 1953; Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963). The sounds produced by different species of sciaenids also have different ranges of frequencies (Knudsen, et. al. 1948; Fish and Mowbray, 1970). This may result from the different morphology of swimbladders in different sciaenids. Comparison of sciaenid swimbladders in the present study is confined to external morphology and in situ position within the fish.

1. The morphological patterns of swimbladders.

All western Atlantic sciaenids have well-developed swimbladders except the genera Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus. The swimbladders in Menticirrhus atrophy during the juvenile stage. Only a vestige remains In adults. In adult Lonchiurus, the relative size of the swimbladder is much reduced. Based on swimbladders, western Atlantic sciaenids can be divided into two groups. One group has a single chambered swimbladder (Figs. 5 to 14) and the other has a two chambered swimbladder (Figs. 15 \& 16). A total of eight distinct structural patterns of swimbladders are recognized here.
A. The group with a single chambered swimbladder.

1) Sciaena pattern:

A simple carrot-shaped swimbladder without well-developed anterior horns or diverticula (Fig. 5), its anterior end slightly in front of septum transversum and never reaching the skull. Swimbladders of nine genera have this pattern: Aplodinotus, Ctenosciaena, Equetus, Larimus, Leiostomus, Menticirrhus, Pareques, Sciaena and Umbrina. Although the swimbladder of Larimus breviceps has an additional pair of anterior projections (Fig. 5,F), L. fasciatus (Fig. 5,E) lacks the projections. Thus, Larimus should be included in this category. Pachyurus schomburgkii has a simple swimbladder and differs from Pachyurus bonariensis (Fig. 6). The generic status of Pachyurus is discussed in the synopsis section.

The swimbladder of Menticirrhus degenerates or atrophies in the adult. M. saxatilis has a well-developed simple bottle-shaped swimbladder in young specimens up to $90-100 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL (Fig. 7,A\&B), but
only a trace of the swimbladder remains in the adult (Fig. $7, C \& D$ ). Bearden (1963) reported the length and condition of the swimbladders of 420 M . americanus. His results showed a gradual atrophy of the swimbladder from specimens of 56 to 60 mm SL ( $5.6 \%$ atrophied) to specimens of 125 to 130 mm SL ( $100 \%$ atrophied) in $M$. americanus. During this study, 28 specimens of $M$. littoralis were examined from 50 to 108 mm SL. Five specimens 71.1 to 108 mm SL had completely atrophied swimbladders and the rest had only a trace of the swimbladder less than 7 mm in length. M. americanus and $M$. littoralis have their atrophied swimbladder even in juvenile specimen. The juvenile swimbladder of the genus Menticirrhus may also be included in the Sciaena pattern.
2) Nebris pattern:

The swimbladder has a pair of broad diverticula which originate on the anterio-lateral margin of the main chamber, extend posterior and loop anteriorly near the posterior end of the main chamber (Fig. 8). The diverticula are tapered and terminate anteriorly at the septum transversum. Nebris is the only genus with this pattern of swimbladder.

## 3) Micropogonias pattern:

The swimbladder of Micropogonias has a pair of tube-1ike diverticula which originate from the posterior half of the main chamber laterally (Fig. 9). The diverticula extend anteriorly to the septum transversum, but never reach the skull, then curve posteriorly to the anterior border of the swimbladder medially. Micropogonias is the only genus with this pattern of swimbladder.

## 4) Pogonias pattern:

A very complex lateral system of diverticula (Fig. 10) characterize the swimbladder of Pogonias, the only genus possessing this pattern. A.study of the ontogenetic development of this swimbladder pattern (Fig. 10) may reveal the developmental pathway of other swimbladder patterns.

## 5) Sciaenops pattern:

The swimbladder of Sciaenops has a pair of tube-like anterior diverticula (Fig. 11,A). In large specimens, the complicated lateral diverticula and a pair of sac-like projections are found dorso-laterally at the anterior portion (Fig. $11, B \& C$ ). These diverticula are constructed of numerous small labyrinthine chambers (Fig. 11,c). Sometimes the lateral diverticula are completely covered with fat tissue (Fig. 11,B). A pair of holes is also present dorso-laterally on the body wall, between the third and fourth pleural ribs, to receive the dorsal projections of the swimbladder. Sciaenops is the only genus with this pattern of swimbladder.

## 6) Cynoscion pattern:

A pair of prominent horns develops anteriorly from the simple carrot-shaped swimbladder without lateral diverticula (Fig. 12); the well-developed anterior horns sometimes reaching to the back of the skull. Four genera have this pattern: Cynoscion, Isopisthus, Macrodon, and plagioscion. Variations among genera and species (Figs. $12 \& 13$ ) with this pattern of swimbladder are limited to the
extension of the horns, whether they are broad or narrow, straight or curved. These genera, except the freshwater Plagioscion, have similar external features, such as an oblique terminal mouth, canine-like dentition, and similar habitats. They form a distinct group among western Atlantic sciaenids.

## 7) Lonchiurus pattern:

The swimbladder has a pair of forked anterior horns, each with a long posteriorly directed branch and a short branch directed anteriorly (Fig. 14). Lonchiurus, Paralonchurus and Pachypops fourcroi have this pattern. The anterior horns of swimbladders in Lonchiurus and Paralonchurus are rather stout and short (Fig. 14, A to C). They are thinner and longer in Pachypops fourcroi (Fig. 14,D), pierce the septum transversum and curve under the base of the skull. The relative size of the swimbladder in Lonchiurus is much reduced (Fig. 14,A, $A^{\prime} \& A^{\prime \prime}$ ).
B. The group with a two chambered swimbladder.
8) Stellifer pattern:

The swimbladder is divided into two chambers by an anterior constriction. The anterior chamber reaches to the skull, is yoke-shaped and the posterior chamber is carrot-shaped (Fig. 15). Bairdiella, Odontoscion, Ophioscion, and Stellifer have this pattern. A pair of diverticula is present on the anterior chamber posterolaterally in Stellifer (Figs. 15, B \& 16). These genera usually have two pairs of enlarged otoliths (Fig. 2,A\&B, also see otolith section), a rather strong second anal spine and are relatively small in size.

2, Phylogenetic relationships based on swimbladder patterns.

Western Atlantic sciaenids can be separated into two distinctive groups (Fig. 17), based on the number of the chambers of the swimbladder. The Stellifer group differs from all other Sciaenidae by having two chambers (Fig. 15). Single chambered swimbladders are generally carrot-shaped with or without lateral diverticula except for the Cynoscion and Lonchiurus patterns (Figs. 5 to 14). In the Cynoscion pattern, the well-developed anterior horns are unique (Fig. 12). The Lonchiurus pattern also develops a pair of posterior diverticula from the base of the anterior horns (Fig. 14).

The genus Menticirrhus has only a vestige of the swimbladder in adults (Fig. 7). This trend of swimbladder reduction is also found in fishes with the Lonchiurus pattern swimbladders. There is a gradual reduction in size of the swimbladder from Paralonchurus braciliensis, to $P$. elegans, then to Lonchiurus lanceolatus (Fig. 14), the latter apparently lacking a functional swimbladder. The gradual ontogenetic reduction in the relative size of swimbladders in the species of Menticirrhus and in $L$. lanceolatus may indicate close relationships among these fishes.

Further divisions of this character (Fig. 17) rely on the complexity of the swimbladders. Sciaena pattern is a simple carrotshaped swimbladder without well-developed diverticula (Fig. 5). Although Larimus breviceps has a pair of small anterior projections (Fig. 5,F), this appears to be a variation within the Sciaena pattern. The swimbladder pattern with well-developed diverticula can also be divided into two groups (or more) by the complexity of their lateral diverticula (Fig. 17). Nebris and Micropogonias have only a pair of
tube-1ike diverticula. The diverticula in Nebris originate from the antero-lateral margin of the main chamber (Fig. 8). In Micropogonias, the paired tube-like diverticula originate from the posterior half of the main chamber (Fig. 9). Another pattern of a rather simple diverticulated swimbladder is found in Pachyurus bonariensis (Fig. 6,A). It has a pair of anterior tube-like diverticula directed posteriorly.

Sciaenops and Pogonias have much more complicated lateral diverticula in adults. Sciaenops has a simple short pair of diverticula in young specimens (Fig. 11, A) and the "sac-like" profections located dorso-laterally develop in larger specimens (Fig. 11, C). The complicated diverticula on the swimbladder of Pogonias also develop ontogenetically (Fig. 10). The ontogenetic development of the swimbladder in Pogonias indicates that the diverticula were developed from the simple swimbladder from anterior to posterior portions of the main chamber. This evidence may also reflect the phylogenetic development of the swimbladder in the Sciaenidae.

## Specific characters.

There are variations of swimbladder morphology within the general patterns. In the Stellifer pattern, the species of Stellifer have a pair of "bulb-like" or "tube-like" diverticula at the posteriolateral margins of the anterior chamber (Figs. 15 \& 16). Slight variations are also found in species such as $S$. griseus and s. microps (Fig. 16, B \& C). Bairdiella, Odontoscion, and Ophioscion lack diverticula on the anterior chamber of the swimbladder (Fig. 15,A). The anterior horns in the Stellifer pattern terminate near the articulation between the opercular and hyomandibular bones (J.

Wintersteen, personal communication). In Bairdiella and odontoscion, these horns curve forward abruptly and their tips end just behind the adductor operculi muscle and medially to the dialator and levator operculi. In Ophioscion and Stellifer, the anterior horns of the swimbladder diverge more laterally and their tips end subcutaneously, and are frequently visible on superficial inspection.

In the Cynoscion pattern, variations of the anterior horn morphology was found among different genera (Fig. 12), species and also ontogenetically within species (Fig. 13). There is little variation among the swimbladder morphology of the Sciaena pattern (Fig. 5). The anterior projections are present in Larimus breviceps and absent in $L$. fasciatus, indicating the possible extent of variation of swimbladder morphology within a genus and/or a pattern.

Although swimbladder morphology has been viewed as basic to the scheme of sciaenid classification (Trewavas, 1962; Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963; Mohan, 1969), features of some defined swimbladder patterns may vary widely. In setting generic limits, onotgenetic variations and intraspecific variation in certain species (not with growth) are important. Assessing the phyletic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae is limited when complex swimbladders are involved. The criterion of simplicity or complexity is difficult among some taxa, but the evidence does indicate the trend of swimbladder development, i.e., from simple to complex with the diverticula probably evolving from the anterior portion towards the posterior portion of the main swimbladder chambers.

The drumming muscle is also useful in assessing relationships within sciaenid fishes. The development of the drumming muscles seems
to be correlated with the size of swimbladders and the sound producing function in some western Atlantic sciaenids. Generally, the drumming muscles are present in male sciaenid fishes with a well-developed swimbladder. . In fishes with the Lonchiurus pattern swimbladder (Fig. 14), the druming muscles are well-developed in amles of Paralonchurus butiabsent in Lonchiurus, which is correlated with the size (or function) of the swimbladder. Menticirrhus has only a vestigial swimbladder and lacks drumming muscles. Druming muscles are present in both male and female Micropogonias. Pogonias has a unique drumming muscle among western Atlantic sciaenids, located intrinsically on the complicated swimbladder in both sexes (Fig. 10). The drumming muscles of male Cynoscion regalis are only well-developed during the spawning season, and regress after spawning (J. Merriner, personal communication).

Possible relationships of western Atlantic sciaenids to sciaenids of other geographic areas may be revealed by the swimbladder shapes. Trewavas (1964) suggested a possible link of Pachypops and Polyclemus ( = Paralonchurus), the Lonchiurus pattern swimbladder, with the tropical West African tribe Pseudotolithini. And the swimbladder of Atractoscion aequidens (Cynoscionini of Trewavas) agrees with the Cynoscion pattern of the present study. The diverticula on the swimbladder of Pachyurus bonariensis (Fig. 6,A) is also similar to that of Bahaba flavolabiata of the Indo-West Pacific (Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963). The complex swimbladder of the Pogonias and Sciaenops patterns resemble those of many Indo-Pacific (Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963; Mohan, 1969) and some East Pacific sciaenids (e.g. Roncardor stearnsii). Their relationships are not known at present.
II. Relationships Based on the Morphology of the Otoliths.

The inner ear of sciaenids consists of three semicircular canals and a large sacculus, wherein the sagitta is contained (Fig. 3). The utriculus is an expanded area of the anterior semicircular canal containing the lapillus near the junction with the horizontal semicircular canal. This section is greatly expanded in fishes with a large lapillus (Fig. 3,B \& $B^{\prime}$ ). Posteriorly, the lagena is a small sac, located postero-dorsally to the sacculus, where the asteriscus is contained (Parker, 1908; and Chu, Lo and $W u$, 1963). The relative size of the three otoliths, particularly the sagitta in all and lapillus in some sciaenids, are larger than in most Perciformes. The discussion here is based on the general morphology of the sagitta and the lapillus. The sagitta lies obliquely in the sacculus with the smooth surface inside (medially) and is oriented ventro-laterally in situ (Fig. 3). The lapillus is enclosed in the utriculus obliquely, with the smooth surface inside and is oriented laterally (Fig. 3,B \& $B^{\prime}$ ).

1. The morphological patterns of otoliths.

The sagitta of Sciaenidae is characterized by having a distinct "tadpole-shaped" sulcus alwasy on its inner surface (Fig, 2), A marginal groove is usually present between the dorsal margin and the sulcus of the sagitta. The anterior portion of the sulcus usually is expanded into a pear or oval shape and is termed the "ostium". The elongated narrow posterior portion is usually bent obliquely and is termed the "cauda" of the sulcus (Frizzell and Dante, 1965;

Stinton, 1975). The sagitta distinguishes sciaenids from other families in that the ostium is merely outlined and never channeled as in other families, whereas the cauda is always channeled (or scooped out) in the Sciaenidae. The outer surface usually has crest-like or blotch-1ike projections or granulations (Fig. 2, $B^{\prime} \& C^{\prime}$ ). Western Atlantic sciaenids can readily be divided into two groups based on their otoliths: a group with both the lapillus and the sagitta enlarged and a group with only the sagitta enlarged (Fig. 2). Based on the shape, thickness and size of the sagitta and lapilius, and the morphology of the ostium and the cauda of the sulcus, 11 distinct patterns of otoliths are recognized here.
A. The group with only the sagitta enlarged.

1) Sciaena pattern:

The sagitta is more or less oval, usually with a smoothly convex ventral margin and a straight or crenulated dorsal margin (Fig. 18). Laterally the outer surface of the sagitta is usually much thicker in the middle. The ostium of the sulcus is usually broad, pear-shaped and reaches the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is J-shaped with a relatively long and naroow distal end. A marginal groove Is usually present between the sulcus and dorsal margin of the sagitta. Ctenosciaena, Equetus, Leiostomus, Pachyurus, Pareques, Plagioscion, Sciaena and Umbrina have this pattern (Fig. 18). Variations in this sagitta pattern are mainly in the position of the ostium and the length atıd the curvature of the cauda, both of which vary among genera and species. In most species, the ostium is straight or bent ventrally (to the left of Fig. 18). Leiostomus xanthurus (Fig. 18, D) is unique
in having the ostium bent to the dorsal margin and the sagitta slightly elongated and much thinner. Plagioscion surinamensis (Fig. 18,L) has a very long and curved distal end of the cauda. They are included in the Sciaena pattern for the convenience of the present study.
2) Pogonias pattern:

The sagitta is more or less semi-circular in shape with an evenly curved ventral margin and a straight but finely crenulate dorsal margin (Fig. 19). The ostium of the sulcus is broad and does not reach the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is J-shaped with a pointed distal end and does not reach to the margin. The marginal groove is present between the sulcus and the dorsal margin of the sagitta. Pogonias and Aplodinotus have this pattern. The relative size of the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus is larger in Pogonias than in Aplodinotus. The sagitta is more curved laterally in Pogonias than Aplodinotus, but the latter has more granulations on the outer surface (Fig. 19, $B^{\prime} \& b$ ).

## 3) Larimus pattern:

The sagitta is slightly elongate and ovoid with rather straight and slightly crenulate dorsal margin, and convex ventral margin (Fig. 20). The ostium of the sulcus is large, pear-shaped and does not reach the anterior margin of the sagitta. The J-shaped cauda is bent acutely with a pointed distal end. The marginal groove is not distinct. Larimus and Sciaenops have this pattern. The sagitta of Larimus is broader anteriorly than posteriorly (Fig. 20, A \& B), both ends are about equal in Sciaenops (Fig. 20, C \& D). The posterior
portion of the sagitta is laterally very thick in Larimus (Fig. 20, a \& b). Sciaenops has a rather thin sagitta (Fig. 20, c) and the shape of the sulcus is different from Larimus, therefore, a distinct otolith pattern may also be recognized.
4) Nebris pattern:

The sagitta in Nebris is very thick and oval with a notch at the posterior margin (Fig, 21). The ostium of the sulcus is large and ovoid and does not reach the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is sharply bent with a very deeply grooved and enlarged distal portion. The marginal groove is absent. The outer surface of the sagitta is extremely elevated and very thick laterally (Fig. 21, a).

## 5) Cynoscion pattern:

The sagitta is elliptical and thin (Figs. 22, A \& 23), the inner margin usually smoothly convex and the ventral margin slightly concave and finely crenulate. Laterally, the posterior portion of the sagitta is thicker than the anterior portion. The sulcus is usually elongate, the ostium ovoid or pear-shaped (Figs. 22,A \& 24). The anterior end of the ostium may or may not reach the naterior margin of the sagitta. This varies among species and also within species ontogenetically (Fig. 23). The cauda is long and bent with a short distal end (Figs. $22, A \& 23$ ). The outer surface usually has a granular appearance, especially in large adult specimens (Fig. 23,a, b\&c). Cynoscion species have this pattern. Sometimes a notch is present at the middle of the dorsal margin of the sagitta (Fig. 23, G\& C') in species of Cynoscion.
6) Menticirrhus pattern:

The sagitta is elliptical and thin (Fig. 22, $B, B^{\prime} \& b$ ), the dorsal margin usually straight and finely crenulate, and the ventral margin slightly convex. Laterally, the middle portion is the thickest. The sulcus is elongate, the ostium in pear-shaped (Fig. 22,B) and does not reach the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is long and J-shaped. The outer surface usually has crests and granulations. Menticirrhus species have this pattern.

## 7) Lonchiurus pattern:

The sagitta is usually thin and elongate (Fig. 24), the ventral margin usually smoothly convex and the dorsal margin slightly concave or crenulate. Laterally, the posterior portion of the sagitta is thicker than the anterior portion. The sulcus on the inner surface is elongate (Fig. 24). The ostium is pear-shaped and bent toward the ventral margin of the sagitta anteriorly. The cauda is J-shaped with a rather expanded distal end, close or reaching to the ventral posterior margin of the sagitta. The outer surface has granulations (Fig. 24,a, b. \&c). Lonchiurus and Paralonchurus have this pattern. There are two distinctive forms of sulcus on sagittae of this pattern. Lonchiurus lanceolatus and Paralonchurus elegans have a rather narrow ostium of the sulcus (Fig. 24,A\&B). p. brasiliensis has a relatively thicker sagitta and the ostium of the sulcus is broader (Fig. 24,C \& c).

## 8) Isopisthus pattern:

The sagitta is slightily elongate, rather broad and thick (Fig. $\left.25, A, A^{\prime} \& a\right)$. The sulcus is elongate, the ostium is round and
reaches to the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is long and slightly bent at the distal end. The outer surface has crest-like elevations, especially thickened at the posterior half (Fig, 25,a). Isopisthus has this pattern.

## 9) Macrodon pattern:

The sagitta is elongate and thin (Fig. 25,B, B' \& b). The dorsal margin has a deep notch on the posterior half and the ventral margin has a projection in the middle. Laterally, the anterior portion of the sagitta is slightly thicker than the posterior portion. The sulcus is elongate, the ostium is elongate with a broader anterior portion and reaches to the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is rather straight and short with a disc-like distal end (Fig. 25,B). Macrodon has this pattern.
10) Micropogonias pattern:

The sagitta in Micropogonias is very thick and shield-shaped, often with a shelf or flange on the outer surface or on the dorsal margin (Fig. 26). The ostium of the sulcus is large and does not reach the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is oblique and bent only slightly towards the ventral margin with a round disc-like distal end. The sagittal shelf on the outer surface of $M$. furneri and the lateral flange of $M$. undulatus vary ontogenetically (Fig. 26).

Sagittae of Sciaena, Larimus and Nebris patterns are usually oval in shape and very thick in the middle. Pogonias pattern is usually semicircular in shape and thin. Sagittae of the Cynoscion, Menticirrhus, Lonchiurus and Macrodon patterns are usually more
elongate and thin. Isopisthus pattern is elongate and thick in the posterior portion. Sagitta of the Micropogonias pattern is irregular in shape and very thick.
B. The group with both sagitta and lapillus enlarged:
11) Stellifer pattern:

The size of the sagitta is obviously reduced and an enlarged lapillus more than two thirds the size of the sagitta is present (Fig. 27). The ostium of the sulcus lacks its anterior portion and the cauda is well bent in a J-shape reaching almost to the ventral margin of the sagitta. Bairdiella, Odontoscion, Ophioscion and Stellifer have this pattern. There are considerable morphological variations within this otolith pattern (Fig. 27).

Stellifer and Ophioscion have a parallelogram-shaped sagitta and a sub-oval lapillus; both otoliths are about the same size (Fig. 27,A, $\left.A^{\prime}, B \& B^{\prime}\right)$. The ostium of the sulcus is short and reaches to the anterior margin of the sagitta. The cauda is bent obliquely towards the ventral margin of the sagitta. A marginal groove is evident along the dorsal margin of the cauda. The whole sagitta appears to be truncated at the middle of the ostium. The lapillus is large, sometimes larger than the sagitta (e.g., Stellifer, Fig. 28), a deep groove is present at the antero-ventral end of its inner surface with an open end to the dorsal margin (Fig. 28, $\left.A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime} \& D^{\prime}\right)$.

The sagitta of Bairdiella has an inverse triangular shape with a projection at the anterio-dorsal corner dorsally (Fig. 27,C). The ostium of the sulcus is further reduced. The cauda is J-shaped and broadened at the middle. The marginal groove is well-defined. The
lapillus is smaller than the sagitta and is irregular in shape (Fig. $27, C^{\prime}$ ). The groove along the antero-ventral end of the lapillus opens to the ventral margin.

The sagitta of Odontoscion is sub-triangular in shape. The ostium of the sulcus is nearly absent except for a small piece at the anterior margin (Fig. 27,D). The cauda is wide and curves vertically towards the ventral margin. The marginal groove is absent from the sagitta. The lapillus is ovoid and its antero-ventral groove is indistinct (Fig. 27, ${ }^{\prime}$ ).

A total of 11 patterns of otoliths are described here for western Atlantic Sciaenidae. Among them, the Stellifer pattern is most different and present only on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the American continents. The Sciaena pattern is the most generalized and resembles the "Sciaena-form" of Indo-West Pacific Sciaenidae (Chu, Lo and Wu, 1963; Mohan, 1969). The Macrodon pattern is similar to the "Johnius-form" and the Micropogonias pattern shares the disc-like "tail" end (cauda) with the "Pseudosciaena-form" of Chu, Lo and Wu, (1963). Whether these should be interpreted as convergences or as possible evidence of relationships is not known at present. Many sagitta patterns, such as Nebris, Micropogonias, Cynoscion, Menticirrhus, Isopisthus and Macrodon are monotypic. These basic patterns are defined here for the convenience of assessing the relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. Further division or grouping will be essential for comparisons with sciaenids of other geographic regions.

Phylogenetic relationship based on otolith patterns.

Based on the morphology of otoliths, western Atlantic sciaenids can readily be divided into two groups (Fig. 29 and Chao \& Miller, 1975). The Stellifer pattern differs from all other sciaenids by having a large lapillus more than one half the size of the sagitta (Fig. 27). The other patterns of the otoliths can be further divided into two groups (Fig. 29), one having a more or less ovoid or oval elongate sagitta and the other having a shield-like sagitta as found in Micropogonias (Fig. 26). Within the former group, the Cynoscion, Menticirrhus, Lonchiurus, Isopisthus and Macrodon patterns usually have thin, elongate sagittae (Figs. 22 to 25 ) and the rest have a broader and thicker sagitta. In the general outline of the sagitta, the Cynoscion and Menticirrhus patterns are most similar to each other (Fig. 29) and have the posterior portion of their sagittae slightly thicker than the anterior portion (Fig. 22). The Lonchiurus and Isopisthus patterns have the posterior portion of their sagittae further thickened (Figs. 24, $a, b, c \& 26, a)$, which may be variations among the generally elongated and thin sagittae. The sagitta of Macrodon is unique in having the anterior portion of the sagitta thicker than the posterior portion (Fig. 26, b). Among the remaining otolith patterns, the Nebris pattern (Fig. 21) is unique in the general outline of its sagitta and the morphology of the sulcus (Fig. 29). The Larimus pattern has a rectangular sagitta (Fig. 20), which differs from the more generalized oval-shaped sagitta of the Sciaena and Pogonias patterns (Figs. 18, 19 \& 29),

## Specific Characters.

The sizes of the lapillus and sagitta in the Stellifer pattern vary among the genera (Fig. 27). The trend of reducing the size of the sagitta and increasing the size of the lapillus is evident from Stellifer to Odontoscion, then to Bairdiella (Fig. 27). Cynoscion has the most number of species of western Atlantic sciaenid genera, a total of 12. Therefore, it is not surprising that morphological variation in their sagittae is great (Fig. 23). Menticirrhus has a sagitta similar to Cynoscion (Fig. 22), but the relative size of the sagitta is smaller. Smith (1905) found the otoliths in Menticirrhus are relatively smaller than in other genera of sciaenids he examined. Micropogonias has the most distinctive sagitta, with the sagitta further ossified and a lateral flange developed along the dorsal margin (Fig. 26). Nebris is also unique in having an oval, thick sagitta (Fig. 21) with a notch on the posterior margin which does not resemble any other western Atlantic sciaenid. Although the Pogonias pattern (Fig. 19) has a semicircular sagitta, the sulcus is similar to that of the Sciaena pattern (Fig. 18). Variations among the genera of the Sciaena pattern are mainly in the position and shape of the sulci. The sagittae of Larimus and Sciaenops are more or less rectangular (Fig. 20), but the shapes of the sulci differ. Leiostomus xanthurus differs from other Sciaena pattern by having its sagitta (Fig. 18,D \& d) slightly elongated and thin. It is probably an intermediate form between the elongated thin and ovoid thick forms of sagittae.

The morphology of the otoliths appears more variable than that of the swimbladder within a given taxon. Chu, Lo \& Wu (1963) relied
heavily on the relative position of the "head" (ostium) and "tail" (cauda) sections of the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus to diagnose the subfamilies of Chinese Sciaenidae. In some species of western Atlantic sciaenids, the relative position of the ostium and cauda shift slightly as the fish grows (Figs. 20, 23 \& 26). This feature should be viewed cautiously when used to group taxa above the generic level.

Fossil materials of sciaenid otoliths are important in assessing the phyletic relationships of modern sciaenids. John Fitch of the California Department of Fish and Game is currently studying this aspect of sciaendd relationships.
III. Relationships Based on External Morphology.

Prior to Trewavas (1962) and Chu, Lo \& Wu (1963), most authors used external morphology to classify sciaenid fishes (also see the section "A brief history of the study of western Atlantic Sciaenidae"). The characters used were body shape, presence or absence of the mental barbel and/or pores, size of the second anal fin spine and position of the mouth. Unfortunately these characters are extremely adaptive, evolutionarily plastic and convergent. They are more indicative of feeding adaptations and habitats rather than phylogenetic relationships (Fig. 30). Even so, these characters do show that the external morphology is also diagnostic at the generic and species levels. The following discussion assesses the limits and usefulness of these characters.

1. Patterns of pore and barbel systems.

The pores at the tip of the snout and lower jaw (mandible) of sciaenids are the openings of the well-developed cavernous lateral-1ine canals on the head (Fig. 1). The snout (rostral) pores can be divided into upper pores, those present at the tip of snout and marginal pores, those present along the edge of the rostral fold (Fig. 1). Usually, there are three or five distinct upper pores, although some genera lack upper pores and some may have more than five as adults. Typically there are five marginal pores, one median and two pairs of lateral pores (Fig. 31). Some genera have only two marginal pores. The mental (mandibular) pores are most often five (four to six) one median and two pair of lateral pores (Fig. 32), whereas some genera
completely lack mental pores. One or more mental barbels may be present in many western Atlantic sciaenid fishes. The number of pores and barbels are correlated with the mouth position and feeding niches of the species (see part II of whole study). The variations are broad among the genera (Fig. 33, $34 \& 35$ ) and species (Fig. 36).
A. Structural patterns of snout pores:

There are five snout pore patterns recognized in western Atlantic Sciaenidae (Fig. 31).

1) Two (or no) marginal pores:

This pattern has only two marginal pores and no upper pores (Fig. 31,A). The rostral fold is thin and complete without notches. Cynoscion, Macrodon, Nebris and Plagioscion have this pattern. All species have a very oblique large mouth, the lower jaw projecting in front of the upper jaw, and sometimes no pores on the snout, except Plagioscion, which has a slightly oblique and terminal mouth. Fishes with this snout pore pattern and mouth position are mid- to upper water column feeders.
2) Five marginal pores:

This pattern has five marginal pores with no upper pores. The rostral fold has notches at the openings of the lateral pores (Fig. 31, B). Aplodinotus and Larimus have this pattern. Aplodinotus has a moderate sized mouth, terminal or slightly inferior, a typical lower water column to bottom feeder. Larimus has a large mouth, very oblique, and feeds in mid- to the upper water column.
3) Five marginal pores and two upper pores:

This pattern has a slightly indented rostral fold (Fig. 31, C). Odontoscion is the only genus of western Atlantic sciaenid with this pattern. Odontoscion has a moderate sized terminal mouth, and is typically a mid- and lower water column feeder.
4) Five marginal and three upper pores:

The rostral fold of this pattern is indented at the openings of the marginal pores (Fig. 31,D). Bairdiella, Ctenosciaena, Menticirrhus, Ophioscion, Paralonchurus, Sciaena and Stellifer have this pattern. The position and size of the mouths in this group of fishes suggests that some feed in midwater and some on the bottom. In bottom feeders such as Menticirrhus and Paralonchurus, the rostral folds (upper lips) are very deeply indented below the marginal pores (Fig. 33, C\&D). For the mid- or lower mid-water feeders, Stellifer lanceolatus and Ophioscion punctatissimus, the rostral folds are only slightly indented (Fig. 33, A \& B). O. punctatissimus also has two minute pairs of upper pores present dorso-laterally to the outer lateral marginal pores (Fig. 33,B).
5) Five (or more) marginal and five (or more) rostral pores:

This pattern usually has five distinct rostral and five marginal pores (Fig. 31, E). Sometimes an extra pair or two pairs of minute pores are developed lateral to the upper and marginal pores (Fig. 31,F). The rostral fold is slightly notched or smooth below the openings of the marginal pores. Equetus, Leiostomus, Lonchiurus, Micropogonias

Pachyurus, Pareques, Pogonias, Sciaenops and Umbrina have this pattern and have a horizontal or inferior mouth, and are typically bottom feeders. Variation within this snout pore pattern is mainly in the presence of additional minute pores (Fig. 33, E to H), which may also vary ontogenetically.
B. Structural patterns of mental pores and barbels:

There are seven mental pore and barbel patterns recognized in western Atlantic Sciaenidae (Fig. 32). Variations are rather common within the genera especially in speciosegenera, such as stellifer and Bairdiella.

1) No pores:

This pattern has neither pores nor barbels on the lower jaw (Fig. 32, A) and is found in Cynoscion, Isopisthus, Macrodon and Plagioscion. Al1 fishes with this pattern have a large oblique mouth and are upper or mid-water feeders, although Plagioscion has a nearly terminal mouth.
2) Four pores:

This pattern has four pores at the anterior part of the lower jaw (Fig. 32,B) which may vary in arrangement among different genera (Fig. 34,A to D). Nebris, Odontoscion, Larimus and Stellifer lanceolatus have this pattern and all have a terminal or oblique mouth, and feed in the mid- to upper water column.

This pattern has five pores without a barbel, one median pore located at the center of the lower jaw symphysis and two lateral pairs (Fig. 32,C). The arrangement of the five pores vary among genera (Fig. 34,E to H). Aplodinotus, Equetus, Leiostomus, Ophioscion, Pachyurus, Pareques, Sciaena, Sciaenops and some species of Bairdiella (B. ronchus and B. sanctaeluciae) and Stellifer (S. microps, $S$. stellifer and $S$. venezuelae) have this pattern.
4) Six pores:

This pattern has six pores and no barbel, the two median pores usually close together, and two pairs of lateral pores (Fig. 32,D). Bairdiella chrysoura, Stellifer colonensis, S. griseus and S. rastrifer have this pattern, which is a derivative of the five-pored pattern. Fishes with this pattern of mental pores have a terminal to slightly inferior mouth and feed from lower mid-water to the bottom.
5) Four pores and one barbel:

This pattern has two pairs of lateral pores and a barbel at the anterior tip of lower jaw (Fig. 32,E). Ctenosciaena, Menticirrhus and Umbrina have this pattern. The morphology of the barbel varies among these three genera (Fig. 35). Ctenosciaena has a thin barbel tapering at the end. Menticirrhus and Umbrina have a short rigid barbel and an apical pore which is also present at the tip of the barbel in Umbrina. They all have inferior mouths and are ibottom feeders.
6) Four pores and two barbels:

This pattern has two pairs of lateral pores and a pair of thin barbels originating from inside the posterior pair of mental pores (Fig. 32,F). Lonchiurus is the only genus with this pattern and has an inferior mouth, typical of bottom feeders.
7) Five pores and many barbels:

This pattern has five pores, one median and four lateral, together with three to 19 pairs of minute barbels at the symphysis of the mandibules and along the rami of the lower jaws (Fig. 31, $\mathrm{G} \& \mathrm{H}$ ). Micropogonias, Paralonchurus and Pogonias have this pattern. The arrangement of the barbels are different among the genera, especially In Paralonchurus. Three pairs of minute barbels form a tuft situated lateral to the median pore and 12 to 16 pairs of small barbels are distributed along the rami of the lower jaw (Fig. 32,H). Micropogonias and Pogonias lack the tufts of barbels at the symphysis of the lower jaw (Fig. 32,G). Fishes with this pore and barbel pattern have an inferior mouth, and are typically bottom feeders.

When comparing the pore and barbel systems of western Atlantic Sciaenidae with the Indo-Pacific (Chu, Lo \& Wu, 1963) and East Atlantic and East Pacific Sciaenids, the five marginal and three to five upper pores on the snout seem to be generalized in most sciaenids. Also the five pores on the lower jaw is typical in sciaenids. Sciaenids with a single mental barbel are found in the Indo-West Pacific, on both sides of the Atlantic and in the eastern Pacific (Trewavas, 1964). However, sciaenids with more than one barbel are found only along the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of America.
2) Phylogenetic relationships based on external morphology.

Western Atlantic sciaenids can be readily separated into two groups by the presence or absence of the mental barbels (Fig, 30). The group without barbel can be further divided by their mouth positions and body shape (Fig. 30). Cynoscion, Isopisthus and Macrodon differ from other barbelless sciaenids by having an elongate body, an oblique mouth with a pair of enlarged canines at the tip of the upper jaw and a protruding lower jaw (Fig. 37,A). Those species that lack canines can be divided into groups by their mouth positions and body shapes. (Fig. 30). Nebris and Larimus have a very large and oblique mouth (Fig. 37,B). Bairdiella and odontoscion both have a terminal mouth (Fig. 37,C). The genus Stellifer consists of species with inferior (s. microps), terminal (s. rastrifer) and oblique (s. lanceolatus) mouth (Fig. 38). Sciaena, Leiostomus, Pareques, Equetus and Sciaenops have inferiur mouths. Sciaenops differs from these fishes by having an elongate body. Sciaena is characterized by a terminal and horizontal mouth.

Sciaenids with a mental barbel usually have an inferior mouth and can be divided into different categories by the number and position of barbels (Fig. 30). Ctenosciaena has a thin tapered barbel and a terminal mouth (Fig. 35,A), unique among barbeled western Atlantic sciaenids. Both Umbrina and Menticirrhus have an apical pore at the tip of the single rigid barbel (Fig. 35,B\&C). Lonchiurus has a pair of long slender barbels at the symphysis of the lower jaw (Fig. $32, F)$. Paralonchurus has three pairs of minute barbels in a tuft at the symphysis of the lower jaw lateral to the median mental pore and 12 to 16 pairs of small barbels along the rami of the lower jaw
(Fig. 32,H). Micropogonias has three to four pairs of small mental barbels and Pogonias has 12 to 13 pairs that never form a tuft at the symphysis of the lower jaw (Fig. 32,G).

The combination of morphological characters described above reflects habitat or similarities in feeding habits. The genera listed at the top of Figure 30 generally feed in the upper to mid-water column and the genera listed near the bottom feed in the lower water column to the bottom. Within the different snout pore, mental pore and barbel patterns of western Atlantic Sciaenidae, three different feeding modes may be recognized (Fig. 30). The mid- to upper water column feeders have only marginal pores (two or five) on the snout, and have zero to four mental pores without barbels on the lower jaw. The mid- to lower water column feeders have five marginal pores and two to three upper pores on the snout, and four to five mental pores without barbel(s) on the lower jaw. The third group, bottom feeders, have five marginal and three to five rostral pores on the snout, and have four to five mental pores and one to many barbels on the lower jaw. The number of pores and barbels seem to increase in feeding niches that are closer to the bottom.

## Specific characters.

Western Atlantic sciaenids with two marginal snout pores and with neither upper pores (Fig. 31,A) nor mental pores (Fig. 31,A) are upper water column feeders, such as Cynoscion. Although Nebris has a very oblique mouth (Fig. 37,B) and snout pore arrangement similar to Cynoscion, it also has four mental pores (Fig, 34,A) and a rounded body with a flat ventral surface. This suggests that Nebris is a
bottom dweller feeding from the bottom upward. Sciaenid fishes with five marginal pores and no upper pore on the snout are mid- to upper midwater colum feeders, such as Larimus, which has four mental pores similar to Nebris, (Fig. 34,B). But Larimus has a compressed body which may not be adaptive to a bottom habitat as in Nebris. Odontoscion has five marginal pores and two upper pores on the snout (Fig. 31,C). It also has four mental pores and a terminal mouth (Fig. 37,C) which suggests that it is a mid- to lower midwater column feeder.

Sciaenid fishes with a structural pattern of five marginal pores and three upper pores (Fig. 33,A to D) are rather common among different genera, such as Bairdiella, Ophioscion, Stellifer and Menticirrhus. Species of Menticirrhus all have one barbel and four pores on the lower jaw, and are bottom feeders. But among the genera and species of Stellifer, the number of mental pores varies from: four to six (Fig. 36). Their feeding niches are mainly correlated with the positions of the mouth. Although the number of mental pores among the species of Bairdiella varles from five to six, they all have a terminal mouth and are the mid- to lower mid-water feeders. Species of Stellifer not only have a variable number of mental pores, from four to six, but also have different mouth positions, from inferior to slightly oblique (Fig. 38). The species with a slightiy oblique mouth, such as S. lanceolatus, S. stellifer and S. rastrifer, are apparently mid-water column feeders. .But each species has a different number of mental pores (Fig. 36): S. lanceolatus four, S. stellifer five and S. rastrifer six. In addition, other genera of western Atlantic sciaenids, Ctenosciaena, Paralonchurus and Sciaena, also
have a similar snout pore pattern. Among them, Ctenosciaena and Sciaena both have terminal mouths and probably feed in mid-water down to the bottom. Ctenosciaena also has one barbel and four pores on the lower jaw (Fig. 35,A). Sciaena has five pores and no barbel on the lower jaw. Based on these variations, the three upper and five marginal snout pore pattern is probably the more generalized among western Atlantic sciaenids with different feeding niches.

Sciaenid fishes with five or more upper and marginal pores (Fig. $31, \mathrm{E} \& \mathrm{~F}$ ) are all bottom feeders with an inferior mouth. They usually have five pores on the lower jaw with or without mental barbels. Umbrina has four pores and a short perforated barbel with an apical pore on the lower jaw (Fig. 35, C). Lonchiurus has four pores and two long tapered barbels on the lower jaw (Fig. 32,F). The external characters described above are sometimes variable within a genus and yet similarities are found among different genera. Neither the differences nor the similarities necessarily reflect phylogenetic relationships. These external morphological characters and those mentioned in the key should be treated as "key characters" only. Their usefulness in assessing relationships of sciaenids is usually not above the species level.

# A SYNOPSIS OF THE SUPRA-GENERIC GROUPS, GENERA, AND SPECIES OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE 

## I. Diagnoses and Primary Synonymy of the Supra-generic Groups, Genera and Species

Based on the structural patterns of swimbladder, otolith, and pore and barbel systems, western Atlantic sciaenids can be grouped into 11 supra-generic groups. They are the Sciaena, Umbrina, Larimus, Sciaenops, Cynoscion, Micropogonias, Lonchiurus, Menticirrhus, Nebris, Pogonias, and Stellifer groups. The freshwater sciaenid genera, Pachypops and Pachyurus of South America are not included in these groups, due to lack of comparative material. The taxonomic position of these generic groups is between genus and family. Neither tribes nor subfamilies are utilized for western Atlantic Sciaenidae, until comparisons can be made with the sciaentds of other regions.

The following descriptions of western Atlantic sciaenid groups are arranged in order from simple to more complex swimbladder patterns. In each group description, the diagnosis of the supra-generic groups and genera are given and the species are 1isted after each genus. A primary synonymy is given for each genus and species for nomenclatural purposes. All available type-specimens are listed in the synonymy for each species.

## Sciaena Group


#### Abstract

Diagnosis: Swimbladder in a simple carrot-shape, without diverticulum (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5); sagitta more or 1ess oval-shaped and thick (Fig. 18), lapillus not enlarged, snout with five marginal pores and three to seven rostral pores (Fig. 31,D to F); lower jaw with five pores and no barbels (Fig. 32,C). There are three genera in this group; Equetus, Pareques and Sciaena. Leiostomus thinner and longer (Fig. 18,D). But, Leiostomus is probably closely related to the Sciaena group than other western Atlantic sciaenid groups.


Genus Equetus Rafinesque

Diagnosis: Body oblong, compressed, back much elevated, rapidly tapering to a narrow caudal peduncle; sides with broad oblique bands; spinous dorsal fin very long and filamentous. Mouth small and inferior, teeth in villiform bands; gill rakers few, short and slender. Vertebrae $10+15=25$; no free interneurals anterior to first dorsal fin (McPhail, 1961). Swimbladder simple, carrot or bottle-shaped (Fig. 5,C). Sagitta oval-shaped, the ostium of the sulcus reaching to anterior margin (Fig. 18,B\&C); snout with five to seven upper pores; lower jaw without barbel. Tropical western Atlantic endemic. Two species: E. lanceolatus and E. punctatus. Mainly inhabits coral reefs, sometimes shallow coastal waters.

Eques Bloch, 1793, pt. 7:90 (type-species: Eques americanus Bloch, by monotypy $=$ Chaetodon Ianceolatus, Linnaeus).

Equetus Rafinesque 181:86 (emendation of Eques Bloch, 1793 and substitute name for Eques, therefore taking the same type-species: Eques americanus Bloch; preoccupied by Eques Linnaeus, 1758:459, a genus of lepidopteran insect).

## Equetus lanceolatus (Linnaeus)

"Ribband Fish" Edwards, 1751, pl. 210, middie figure, Caribbean Islands (non-binomial).

Sciaena edwardi Gronow, 1754 (ed. by Gray 1854):53, (West) Indian Sea (after Edwards).

Chaetodon lanceolatus Linnaeus, 1758:277, Caribbean Islands (after Edwards, pl. 210).
"Serranas" Parra, l787, pl. 2, upper figure, Cuba (non-binomials). Eques americanus Bloch, 1793: 91. 347, fig. 1, West Indies. Eques balteatus Cuvier, 1829:175 (after Edwards and Bloch). Equetus punctatus (Bloch \& Schneider)
"Serranas" Parra, 1787, p1. 2, lower figure, Cuba, (non-binomials). Eques punctatus Bloch \& Schneider, 1801:105, p1. 3, fig. 2 (based on Parra).

Pareques Gill

Diagnosis: Body oblong, compressed, anterior profile steep, back tapering rapidly to a narrow caudal peduncle; sides with longitudinal stripes. Mouth small, inferior; teeth in villiform bands; gill rakers short and blunt. Vertebrae $10+15=25$; three free interneurals anterior to first dorsal fin. Swimbladder simple, carrot-shaped. Sagitta
oval, the ostium of the sulcus reaching to anterior margin (Fig. $18, E \& F)$, the cauda long, J-shaped. Snout with five to seven upper pores (Fig. 33,H); lower jaw without barbel. Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about five species. Two western Atlantic species: $P$. acuminatus and $P$. umbrosus. Inhabits sandy and muddy bottoms of high salinity waters and coral reefs.

Pareques Gill in Goode 1876:50 (type-species: Grammistes acuminatus
Bloch and Schneider 1801, by original designation).

Pareques acuminatus (Bloch \& Schneider)
"Chaetodon, lineis fuscis" Seba, 1761:72, pl. 26, fig. 33, no locality (non-binomial).

Grammistes acuminatus Bloch \& Schneider, 1801:184 (after Seba). Eques lineatus Cuvier, 1830:169, Brazil (syntypes: MNHN 7475, one
specimen, 135 mm SL; MNHN 43, not located).
Eques pulcher Steindachner, 1867:349, Barbados (type: not located in NHMV, Vienna).

## Pareques umbrosus (Jordan \& Eigenmann)

Eques acuminatus umbrosus Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:440, Charleston,
South Carolina (holotype: USNM 25981, 165 mm SL ).

Remarks: P. acuminatus and P. umbrosus were thought to be the same species until Jordan \& Eigenmann (1889) proposed the subspecies name E. acuminatus umbrosus, USNM 25981 was the specimen described by Jordan and Eigenmann (1889) as Eques acuminatus (Bloch \& Schneider), and collected by C. C. Leslie. These two species can be separated
by their coloration and counts (also see. "Key to the species of Pareques"). The sagittae of these two species differ from each other by the features of the ostium of the sulcus (Fig. 18,E\&F). P. umbrosus is a more northerly species distributed from Chesapeake Bay to Florida and also recorded from Texas over sandy mud bottom of inshore and offshore waters. $P$. acuminatis is a more southerly species from Florida to Brazil in coral reef and rocky bottom coastal waters. L. Woods (FMNH) and G. Miller (NMFS, Miami) have new species of Pareques from western Atlantic in preparation.

## Sciaena Linnaeus

Diagnosis: Body elongate, compressed, dorsal profile slightly elevated or evenly arched; spinous dorsal not elongated. Mouth horizontal to inferior; teeth in bands; gill rakers short and slender, widely spaced. Vertebrae 25 (11+14 in S. bathytatos and $10+15$ in S. trewavasae). Swimbladder simple, carrot-shaped (Fig. 5,A). Sagittae oval, the ostium of the sulcus just reaching to the anterior margin (Fig, 18,G \& H). Snout with three upper pores (Fig. 31,D); lower jaw without barbel. Two species in the western Atlantic; $S$. bathytatos and S. trewavasae, inhabit deeper subtropical waters and one species in East Atlantic, and Mediterranean, S. umbra.

Sciaena Linnaeus, 1758:228 (type-species: Sciaena umbra Linnaeus, by subsequent designation of International Comission for Zoological Nomenclature (1972), Opinion 988.

Remarks: The nomenclature of the genus Sciaena was not stabilized until s. umbra Linnaeus, 1758, was designated as the
type-species of the genus under the Plenary Powers of the International Commission for Zoological Nomenclature (1972, Opinion 988) and interpreted by the neotype designated by Trewavas (1966). The history of the case and synonymies are not repeated here. This genus is the type-genus of the tribe Sciaenini (Trewavas, 1962). The genus Sciaena is still not well-defined and it may contain more species than currently recognized (Chao and Miller, 1975).

Sciaena bathytatos Chao \& Miller

Sciaena bathytatos Chao \& Miller, 1975:267, fig. 9, Caribbean Sea off Colombia (holotype: USNM 211514, 208 mm SL). Sciaena trewavasae Chao \& Miller

Sciaena trewavasae Chao \& Miller, 1975:262, fig. 8, Caribbean Sea off Colombia (holotype: USNM 211513, 155 mm SL).

## Leiostornus Lacépède

Diagnosis: Body oblong, compressed, back elevated, sides with oblique stripes and a dark humeral spot behind upper end of gill slit; spinous dorsal fin not elongated. Mouth small and inferior; teeth in villiform band; gill rakers short and slender. Vertebrae 10+15=25. Swimbladder in simple carrot-shape (Fig. 5,B). Sagitta oval and thin, the ostium of the sulcus reaching the anterior margin and bent to the ventral margin (Fig. 18,D). Snout with five rostral pores; lower jaw without barbel. Northwestern Atlantic. Monotypic: L. xanthurus. Inhabits sandy and mud bottom in estuarine rivers and inshore waters.

Leiostomus Lacépède, 1803, vol. 4:439 (type-species: Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépède, by monotypy).

Liostomus Gill, 1861c:93 (invalid emendation of Leiostomus Lacépède 1803, therefore taking the same type-species: Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépèđe).

## Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépède

Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépède 1803, vol. 4:439, pl. 10, fig. 1, Carolina (syntypes: MNHN 7599, two specimens, $148 \& 163 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$ ). Mugil obliquus Mitchill, 1814 (ed. by G111, 1896):16, New York. Sciaena multifasciata LeSueur, 1822:255, east Florida (no length of the type-specimen reported).

Leiostomus humeralis Cuvier, 1830:141, p1. 110, New York (syntypes: MNHN 9733, one dried stuffed specimen, 146 mm SL; another syntype of Cuvier's description not located).

Umbrina Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder simple carrot-shaped, without diverticula (Sciaena pattern, Fig, 5); sagitta oval, (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 18); snout with five marginal pores and three to seven upper pores; lower jaw with four pores and one barbel, an apical pore present. Two genera in this group: Ctenosciaena and Umbrina.

## Ctenosciaena

Diagnosis: Body oblong; moderately compressed, head moderate and blunt with well-developed cavernous canals. Mouth terminal to slightly inferior, snout protruding; lower jaw with a barbel tapering to a fine
point without an apical pore at the tip (Fig. 35,A). Vertebrae $10+15=25$. Sagitta oval, the ostium of the tadpole-shaped sulcus slightly in contact with the anterior margin. Snout with three upper pores. Tropical western Atlantic. Monotypic, c. gracilicirrhus inhabits offshore waters over hard sandy mud bottom.

Sciaena (Ctenosciaena) Fowler \& Bean, 1924:15 (type-species: Sciaena dubia Fowler \& Bean, by monotypy).

Ctenosciaena gracilicirrhus

Umbrina gracilicirrhus Metzelaar, 1919:72, fig. 24, Venezuela (holotype: ZMA 113.103, 105 ma SL). Sciaena (Ctenosciaena) dubia Fowler \& Bean, 1924:16, Wilks Exploring Expedition, no locality (holotype: USNM 83309, 111 mm SL ),

Umbrina Cuvier

Diagnosis: Body moderately elongate, back slightly arched. Head oblong, snout thick and protuberant. Mouth small, horizontal to inferior; teeth in villiform bands; gill rakers short. Vertebrae $11+14=25$. Swimbladder simple carrot-shaped, without diverticula. Sagitta oval, the ostium of the sulcus reaching to anterior margin (Fig. 18,I \& J). Snout with five to seven upper pores (Fig. 31,E\&F); lower jaw with four pores and a short, thick barbel, an apical pore present at the tip of the anterior surface. Eastern Pacific and both sides of the Atlantic, about eight species, Four species in western Atlantic; U. broussonetii; U: canosai, U: coroides and U. miliiae. Inhabits inshore and offshore waters with sandy mud bottoms and around coral reefs.

Sciaena Linnaeus, 1758:288 (of Artedi, 1738; in part; includes S. cirrosa; type-species: Sciaena umbra, by subsequent designation, Cuvier, 1817:297).

Umbrina Cuvier, 1817:297 (type-species: Sciaena cirrosa Linnaeus, by original designation).

Attilus Gistel, 1848:109 (type-species, Sciaena cirrosa Linnaeus, by original designation).

Remarks: The name Chromis in the footnote of Lacépède, 1803, volume 3, p. 546 was from the sketch of Le Pere Plumier, a missionary In Martinique, for the "grygry" or "grogro", which is Umbrina coroides Cuvier 1830. The name Chromis is older than Umbrina but later than Cromis Browne (after Jordan 1917). Also see Gilbert (1966) for more detailed synonymy.

## Umbrina broussonetii

Umbrina broussonetii Cuvier, 1830:187, Jamaica (holotype: MNHN 7471, 151 mm SL).

Umbrina canosai

Umbrina canosai Berg, 1895:56, Montevideo, Uruguay to Mar del Plata Argentina (no type-specimens nor specific localities mentioned In the original description).

Umbrina coroides

Umbrina coroides Cuvier, 1830:187, p1. 117, Brazil (holotype: MNHN 5343, 174 mm SL).

Umbrina milliae Miller, 1971:303, fig. I, Colombia (holotype: USNM 204932, 193 ma SL).

## Larimus Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder carrot-shaped with or without a pair of small tube-like diverticula at the anterior end (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5,E \& F). Sagitta with broader anterior portion and narrower posterior portion, the sulcus not reaching to the margins (Larimus pattern, Fig. 20, $A \& B$ ). Snout with five marginal pores, no upper pores (Fig. 31,B), lower jaw with four pores, no barbel (Fig. 34,B). Larimus is the only genus in this group.

## Larimus Cuvier

Diagnosis: Body short and robust, compressed dorsal profile slightly elevated, ventral convex. Head with prominent cavernous canal; snout short. Mouth large and oblique, teeth conical in a single row on both jaws. Gill rakers, long and slender. Vertebrae $11+14=25$. Other diagnostic characters as in the Larimus group. Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about four species. Two western Atlantic species. L. breviceps and L. fasciatus. Inhabits estuarine and inshore open waters with sandy and muddy bottoms.

Larimus Guvier, 1830:145 (type-species: Larimus breviceps Cuvier, by monotypy).

Amblyscion Gill, 1863b:165 (type-species: Amblyscion argenteus Gill by monotypy).

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Monosira Poey, 1881:326.(type-species: Monosira stahli Poey, by
    monotypy).
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Larimus breviceps Cuvier

```Larimus breviceps Cuvier, 1830:146, pl. 140, Saint Dominique \&Brazil, (syntypes: MNHN 7578, 1, 139 mm SL,'St. Dominique;MNHN 7636, 1, 156 mm SL, Brazil).Monosira stahli Poey, 1881:326, p1. 6, Puerto Rico (type: 190 mm long,not located in MCZ nor in USNM).
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Larimus fasciatus HolbrookLarimus fasciatus Holbrook, 1855:153, pl. 22, fig. 1, Charleston (type:not located).
Nebris GroupDiagnosis: Swimbladder with carrot-shaped main chamber and apair of diverticula, which almost extend to the tapering end of themain chamber then loop back (Fig. 8) reaching the septum transversumanteriorly (Nebris pattern). Sagitta oval-shaped, with a notchedposterior margin, very thick (Fig. 21); the ostium of the sulcuslarge, ovoid; the cauda J-shaped, with broad and deeply grooveddistal end; snout with only two marginal pores, without upper pores;lower jaw with four minute pores and no barbel. One genus in thisgroup: Nebris

## Nebris Cuvier

Diagnosis: Body elongate, tapering posteriorly. Head extremely cavernous, interorbital space very broad, eye.very small. Mouth very large, oblique, nearly vertical; teeth in narrow conical bands. Gill rakers long and slender. Vertebrae $12+13=25$. Other diagnostic characters as in the group diagnosis. Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, two species. One species in the western Atlantic, N. microps. Inhabits sandy to muddy bottoms in coastal and estuarine waters.

Nebris Cuvier, 1830:149 (type-species: Nebris microps Cuvier, by monotypy).

Nebris microps Cuvier

Nebris microps Cuvier, 1830:149, pl. 112, Surinam (type: in Berlin, not examined).

## Micropogonias Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder carrot-shaped with a pair of tube-like diverticula extending anteriorly from the middle of lateral sides to septum transversum. (Micropogonias pattern, Fig. 9). Sagitta very heavy, irregular in shape (Micropogonias pattern, Fig. 26), the sulcus not reaching to margins, the ostium broad, the cauda oblique with an expanded distal end. Snout with five marginal pores and five upper pores (Fig. 31,E); lower jaw with five pores and six to eight pairs of minute barbels (Fig. 32,G). One genus in this group, Micropogonias.

Diagnosis: Body elongate, dorsal profile slightly elevated, ventral profile nearly straight. Head conical, preopercular margin with 10 to 14 spines, two to five strong spines at the angle. Mouth inferior, teeth in villiform bands. Gill rakers short. Vertebrae $10+15=25$. Other diagnostic characters as in the Micropogonias group. Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about five species. Two species in western Atlantic; M. furnieri and M. undulatus. Inhabits estuarine rivers and coastal waters with sandy-muddy bottom.

Micropogon Cuvier, 1830:213 (type-species: Micropogon lineatus
Cuvier $=$ Umbrina furnieri Desmarest, see remarks).
Micropogonias Bonaparte, 1831, 52:170 (substitute name for Micropogon, therefore taling the same type-species: M. Iineatus Cuvier; preoccupied by Micropogon Boie, 1826:977, Aves).

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Micropogonias furnieri (Desmarest)
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Umbrina furnieri Desmarest 1823:182, pl. 17, fig. 3, Havana, Cuba (type: see remarks).

Micropogon lineatus Cuvier, 1830:215, pl. $119 \&$ p1. 138 (swimbladder)
(lectotype: MNHN 4968, 109 mm SL, also see remarks). Micropogon argenteus Cuvier, 1830:218, Surinam (type: not located In MNHN).

Ophioscion woodwardi Fowler 1937:311, figure on p. 312, Haiti
(holotype: ANSP 68257, 108 mm SL).

## Micropogonias undulatus (Linnaeus)

"Perca marina" Catesby, 1743, "Croker", p1. 3, upper figure, Chesapeake Bay (non-binomial).

Perca undulata Linnaeus, 1766:483, South Carolina (syntypes:
Linnaean Society, London no. 112, right side of a dried skin, 212 mm SL and no. 113, left side of a dried skin, 241 mm SL). Sciaena croker Lacépède, 1802, vol. 4:309, Carolina (type: not located in MNHN).

Bodianus costatus Mitchill, 1815:417, New York.
Sciaena opercularis Quoy \& Gaimard, 1824:347, Rio de Janiero. Micropogon lineatus Cuvier, 1830:215 (syntypes: MNHN 7457, two specimens, $62.8 \& 138 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$, New York; MNHN 7459, 273 mm SL , Montevideo).

Remarks: Cuvier's (1830) description of M. lineatus fits both M. furniexi and $M$. undulatus. The type-specimens obtained from New York (MNHN 7457) by Milbert are apparently $M$. undulatus (there is also a specimen of Leiostomus xanthurus 87.2 mm SL, in the same jar). The type-specimen from Cuba ( $\mathbb{M} H N$ 4968) was labeled as "type de Umbrina fournieri Desmarest", and the specimen illustrated on plate 119 and a swimbladder illustrated on plate 138 appeared to be M, furnieri. The diverticula on the swimbladder of $M$. furnieri usually originates further back than that of M. undulatus (Fig. 9,C \& D). MNHN 7456 from Montevideo contains two syntypes in the far, the smaller specimen, 159 mm SL is $M$. furnieri and the larger one, 273 mm SL is $M$. undulatus. In this case, the MNHN 4968, 109 mm SL of Cuba is
selected as the lectotype. Then the type-species of Micropogonias isdesignated as M. furnieri (Desmarest). Jordan (1917) designated M.Iineatus Cuvier = Perca undulatus Linnaeus as type-spectes ofMicropogonias. His reason was that Cuvier's (1830) description on p.215, mentioned the New York Specimens ( $M$. undulatus) first.Some morphometrics and meristics of the lectotype MNHN 4968 are
listed as follows:
Morphometrics (in mm)
TL ..... 110
SL ..... 109
Snout to anal fin origin ..... 72.6
Snout to dorsal fin origin ..... 40.5
Snout to pectoral fin origin ..... 34.7
Snout to pelvic fin origin ..... 36.0
Maximum depth ..... 28.2
Head length ..... 33.6
Snout length ..... 9.7
Eye diameter ..... 8.5
Interorbital width ..... 8.1
Pectoral fin lengths ..... 19.5 (left) - 22.5 (right)
Pelvic fin lengths ..... 16.0 (left) - 19.2 (right)
Length of spinous dorsal fin base ..... 20.2
Length of soft dorsal fin base ..... 42.7
Length of anal fin base ..... 12.5
Length of second anal fin spine ..... 13.4
Depth of caudal peduncle ..... 9.2
D. $X+I, 27$
A. II, 8

Pectoral rays, $18-17$
Lateral gill rakers on the first right gill arch;
8 (upper arm) +15 (lower arm)
Medial (or inner) gill rakers on the first right g111 arch;
3 (upper arm) +10 (lower arm)
Lateral line scales (a row above the lateral line);
Left side: 52 scales
Right side: 48 scales

Transverse lateral line scales;
from soft dorsal fin origin to lateral line vertical: 9 oblique: 12
from lateral line to anal fin origin vertical: 12 oblique: 15

Other nominal species of this genus were discussed by Roux (1973). The true identity of M. argenteus Cuvier and Sciaena opercularis Quoy \& Gaimard are not certain at present. The distinguishing characters of the two species of Micropogonias (see also "Key to the species of Micropogonias") used here are only valld for adult specimens. The sagitta morphology of $M$. furnieri usually occurs south of the Antilles and off South America and $M$ : undulatus have been reported from the Gulf of Maine to Argentina.

## Sciaenops Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder carrot-shaped with a pair of short tubelike diverticula at the anterior lateral corners of the swimbladder (Sciaenops pattern, Fig, 11). In large specimens, a pair of "sac-1ike" projections which consist of numerous labyrinth chambers (Fig. 11,C) present on the dorsal surface of the swimbladder; a hole present between the third and fourth lateral ribs on both sides of the body wall to receive the paired "sac-like" projections. Sagitta rectangular, sulcus not reaching to the margins (Larimus pattern). Snout with five marginal and five upper pores (Fig. 33,F); lower jaw with five pores and no barbel (Fig. 34,F). Sciaenops is the only genus in this group.

## Sciaenops

Diagnosis: Body elongate, robust, back slightly elevated, ventral surface flat. Head long and low; snout long. Mouth inferior; teeth villiform in bands. Gill rakers short. Vertebrae $10+15=25$. Other diagnostic characters as in Sciaenops group. Subtropical northwestern Atlantic. Monotypic: S. ocellata. Inhabits estuarine and inshore waters with sandy bottoms.

Sciaenops Gill, 1963a:30 (type-species: Perca ocellata Linnaeus by monotypy).

Perca ocellata Linnaeus, 1766:483, South Carolina (syntypes: Linnaean
Society, London, no. 106, one dried right side skin, 394 mm TL and no. 107, one dried right side skin, 399 mm TL ). Lutjanus triangulum Lacépède, 1803, vol. 4:181, figure in vol. 3, pl. 24, fig. 3, Sumatra (type: not located in MNHN). Sciaena imberbis Mitchill, 1815:411, New York.

Pogonias Group

Diagnosis: swimbladder with very complicated diverticula along the side of main chamber (Fig. 10). Sagitta semi-circuiar in shape, the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus not reaching to the margins, (Fig. 19,A). Snout with five rostral pores and five marginal pores; (Fig. 31,E); lower jaw with five to seven pores and 12 to 13 pairs of small barbels (Fig. 32,G). Monotypic: Pogonias.

## Pogonias Lacépède

Diagnosis: Body oblong and deep; dorsal profile elevated, ventral nearly straight. Head large, snout conical not projecting in front of upper jaw. Mouth moderate, horizontal and slightly inferior; teeth in villiform band. Gill rakers .very short. Vertebrae 10+14=24. Complexity of swimbladder increases with size (Fig. 10); other diagnostic characters as in group diagnosis. Tropical and temperate western Atlantic. Monotypic: Pogonias cromis. Inhabits coastal waters especially in areas with large river runoffs over sandy and sandy-muddy bottoms.

Pogonias Lacépède, 1802:137 (type-species: Pogonias fasciatus Lacépède $=$ Labrus cromis Linnaeus, by monotypy).

Pogonathus Lacépède, 1803, vol. 5:120 (type-species: Pogonathus courbina Lacépède $=$ Labrus cromis Linnaeus, by subsequent designation of Jordan, 1917:65).

## Pogonias cromis (Linnaeus)

Labrus cromis Linnaeus, 1766:479, Carolina.
Pogonias fasciatus Lacépède, 1802, vo1. 3:137, figure in vol. 2, p1. 16, fig. 2, Brazil (syntypes: MNHN 7461, one dried stuffed specimen, 103 mm TL; MNHN 7460, one dried stuffed specimen, 181 mm SL).

Pogonathus courbina Lacépède, 1803, vol. 5:120, Rio de La Plata (from the manuscript of Commerson).

Mugil grunniens Mitchill, 1814:15, New York.
Mugil gigas Mitchil1, 1814:16, New York.
Sciaena fusca Mitchill, 1815:409, New York.

Cynoscion Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder with a pair of well-developed horns (Fig. 12) from anterior-lateral corners of main chamber, tapering forward to the back of skull. Sagitta elongate oval with smooth or notched margins. Snout with oniy two (or no) marginal pores and without upper pores (Fig. 31,A); lower jaw without pores or barbels (Fig. 32,A). Four genera in this group: Cynoscion, Isopisthus, Macrodon and Plagioscion.

## Cynoscion Gill

Diagnosis: Body elongate, compressed; predorsal outline nearly straight, ventral evenly arched. Head conical, snout pointed. Mouth large, oblique, lower jaw projecting; teeth sharp in narrow ridges, tip of upper jaw with two large canines (no canine teeth in $C$. steindachneri), tapering from base to tip. Preopercular margin membranous or cilliated. Gill rakers short to long slender. Vertebrae usually $13(12)+12(13)=25$, except $15+12=27$ in $C$. nothus. Swimbladder with a pair of anterior horns, some straight and some curved (Fig. 13). Sagitta oval, the ostium of the sulcus usually not reaching to the anterior margin in most species (Fig. 23); the cauda usually short and expanded. Eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about 20 species. This genue including four northwestern Atlantic species: C. arenarius, C. nebulosus, C. nothus and C. regalis; and eight Caribbean and southwestern Atlantic species: C. acoupa, C. jamaicensis, C. leiarchus, C. microlepidotus, C. similis, C. steindachneri, C. striatus and C. virescens. Inhabits estuarine and inshore waters.

Cestreus Gronow, 1754 (ed. by Gray, 1854):49 (type-species: Cestreus carolinensis, by monotypy, preoccupied by Cestreus Klein, 1749, type-species: see remarks and not of Cestreus McClelland, 1842, type-species: Cestreus minimus $=$ Atherina donius Hamilton). Cynoscion Gill, 1861b:81 (type-species: Otolithus regalis Cuvier, $=$ Johnius regalis Bloch \& Schneider, by original designation). Apseudobranchus Gill, 1862:18 (type-species: Otolithus toe-roe Guvier, by original designation).

Archoscion Gill, 1862:18 (type-species: Otolithus analis Jenyns, 1842, by original designation).

Atractoscion Gill, 1862:18 (type-species: Otolithus aequidens Cuvier by original designation).

Buccone Jordan \& Everman, 1895:394 (type-species: Cestreus praedatorium Jordan \& Gilbert, by original designation). Symphysoglyphus Miranda Ribeiro, 1915, Sciaenidae: 43 (type-species: Otolithus bairdi Steindachner, by monotypy). Eriscion Jordan \& Evermann, 1927:506 (type-species: Cynoscion nebulosus Cuvier, by monotypy).

Remarks: In Klein (1749), page 23 and 24, species of "Mugil" were described and "Sciaena" was described in a footnote. Typespecies of Sciaena: Mugil cephalus Linnaeus $=$ "Cestreus dorso repando" Klein, was subsequently designated by Walbaum (1793). Cynoscion acoupa (Lacépède)

Cheilodipterus acoupa Lacépède, 1800, vol. 2:540; Cayenne (holotype: MNHN 5502, 262 mm SL, Surinam).

Lutjanus cayennensis Lacépède, 1803, vol. 4:196 (syntypes: MNHN 5502, one specimen, 262 mm SL, Surinam; MNHN A.5617, two specimens, $522 \& 567 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL, Martinique; MNHN A.4562, two specimens, $278 \&$ 288 mm SL, Brazil).

Otolithus toe-roe Cuvier, 1830:72, pl. 103 (syntypes: MNHN 5500, one specimen, 175 mm SL, Surinam; MNHN 4616, one specimen, 347 mm SL, Cayenne; MNHN A.4518, two specimens, $493 \& 485$ SL, Cayenne).

Cynoscion maracaiboensis Schultz, 1949:160, fig. 20, Maracaibo, Venezuela (holotype: USNM 12742, 251 mm SL).

## Cynoscion arenarius Ginsburg

Cynoscion arenarius Ginsburg 1929:83, Texas (holotype, USNM 89385, 245 mm SL) .

Cynoscion jamaicensis (Vaillant \& Bocourt)

Otolithus jamaicensis Vaillant \& Bocourt, 1915:156, p1. 6, fig. 1, Jamaica (holotype: MNHN A.557, 205 mm SL).

Archoscion petranus Miranda Ribeiro, 1915, Sciaenidae: 42, Brazil (type: not listed in Miranda Ribeiro, 1953).

Cynoscion leiarchus (Cuvier)

Otolithus leiarchus Cuvier, 1830:78, Cayenne, Brazil (syntypes: all from Brazil, MNHN 5503, 2 specimens $152 \& 234 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL; MNHN A. 2690, 1 specimen, 187 mm SL; MNHN A. 5422 , one dried stuffed specimen, 112 mm SL) .

Cynoscion microlepidotus (Cuvier)

Otolithus microlepidotus Cuvier, 1830:79, Surinam (type: in Berlin, not examined).

Otolithus bairdi Steindachner, 1879:40, pl. 1, fig. 2, Santos (NHMV 51130, 152 mm SL , donated by Steindachner, is probably the holotype).

Cynoscion nebulosus (Cuvier)

Labrus squetaeque var. maculatus Mitchill, 1815:396, New York (not Labrus maculatus Bloch).

Otolithus nebulosus Cuvier, 1830:79, no locality (holotype: MNHN 7527, 233 mm SL).

Otolithus carolinensis Valenciennes, 1833:475, South Carolina (holotype: MNHN 7507, 335 mm SL).

Otolithus drummondi Richardson, 1836:70, New Orleans.
Cynoscion maculatum Jordan \& Gilbert, 1882:285, Pensacola, Galveston (after Mitchill).

Cynoscion nothus (Holbrook)

Otolithus nothus Holbrook, 1855:134, p1. 19, fig. 1, South Carolina.

Cynoscion regalis (Bloch \& Schneider)

Cestreus carolinensis Gronow, 1754 (ed. by Gray, 1854):49 (holotype: BMNH 1853, 11, 12, 42, a dried skin, 344 mm TL, not of O. Carolinensis Valenciennes).

Johnius regalis Bloch \& Schneider, 1801:75, New York.

Roccus comes Mitchill, 1814:26, New York,
Labrus squeteague Mitchill, 1815:396, p1. 2, fig. 1, New York.
Otolithus thalassinus Holbrook, 1855:132, pl. 18, fig. 2, Charleston South Carolina.

## Cynoscion similis Randall \& Cervigon

Cynoscion similis Randall \& Cervigon, 1968:170, fig. 2, Isla de Margarita, Venezuela (holotype: USMM 201382, 284 mm SL). Cynoscion steinđachneri (Jordan)

Cestrus steindachneri Jordan in Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:372, Curuca (holotype: MCZ 10922, 318 mm SL).

Cynoscion striatus (Cuvier)
"Quatucupa" Marcgrave, 1648 (translated by Taunay, 1914):177 (non-binomial).

Otolithus striatus Cuvier, 1839:173 (after Marcgrave).
Otolithus quatuccupa Cuvier, 1830:75, Montevideo (syntypes: MNHN 7517, two specimens, $366 \& 358 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL})$.

## Cynoscion virescens (Cuvier)-

# Otolithus virescens Cuvier, 1830:72, Surinam (type: in Berlin, not examined). <br> Otolithus microps Steindachner, 1879:38 (type: not located in NHMV, Vienna). 

Isopisthus Gill

Diagnosis: Body elongate, compressed, dorsal profile nearly straight, ventral evenly arched. Head pointed, rather compressed. Mouth large, oblique, lower jaw projecting; teeth in narrow band, tip of upper jaw with two enlarged canine-like teeth. Preopercular margin membranous with fine ciliae. Spinous and soft portions of dorsal fin well-separated. Gill rakers moderate. Vertebrae $11+14=25$. Swimbladder with a pair of tube-like anterior horns (Fig. 12,B). Sagitta nearly oval, the ostium of the sulcus reaching to anterior margin (Fig. 25,A); the cauda oblique, slightly bent at the distal end. Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, two species. One western Atlantic species: I. parvipinnis. Inhabits inshore waters with sandy to muddy bottoms.

Isopisthus Gill, 1862:18 (type-spectes: Ancylodon parvipinnis Cuvier by monotypy).

Paraplesichthys Bleeker, 1876 (from Kaup's manuscript, 1862): 335
(type-species: Isopisthus parvipinnis Gill = Ancylodon parvipinnis Cuvier, by monotypy).

## Isopisthus parvipinnis (Cuvier)

Ancylodon parvipinnis Cuvier, 1830:84, p1. 105, Cayenne (syntypes: MNHN 745, three specimens, $100-140 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL). Isopisthus affinis Steindachner, 1879:43, pl. 2, fig. 2, Port Alegre, Brazil (syntypes: NHMV 15190, two specimens, $168 \& 172 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL). Isopisthus harroweri Fowler, 1916:402, fig. 3, Colon, Panama (holotype: ANSP 45236, 145 mm SL ).

## Macrodon Schinz

Diagnosis: Body elongate, moderately compressed; dorsal profile slightly arched, ventral evenly arched. Head pointed, compressed. Mouth large, oblique; lower jaw projecting in front of upper jaw; teeth in narrow ridge, upper jaw with a pair of much enlarged canine (Fig. 37,A), lance-shaped; lower jaw with several enlarged canines at the tip, exposed externally when mouth closed. Preopercular margin membranous. Gill rakers slender. Vertebrae $13+12=25$. Swimbladder with a pair of anterior fork-like horns (Fig. 12,C). Sagitta oval, lateral margins concave or notched (Fig. 25,B); the ostium of the sulcus reaching to the anterior margin; the cauda nearly straight with an expanded distal end (Macrodon pattern). Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, two species. One western Atlantic species: M. ancylodon. Inhabits inshore waters.

Ancylodon Bosc, 1816:497 (type-species: "Lonchures" Schneider $=$ Lonchurus ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider, by original designation, not of Ancylodon Illiger).
"Ancylodons" Cuvier, 1817:299, vernacular name Latinized as Ancylodon by Oken, 1817:1182 (type-species: Lonchurus ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider, by original designation, not of Ancylodon Illiger). Macrodon Schinz, 1822:482 (substitute name for Ancylodon, therefore taking the same type-species: L. ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider; preoccupied by Ancylodon Illiger 1811, a genus of mamals).

Nomalus Gistel, 1848, p. VIII (substitute name for Ancylodon, therefore taking the same type-species: L. ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider) .

Sagenichthys Berg, 1895:52 (substitute name for Ancylodon, therefore taking the same type-species: $L$, ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider).

## Macrodon ancylodon (Bloch \& Schneider)

Lonchurus ancylodon Bloch \& Schneider 1801:102, p1. 25, Surinam. Ancylodon jaculidens Cuvier, 1830:81, Cayenne (syntypes: MNHN 7451, one specimen, 212 mm SL: MNHN 7454, one specimen, 144 mm SL ). Ancylodon atricauda Gunther, 1880:12, Rio de La Plata (type: not located in $B M N H$ ).

## Lonchiurus Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladder carrot-shaped with a pair of anterior horns, each horn with a long posterior branch (Lonchiurus pattern, Fig. 14); sometimes the swimbladder is reduced in size. Sagitta oval elongate to rectangular in shape, the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus elongate;
the ostium reaching to the margin and the cauda long, J-shaped (Lonchiurus pattern, Fig. 24). Snout with five marginal pores and three to five upper pores (Fig. 31, D \& E) ; lower jaw with two to many pairs of barbels (Fig. 32,F \& H). Two genera of western Atlantic Sciaenidae in this group; Lonchiurus and Paralonchurus.

Lonchiurus Bloch

Diagnosis: Body long and rounded; dorsal profile evenly arched, ventral nearly flat. Pectoral fin very long; head conical, low and broader than body; snout projecting. Mouth inferior; teeth conical in bands. Gill rakers short. Vertebrae $11+18=29$, Swimbladder much reduced in size, but retaining typical shape with anterior horns more prominent, posterior end of the main chamber tapering into a fine point (Fig. 14,A). Snout with five upper pores; lower jaw with four pores and two barbels (Fig. 31,F), longer than eye diameter. Distribute In tropical west Atlantic. Monotypic: L. lanceolatus. Inhabits sandy and muddy bottom along the coast and in estuarine waters.

Lonchiurus Bloch, 1793:143 (type-species: Lonchiurus barbatus Bloch, by monotypy).

Lonchurus Bloch \& Schneider, 1801:102 (invalid emendation of Lonchiurus). Lonchiurus lanceolatus (Bloch)

Perca lanceolata Bloch, 1788:383, fig. 3, India (= West Indies). Lonchiurus barbatus Bloch, 1793:144, pl. 360, fig. 1, Surinam. Lonchurus depressus Bloch \& Schneider, 1801: 102, Surinam.

## Paralonchurus Bocourt

Diagnosis: Body elongate, slightly rounded; dorsal profile slightly elevated, ventral nearly flat. Pectoral fin long or short. Head broad, nape slightly convex; snout projecting. Mouth small and inferior, teeth in conical bands. Gill rakers short. Total vertebrae 25 or 29 (see "Key to the species of Paralonchurus"). Swimbladder welldeveloped (Fig. 14, B \& C). Sagitta elongate, the ostium of the sulcus reaching to anterior margin; the cauda, J-shaped (Fig. 24,B\&C). Snout with three upper pores; lower jaw with 12 to 16 pairs of minute barbels, anterior three pairs form a tuft at the symphysis of lower jaw and other barbels along the rami of lower jaw (Fig. 32,H). Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about five species. Two species from the western Atlantic in this genus: P. brasiliensis and P. elegans. Inhabits estuarine and inshore waters with sandy to muddy bottoms.

Paralonchurus Bocourt, 1869:21 (type-species: Paralonchurus petersi Bocourt, by monotypy).

Polycirrhus Bocourt, 1869:22 (type-species: Polycirrhus dumerili Bocourt by monotypy, not Polycirrhus Grube). Polyclemus Berg, 1895:54 (substitute name for Polycirrhus, therefore taking the same type-species: $P$. dumerili; preoccupied by Polycirrhus Grube, 1850, a genus of worms, quote from Neave, 1940). Paralonchurus (Zonoscion) Jordan \& Evermann, 1895:401 (type-species: Polycirrhus rathbuni Jordan \& Bollman, 1889, by monotypy). Paralonchurus (zaclemus) Gilbert in Jordan \& Evermann, 1895: 402 (type-species: Paralonchurus goodei Gilbert, manuscript name, by monotypy).

Paralonchurus brasiliensis (Stelndachner)

# Genyanemus brasiliensis Steindachner; 1875a:476, Para, Santos. (type: not located in NHMV). <br> Micropogon ornatus Günther, 1880:13, pl. 7, fig. A, Rio de La Plata (holotype: BMNH 1879.5. 14. 289, 175 mm SL ). Paralonchurus rathbuni Puyo, 1949:215, fig. 114 (not Jordan \& Bollman, 1889:162). 

Paralonchurus elegans Boeseman

Paralonchurus elegans Boeseman, 1948:3, Surinam (holotype: RMNH 390, 200 mm SL).

Remarks: P. elegans and $L$. lanceolatus have very similar sagittae (Fig. 24) and both have a long black pectoral fin. $P$. brasiliensis has a total vertebrae count of 29 as in L. lanceolatus. P. brasiliensis and P. elegans both have well-developed swimbladders and many minute barbels on the chin. The interrelationship of these three species could not be determined without comparative material of the eastern Pacific species of this group. The reduced size of the swimbladder in L. lanceolatus (Fig. 14,A) has been viewed as an important diagnostic character (Günther, 1860), and this may, also link this group with Menticirrhus. Paralonchurus brasiliensis may be considered to belong in a separate genus, Polyclemus as in Berg (1895). The type-species of Paralonchurus ( $P$. petersi) and Polyclemus ( $P$. dumerili) are eastern Pacific species. Study of these species will be necessary to clarify the generic status of these fishes.

## Menticirrhus Group

Diagnosis: Swimbladders atrophy as the fish grow, only a vestige in adult. Sagitta oval, elongate, the sulcus not. reaching to the margin (Menticirrhus pattern, Fig. 22,B). Snout with three upper pores and five marginal pores, rostral fold deeply indented (Fig. 33,D); lower jaw with a short, rigid barbel, knob-like and four pores (Fig. 35,B). Anal fin with only one weak spine. One genus in this group; Menticirrhus.

## Menticirrhus Gill

Diagnosis: Body elongate, rounded, dorsal profile slightly arched, ventral nearly flat. Head conical, low and broad, snout projecting. Mouth small and inferior; teeth in villiform bands. Gill rakers short and tubercle-like. Vertebrae $10+15=25$. Other diagnostic character as in the group diagnosis. Tropical and temperate eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, nine species. Three species from the western Atlantic: Ma americanus, M. littoralis and M. saxatilis. Inhabits shallow coastal waters with sandy bottoms, juveniles often found in estuaries.

Menticirrhus Gill, 1861b:86 (type-species: Perca alburnus Linnaeus = Cyprinus americanus Linnaeus by original designation). Cirrimens Gil1, 1862:17 (type-species: Umbrina ophiocephalus Jenyns, 1842:45, by original designation).

Menticirrhus (Umbrula) Jordan and Eigenmann, 1889:424 (type-species: Umbrina littoralis Holbrook, by subsequent designation of Jordan and Everman, 1898:1469).
"Alburnus Americanus" Catesby, 1743, "Carolina whiting", p1. 12, lower figure, Charleston (non-binomial, also see remarks).

Sciaena alburnus Gronow, 1754 (ed. by Gray, 1854):108 (non Perca alburnus Linnaeus, holotype BMNH 1853. 11. 12. 75, a dried skin, 228 mm TL ).

Cyprinus americanus Linnaeus, 1758:321 (based on Catesby).
Perca alburnus Linnaeus, 1766:482, South Carolina (holotype: Linnaean Society, London, no. I11, a dried left side of skin, 282 mm TL ). Umbrina arenata Cuvier, 1830:190, Brazil (syntype: MNHN 7500, one specimen, 76.4 mm SL; MNHN 7472, one specimen, dried and stuffed, in ethanol, 341 mm TL).

Umbrina martinicensis Cuvier, 1830:186, Martinique (holotype: MNHN 7498, 193 mm SL .

Umbrina gracilis Cuvier, 1830:189, Brazil (syntypes: MNHN 9037, one specimen, 97 mm SL; and MNHN 44 one specimen, 156 mm SL). Umbrina phalaena Girard, 1859:167, Brazos Santiago, Texas (syntypes: USNM 154721, 88.3 mm SL ; other syntypes not located). Umbrina januaria Steindachner, 1877:170, Rio Janeiro (type-specimens, not located).

Remarks: The description of "Alburnus americanus" by Catesby (1743) stated that "under the lip having five or six fleshy barbels, resembling teeth hanging to it on the outside. It had one small fin on the middle of the back". The lower figure of plate 12, "Alburnus" agrees with this description. Except for these features, the general appearance of the figure is a species of Menticirrhus but it is
impossible to identify it with any of the Menticirrhus species. The name Cyprinus americanus Linnaeus, 1758 is based on Catesby. The holotype of Perca alburnus Linnaeus, 1766, is designated here as neotype of Cyprinus amexicanus Linnaeus, 1758, to restrict the application of this name to the species to which it is usually applied.

A specimen, MNHN 9037, was catalogued as a type-specimen of Umbrina gracilis Cuvier 1830, in MNHN, Paris and was identified by Irwin (1970) as M. littoralis (Holbrook). It is not a type of $U$. gracilis, because the locality and the donor of the specimen does not agree with the original description of Cuvier (Dr. M. Bauchot, MNHN, Paris, personal communications).

## Menticirrhus littoralis (Holbrook)

Umbrina littoralis Holbrook, 1855:142, South Carolina (holotype: ANSP 11567, 198 mm SL).

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Menticirrhus saxatilis (Bloch & Schneider)
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Johnius saxatilis Bloch \& Schneider, 1801:75, New York. (holotype: HU 8792, Humbold-Universitat, Berlin, a stuffed skin, dried in poor condition, from Irwin, 1970).

Sciaena nebulosa Mitchill, 1815:408, p1. 3, New York.
Menticirrhus focaliger Ginsburg, 1952:97, St. Joseph Bay, Florida (holotype: USNM 144101, 104 mm SL ).

Menticirrhus atlanticus McFarland, 1963:98, Mustang Island, Texas (Nomen nudum).

Diagnosis: Swimbladder separated into two chambers by a contriction; the anterior one yoke-shaped and the posterior one simple carrot-shaped (Stellifer pattern, Fig. 15). Sometimes a pair of diverticula present on the anterior chamber posterior-laterally. Otolith with both sagitta and lapillus enlarged (Stellifer pattern, Fig. 27). Snout with five marginal pores and two to five upper pores (Fig. 31, C to F); lower jaw with four to six pores and without barbels (Fig. 32,B to D). Four genera of western Atlantic sciaenids in this group; Bairdiella, Odontoscion, Ophioscion and Stellifer.

Genus Bairdiella

Diagnosis: Body oblong, compressed; dorsal profile slightly elevated, ventral nearly straight. Head usually with strong spines at the angle of preopercular margin. Mouth terminal, slightly oblique; upper jaw teeth in conical band, lower jaw teeth in a narrow ridge. Gill rakers long and slender. Vertebrae $12+13=25$. Swimbladder in two chambers, without diverticula on anterior chamber (Fig. 15,A). Sagitta triangular; the ostium of, the sulcus incomplete; lapillus more than $1 / 2$ the size of sagitta (Fig. 27,C). Snout with five marginal and three upper pores; lower jaw with five or six pores the median pair of pores in six pored form very closely set (Fig. 32, C \& D). Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about six species. Four species of western Atlantic Sciaenidae in this genus: . B. batabana, B. chrysoura, B. ronchus and B. sanctaeluciae.

Bairdiella Gill, 1861b:83. (type-species:: Bodianus argyroleucus Mitchill, by original designation).

Bairdiella (Nector) Jordan \& Evermann, 1898:1432 (type-species: Bairdiella chrysoleuca Günther (by original designation).

Corvula Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:377 (type-species: Johnius batabanus Poey, by original designation).

## Bairdiella batabana (Poey)

Johnius batabanus Poey, 1860, 2:184, Batabano, Cuba (holotype: MCZ 21957, 189 mm SL).

Corvula sialis Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:379, Key West, Florida (holotype: USNM 26575, 132 mm SL ).

Bairdiella chrysoura (Lacépède)

Perca punctata Linnaeus, 1766:482, South Carolina (a junior homonym of Perca: punctatus of Linnaeus, 1758:291, = Bodianus fulvus punctatus; syntypes?: Linnaean Society of London, no. 108, a left side dried skin, 144 mm TL and no. 109, a left side dried skin, 153 mm TL) .

Dipterodon chrysourus Lacéepède, 1803, vol. 4:166, South Carolina (type: not located in MNHN).

Bodianus argyro-1eucus Mitchill, 1815:417, p1. 6, fig. 9, New York. Bodianus exiguus Mitchill, 1815:419, New York. Bodianus pallidus Mitchill, 1815:420, New York.

Homoprion xanthurus Holbrook, 1855:170, p1. 24, fig. 2, South Carolina (not Leiostomus xanthurus, Lacépède):

Corvina ronchus Cuvier, 1830:107. (tyntypes: MNHN 95, two specimens, 123 \& 149 mm SL, St. Dominique; MNHN 5345, two specimens, $144 \&$ 156 mim SL, Surinam, MNHN 5345, one dried stuffed specimen, 247 mm SL, Maracaibo?).

Corvina subaequalis Poey, 1875:58, Cuba (holotype: 245 mm TL, not located in MCZ nor in USNM).

Sciaena bedoti Regan, 1905:391; p1. 6, fig. 1, Cuba (syntypes; BMNH 1905. 3.182, one specimen, 155 mm SL; Museum d'Histoire Naturelle, Geneve, no. 678.1, not examined). Bairdiella verae-crucis Jordan \& Dickerson, 1908:17, fig. 1, Vera Cruz (holotype; USNM 61676, 194 mm SL).

## Bairdiella sanctae-1uciae (Jordan)

Corvula sanctae-Iuciae Jordan, 1889:649, Port Castries, St. Lucia (holotype: USNM 4173, 105 mm SL).

## Odontoscion Gill

Diagnosis: Body oblong, compressed; profile evenly arched. Head conical; snout short, blunt; eye large. Mouth large, terminal, slightly oblique; enlarged conical teeth in a single row on both jaws, two teeth at the tip of lower jaw large canine-like (Fig. 37,C). Gill rakers long and stiff. Vertebrae 12+13=25. Swimbladder with two chambers, anterior one yoke-shaped and posterior one carrot-shaped, without diverticula (Fig. 15,A). Sagitta and lapillus both enlarged, only a trace left of the ostium of the sulcus (Fig. 27,D). Snout
with five marginal pores and two upper pores (Fig. 31, C); lower jaw with four pores and no barbel (Fig. 34,C). Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, two species. . One species in western Atlantic: O. dentex. Inhabits coral reefs and offshore waters over. sandy bottoms.

Odontoscion Gill, 1862:18 (type-species: Corvina dentex Cuvier, by original designation).

Odontoscion dentex (Cuvier)

Corvina dentex Cuvier, 1830:139, p1. 109, St. Dominica (holotype: MNHN 144, 114 mm SL).

Ophioscion G111

Diagnosis: Body robust, dorsal profile elevated, ventral slightly convex. Head broad, conical top with prominent cavernous canals (Fig. 39,A); bony interorbital width 3.5 or more in head. Mouth small, inferior, teeth conical in bands. Gill rakers short. Vertebrae $11+14=25$. Swimbladder with two chambers, anterior one yoke-shaped and posterior one carrot-shaped; both without diverticula (Fig. 15,A). Both sagitta and lapillus enlarged; the ostium of the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus incomplete (Fig. 27,A). Snout with three large and two to four minute upper pores, and five marginal pores, rostral fold deepiy indented (Fig. 32,B).: Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantlc, about 5 species. Three nominal species of this genus from the western Atlantic recognized here: 0 . adustus, 0 . panamensis and o. punctatissimus. Inhabits inshore, waters over sandy to muddy bottoms.

# Ophioscion Gill, 1863b:164 (type-species: Ophioscion typicus Gill, by monotypy). <br> Ophioscion (Sigmurus) G1lbert, in Jordan \& Evermann, $1898: 1452$ (type-species: - Corvina vermicularis Günther by monotypy). Ophioscion adustus (Agassiz) <br> Corvina (Sciaena) adusta Agassiz, 1829:126, pl. 70, Montevideo (type: not located in MCZ). 

Remarks: Schultz (1945) indicated that the description of Corvina adusta by Agassiz (1829) did not agree with the fish figured by Spix (Agassiz, 1829). He compared the descriptions of Ophioscion adustus of several authors, then suggested it probably was a senior synonym of Ophioscion woodwardi Fowler, 1937 (= Micropogonias furnieri). The true identity of this species is doubtful.

- Ophioscion panamensis (Schultz)

Ophioscion panamensis Schultz, 1945:134, Eig. 8, Fox Bay, Colon, Panama (holotype: USNM 122612, 52 mm SL).

Ophioscion punctatissimus Meek \& Hilderbrand

Ophioscion punctatissimus Meek \& Hilderbrand, 1925:644, pl. 68, Panama (holotype: USNM 81766, 131 mm SL, Canal Zone).

Remarks: The type-specimens of 0 . panamensis are all juveniles ( $11,23.3-52 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$ ) and their true identity will be in doubt until the morphology of the swimbladder can be examined. No specimens have been reported except the types.

Diagnosis: Body robust, back elevated. Head broad, rather flat on top with apparent cavernous canals (Fig. 39,A); Interorbital wide, bony interorbital width 3.5 or Iess in head. Mouth moderate to large, inferior to oblique (Fig. 38); teeth in conical or villiform bands. Gill rakers usually long and slender, some moderate to short. Vertebrae $11+14=25$. Swimbladder in two chambers, the anterior chamber yoke-shaped with a pair of diverticula, tube-like or bulb-like (Fig. 16), variation also found within the species and the posterior chamber in simple carrot-shape. Both sagitta and lapillus enlarged, the ostium of sulcus on sagitta incomplete (Fig. 28). Snout with five marginal pores, the median one rounded, separate from rostral fold and arranged rhomboidally with three upper pores at the tip of snout (Fig. 1,B); lower jaw with four to six pores, no barbel (Fig. 26). Tropical eastern Pacific and western Atlantic, about 15 species. Nine species of western Atlantic sciaenids belong to this genus: $s$. brasiliensis, S. colonensis, S. griseus, S. lanceolatus, S. microps, S. naso, S. rastrifer, S. stellifer and S. venezuelae. Inhabits inshore waters of sandy bottoms, also in estuaries and around coral reefs.
"Stelliféres" Cuvier, 1817:283, vernacular name Latinized as Stellifer by Oken, 1817:1182 (type-species: Bodianus stellifer Bloch, by original designation).

Stelliferus Stark, 1828:459 (type-species: Stellifer capensis Stark = Bodianus stellifer. Bloch, by monotypy).

Homoprion Holbrook, 1855:168.(type-species: Homoprion lanceolatus Holbrook, by subsequent designation of Gill, 1861b:83). Stellifer (zestis) Gilbert in Jordan \& Evermann, 1898:1439 (typespecies Stellifer oscitans Jordan \& Gilbert, by original designation).

Stellifer (Zestidium) Gilbert in Jordan \& Everman, 1898:1439 (typespecies: Stellifer illecebrosus Gilbert, by original designation). Stellifer (Stellicarens) Gilbert in Jordan \& Evermann, 1898:1439 (type-species: Stellifer zestocarus Gilbert, by original designation).

Stellifer brasiliensis (Schultz)

Ophioscion brasiliensis Schultz, 1945:128, fig. 6, Santos, Brazil (holotype: USNM 87742, 77 mm SL).

Stellifer colonensis Meek \& Hilderbrand

Stellifer colonensis Meek \& Hilderbrand, 1925:623, p1. 46, fig. 1, Mindi, Panama (holotype: USNM 81729, 99 mm SL).

Stellifer griseus Cervigon

Stellifer sp. Cervigon, 1966a:509, fig. 209, Morro de Puer to Santos, Venezuela.

Stellifer griseus Cervigon, 1966b:1, fig. 1, North Peninsula de Araya (holotype in Museo de Historia Natural La Salle, Venezuela, MHNLS 1.875, 120 mm SL, not examined; paratypes: USNM 200782, two specimens, $108 \& 123 \mathrm{~mm}$ SLi).

Homoprion lanceolatus Holbrook, 1855:168, p1. 23, Beaufort, South Carolina.

Stellifer microps (Steindachner)

Corvina microps Steindachner, 1864:205, pl. 2, fig. 2, Guiana (type: not located in NHMV).

Stellifer naso (Jordan)

Stelliferus naso Jordan in Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:395, Cachiura, Brazil (syntypes: USNM 130630, 5 specimens, $68-75 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL). Stellifer rastrifer (Jordan)

Stelliferus rastrifer Jordan in Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:393, Brazil (holotype: MCZ 10815, 128 mm SL, Santos).

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Stellifer stellifer (Bloch)
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Bodianus stellifer Bloch, 1790:55, p1. 231, fig. 1, Cape of Good Hope. Corvina trispinosa Cuvier, 1830:109, Cayenne, Brazill. Stellifer mindii Meek \& Hilderbrand, 1925:626, pl. 66, fig. 2, Mindi Reef, Panama (holotype: USNM 81730, 93.4 mm SL ). Stellifer venezuelae (Schultz)

Ophioscion venezuelae Schultz, 1945:131, fig. 7, Venezuela (holotype: USNM 121749, 140 mm SL).

Four genera, Aplodinotus, Pachypops, Pachyurus and Plagioscion, and 23 nominal species of sciaenids are recognized here from the river systems of the Atlantic drainage in America. Aplodinotus is the only North America freshwater inhabitant, the other three genera are endemic to continental South America. Because of lack of sufficient material for the South American genera, the diagnosis of these genera are based mainly on the literature and type-specimens. The exact limits of these genera are not clear at present.

## Genus Aplodinotus Rafinesque

Diagnosis: Body oblong, snout blunt, back elevated and compressed; mouth small, horizontal to inferior; lower pharyngeals very large, completely united. Swimbladder simple carrot-shaped; sagitta more or less semi-circular, the sulcus not reaching the margin (Fig. 19,B); snout without upper pores (Fig. 31,B); lower jaw without mental barbels. Vertebrae $10+14=24$. Freshwater North and Central America. Monotypic: A.grunniens.

Aplodinotus Rafinesque, 1819:418 (type-species: Aplodinotus grunniens Rafinesque, by monotypy). Haploidonotus G111, 1861d:102 (invalid emendation of Aplodinotus, Rafinesque, 1819, therefore taking the same type-species: Aplodinotus grunniens Rafinesque). Eutychelithus Jordan, 1876:242 (type-species: Corvina richardsoni Cuvier, by monotypy = Aplodinotus grunniens Rafinesque).

Remarks: The original description of Amblodon Rafinesque (1819: 421) included two species of "buffalo-fish" (= Catostomidae), A. bubalus and A. niger. The unique lower pharyngeal teeth of Aplodinotus grunniens were wrongly attributed to these fishes. Rafinesque's (1820: 24) subsequent replacement of Aplodinotus with Amblodon does not make Amblodon an available name in the Sciaenidae.

## Aplodinotus grunniens Rafinesque

Aplodinotus grunniens Rafinesque, 1819:419, Ohio River (no type mentioned in the description).

Sciaena oscula LeSueur, 1822:252, p1. 13, Lake Erie (holotype: MNHN A. 5696,308 mm SL).

Sciaena grisea LeSueur, 1822:254, Ohio River (type: "18 to 24 inches in total length", not located in MNHN).

Corvina richardsoni Cuvier, 1830:100, Lake Huron (type: not located in MNHN, Paris).

Amblodon concinnus Agassiz, 1854:307, Tennessee River (no type mentioned in the description).

Amblodon lineatus Agassiz, 1854:307, Osage River (no type mentioned in the description).

Amblodon neglectus Girard, 1859:167, Rio Grande del Norte, Rio Bravo (holotype: USNM 639, 84.3 mm SL ).

Remarks: Two catalogue numbers, MNHN A. 5696 and MNHN 7536 are Indicated to be syntypes of Corvina oscula LeSueur, MNHN A.5696, a dried stuffed specimen, 308 mm SL, collected by LeSueur from Lake Erie was examined. MNHN 7536 from New Orleans was not located.

Pachypops Gill

Diagnosis: Body moderately elongate, dorsal proffle elevated and descending nearly straight under soft portion of dorsal fin, ventral profile nearly straight. Heađ oblong, snout convex and projecting; suborbital region much swollen and translucent. Mouth small, inferior, teeth in villiform bands; supramaxillary bones entirely concealed under the suborbitals. Preopercular margin slightly serrated. Snout with five upper pores and five marginal pores; lower jaw with five to six pores and three to many barbels. From Cuvier (1930), p1. 138, and Trewavas' (1964) description, the swimbladders of $P$. furcroi and $P$. trifilis have a pair of anterior appendages each dividing into a longer posterior branch and a shorter anterior one (Lonchiurus pattern, Fig. 14,D). Sagitta of a Pachypops furcroi (153 mm SL) examined, which has a similar appearance of the sagitta of Pachyurus schomburgkii (Fig. 18, K). Four nominal species are recognized here; P. adspersus, P. camposi, P. furcroi and P. trifilis.

Pachypops Gill, 1861b:87 (type-species: Micropogon trifilis Müller \& Troschel, by original designation).

Pachypops adspersus (Steindachner)

Pachyurus adspersus Steindachner, 1879:123, Tio San Antonio, Brazil (type: not located in MNHV).

## Pachypops camposi Fowler

Pachypops camposi Fowler, 1954, 9:252, Rupununi River, British Guiana (holotype: ANSP 39773, 117 mm SL, labeled as P. steindachneri).

Pachypops fourcroi (Lacépède)

Perca fourcroi Lacépède, 1803, vol. 4:398, no locality (holotype: MNHN 7539, 135 mm SL).

Pachypops trifilis

Micropogon trifilis Müller \& Troschel, 1848:622, British Guiana (type: not located).

## Pachyurus Agassiz

Diagnosis: Body moderately elongate, dorsal profile slightly elevated, ventral nearly straight or slightly arched. Head conical; snout bluntly, swollen and translucent. Eye moderate to large. Mouth horizontal, inferior or terminal; teeth in villiform bands. Snout with five marginal pores and usually without upper pores, some with three to five upper pores; lower jaw with five pores and no barbel. Swimbladder simple, carrot-shaped or with a pair of tube-like diverticula extending from anterior corners of swimbladder, tapering back to the end of main chamber (Fig. 6). Sagitta moderate to large. Second spine of anal fin moderate to strong. This genus may be divisable into two genera based on the above characters. Nine nominal species are here recognized: P. biloba, $P$. bonariensis, $P$. francisci, P. grunniens, P. lundii, P. natteri, P. paranensis, P. schomburgkii and $P$, squamipinnis.

Pachyurus Agassiz,. 1829:125 \& 127. (type-species: Pachyurus squamipinnis Agassiz, by monotypy).

Lepipterus Cuvier, 1830:152 (type-species: Lepipterus francisci Cuvier, by monotypy).

Pachyurus biloba Cuvier

Corvina biloba Cuvier, 1830:112, no locality (holotype: MNHN 7683, $75.6 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL})$.

## Pachyurus bonariensis Steindachner

Pachyurus (Lepipterus) bonariensis Steindachner 1870:80:125, La Plata, Argentine (NHMV 15181, may be one of the syntypes, 188 mm SL, La Plata, Argentine; "cotype": CAS, Indiana University No. 11353, 152 mm SL, Buenos Aires, this specimen probably not a type-specimen). Pachyurus francisci (Cuvier)

Lepipterus francisci Cuvier, 1830:152, p1. 113, Riviere de SaintFrancois, Brazil (type: not located).

Pachyurus corvina Reinhardt in Litken, 1875:284, Rio das Velhas, Brazil (syntypes: ZMUC 345, three specimens; 217, $243 \& 233 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$ ).

Pachyurus grunniens (Schomburgki)

Corvina grunniens Schomburgki, 1843:136, p1. 2, Comacea Island, Essequibo, British Guiana.

Pachyurus lundii Reinhardt

Pachyurus lundii Reinhardt in Litken, 1875:248, pl. 20, Rio das Velhas, Brazil (syntypes: ZMUC, 16-3, 1871, two specimens; $274 \& 366 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL).

Pachyurus natteri. (Steindachner)

Pachyurus natteri Steindachner, 1863:10, p1. 3 (type: not located in MNHV).

Pachyurus paranensis Dameri

Pachyurus paranensis Dameri, 1956:6, fot. 1 (original description not seen, after Travassos \& Rego-Barros, 1971:60).

Pachyurus schomburgkii Günther

Pachyurus schomburgkii Günther, 1860:282, rivers of Brazil (holotype: BMNH 49.11.8.22, 197 mm SL).

Pachyurus squamipinnis Agassiz

Pachyurus squamipinnis Agassiz 1839:128, pl. 71, Brazil.

Plagioscion Glll

Diagnosis: A freshwater genus of Sciaenidae from South American rivers, some species occasionally in estuaries, rarely marine. Body elongate, dorsal profile evenly arched, ventral nearly straight. Head slightly conical, snout protuberant. Mouth moderate, terminal, slightly oblique, no enlarged canine-like teeth at the tip of upper jaw. Scales along lateral line of some species, concealed by many smaller scales, appeared as one enlarged scale (Fig. 40). Gill rakers rather long and slender. Swimbladder with a pair of horn-like diverticula, originating from anterior $1 / 4$ of main chamber and hooked at the distal ends (Fig. 12,D). Sagitta sub-oval in shape, the ostium
of the "tadpole-shaped" sulcus reaching to anterior margin and the cauda deeply curved in a J-shape (Fig. 18,L). Nine nominal species in this genus: P. auratus, P. heterolepis, P. macdonaghi, P. microps, P. monacantha, p. pauciradiatus, P. squamosissimus, P. surinamensis and $p$, ternetzi.

Plagioscion Gill, 1861b:82 (generic description, no species or type Indicated, compared with Corvina of Cuvier; (type-species: Sciaena squamosissima Hekel, by subsequent designation of Jordan \& Eigenmann, 1889:380).

Diplolepis Steindachner, 1863:2 (type-species: Diplolepis squamossissimus
Steindachner $=$ Sciaena squamosissima Heckel, by monotypy, spelled Diplolepsis on p. 3; preoccupied by Diplolepis Geoffroy, 1762, cynipid insect and Fabricius, 1805, calcid insect, quote from Neave, 1940).

## Plagioscion auratus (Castelnau)

Johnius auratus Castelnau, 2855:12, pl. 4, fig. 2; Ucayala, Brazil (holotype: MNHN 7622, 203 mm SL).

Plagioscion heterolepis (Bleeker)

Johnius heterolepis Bleeker, 1873:456, Surinam (syntypes: RMNH 6042, two specimens, $123 \& 129 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$, these type-specimens are similar to the Stellifer group).

Plagioscion macdonaghi Dameri

Plagioscion macdonaghi Dameri, 1954:179, fig. 1; Rio de La Plata (holotype in. Coleccion Nacional del Instituto Nacional de Investigación de las Ciencias Naturales, Brazil, no. 4197, 147 mm TL, not examined).

## plagioscion microps Steindachner

Plagioscion microps Steindachner, 1917:657, pl. 1, fig. 1, Amazon (one specimen of NHMV 15180, 168 mm SL and 206 mm TL donated by Steindachner, collected from Surinam, may be one of the syntypes: $208 \& 214 \mathrm{~mm}$ TL of original description).

Plagioscion monacantha (Cope)

Corvina monacantha Cope, 1867:402, near Paramaribo, Surinam (holotype: ANSP 11519, 167 mm SL ).

Sciaena magdalenae Steindachner, 1878:22, pl. 1, fig. 1, Magdalenen River (types: 270 to 540 mm IL, not located in NHMV). Plagioscion pauciradiatus Steindachner
plagioscion pauciradiatus Steindachner, 1917:660, figure on p. 661, Paramaribo. (type: not located in NHMV).

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Plagioscion squamossissimus (Heckel)
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Sciaena squamosissima Hecke1, 1840:438, Amazon.
Sciaena rubella Schomburgk, 1843:133, river of British Guiana.

Johnius courvina Castelnau, 1855:11,.pl. 5, fig. 1, Rio Crixas, Rio Arognay, Brazil (holotype: MNHN 7503, 366 mm TL).

Johnius amazonicus Castelnau, 1955:12, pl. 4, fig. 1, Amazon (syntypes: MNHN 7504, two specimens, $96.3 \& 145 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL). Plagioscion surinamensis (Bleeker)

Pseudosciaena surinamemsis Bleeker, 1873:458, Surinam (holotype: RMNH 5995, 88.1 mm SL ).

Plagioscion ternetzi Boulenger

Plagioscion ternetzi Boulenger, 1895:523, Paraguay (syntypes: BMNH 1895.5.17.1-2, two specimens, $88.4 \& 263 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL})$.
II. Phylogenetic Relationships of .the Supra-generic Groups and Genera .

The morphological patterns of swimbladders, otoliths and external features of western Atlantic sciaenid fishes are considered together here (Table 1) to assess phylogenetic relationships (Fig. 4). In the following discussion, relationships will be discussed among the genera, then among supra-generic groups.

1. Relationships of the genera within supra-generic groups. Sciaena group:

The members of this group all have a gimple, swimbladder (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5) and a thick sagitta (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 18). The shape and position of the sulci vary within the genera. Equetus and Paraquer: are very similar in having an elevated dorsal profile and dark stripes on the sides. They are both coral reef dwellers. Sciaena lives in deeper water (Chao $\&$ Miller, 1975) than other sciaenids. Members of Sciaena group have enclosed inferior mouths except for Sciaena with a terminal and slightly inferior mouth. Habitat diversification of this group is greatest among all western Atlantic supra-generic groups of sciaenids.

Umbrina group
This group is most similar to the Sciaena group, except these fishes have a single barbel on the lower jaw. The swimbladder is simple, carrot-shaped (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5). The sagitita of Ctenosciaena gracilicirrhus is most similar to Umbrina millae and Sciaena trewavasae (Fig. 18). This suggests a relationship between the

Sciaena and Umbrina groups. . Although Ctenosciaena has a mental barbel, It lacks an apical.pore (Fig. 35,A). It also has a terminal and slightly inferior mouth, and inhabits waters slightly offshore and deeper than Umbrina species. The deeper water habitat of Ctenosciaena and corresponding morphological adaptations are similar to those of Sciaena. This may suggest a convergence between these respective genera.

Lonchiurus group:

Paralonchurus and Lonchiurus show a sequence of reduction in swimbladder size (Fig. 14). This is significant in assessing the relationships of the Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus groups. Lonchiurus lanceolatus has the most reduced swimbladder (Fig. 14,A) and lacks drumming muscles in both sexes. It is a coastal and estuarine dweller. Its habitat is similar to that of Menticirrhus which has only a vestige of the swimbladder remaining in adults. The reduced swimbladder of L. lanceolatus also shows a basic two-horned structure, which resembles that of the Cynoscion group (Fig. 12). Paralonchurus has a welldeveloped swimbladder, drumming muscles are present in males and it Inhabits deeper inshore waters than Lonchiurus. In comparing the sagitta (Fig. 24) and external morphology of Lonchiurus and Paralonchurus. The similarities among L. lanceolatus, P. brasiliensis and P. elegans indicate that they might all be validly treated as one genus. The South American freshwater sciaenid genus Pachypops may also belong to this group, based on the swimbladder of P. furcroi (Fig. 14,D). Few species examined from.this genus all have inferior mouths and three to many pairs of barbels.

Cynoscion group:

Although genera of this group have similar swimbladder shapes, (Fig. 12) the sagittae (Figs. $23 \& 25$ ) and external morphology are rather variable. Macrodon ancylodon has a thin elongate sagitta (Fig. $25, B$ ) similar to Cynoscion (Fig. 23), but the general outline and the sulcus differ. The external morphology is also similar, except that Macrodon has a pair of large lanceolate canines at the tip of the upper jaw (Fig. 37,A). Isopisthus differs from all other sciaenids by having a space between the spinous and soft dorsal fins, but its general body shape resembles Cynoscion. The South American freshwater genus plagioscion has a terminal horizontal mouth, and lacks enlarged canines. Its body shape is deeper and is not as fusiform as other genera of this group. This may be an adaptation to the freshwater habitat, whereas, the fast swimming and fusiform Cynoscion may be adapted to an open water habitat. The sagittae of the genera in the Cynoscion group differ from each other. In Plagioscion surinamensis (Fig. 18,L) and Isopisthus parvipinnis (Fig. 25,A), the sagittae have a similar thickened posterior half. Sciaenidae usually have a thick sagitta, therefore, this similarity is not indicative of generic relationships.

## Stellifer group:

Genera of this group all have a two chambered swimbladder (Fig. 15) and an enlarged lapillus (Fig. 27). The genus Stellifer has a pair of diverticula postero-laterally on the anterior chamber of the swimbladder (Fig. 16). The different morphology of these diverticula Indicate the range of variation: Ophioscion has a sagitta and lapillus
shaped similarly to Stellifer (Fig. 27, A \& B) and the body shape, cavernous head (Fig. 29,A) and swimbladder position are similar. Although Ophioscion lacks diverticula on the anterior chamber of the swimbladder, it could be considered as a member of Stellifer (Fig. 4). Bairdiella and Odontoscion (Fig. 37,C) have a terminal mouth, and lack apparent cavernous canals on the head (Fig. 39; B). Odontoscion Inhabits clear water reefs and has large eyes and large canine-like teeth (Fig. 37, C). Other genera of this group are mainly estuarine inhabitants.

Genus, Leiostomus, is similar to Sciaena group, but it has a much thinner sagitta (Fig. 18,D). In addition, the ostium of its sulcus is bent toward the dorsal margin (to the right of Fig. 18). The phylogenetic position of this genus is tentatively put with the Sciaena and Umbrina groups. The North American freshwater Aplodinotus has a semi-circular sagitta (Pogonias pattern, Fig. 19). Although the swimbladder of Aplodinotus is a simple carrot-shaped (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5), it may still be more closely related to pogonias than any other western Atlantic sciaenid genus (Fig. 4). Osteological studies of Topp and Cole (1968) on Sciaenops and Mohsin (1973) on four Cynoscion species of the Gulf of Mexico are also useful in assessing relationship within the genera. Other monotypic supra-generic groups of western Atlantic sciaenids may contain more.genera from other geographic regions, especially the eastern Pacific.
2. Relationships of the supra-generic groups:

The Sciaena and Umbrina groups are similar in swimbladder (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 5) and otolith (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 18)
morphology, Their external morphology is similar except that the Umbrina group has a mental barbel (Fig. 35,A \& C). Members of both groups are mainly bottom feeders with inferior mouths. The genus Sciaena of the Sciaena group and the genus Ctenosciaena of the Umbrina group have entered deeper waters and both have a relatively larger and more terminal mouth to feed in mid-water. The cluster of Sciaena and Umbrina groups are in turn most closely related to the Larimus group (Fig. 4). The species of Larimus have a basic simple swimbladder (Fig. 5,E \& F). A pair of anterior projections found on the swimbladder of $L$. breviceps appear to be a modification of the Sciaena swimbladder pattern. The sagitta of Larimus species (Fig. 20,A \& B) has a unique outline and the ostium of the sulcus is much larger and does not reach to the anterior margin of the sagitta. The lack of upper pores on the snout ( $\mathrm{Fig} .31, \mathrm{~B}$ ) and four minute mental pores (Fig. 34,B) in Larimus are adaptive characters correlated with its large oblique mouth and upper water column feeding habits (Fig. 30 and Table 1).

Among the supra-generic groups, both Pogonias and Sciaenops have a complicated swimbladder as adults (Figs. $10 \& 11$ ), but the structural patterns are different and their sagittae also differ (Figs. 19 \& 20). Although Pogonias and Sciaenops have a similar inferior mouth and inhabit inshore coastal and estuarine waters, the body shape of Sciaenops is more elongate and.less compressed than Pogonias. This may be an adaptation of Sciaenops to the shallow water surf zone habitat.

The Menticirrhus group is closely related to the Lonchiurus group on the basis of their reduced swimbladders (Figs. 7 \& 14). In
comparison to other diagnostic characters, the Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus groups, whether this trend of swimbladder reduction may be interpreted as Indicating phylogenetic relationships or ecological convergence is unknown. The sagittae of the Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus groups (Figs. 22, B \& 24) are both elongate and thin but the shapes of the sulci are different. The body shape is elongate and rounded in both groups. The flat ventral side of the body is an adaptation for inhabiting the bottom or specifically the surf zone. Both genera have inferior mouths and barbels. Although the Menticirrhus group has a pores single barbel (Fig. 35,B) similar to that of Umbrina (Fig. 35, C), this probably should be viewed as ecologically convergent for bottom feeding rather than as phylogenetically important.

Other generic groups of western Atlantic sciaenids may not be as closely related as the groups already discussed. Their relationships appear to be above the tribal level (between line $C$ and line $D$ of Figure 4) in the present study. The next higher level of clustering (between line B and line C of Figure 4) indicates that the Pogonias and Sciaenops are most closely related to the Larimus, sciaena and Umbrina groups. The generic groups included in this cluster ( $Z$ on Figure 4) show a basic carrot-shaped swimbladder with diverticula present or absent. Their sagittae are basically sub-oval shaped and most members are bottom feeders. This cluster ( $Z$ ) of supra-generic groups is probably the main scheme of the phylogenetic development of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. The trend of swimbladder development in western Atlantlc sciaenids is clearly demonstrated from the simple Sciaena pattern with extrinsic drumming muscles in the male to the complicated

Pogonias pattern with intrinsic drumming muscles in both sexes. Furthermore, the ontogenetic.development of the swimbladder in Pogonias cromis (Fig. 10) and Sciaenops ocellata (Fig. 11) may also reflect the phylogenetic development of the swimbladder, from simple to complicated with diverticula developing on the swimbladder from the anterior to the posterior end.

Further clustering of the taxa (between line $A$ and Iine $B$ of Figure 4) is more difficult due to the limitations of a regional sutdy. There are gaps, especially in assessing the relationships of the Micropogonias and Nebris groups. Nebris microps has a pair of well-developed anterior diverticula on its swimbladder (Fig. 8) and a very thick oval-shaped sagitta (Fig. 21). Micropogonias species have a pair of posteriorly originating tube-like diverticula on their swimbladders (Fig. 9) and a rather thick and shield-Iike irregular shaped sagitta (Fig. 26). At present, I suggest that the Mebris is more closely related to the 2 cluster on Figure 4 than does the Micropogonias. This clustering is based mainly on the position of the diverticula. The swimbladder diverticula of Micropogonias are developed more posteriorly than that in the Nebris. group. Both of them have a sagitta different from the members of Z cluster (Fig. 4). Nebris group has also evolved a different way of feeding, by having an elongate round body and a very large and oblique mouth (Fig. 37,B). This form of mouth structure and body shape enables them to feed from the bottom upward. . The Micropogonias has an inferior mouth and four to six pairs of mental barbels (Fig. 37,D). typical structures of bottom feeding sciaenids.

The grouping of the Cynoscion group with the Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus groups ( Y on Fig. 4) is based on the basic shape of the main chamber of the swimbladder and their elongate thin sagittae. Although the members of the Lonchiurus group have a pair of posteriorly directed diverticula on their swimbladders (Fig. 14), the main chambers have two anterior horns resembling those of the Cynoscion group (Fig. 12). Especially in the reduced form of Lonchiurus lanceolatus (Fig. $14, \mathrm{~A})$, the anterior horns remain unchanged.

The $X$ and $Y$ clusters on Figure 4 are more closely related to each other phyletically than to the Stellifer group, because they all have a single chambered swimbladder and only the sagitta enlarged. The swimbladder of the Stellifer group has an additional chamber (Fig. 15) in front of the main carrot-shaped chamber. This yoke-shaped anterior chamber is located in front of the septum transversum and its anterior ends reach the skull. The sagitta of the stellifer group is reduced in size and the lapillus is enlarged (Fig. 27). The sequences of sagitta reduction and lapillus enlargement are evident among the modern genera of the Stellifer group. The unique swimbladder and otolith characters of the Stellifer group suggest that they are a distinct group from all other western Atlantic sciaenids. The two chambered swimbladder has not been reported in sciaenid fishes of other geographic regions other than the New World. Therefore, the Stellifer group could be treated as a subfamily of the Sciaenidae.

In conclusion, western Atlantic Sciaenidae can be readily divided Into two groups. One group is characterized by a swimbladder with two chambers and with two pairs of enlarged otoliths (lapillus and
sagitta). The other group is characterized by a single chambered swimbladder and only one pair of enlarged otoliths (sagitta). Further divisions are based mainly on swimbladder structure, secondly on the morphology of the sagittae and thirdly on external morphology. Swimbladder structure may be graded from simple to complex. Such a gradation is also reflected in the ontogenetic changes of several species such as Pogonias cromis (Fig. 10) and Sciaenops ocellata (Fig. 11). The primitive condition of the swimbladder (simple Sciaena pattern) exists in juveniles and adults of many species. Further development of the swimbladder is determined by the development of the diverticula from the anterior to the posterior end of the main chamber. Whether the reduction in size or loss of the swimbladder in adults of Menticirrhus and Lonchiurus groups (Figs. $7 \& 14$ ) is attributed to phylogenetic relationships or ecological convergence is undetermined at present.

The general morphology of the sagitta and its sulcus were used to determine relationships of different taxa especially at the generic level. In the primitive condition of this character, the sagitta is thick and the sulcus opens to the anterior margin of the sagitta, i.e. the ostium of the sulcus reaches the anterior margin (Sciaena pattern, Fig. 18). This is the most generalized pattern in many groups of western Atlantic sciaenids. The external morphology of the western Atlantic Sciaenidae, especially the mouth positions and body shapes are more diverse than any other perciform family in the region. These characters are more or less adaptive and plastic, but may be used to augment other characters in assessing the relationships of the western

Atlantic sciaenids. Biochemical characters of parvalbumins have been studied by Sullivan, et. al. (1975) and Rao, et. al. (1976) to assess the systematic relationships of some sciaenid species from the Atlantic American coast. Their findings in the future would contribute much more to the current knowledge of phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. There are four genera of Sciaenidae; Aplodinotus, Pachyurus, Pachypops and Plagioscion which live in freshwater for their entire life history. The freshwater sciaenids are endemic to the Atlantic drainages of the New World. Knowledge of their taxonomy and biology is rather sparse. Further studies on these freshwater sciaenids and on eastern Pacific sciaenids should fill many gaps in the present study.

FIELD KEY TO THE GENERA
AND SPECIES OF WESTERN ATLANTIC SCIAENIDAE
la Lower jaw with one or more barbels (Fig. 32, E to H)
2a Only one barbel at the tip of lower jaw
3a Anal fin with one spine; body elongate fusiform; swimbladder absent or degenerate in adult. .Menticirrhus

3b Anal fin with two spines; body compressed, not fusiform; swimbladder present in adult

4a Mental barbel short, rigid and perforate, with an apical pore (Fig. 35,C); two pairs of large pores at the base of barbel; mouth inferior; body with longitudinal stripes and vertical bars. .Umbrina 4b Mental barbel short, flexfble and tapered at end, without an apical pore (Fig. 35,A); lateral pores minute; mouth slightly inferior, subterminal; body uniform in color, a black spot at pectoral fin origin. [D.X, I+21-24; A.II, 7-8; gill rakers short, $(7-9)+(13-17)=21-25]$. .Ctenosciaena gracilicirrhus (South Caribbean to Brazil)

2b Tuft of barbels at tip and/or small barbels along rami of lower Jaw

5a Second anal fin spine strong and long, more than twothirds length of first anal ray; eye moderate, five times or less in head

6a Barbels mostly in tuft at tip of chin (Fig. 32, H); eye diameter large (about three to four times in head); freshwater . . . . . . . . . . . .Pachypops (Freshwater South America)

6b Row of small barbels along rami of lower jaw, not in tuft at tip of chin (Fig. 32, G); eye diameter medium (about five times in head); marine and estuarine

7a Preopercular margin strong1y serrate; body covered with relatively small scales, 64 to 72 in the row above lateral line; swimbladder with a pair of tube-like diverticula (Fig. 9); body silvery with pinkish cast, with many oblique stripes along the scale rows . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .Micropogonias

7b Preopercular margin smooth; body covered with relatively large scales, 41 to 45 in the row above lateral line; swimbladder very complex with many interconnected diverticula (Fig. 10); body gray to dark, juveniles with 4 to 5 broad vertical bars. [D. X+I, 19-21;
A. II, 5-6; gill rakers short, $(4-6)+(12-16)=$ 16-21]. . . . . . . . . . .Pogonias cromis (Gulf of Maine to Brazil)

5b Second anal fin spine weak and short less than twothirds length of first anal ray; eye small about nine times in head

8a Lower jaw with a tuft of three pairs minute barbels at the tip and more than 10 pairs barbels along rami of lower jaw (Fig. 32, H); pectoral fin large or small; swimbladder well-developed (Fig. 14, B \& C). . . . . . . . . . . . .Paralonchurus

8b Lower jaw with two barbels only (Fig. 32, F), barbels longer than eye diameter; pectoral fins very large, jet black; swimbladder atrophied in adult (Fig. 14, A). [D. X-XI+I, 37-39, A. II, 7-9; gill rakers short, (4-6)+(11-13)=15-18] . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .Lonchiurus lanceolatus
(Venezuela to Brazil)
Lower jaw without barbel (Fig. 32, A to D)
9a Body fusiform; mouth distinctively oblique; a pair of enlarged canine-like teeth usually at tip of upper jaw; preopercular margin entire never serrate; swimbladder with a pair of horns at anterior end (Fig. 12)

10a Spinous and soft portions of dorsal fin well separated; anal fin base about equal to the length of soft dorsal fin base; anal fin rays 16-20. [D. VII+I, 18-20; gill rakers moderate, $(2-3)+(7-9)=9-12]$. .Isopisthus parvipinnis (Guiana to southern Brazil)

10b Spinous and soft portion of dorsal fin, with a deep notch in between, but not separated; soft dorsal fin base much longer than anal fin base; anal fin rays seven to 12

11a Enlarged canine teeth lance-shaped (Fig. 37, A); lower jaw with canine-like teeth exposed externally when mouth closed. [D. X+I, 27-29; A. II, 8-9; gill rakers slender, $(2-3)+(7-9)=9-121$. . . . . . .Macrodon ancylodon
(Guiana to southern Brazi1)
11b Enlarged canine teeth not lance-shaped but tapering gradually from base to tip; lower jaw teeth never exposed externally when mouth closed. .Cynoscion Body fusiform or deeply compressed, mouth inferior, terminal, horizontal or oblique; no enlarged canine-like teeth at tip of upper jaw; preopercular margin serrate or not; swimbladder with or without anterior horns

12a Preopercular margin serrate, sometimes strong with one or more spines at the angle

13a Scales along lateral line considerably enlarged but almost entirely concealed by small scales (Fig. 40); swimbladder with one chamber and a pair of anterior horns present (Fig. 12, D); lapillus (small earstone) small, less than one-tenth the size of sagitta (large earstone); freshwater and estuarine. . . . . . . . . . . . . . .Plagioscion (freshwater and estuarine South America)

13b Scales along lateral line about same size as adjacent rows; swimbladder with two chambers anterior one yoke-shaped and separated by a constriction from main posterior chamber (Fig. 15);
lapillus (small earstone) large, more than half the size of sagitta (larger earstone) (Fig. 27); marine and estuarine

14a Anterior horn of swimbladder terminating subcutaneously, frequently visible on superficial inspection in adult and juvenile under the upper end of gill silt. Mouth inferior to oblique; snout usually projecting; dorsal view of head blunt, cavernous (Fig. 39, A); interorbital width usually more than 1.2 times of eye diameter 15a Anterior chamber of swimbladder with a pair of variably developed posterior diverticula (Fig. 16); bony interorbital width 3.5 or less in head. . .Stellifer

15b Anterior chamber of swimbladder without posterior diverticula; bony interorbital width 3.5 or more in head. .Ophioscion

14b Anterior horn of swimbladder only visible in juvenile externally under the upper end of gill slit. Mouth horizontal to oblique; snout not projecting; dorsal view of head tapered; not cavernous (Fig. 39, B) interorbital width usually 1ess than 1.2 times of eye diameter. . . . . . . . . .Bairdiella

12b Preopercular margin without strong serrations, sometime ciliated but never with spines at the angle

16a Mouth large, oblique or nearly vertical; snout not projecting; lower jaw prominent

17a Mouth slightly oblique, terminal; lower jaw with a row of enlarged canine-like teeth, not projecting beyond upper jaw (Fig. 37, C); swimbladder with two chambers, anterior one yoke-shaped, posterior one in carrot-shape; lapillus (small earstone) large more than two-thirds the size of sagitta (larger earstone); a distinct black blotch at pectoral fin base. [D. XI-XII+I, 23-26; A. II, 8-9; gill rakers long and stiff, (5-9)+(14-17)= 19-25J. . . . . . . . . .Odontoscion dentex
(Florida to Brazil)
17b Mouth very oblique or vertical; lower jaw without canine-1ike teeth, projecting in front of upper jaw (Fig. 37, B); swimbladder in one chamber, lapillus (small earstone) small, less than one-tenth the size of sagitta (large earstone), without a distinct black blotch at pectoral fin base

18a Eye small, about eight to 10 times in head; body elongate; scales small, cycloid, about 90 in the row above lateral line; caudal fin pointed in adult. [D. VIII+I, 31-32; A. II, 9-10; gill rakers long and slender, (5-9) + (14-
15) $=20-24$ ]. . . . . . .Nebris microps
(Costa Rica to Brazil)
18b Eye large, about three to four times in head; body short; scales large, ctenoid, about 50 in the row above lateral line; caudal fin biconcave in adult. .Larimus
16b Mouth small, inferior; snout projecting in front of upper jaw; lower jaw included
19a Body short, deep; dorsal profile elevated anteriorly
20a Body silvery with faint oblique stripes along the oblique scale rows dorsally; a dark spot above upper angle of gill silt; gill rakers more than 30 on first gill arch. [D. IX+I, 29-35; A. II, 12-13; gill rakers (8-12)+(20-23) $=30-36$ ]. . . . . . . . . .Leiostomus xanthurus (U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts) 20b Body pale to dark brown; with dark longitudinal stripes and/or oblique bars on sides, without a dark spot above gill slit; gill rakers less than 20 on first g111 arch
2la Height of spinous dorsal longer than head, usually with long filament; body brownish pale with three oblique bars on sides; third bar running
from nape to caudal fin; dorsal fin soft rays more than 45. .Equetus

2lb Height of spinous dorsal shorter than head; body pale brown to dark brown with longitudinal stripes on sides; dorsal fin soft rays less than 40. . . . . . . . . .Pareques

19b Body elongate, dorsal profile not elevated 22a Snout with peculiar conical appearance, from the preorbital region being swollen and enlarged; maxillary entirely concealed under snout. . . .Pachyurus (freshwater South America)

22b Snout rounded, not swollen, maxillary exposed under snout

23a Body elongate; one or more large dark spots (larger than eye) on the base of caudal peduncle and/or side of body. [D. X+I, 23-25; A. II, 8-9; gill rakers (4-5)+(7-9)=12-14]. . . . . . . . . . . Sciaenops ocellata (U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts)

23b Body robust; color uniform, no black spot on caudal base, no dark spots on sides of body. ' [D. IX-X+I, 27-33; A. II, 7; gill rakers $6+(10-12)=$

16-18]. . .Aplodinotus grunniens (freshwater, Canada to Guatamala)

Key to the species of Bairdiella

Ia Preopercular margin with distinct strong spines at the angle
2a Second anal fin spine very strong, $21-26 \%$ of standard length; preopercular margin with strong spine-like serration. D. X+T, 21-26 (usually 23-25); A. II, 7-9 (usually 8); gill rakers slender, $(6-10)+(15-18)=21-27$ (usually $24-25)$. .B. ronchus (Caribbean islands to Brazil)

2b Second anal fin spine not as strong, 13-20\% of standard length; preopercular margin with distinct strong spines. D. X, I, 19-23; A. II, 8-10 (usually 9); gill rakers slender, $(7-8)+(14-16)=22-24 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . B . ~ c h r y s o u r a ~$ (U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts)

1b Preopercular margin with only weak serrations, no spines at the angle

3a Preopercular margin with strong lateral ridge and weak serrations; second anal fin spine about $2 / 3$ length of first ray; D. $X+I, 25-29 ;$ A. II, 7-8; gill rakers short, (5-6)+ $(13-16)=18-22$. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .B. batabana (Florida to Caribbean Islands)

3b Preopercular margin membranous without distinct serrations; second anal fin spine. Iess than 2/3. Iength of first ray; D. $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{IX}, \mathrm{I}+22-24 ; \mathrm{A}$. II, 9 (rarely 8 ); gill rakers long, $(7-8)+(16-18)=23-26$. . . . . . . . .B. sanctaeluciae (Florida to Guiana)

## Key to the Species of Cynoscion

$1 a$
Scales cycloid on body
2a Soft portion of dorsal fin base covered with small scales; with less than 25 rays

3a Inner row teeth of lower jaw much larger than external ones, some central ones canine-like; small scales cover 2/3 of soft dorsal fin; D. X+I, 22-25 (usually 23-24); A. II, $10-12$; gill rakers $(2-3)+(6-9)=8-11 ; 150-160$ scales along the row above lateral line; anterior horns of swimbladder long and straight (Fig. 13, A). . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .C. microlepidotus (Venezuela to Brazil)

3b Inner row teeth of lower jaw slightly enlarged, no canine-1ike teeth; small scales cover less than $1 / 3$ of soft dorsal fin; D. X+I, 20-24 (usually 21-23); A. II, 8-10; gill rakers (2-3)+(5-8)=7-11; 115-125 scales along the row above lateral line; anterior horns of swimbladder curved (Fig. 13, D \& E). .C. Ieiarchus (Venezuela to Brazil)

2b Soft portion of dorsal fin naked, with 23-31 rays; A. II, 8-9; gill rakers $(1-3)+(6-8)=7-11 ; 120-130$ scales along the row above lateral line; anterior horn of swimbladder slightly curved; sagitta with a notch on ventral margin (Fig. 23, C). . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . C. virescens
(Panama to Brazil)

4 a More than 20 gill rakers. [D. X+I, 18-21; A. II, 8-9; gill rakers long, (7-9)+(14-17)=21-26]. . . . .C. striatus (Brazil to Argentina)

Less than 20 gill rakers
5a Dorsal fin usually with fewer than 21 rays; anal with eight to nine soft rays; gill rakers long, (2-6)+(8-10)= 10-16. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .c. acoupa (Panama to Brazil)

5b Dorsal fin usually with more than 21 rays; anal fin with eight to 11 soft rays; gill rakers long or short. 6a Pectoral fin short, about two times or more in head

7a A pair of canine-1ike teeth at the tip of upper Jaw; D. IX-X+I, 25-29; A. II, 10-12; gill rakers $(3-4)+(9-10)=12-14$; about 60 (58-62) scales in the row above lateral line . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .C. arenarius
(U.S. Gulf of Mexico coast)

7b Canine-1ike teeth reduced; D. X+I, 21-24;
A. II, $10-12$; gill rakers $(3-5)+(8-10)=$ 11-15; about $70(67-72)$ scales in the row above lateral line . . . . C. steindachneri (Guiana to Brazil)

6b Pectoral fin long, much less than two times in head

8a Soft portion of dorsal fin not covered by small scales

9a Gill rakers long, (3-4)+(6-9)=9-13;
D. $X+I, 24-29 ;$ A. II, $8-10 ;$ body color brownish to pale without dark spots on the side. . . . . . . . . .C. similis (Venezuela to Surinam)

9b Gill rakers short, $(2-3)+(7-9)=9-12$;
D. IX-X, 25-28, A. II, 10-11; body with large black spots on the back and sides. . . . . . . . . . . . .C. nebulosus
(U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts)

8b Soft portion of dorsal fin usually densely covered with small scales

10a Anal fin with 11-13 soft rays; body usually with small dark spots forming oblique lines on the side. [D. X+I, 26-29; gill rakers $(4-5)+(10-12)=14-171$. . - . . . . . . . . . . .C. regalis
(Gulf of Maine to Florida)
10b Anal fin with 8 - 10 soft rays; side of body without distinct spots

11a Soft portion of dorsal fin covered with small scales to about threefourths of soft dorsal fin height; D. $X+I, 23-27$; gill rakers (2-3)+ (7-10)=9-13; total vertebrae 25. . . - . . . . . . . .C. jamaicensis (Panama to Argentina)
$11 b$ Soft portion of dorsal fin covered with small:scales less than twothirds of soft dorsal fin height; D. $\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{I}, 26-30$; gill rakers (3-4)+ $(8-10)=11-14$; total vertebrae 27. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . C. nothus (Chesapeake Bay to Texas)

Key to the Species of Equetus

La Body with two narrow longitudinal stripes above and below the third bar; dorsal, anal and caudal fin dark brown with white spots; pectoral dark brown. [D. XI-XII+I, 45-47; A. II, 6-8; gill rakers short, $5+(10-13)=15-181$. . . . . . . .E. punctatus (Florida, Antilles, Panama to Brazil)
lb Body without narrow longitudinal stripes; broad oblique bars with distinct white margins; pectoral, dorsal, and anal fins pale. [D. XII-XIII+I, 47-55; A. II, 6; gill rakers short, (5-6)+(10-13)= 14-181. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .E. lanceolatus (Florida, Antilles and Venezuela)

Key to the Species of Larimus

1a Body dark gray above and silvery below without vertical bars on the sides; [D. $X+I, 26-28 ;$ gill rakers slender, longer than eye diameter; (9-11)+(19-22)=28-33J. . . . . . . . .L. breviceps (Caribbean Islands to Brazil)
lb Body dark with 7 to 9 vertical bars on the sides; [D. X+I, 24-27; gill rakers slender, about equal to eye diameter, $(11-13)+(22-25)=$ 34-36]. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . L. fasciatus (U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts)

Key to the Species of Menticirrhus
la Breast scāles not uniform in size; those towards head notably smaller than scales along lateral line; molar teeth present on pharyngeal plates; pectoral fins short, not reaching beyond tip of pelvic fins; usually three or more gill rakers on lower limb of first branchial arch; color plain silvery gray; juveniles (less than 100 mm SL ) with only a vestige of swimbladder. Lateral line scales 72-74. [D. $\mathrm{X}=\mathrm{XI}+19-26$; gill rakers short, 3-5+0-8=3-12]. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .M. Iittoralis (Chesapeake Bay to Brazil)
lb Breast scales uniform in size; about as large as those along lateral line; no molar teeth on pharyngeal plates; pectoral fin reaching to or beyond tip of pelvic fin; gill rakers tuberculate or absent on the lower limb of first branchial arch; side with dark oblique bars

2a Anal fin rays usually 7 (6-8); depressed spinous portion of dorsal fin seldom extends past origin of soft portion of dorsal fin; $:$ longest dorsal spine $16.2-24.1 \%$ of SL ; juveniles (less than 100 mm SL) with only a vestige of swimbladder. [D. X, I+20-26; gill rakers short, (2-3)+ (0-7)=2-10J. . . . . . . . . . . . . . .M. americanus (Chesapeake Bay to Argentina)

2b Anal fin ray usually 8 (7-9); depressed spinous portion of dorsal fin extends past origin of soft portion of dorsal fin;:longest dorsal spine 24.6-38.9\% of SL; juveniles (less than 100 mm SL) with well-developed swimbladder. [D. X, I+22-27; gill rakers short, $(3-5)+(0-7)=3-12 \mathrm{~J} . . . . . . . . . . . . M . ~ s a x a t i l i s$
(Gulf of Maine to Mexico)

Key to the Species of Micropogonias

1a Dark spots on scales above lateral line forming continuous streaks nearly as wide as interspaces; 6 to 7 scales between dorsal fin origin and lateral line in vertical series; pelvis fin longer, less than 1.6 times in head; D. $X+I, 26-30$ (usually 26-28); A. II, 7-8; gill rakers short, (7-9)+(12-15)=21-25. . . . .M. furnieri (Venezuela to Brazil)
lb Dark spots on scales above lateral line not forming continuous streaks; 8 to 9 scales between dorsal fin origin and lateral line in vertical series; pelvic fin shorter, more than 1.6 times in head; D. X+I, 27-30 (usually 28-29); A. II, 8-9; gill rakers short, $(8-10)+(14-18)=22-29 . ~ . ~ . ~ . ~ . ~ . ~ . ~ . ~ . M . ~ u n d u l a t u s ~$ (Chesapeake Bay to Brazil)

Key to the Species of Ophioscion

Ia Dorsal fin with more than 25 rays; anal fin with 9 rays; D. $X+I$, 28-29; gill rakers 9+17=26; lateral line scales $50-57$; body with oblique streaks above lateral line (also see remarks in Synopsis). . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .O. adustus (Caribbean Islands to Brazil)

1b Dorsal fin with less than 25 rays; anal fin with 7 rays 2a Lateral line pores 49-52; D. X+I, 20-21; gill rakers (7-9)+ 14=21-23. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .O. panamensis

2b Lateral Ine pores 54-57; D. X+I, 23-24; gill rakers (7-8)+ $(13-16)=20-24$. . . . . . . . . . . . . .O. punctatissimus (Panama to Brazil)

## Key to the Species of Paralonchurus

la Pectoral fin short and pale, not extending beyond the tip of pelvic fin; eye diameter moderate (about 5 times in head); soft dorsal with 28-31 rays; body with vertical dark stripe and dark humeral spot above the pectoral fin origin; vertebrae $11+18=29$; gill rakers short, (3-5)+(6-9)=10-14. . . . .P. brasiliensis (Venezuela to Brazil)
lb Pectoral fin very long and jet black, reaching to anal fin origin; eye diameter small (about 9 times in head); soft dorsal 31-33 rays; body uniform brown; vertebrae $10+15=25$; gill rakers short, 3+4=7. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .P. elegans (Surinam to Brazil)

Key to the Species of Pareques

Side with 7-10 narrow longitudinal stripes narrower than pupil, pectoral fin pale, [D. XI-X+I, 38-40, A.II, 7; gill rakers short, $(4-6)+(10-12)=15-181$. . . . . . . . . . . . . .P. umbrosus Side with 3 to 5 broad longitudinal stripes wider than pupil; and narrow stripes in between them, pectoral fin dark brown. [D. VIIIIX+I, 37-41, A, II, 7-8, gill rakers short, (5-6)+(9-14)=14-20J. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .P. accuminatus

Key to the Species of Stellifer

Preopercular margin with two or three strongly developed spines at the angle

2a Preopercular margin with three.strong spines (occasionally four), mouth oblique (Fig. 38, B); gill rakers (12-14)+ (20-25)=32-38; [D. XI+I, 18-20; A. II, 8; longer than $2 / 3$ of eye; pectoral fin about 28.5 to $31 \%$ of $\operatorname{SL}(72-106 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL specimens)]. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .S. stellifer (Venezuela to Brazil)

2b Preopercular margin with two strong spines; mouth horizontal; gill rakers on first arch 40 or more; [D. XI-XII+I, 21-24;
A. II, 8-9]

3a Gill rakers $16-20+(24-31)=40-51$; pectoral fin length about 26.8 to $28.8 \%$ of SL ( $90-100 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL specimens); one to several median predorsal rows of ctenoid scales on nape. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .S. rastrifer (Venezuela to Brazil)

3b Gill raker 19-22+(32-35)=51-57; pectoral fin length about 32.5 to $34 \%$ of SL ( $90-100 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL specimens); no predorsal ctenoid scales on nape. . . . .S. griseus (Venezuela)

1b Preopercular margin with four or more strongly developed spines at the angle

4a Gill rakers 28 or fewer; upper jaw 2.8 or more in head, mouth more or less ventral in position; when mouth closed, snout projecting in front of premaxillae (upper jaw)

5a Scales on top of head mostly cycloid; tip of pectoral fin extends to about level of tip of pelvic fin; swimbladder with tube-like diverticula

6a Gill rakers $(8-9)+(13-14)=21-23$; D. $X=X I+I, 19-21$; A. II, 8-10.(usually 9); diverticula on swimbladder short, digit-like (Fig. 16, C). . . .S. microps (Columbia to Brazil)

6b Gill rakers $8+(14-16)=22-24$; D. $X+I, 22$; A. II, 9; diverticula on swimbladder very long, U-shaped (Fig. 16, D). . . . . . . . . . .S. brasiliensis (Brazil)

5b
Scales on top of head ctenold; tip of pectoral fin extends beyond tip of pelvic fin; swimbladder with bulb or bean-shaped diverticula (Fig. 16, A)

7a Tip of pelvic fin ends slightly anterior to the tip of pectoral fin; gill rakers (8-9)+(15-16)= 23-25; [D. XITI, 20-22; A. II, 8]. . .s. naso (Venezuela to Brazil)

7b Tip of pelvic fin end far before the tip of pectoral fin; gill rakers (9-10)+(16-19)=26-28; [D. XI=XII+I, 21-22; A. II, 8 (rarely 9)]. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .S. venezuelae (Venezuela)

4b Gill rakers 29 or more; upper jaw 2.6 or less in head, mouth more or less oblique in position; when mouth closed, snout equal to or profecting slightly in front of premaxillae (upper jaw)

8a Tip of upper lip on horizontal with or above ventral margin of eye; snout not projecting beyond upper lip; D. XI-XII+I, 20-24; g111 rakers (10-13) $+(22-23)=32-36 ;$
eye 4.7-5.5 times in head . . . . . .S. lanceolatus
(Chesapeake Bay to Gulf of Mexico coasts)
8b Tip of upper lip on horizontal line well below ventral margin of eye; snout projecting beyond upper lip; D. $\mathrm{XI}+\mathrm{I}, 23-24$; gill rakers $(10-12)+(19-22)=29-33$; eye 5.5-6.2 times in head . . . . . . . . .S. colonensis (Caribbean islands and Central America)

Key to the species of Umbrina
la Anal fin rays 7 to 8; mental (chin) barbel short; total gill rakers $19-20$

2a Eye larger, about 9.8 to $10.7 \%$ of SL; caudal peduncle circumferential scales 22 ; mental barbel with an apical pore; D. X, I+24-25; A, II, 7; gill rakers (8-9)+(12-13)= 20-22. . . . . . . . . . . ... . . . . . . . . U. canosai (southern Brazil to Argentina)

2 b Eye smaller, about 5.9 to $6.2 \%$ of SL ; caudal peduncle circumferential scales 18 to 19 ; mental barbel with a pore on the middle anterior surface; D. X., I+22-23; A. II, 8; gill rakers (7-8)+(11-13)=19-20. . . . . . . .U. milliae (offshore Columbia)
lb Anal fin rays 6; mental (chin) barbel relatively long and slender; total gill rakers 13 to 15

3a Scale rows beneath spinous dorsal fin more or less parallel to lateral line; scales in diagonal series from dorsal fin origin to lateral line 5-6; stripes on body less distinct;
D. $\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{I}, .23-26$; [gill rakers ; (5-7) $+(7-10)=13-15] . . . . . .$.
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .U. broussonetii
(Caribbean Sea)
3b Scale rows beneath spinous dorsal fin situated at an angle of about $30^{\circ}$ to lateral line; scales in diagonal series of dorsal fin origin to lateral line usually 8, sometimes 7; stripes on body distinct; D. X+I, 26-31. (except for specimens from western Gulf of Mexico, which have slightly lower counts, 24-26); [gil1 rakers (5-7)+(7-10)-13-15]. . . .

[^0](Florida to Brazil)

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| SUPRA-GENERIC GROUPS | MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERS |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | SWIMBLADDERS |  | OTOLITHS |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SNOUT } \\ & \text { PORES } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | MENTAL PORES <br> \& BARBELS |
| Micropogonias |  | with a pair tubelike diverticula |  | sagitta shieldlike, very thick | 5 upper <br> 5 marginal | 5 pores many barbels |
| Nebris |  |  |  | olive-shaped, cauda of sulcus very deep | no upper <br> 2 marginal | 4 pores no barbel |
| Pogonias |  | with complicate diverticula in adults |  | sagitta oval or suboval, moderately thin to very thick | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \text { upper } \\ & 5 \text { marginal } \end{aligned}$ | 5 pores many barbels |
| Sciaenops |  |  |  |  |  | 5 pores no barbel |
| Larimus |  | simple without complicate diverti- |  |  | no upper <br> 5 marginal | 4 pores no barbel |
| Sciaena |  | anterior projection |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \text { to } 7 \\ & \text { upper } \end{aligned}$ | 5 pores no barbel |
| Umbrina |  |  |  |  | marginal | 4 pores 1 barbel |
| Menticirrhus |  | atrophied in adults |  | thin and elongate, some partially thickened |  |  |
| Lonchiurus | with a pair of anterior horns, some also with a pair of tube-like diverticula, some reducing size in adult |  |  |  |  | 5 pores 2 or many barbels |
| Cynoscion |  |  | no upper <br> 2 marginal |  | no pores no barbel |
| Stellifer | wit <br> eri <br> pos <br> shap | two chambers, antone yoke-shaped, erion one carroted |  |  | oth sagitta and apillus enlarged | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \text { to } 7 \\ & \text { upper } \\ & 5 \text { marginal } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \text { to } 6 \\ & \text { pores } \\ & \text { no barbel } \end{aligned}$ |

Fig. 1
Terminology of pore system on head of western Atlantic sciaenids. Snout; upper pores (above the dotted line) and marginal pores (below the dotted line). Lower jaw; mental pores and barbel(s). A. ventral view of the mouth, Menticirrhus saxatilis. B. tip of the snout, Stellifer lanceolatus.


Fig. 2
Terminology of otoliths. A, $A^{\prime} \& a$, sagitta and $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{B}^{\prime} \& \mathrm{~b}$, lapillus of Bairdiella chrysoura; $C, C^{\prime} \& c$, sagitta of Leiostomus xanthurus. $A, B \& C$, inner surface; $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \& C^{\prime}$ outer surface; $a, b \& c$, lateral view with inner surface down and anterior end to the left. a.m. anterior margin; a.v. anterior ventral margin; d.m. dorsal margin; c. cauda section of sulcus; m.g. marginal groove; o. ostium section of sulcus; p.d. posterior dorsal margin; s. "tadpole-shaped" sulcus; v.m. ventral margin. All the figures of otoliths (sagittae and lapilli) are oriented the same as this figure.


Fig. 3
The inner ears of sciaenids. A \& $A^{\prime}$, with only sagitta enlarged, Pseudosciaena crocea (Richardson), after Chu, Lo and $\mathrm{Wu}(1963 ; \mathrm{fig} .8, \mathrm{~A} \& \mathrm{~B}$ ). B \& B', with both sagitta and lapillus enlarged, Stellifer lanceolatus (Holbrook). A \& B, dorsal view of right inner ear. $A^{\prime} \& B^{\prime}$, lateral view of left fnner ear. a. asteriscus; am. ampulla; a.s. anterior semicircular canal; c. cerebellum, h.s. horizontal semicircular canal; 1. lapillus; la. lagena; m. mesencephalon; m.o. medulla oblongata; o. olfactory nerve; p.s. posterior semicircular canal; s. sagitta; sa. saculus; t. telencephalon; u. utriculus;
v. vegus nerve; v.1. vegal lobe.


Fig. 4
Phylogenetic relationships of genera and suprageneric groups of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. Subfamily leve1 1ies between lines $A$ and $B ;$ tribal level lies between lines $C$ and $D ; X, Y, \&$ Z represent clusters discussed in the text.


Fig. 5
Swimbladders of the Sciaena pattern. A. Sciaena trewavasae; B. Leiostomus xanthurus; C. Equetus punctatus; D. Aplodinotus gruniens;E. Larimus fasciatus; F. Larimus breviceps.



Fig. 6. Swimbladders of two species of Pachyurus. A. P. bonariensis; B. P. schomburgkii.



Fig. 9
Variation and development of swimbladders of the Micropogonias (x1). M. undulatus, A. 67.1 mm SL ; $A^{\prime} .180 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL and M. furnier, B. 160 mm SL; $\mathrm{B}^{\dagger}$. 162 mm SL. v. vent.


Fig. 10
Ontogenetic development of swimbladders in Pogonias cromis. A. 24 mm TL ; B. 57.4 mm TL ; C. 150 mm TL ; D. 236 mm TL ; E. 1090 mm TL . $C, D \& E$ on the left sides of dotted Ine represent dorsal view of the swimbladders (diverticula omitted); the shaded areas represent intrinsic drumming muscles.


Fig. 11
Ontogenetic development of swimbladder in
Sciaenops ocellata. A. 197 mm SL; B. 980 mm SL ,shaded area represents fat tissue; C. 1082 mm SL,dorsal view of a portion of the swimbladder withthe left side of the "sac-1ike" projection; c. across section of the dorsal projection to show
labyrinthine chambers.


Fig. 12
Swimbladders of the Cynoscion pattern. A. Cynoscion regalis; B. Isopisthus parvipinnis; C. Macrodon ancylodon; D. Plagioscion surinamensis.


## Fig. 13

Variation of the swimbladders in the genusCynoscion. A. C. microlepidtus; B. C. nothus;C. C. virencens; D. C. leiarchus (395 mm SL)D'. C. leiarchus (191 mm SL).


Fig. 14
Relative size and development of swimbladders in the Lonchiurus pattern ( x 2 ). A. Lonchiurus lanceolatus (87.7 mm SL); A'. L. lanceolatus (103 mm SL); A". L. lanceolatus (114 mm SL); B. Paralonchurus elegans (180 mm SL); C. P. brasiliensis (157 mm SL); D. Pachypops furcroi, after Cuvier and Valenciennes (1830; p1. 138, "Corb Fourcroy", xl), original size unknown. v. vent.



Fig. 15. Swimbladders of the Stellifer pattern. A. Bairdiella, Odontoscion and Ophioscion; B. Stellifer lanceolatus.

Fig. 16
Variation of the swimbladder diverticula in the genus Stellifer. A. S. naso; B. S. griseus (84.2 mm SL); B'. S. griseus (108 mm SL); C. S. microps (129 mm SL); C'. S. microps (105 mm SL); D. S. brasiliensis; E. S. rastrifer.



Fig. 17. Phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by swimbladder patterns.
Fig. 18
Inner surface (capital letters) and lateral view
(lower case letters) of sagittae of the Sciaena
pattern. A \& a, Ctenosciaena gracillicirrhus;
B \& b, Equetus lanceolatus; C \& c, Equetus
punctatus; D \& d, Leiostomus xanthurus; E \& e,
Paraques acuminatus; F \& f, Pareques umbrosus;
G \& g, Sciaena trewavasae; H \& h, Sciaena
bathytatos; I \& 1, Umbrina coroides; J \& j,
Umbrina millae; K \& k, Pachyurus schomburgkii;
L \& 1, Plagioscion surinamensis.


Fig. 19
Sagittae of the Pogonias pattern. A, $A^{\prime} \& a$, Pogonias cromis; B, $\mathrm{B}^{\prime} \& \mathrm{~b}$, Aplodinotus grunniens. $A \& B$, inner surface; $A^{\prime} \& B^{\prime}$, outer surface; $a \& b$, lateral view.


Fig. 20
Sagittae of the Larimus pattern. A, $A^{\prime} \& a$, Larimus fasciatus; B, B' \& b, Larimus breviceps; C, C' \& c, Sciaenops ocellata, 357 mm TL ; D. S. ocellata, 1100 mm TL. A, B, C \& D, inner surface; $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \& C^{\prime}$, outer surface; $a, b \& c$, 1ateral view.



Fig. 21. Sagitta in Nebris microns. A. inner surface; A', outer surface; a, lateral view.

Fig. 22
Sagittae of the Cynoscion and the Menticirrhus patterns. A, $A^{\prime} \& a$, Cynoscion nebulosus; B, $B^{\prime} \& b$, Menticirrhus saxatilis. $A \& B$, inner surface; $A^{\prime} \& B^{\prime}$, outer surface; $a \& b$, lateral view.


Fig. 23

Specific and ontogenetic variations of sagittae in species of Cynoscion. C. regalis, $A \& a, 370$ m $\mathrm{mL} ; \mathrm{A}^{\mathbf{\prime}}, 516 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL} . \quad$ C. similis, $\mathrm{B} \& \mathrm{~b}, 166$ $\mathrm{mm} \mathrm{IL} ; \mathrm{B}^{\prime}, 350 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL}$. C. virenscions, $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{c}$, $260 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL} ; \mathrm{C}^{\prime}, 350 \mathrm{~mm} T L . A, A^{\prime}, B, B^{\prime}, C, \&$ C', inner surface; $a, b \& c$, lateral view.




Fig. 25. Sagittae of the Isopisthus and the Macrodon pattern. A, A' \& a, Isopisthus parvipinnis; $B, B^{\prime} \& b$, Macrodon ancylodon; $A \& B$, inner surface; $A^{\prime} \& B^{\prime}$, outer surface; $a \& b$, lateral view.

Fig. 26
Ontogenetic variationssof the sagittae of the Micropogonias. M. furnieri, A, A' \& a, 235 mm TL; B, B' \& b, $295 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL;} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{C'} \mathrm{\&} \mathrm{c}$,330 mm TL. M. undulatus, $D, D^{\prime} \& d, 141 \mathrm{~mm}$ TL; $E, E^{\prime} \& e$, $250 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL} ; \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{F}^{\prime} \& \mathrm{f}, 350 \mathrm{~mm}$ TL. A, B, C, D, E \& $F$, inner surface; $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, D^{\prime}, E^{\prime} \& F^{\prime}$, outer surface; $a, b, c, d, e \& f$, lateral view.


Fig. 27
Inner surface of right sagittae and lapilli of the Stellifer pattern. A \& $A^{\prime}$, Ophioscion punctatissimus; B \& B', Stellifer lanceolatus; C \& C', Bairdiella chrysoura; D \& D', Odontoscion dentex. $A, B, C \& D, s a g i t t a e ; A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime} \& D^{\prime}$, lapilli.
-


Fig. 28
Inner surface of right sagittae and lapilli in species of Stellifer. $A \& A^{\prime}, S$. colonensis;

B\& $B^{\prime}, S$. griseus; C \& C', S. microps; D \& $D^{\prime}$,
S. rastrifer. A, B, C \& D, sagittae; A', B',
$C^{\prime} \& D^{\prime}$, lapilli.

m

$\forall$


## OTOLITH PATTERNS



Fig. 29. Phylogenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by otolith patterns.


Fig. 30. Phylagenetic relationships of western Atlantic Sciaenidae as shown by external morphology.
Fig. 31
Snout pore patterns (diagramatic) of western
Atlantic Sciaenidae. A. no upper and two marginal
pores; B. no upper and five marginal pores; C. two
upper and five marginal pores; D. three upper
and five marginal pores; E. five upper and five
marginal pores; F. five or more upper and
marginal pores.


## Fig. 32

Mental pore and barbel patterns (diagramatic) on the lower jaw of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. A. no pore and no barbel; B. four pores and no barbel; C. five pores and no barbel; D. six pores and no barbel; E. four pores and one barbel; F. four pores and two barbels; G. five pores and many barbels, not in tuft; $H$. five pores and many barbels, anterior three pairs of barbels in tuft.

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Fig. 33
Variation in snout pores with five or more marginal pores. A to $D$, three upper pore pattern; E to H , five upper pore pattern. A. Bairdiella chrysoura; B. Ophioscion punctatissimus (with additional four minute pores); C. Paralonchurus elegans; D. Menticirrhus americanus; E. Pogonias cromis; F. Sciaenops ocellata (with seven marginal pores).


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Fig. 34
Variation in mental pore arrangements on the lower jaw. A to $D$, four mental pore pattern; E to H , five mental pore pattern. A. Nebris
microps; B. Larimus fasciatus; C. Odontoscion
dentex; D. Stellifer lanceolatus; E. Aplodinotus
grunniens; F. Sciaenops ocellata; G. Ophioscion
punctatus; H. Equetus punctatus.

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Fig. 35. Western Atlantic Sciaenidae with one mental barbel on the lower jaw. A. Ctenosciaena gracillicirrhus (lack of an apical pore); B. Menticirrhus and C. Umbrina (with an apical pore).

Fig. 36
Variation in mental pore patterns on the lower
jaw in the species of Stellifer. A. S.
lanceolatus, four mental pores; B. S. Stellifer, five mental pores; C. S. rastrifer, six
mental pores; D. S. colonensis, six mental pores.


A


## Fig. 37

Four typical mouth positions and dentitions of western Atlantic Sciaenidae. A. Macrodon ancylodon; B. Nebris microps; C. Odontoscion dentex; D. Micropogonias undulatus.



Fig. 38. Three levels of mouth position in the species of Stellifer. A. S. lanceolatus, oblique; B. S. rastifer, terminal; C. S. microps, inferior.


Fig. 39. Dorsal view (diagramatic) of the head of the Stellifer group. A. Ophioscion and Stellifer;
B. Bairdiella and odontoscion. Dotted lines on A. represent obvious cavernous lateral line canals.


Fig. 40. Portions of lateral line scales of Plagioscion surinamensis, enlarged view indicates each unit of lateral line scale group consists of many small scales.

PART II
LIFE HISTORY, FEEDING HABITS AND FUNCTIONAL MORPHOLOGY OF JUVENILE SCIAENID FISHES IN THE YORK RIVER ESTUARY, VIRGINIA

## LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1. Growth of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts. ..... 241
2. Growth of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic coast. ..... 246
3. Growth of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts ..... 248
4. Growth of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts ..... 250
5. Relative size of mouth and eye diameter in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 253
6. Total number of lateral and medial gill rakers in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 254
7. Relative length of intestine in six species of junveile sciaenids from York River. ..... 255
8. Number of pyloric caeca in six species of juvenile sclaenids from York River. ..... 256
9. Number of laminae in olfactory rossettes in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 257
10. Stomach contents of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic coast ..... 258
11. Stomach contents of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coast ..... 261
12. Stomach contents of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts ..... 263
13. Stomach contents of northern kingfish, Menticirrhus saxatilis, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic coast. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 267
14. Stomach contents of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 268

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

1. The trawl strata, substrata, and beach seine stations (•) in the York River estuary, Virginia. ..... 272
2. Monthly means of the bottom temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen in the York River estuary from May, 1972 to August, 1973 ..... 273
3. Seasonal abundance of four juvenile sciaenids with depth and distance upstream in the York River ..... 274
4. Seasonal abundance of four juvenile sciaenids in Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers. ..... 275
5. Seasonal mean abundance of four juvenile sciaenids along the salinity gradient in the York River estuary ..... 276
6. Monthly length frequency distributions of juvenile spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from York River, 1972-74 ..... 277
7. Length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, by river distance upstream in the York River estuary ..... 278
8. Length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, by depth of York River ..... 279
9. Monthly length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from the beach seine catches of York River, 1972-74 ..... 280
10. Monthly length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, from York River, 1972-74 ..... 281
11. Length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, by river distance upstream of the York River estuary ..... 282
12. Length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, by depth of York River ..... 283
13. Monthly length frequency distributions of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura from York River, 1972-74 ..... 284
Figure Page
14. Length frequency distributions of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura by river distance upstream of the York River estuary. ..... 285
15. Length frequency distributions of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura by depth of York River ..... 286
16. Monthly length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus from York River, 1972-74. ..... 287
17. Length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus by river distance upstream of the York River estuary ..... 288
18. Length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, by depth of York River ..... 289
19. Length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, from beach seine catches of York River, May to September, 1972. ..... 290
20. Mouth position and opening in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 291
21. Osteology of mouth opening in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 292
22. Portions of right pharyngeal teeth in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. ..... 293
23. First right gill arch in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 294
24. Ventral view of the digestive tract of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. ..... 295
25. Snout pores and mental pores and barbels in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 296
26. Right olfactory rosette and nasal cavity in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 297
27. Body shape and cross sections of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 298
28. Frequencies of occurrence of various categories of food groups in stomachs of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River ..... 299

## INTRODUCTION

Sciaenid fishes are among the most important inshore bottom fishery resources of the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts of the United States (Roithmayr, 1965; Joseph, 1972; Gutherz, et. al., 1975). Sciaenid fishes usually use the estuary as a nursery ground, and as a seasonal feeding ground for part of their lives. Among the 14 species of sciaenids recorded from Chesapeake Bay proper (Musick, 1972), young-of-the-year of ten species of sciaenid fishes enter the York River (Fig. 1, a major Chesapeake estuary) and its tributaries in the course of a year. Among them Leiostomus xanthurus, Micropogonias undulatus, Bairdiella chrysoura and Cynoscion regalis are the most abundant species. Menticirrhus saxatilis, M. americanus, Sciaenops ocellata, Cynoscion nebulosus, Pogonias cromis and Larimus fasciatus are caught only occasionally.

Juvenile sciaenids, except croakers ( $M$. undulatus), usually enter the York River in late spring and leave in late fall. During this period, young-of-the-year sciaenids dominate bottom trawl catches in the York River (Colvocoresses, 1975; Markle, 1976). The purpose of this study is to determine how these juvenile species coexist in the York River system, Virginia. Several ecological parameters are examined, including relative abundance, temporal and spatial distribution, length frequency, movement, and feeding habits. Morphological structures related to feeding habits and habitats are also examined. Specimens of the banded drum, Larimus fasciatus and the northern kingfish,

Menticirrhus saxatilis, are included in the morphological structure and feeding habit studies to show the spectra of variation in juvenile sciaenids. The distribution and food habit studies are based on York River bottom trawl surveys conducted by the Virginia Institute of Marine Science from January, 1972 to December, 1974. A community study has been partially reported by Colvocoresses, et. al. (1975). Colvocoresses is currently preparing complete results of these surveys. Therefore, description of the sampling program, study area, hydrographic data and relative abundance are greatly simplified for the purposes of the present study.

The study area includes the York River and its major tributaries, the Pamunkey and Mattaponi rivers, an estuarine system which is relatively well known biologically, and is relatively undisturbed (Boesch, 1971). The general trend of geomorphology, hydrography (Salinity, dissolved oxygen and temperature), ecology and alteration by man of the area were described by McHugh (1967), Brehmer (1970) and Boesch (1971).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Survey programs:

All fishes examined were collected from the York River system, Virginia. Seven longitudinal strata (A, B, C, D, C, F and G) and three cross-sectional strata (north shoal, channel and south shoal) within each stratum were sampled monthly (Fig. 1). Randomly numbered square grids ( $540 \mathrm{~m}=600$ yard on a side) were assigned as trawl stations. In the lower 16 km ( 10 miles) of the York River strata $A, B$, C and D were sampled from March 1972 to December 1974. The upper part of the York River was sampled from January 1972 to March 1974, but the random method was not used until June 1972 and the strata ( $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{F}$ and G) were not designated until January 1973. One to 12 stations were randomly selected monthly after the random sampling methods were used. Before then, fixed channel station samples were set at 8 km ( 5 miles ) intervals from the mouth of the York River (mile zero) up to 45 km (mile 28). Data from fixed station samples (January to May 1972) were combined within the strata for analyses. Lower portions of the Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers have been sampled since January 1973. Three strata (1, 2 and 3) were set at 8 km ( 5 miles) intervals for the lower 24 km ( 15 miles ) upstream from their confluence with the York River (about 45 km from the York River mouth). Four to six gridded stations ( 540 m on a side) were randomly sampled monthly from each stratum.
2. Gear:

Bottom trawl tows were against the current of five mintues duration with a 4.9 m ( 16 ft ) semi-balloon otter trawl 7 m rope, 1.9 cm bar mesh, 0.63 cm bar mesh cod end liner), 7 m bridle, and 0.6 m weighted otter doors at a speed of approximately 90 m per minute. Nine stations were sampled monthly with beach seines along the shores of lower parts (strata A to D) of the York River (Fig. 1) and three replicate hauls were made with a 15.25 m ( 50 ft ) bag seine ( 1.8 m deep with a square bag, 0.64 cm bar mesh in the wing and 0.48 cm bar mesh in the bag). Thirteen beach seine stations were selected along the shores of the upper part of the York River (strata E to G, Fig. 1). These stations were only sampled from July to October in 1972 and 1973 with a 30.5 m (100 ft) bag seine. Beach seine data are used only for length frequency analysis in the present study. Hydrographic (salinity, temperature and dissolved oxygen) data were collected from both surface and bottom water. Results are summarized in Figure 2 and the Appendix.

## 3. Sampling procedure:

All fishes were identified, counted and weighed in the field or laboratory. Total length, measured from snout of the fish to the middile of the caudal fin, was taken to the nearest milimeter. A1l individuals of each species were measured from each trawl haul, except for very large catches. Then at.1east 25 Individuals were subsampled. Specimens for stomach analyses were randomly selected and preserved in $10 \%$ formalin, the stomachs:were dissected and transferred to $40 \%$ isopropanol or 70\% ethanol. Stomach contents were identified to the lowest practical taxon and the frequencies of occurrences were recorded.

The standard methods of Hubbs and Labler (1958) were used for all counts and measurements if applicable, Digestive tracts were removed from the fish and intestines were.straightened with slight tension before measuring lengths from the junction of the intestine with the stomach to the anus. Osteological observations were made on cleared and stained specimens, prepared by Taylor's (1967) method.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS


#### Abstract

I. Hydrographic Description.

Data on the depth, temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen samples during this study are given in Appendix. The benthic environment was of principal importance to the present study. The means of bottom temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen of each stratum from May, 1972 to August, 1973 are sumarized in Figure 2, to show seasonal patterns in the York River estuary.


## Temperature:

The bottom water temperature of the York River (Fig. 2) was lowest in January and highest in July (1973) or August (1972). The gradual increase of temperature in April to June and the decrease in October to December are most important to the migratory fishes (Markle, 1976). In winter months (December to February), the bottom temperature of the upper portion of the York River (Fig. 2) was lower than that of the lower portion. No apparent differences in temperature were found among the shoal and the channel stations. In spring months (March to May), bottom temperatures increased rapidly, and the upper portion of the York River had slightly higher temperatures than the lower portion (Fig. 2). The shoal stations also:showed a slightly higher mean bottom temperature than the channel stations. In summer months (June to August), the bottom temperature of the upper portion of the river was
higher than the lower portion (Fig. 2). The shoal stations also showed a higher mean bottom temperature than the channel stations. In fall months (September to November), the bottom temperature decreased rapidly and the upper portion of the river had slightly higher temperatures than the lower portion in the early fall (September). In late fall (November), the bottom water temperature was slightly higher in the lower portion of the river (Fig. 2). No apparent differences were found among the shoal and channel stations.

Salinity:

The salinity decreases toward the upper portion of the York River (Fig. 2). Lower salinities usually are found in the spring (March to May) and the winter (December to February). The extremely low salinities of June to August, 1972, were caused by the hurricane Agnes (Fig. 2). The salinity at channel stations is usually higher than at shoal stations, especially in the lower portion of the river (Fig. 2) from March to June.

Dissolved oxygen:

The dissolved oxygen (D.O.) in the York River (Fig. 2) is generally lower in the warmer months (May to October) and higher in the colder months (November to April). In the warmer months, the D.O. was lowest at the deeper channel stations (Fig. 2). There was no apparent difference between the upper and lower portions of the York River. In the colder months the:D.O. was slightly higher in the upper portion of the river (Fig. 2) and no apparent difference was found among shoal and channel stations.
II. Temporal and Spatial Distributions.

Young sciaenids are among the most abundant migratory finfishes in the York River (Massman, 1962i Colvocoresses; 1975; Markle, 1976). Temporal and spatial distributions of juveniles of the four most abundant scalenids, Cynoscion regalis, Bairdiella chrysoura, Micropogonias undulatus and Leiostomus xanthurus are compared here (Figs. 3 to 5) to determine ecological partitioning during their estuarine life. The relative abundance of each species is expressed by the geometric mean, $\log _{10}(\bar{x}+1)$, of the individual catches per tow within the substrata. Four months (July, October, January and April) were selected to represent the seasonal abundances from different parts of the York River (Fig. 3). Monthly mean catches per tow by river distance (strata) and depths (substrata) were compared (Figs. 3 to 5). Fishes caught from Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers are compared only by river distance (Fig. 4) .

In July (1972 and 1973), all four species of juvenile sciaenids were present in all parts of the estuary except the upper part (Figs. 3 to 5). The relative abundance (mean number of individuals per tow) varied among species (Fig. 3). B. chrysoura were more abundant in the lower and middle part of the river, while $C$. regalis and $M$. undulatus were more abundant in the upper part of the river. $L$. xanthurus were abundant in most parts of the river. $M$. undulatus showed a trend of gradual decline in abundance upstream in both the Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers (Figs. 4 and 5). $L$ : xanthurus catches were quite variable in the Pamunkey River. This may be caused by the contagious distribution of this species, Comparing depth distribution, sciaenids
were more abundant in shoal stations (Fig. 3) than channel stations, especially in July :1972. Colvocoriesses (1975) and Markel (1976) noted a general decline in the mean number of species and individuals of fishes per month in the summer from channelistations. This may be attributed to a reduction in the dissolved oxygen concentration at the bottom of the channel (Brehmer; 1970 and Markle, 1976.) and was apparently the case in the present study (Fig. 2). Catches of C. regalis did not decline in channel stations, but this species is the best adapted for pelagic life of the four species studied (see sections on "Correlation of feeding structures and food habits ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ).

In October (1972 and 1973) juveniles of all four species of sciaenids were present in all parts of the estuary (Fig. 3) and all reached their highest total abundance (Markle, 1976). C. regalis were more abundant in the lower parts of the York River. B. chrysoura and L. xanthurus were more abundant in the middle part of the river. M. undulatus were more abundant in the upper part of the river, and especially in the Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers (Figs. 4 and 5). Mean catch per tow increased up estuary. Depth distribution of these four species of sciaenids indicated that they were more abundant in the channel stations (Fig. 3). The relative abundance at south shoal stations was higher than at north shoal stations. The area was larger and the sampling depth was greater in the south shoal than the north shoal area (see Appendix). Also, the average size of young sciaenids, especially the young-of-the-year groups, were larger in the channel than in the shoal.stations (see section on "Length frequencies and distributions"). Larger'sized juvenile sciaenids might use deeper areas to seek food and shelter.

In January (1.972 to 1974), the numbers of individual sciaenid fishes were considerably reduced except for $M$. undulatus (Figs. 3 and 5). C. regalis, B. chrysoura and L. xanthurus were caught only sporadically. During the winter months, the resident fish species were more abundant than transients, especially in the upper tributaries of the York River (Markle, 1976). M. undulatus was the most abundant sciaenid fish in the middle part of the York River (Fig. 5). Depth distribution in January, 1973 (Fig. 3), Indicated that most fish were caught in the channe1. Bottom temperatures of the shoal stations were lower than channel stations (Fig. 2), which might be the major factor causing the concentration of young sciaenids in the channel.

In April (1972 to 1974), C. regalis, M. undulatus and L. xanthurus were caught (Figs. 3 and 5). C. regalis was caught sporadically in 1972 and 1974. M. undulatus were more abundant in the upper part of the river and $L$. xanthurus were more abundant in the lower reaches (Figs. 4 and 5), apparently because the young-of-the-year L. xanthurus had just entered the estuary (see section on "Length frequencies and distributions"). Depth distribution of these two species (Fig. 3) showed that they were more abundant in shoal areas, especially $M$. undulatus. B. chrysoura was completely absent.

The relative abundance of all major dominant fishes (including $C$. regalis, $M$. undulatus and $L$. xanthurus) are highly variable in the York River from year to year (Colvocoresses 1975 and Markle 1976). The comparisons here are.not suitable for assessing the year class strengths of these sciaenid fishes.

## III. Length Frequencies and Distributions.

Length frequency distributions (Figs. 6-19) indicate that juvenile Leiostomas xanthurus; Bairdiella chrysoura, Cynoscion regalis and Micropogonias undulatus enter the York River consecutively from April on, and all but $M$. undulatus leave the York River by December. Seasonal size distributions of these four species in the York River will be discussed individually and compared with studies from other areas. Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépède

1. Early life history in the York River:

Young-of-the-year spot, $L$. xanthurus, entered the trawl and beach seine catches in early April and most left by December (Fig. 6, mode I). A few smaller fish stayed in the estuary over winter. Yearling spot usually entered the study area from March to May and left the area in September (Fig. 6, mode II). The intermediate mode (between mode I and II) on Figure 6, April and May 1972 was not found in 1973 and 1974 samples. This may indicate a late spawning in the previous year (1971). The length frequencies of young spot from May to July during 1972 to 1974 were pooled and grouped by river strata (Fig. 7). Young-of-theyear spot move up to the confluence of the Pamunkey and Mattapond rivers (Fig. 1). Most yearling spot stayed in the lower parts of the York River. During the same periods, no differences were found between the length frequency distributions in both shoal and channel stations (Fig. 8) of either young-of-the-year or yearling spot.

Spot caught by beach seine (Fig. 8) were obviously smaller than those taken by trawls. Spot was the most abundant sciaend in the beach seine zone (depth less than 1.5 m ) for collections with the 15.25 m and 30.5 m seine. The length frequency distribution of spot caught by beach seine was typically unimodal; mostly young-of-the-year (Fig. 9). Some smaller yearlings were taken occasionally (Fig. 9, 1974, mode II) and individuals larger than 135 mm TL were captured only with the 30.5 m seine (Fig. 9, August and September, 1972).

In summary, young-of-the-year spot entered the York River in April and used the estuary as a nursery ground. In December, most spot left though some smaller fish stayed in the estuary through the winter, joining the yearlings as they returned to the river in the next spring. The yearlings left the estuary after an extended feeding period from March to October.

## 2. Other studies:

Selected length frequency data for spot along the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts of the U.S. are summarized (Table 1) for comparison with the present study. Hildebrand and Schroeder (1928) and Pacheco (1957 and 1962a) reported length frequency of spot from the present study area (York River and Chesapeake Bay). Across all areas (Table 1), young-of-the-year spot (Group 0 on Table 1) enter the estuarine nursery grounds during the first half of the year. Spot may enter estuaries as early as January (Table 1; Hildebrand \& Cable, 1930; Springer and Woodburn 1960 and.Sundararaj, 1960). Spot'first enter the estuary in February on the Atlantic coast (Georgia, Music, 1974) and

Gulf of Mexico coast (Florida, Townsend, 1956; Louisiana, Dunham, 1972; Texas, Parker, 1971). In.South Carolina (Dawson 1958), North Carolina (Shealy, et. al., 1974) and the lower Chesapeake Bay (Hildebrand and Schroeder, 1928 and present study) young-of-the-year spot first entered the estuary In April (Table 1). In upper Chesapeake Bay (Young, 1953) and Delaware River (Thomas, 1971), young-of-the-year spot probably do not appear until May (Table 1). The smallest young-of-the-year spot from trawl catches are about 15 to 20 mm TL in all areas. Which Indicates that the young-of-the-year spot in northern areas enter the estuary later than southern ones. When spot first enter estuaries, gear selectivity (Table 1) affects the size ranges of spot captured; beach seines usually catch only the small specimens (Young, 1954 and Fig. 9), but pound nets (Pacheco, 1957) and large otter trawls (Music, 1974) usually catch larger fishes. Offshore movements of spot during the winter season are evident in all areas studied, because spot completely absent or in low abundance in inshore catches (Table 1). Yearling or older spot (Group I of Table 1) usually leave the estuary after September and do not return until spring of the next year (Table 1). Some young-of-the-year spot over-winter in the estuary (Fig. 6 and Table 1). Tagged spot (Pacheco, 1962b) have moved from the Chesapeake Bay to an area west of Diamond Shoals, North Carolina. Similarly, a spot tagged and released from Delaware Bay in October 1930 was recovered from Ocracoke Inlet, North Carolina in December, 1930 (Pearson, 1932). Thus, spot from these areas may have a common coastal feeding or spawning ground during the winter; although Struhsaker (1969) reported a winter offshore movement of spot into deeper water (lower-shelf habitat off South Carolina). These offshore
spots may be a mixture of northern and southern populations or just southern residents: : The late fall or early winter spawning time of spot appears to be the same in both Atlantic and Gulf waters (Welsh and Breder, 1923). Later spawning by a northern component is evidence in the length ranges of postlarvae and juvenile spot (Table 1). Young-of-the-year spot begin to enter the estuarine nursery grounds of Delaware, Marȳland, Virginia, North and South Carolina during April (Table 1).

Cynoscion regalis (Bloch and Schneider)

1. Early life history in the York River:

Weakfish, C. regalis, showed distinct seasonal.fluctuations. Young-of-the-year weakfish first entered trawl catches in July or August and virtually all left the estuary in the winter (Fig. 10, mode I). Yearling weakfish returned to the river in April or May and left in September or October (Fig. 10, mode II). Larger weakfish (two years or older) were caught only sporadically during this study because of gear avoidance. The length mode of small weakfish in August showed a rapid increase (Fig. 10). This increase may be due to the recruitment of yearlings or an earlier spawned group of young-of-the-year. Length frequencies for weakfish (under 250 mm TL ) caught from August to October, 1972-1974, were pooled to compare distribution by size in the York River and its tributaries (Fig. 11). Smaller fishes were more abundant in the Pamunkey and Mattaponi rivers, than in the York River proper. Yearling weakfish also showed a movement up river (Fig. 11). This suggests that young weakfish entered the low salinity nursery
ground (upper portion of the York River) and then moved down river as they grew. Pooled length frequency distributions revealed an apparent difference between shoal and channel areas of the York River (Fig. 12). Yearling weakfish (or larger ones) are:proportionally more abundant in the channe1. The 15.25 m beach seine catches contained no weakfish, but occasionally the 30.5 m seine caught some young-of-the-year weakfish in the summer.

## 2. Other studies:

Major populations of weakfish are confined to the Atlantic coast of the U.S. from the Gulf of Maine to Florida. Existing data Indicate young-of-the-year weakfish enter estuarine or coastal catches from May to July (Table 2). The smallest sizes of the weakfish in the catches differ with area and may be due to gear and/or time of sampling. Small fishes with less size variation (about 5 mm ) were taken over a longer period of time in southern areas than northera areas (Table 2). Young-of-the-year weakfish do not occur in catches during winter months in northern coastal areas or estuaries (Per1mutter, 1956; Massman et. al., 1958; Thomas, 1971; Markle, 1976). Year round catches of weakfishes from Beaufort, North Carolina (Hildebrand \& Cable, 1934) and Georgia (Mahood, 1974) were from sounds and short coastal rivers. Most of the studies suggest the age Group 0 on Table 2 were a combination of young-of-the-year and yearlings. No distinct mode could be identified for young-of-the-year from these studies. This may be due to the multiple spawning of the females (Merriner, 1973) and/or the recruitment of the young-of-the-year from different spawning populations.

The reproductive biology weakfish is better known than other sciaenid fishes studied here. Welsh and Breder (1923) described the eggs and development of weakfish and they also indicated the Delaware Bay as a spawning ground of weakfish. Merriner (1973) indicated that weakfish have an extended spawning season in North Carolina (March to August) and are characterized by high fecundity and possible multiple spawning by some females. Pearson (1941) took plankton tows of lower Chesapeake Bay from May to August in 1929 and 1930 and reported greater densities of weakfish ( 1.5 to 17 mm TL ) in subsurface tows (average 67 per tow) than in surface tows (average 13 per tow). The density of planktonic weakfish decreased at those stations within Chesapeake Bay, compared with sites near the bay mouth. Harmic (1958) reported that newly hatched larval weakfishes averaged 1.8 mm TL. Soon after hatching, the larvae became demersal and were dispersed into the nursery areas of Delaware Bay by means of the "salt wedge". The smallest weakfishes taken in the bottom trawl were $6-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ TL (Hildebrand and Cable, 1934). The young-of-the-year weakfish in York River are probably progeny from adults spawning near the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Weakfish tagged and released in lower Chesapeake Bay (Nesbitt, 1954) were later recovered to the north in New York and New Jersey, and southward in North Carolina. Nesbitt (1954), Perlmutter, et. al. (1956) and Harmic (1958) cited the presence of a northern spawning population in New York and northern New Jersey waters and a southern spawning population from New Jersey to North Carolina. Seguin (1960) found that morphometric and meristic variation of weakfish exists along the middle Atlantic coast and suggested that three possible population segments may exist; a New

York group, a Delaware and lower Chesapeake group and a.North Carolina group. Joseph (1972) questioned the division of weakfish into northern and southern stocks and did not consider the decline of weakfish in Chesapeake Bay to be' a result of the trawl fisheries in the shallow coastal waters and bays of North Carolina. Joseph (1972) also cited Chesapeake Bay as a major spawning area and nursery ground, but also cited failure to obtain one weakfish larva per tow in extensive VIMS ichthyoplankton studies during 1959-1963. As a result of the present study, I am not convinced that Chesapeake Bay is a major spawning area of weakfish even though weakfish eggs and larvae were reported by Hildebrand and Schroeder (1928), and Pearson (1941). I agree with Massmann's (1963) Implication, that Chesapeake Bay weakfish are from southern spawning populations or stocks. No ripe female weakfish were caught from the lower Chesapeake Bay in present study. Pearson (1932) described the winter trawl fishery off North Carolina and cited higher total catches of weakfish from area B (southwest of Cape Hatteras) than from area A (northeast of Cape Hatteras) in deeper waters. I assume that most young-of-the-year and larger weakfish left the York River and moved southward to their wintering ground, off Cape Hatteras. In spring, weakfishes disperse from the wintering fround; some fish move north and spawning may occur from late spring to summer along the coast from North Carolina to New York.

Bairdiella chrysoura (Lackpède)

1. Early 1ife history in the York River:

Silver perch, B. chrysoura, were present from April to December
and were most abundant from August to October (Fig. 13). Total catches were reduced in 1.973 and 1974. . Young-of-the-year silver perch first entered the catches in July and most silver perch left the river in November. Yearlings may enter the river as early as April (Fig. 13, 1974) and most leave the river in October. There were no silver perch taken from January to March during the present study (1972-1974). Pooled length frequencies from August to October, 1972 to 1974, indicated that silver perch were most concentrated in the lower part of the York River (Fig. 14) and larger specimens tended to stay in the channel (Fig. 15). The 30.5 m beach seine caught young-of-the-year occasionally but the 15.25 m seine rarely caught any stiver perch.
2. Other studies:

Silver perch occur along the U.S. coast from New York to Texas. The seasonal distribution pattern is similar in all Atlantic coastal states (Table 3). Young-of-the-year silver perch were first caught in bottom trawls during June or July. Size of the smallest young-of-theyear silver perch during a given month decreases as latitude of the nursery ground increases on the Atlantic coast and west coast of Florida (Table 3). Silver perch are present almost all year round south of Chesapeake Bay (Table 3), which may be due to the higher salinity or temperature of these study areas. The embryonic development of silver perch from Beaufort, North Carolina was described by Kuntz (1913). Welsh and Breder (1923) made further observations from material obtained at Atlantic Cịty, New Jersey. Jannke (1971) described larval silver perch from the Everglades National Park, Florida and showed that the larvae of 2 to 3 mm . "notochord". length were present all year
round. Hildebrand and Schroeder. (1928).reported ripe fish of both sexes in Chesapeake Bay (24 m deep; off Crisfield, Maryland). This indicated that silver perch spawn in the deeper waters of lower Chesapeake Bay in late spring and early summer but, because of its relatively small size, commercial catches of silver perch were relatively small. Silver perch might move oceanward or to the deeper part of the Chesapeake Bay in winter (Hildebrand and Schroeder, 1928). Micropogonias undulatus (Linnaeus)

1. Early life history in the York River:

Young-of-the-year croaker, M. undulatus, first entered the trawl and beach seine catches in August and stayed in the York River throughout the winter (Fig. 16). They left the estuary between August and September of the following year as yearlings (Fig. 16, mode III). Large croaker (more than 1.5 years old) were caught only sporadically in this study due to gear avoidance, but they were present from February to September. There were apparently two to three length groups (modes) of young-of-the-year croaker in September (1972 to 1974). The mode II was different from mode I and mode III of 1972 and 1974 (Fig. 16). The former group did not stay in the York River over winter, they entered the estuary as early as May (Fig. 16, mode II) and most left in November.

Size may be a determining factor for milgration of young croaker from the York River. From 1972 to 1974, the length frequencies (Fig. 16) indicate that very few young-of-the-year croakers larger than 130 mm TL stayed in the York River during the winter months. Young-of-the-year croakers were present in the York River in large numbers all
year round except during the summer months (June to August). Young croakers showed slower growth rate:over winter (Fig. 16). Those entering the estuary between September and November were the main strength of the year class (modes I of Fig. I6). Whether they represent progeny from a different spawning population compared to the earlier group (mode II of Fig. 16) is unknown at present.

Length frequencies of croakers taken between September and November, 1972-1974, were pooled to compare distribution by size in the York River (Fig. 17). The size composition indicated that smaller fish were caught in the upper part of the York River and saline portions of the Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers. Larger fish were proportionally more abundant in the lower part of the river. Larger fish also constituted a larger portion of the croakei catch in the channel than in the shoal area (Fig. 18). Beach seines (Fig. 19) caught exclusively yearlings in the 30.5 m beach seine. The 15.25 m seine caught almost no croakers.

In summary, young-of-the-year croaker enter the estuary in May and from August on. The earlier group entered in May and left the estuary in November, as do older year classes. The later group (August-November) stay in the estuary until the summer months of the following year. Young croaker moved to the upper part of the York River and the saline portions of major tributaries after first entry, then move down the York River into more saline waters as they. grew. Smaller fishes (less than 130 mm TL ) stayed in the river throughout the winter.
2. Other studies:

Croaker occur fromithe Gulf of Maine to Argentina, along the coasts of the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico. Length frequency
distributions exsit.for different areas of the U.S., including Wallace (1940) and Haven (1957) for the lower Chesapeake Bay and York River (Table 4). Studies usually show that small croakers ( $10-20 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL}$ ) were present in the estuary during all except the summer months (June to August). Croakers seemingly have a long spawning season since small Individuals ( $<20 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL}$ ) were present from October to May in different estuarine areas (Table 4). Some croaker were very small ( $<20 \mathrm{~mm}$ TL) in spring because of slow growth of fish spawned late in winter, or because they were spawned in spring. Such groups found in this study (mode II, Fig. 16) were not found in previous Chesapeake Bay studies. Tagging of adult croakers from Maryland and Virginia by Haven (1959) showed spring time movement of croaker up the estuaries and up the Chesapeake Bay, as well as an oceanward and southerly migration in fall (some recoveries were from off the North Carolina coast). Pearson (1932) reported a high percentage of croaker in the catches of the comercial trawl fishery during November (88\%) and December (76\%) from the fishing grounds off the North Carolina coast. Croaker may migrate out from the estuary to a southern coastal or offshore wintering and spawning ground. Hildebrand and Cable (1930) believed croaker spawning probably began in August in Chesapeake Bay and northward, in September at Beaufort (North Carolina), and in October in Texas. Croaker from all areas may have the same spawning period, probably from July to January (Table 4). A later group apparently spawning from March to May (mode II, Fig. 16) was.found in the present study. White and Chittenden (1976) indicated that some croaker in the Gulf of Mexico may lack the first (overwinter) ring on the scales. This suggests that some croaker may spawn in the spring in the Gulf of Mexico.

Massmann and Pacheco (1960) .reported the disappearance of young croakers from the York River but their conclusion may have been in error because of selectivity of their fishing gear. Haven's (1957) length frequencies for croaker during 1952 and 1953 differs from those presented by Massmann and Pacheco (1960) for the same years. No fish less than 100 mm TL were reported by Massmann and Pacheco (1960) and their gear was a net with three quarter inch mesh, whereas Haven (1957) used quarter inch mesh. Joseph (1972) attributed the decline of croaker in the commercial catches of the middle Atlantic coast to climatic trends. The apparent increase of juvenile croakers in 1973 and 1974 was probably due to the warmer winter months in those years. The main year class strength of croaker in the York River was dependent on the success of the late young-of-the-year group (Fig, 16, mode I). Because they stayed in the estuary through the winter. Milder winters probably were the most important factor determining the success of a given year class. VIMS York River trawl data showed mass mortalities of young-of-the-year croaker during cold winters (VIMS, Ichthyology Department, unpublished).
IV. Feeding Mechanisms.

1
Sciaenidae have the widest spectrum of feeding niches of any fish family in the Chesapeake Bay. The.four most abundant species of sciaenids are Cynoscion regalis, Bairdiella chrysoura, Micropogonias undulatus and Leiostomus xanthurus. These species are most abundant in the estuary from late spring to fall, especially young-of-the-year and yearlings (Figs. 6 to 19). Under these conditions possible food resources may be limiting and division of feeding niches may have evolved in order to reduce competitive exclusion among the dominant species. Fishes that are closely related and show feeding niche segregation also often show morphological differentiation in the feeding apparatus in Larimus fasciatus, Cynoscion regalis, Bairdiella chrysoura, Micropogonias undulatus, Menticirrhus saxatilis and Leiostomus xanthurus to test the hypothesis that feeding niche division has evolved among those six species.

The feeding structures examined were mouth position and size, dentition, number of gill rakers and intestine length, which directly effect the size and kind of food ingested and digested. Other accessary structures examined, such as the pore and barbel system on the snout and/or lower jaw, the nares and body shape were more important in locating food. Morphological differentiation and adaptation of these structures was found to be correlated with feeding partitioning of these species.

Mouth Position:

Mouth position and size of the opening limit the size of prey and
habitats in which the predator can effectively capture the prey. Larimus fasciatus have the most oblique mouth (Fig. 20,A) with the lower jaw projecting strongly in front of the nonprotrusible upper jaw. The maxilla (Fig. 21,A) is under the lateral margin of the rostral fold and its anterior end is firmly attached to the premaxilla and skull (dermethmoid). As the mouth opens, the distal ends of the premaxilla and maxillae push forward as the lower jaw is lowered (Fig. 20,A'). Cynoscion regalis have a large oblique mouth with the tip of the lower jaw projecting in front of the nonprotrusible upper jaw (Fig. 20,B). The anterior end of the maxilla is firmly attached to the premaxilla and articulates with the dermethmoid (Fig. 21,B). As the mouth opened, the posterior end of the premaxilla and the lower jaw move forward (Figs. 20, $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$ ). Bairdiella chrysoura has a similar mechanism of jaw movement (Fig. 20, $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ ), but the mouth is only slightly oblique with the lower jaw about equal in length to the upper jaw (Figs. 20, C and 21, C). Micropogonias undulatus has an inferior mouth with the tip of the lower faw enclosed by the protrusible upper jaw (Fig. 20,D). The anterior end of the maxilla is loosely attached to the premaxilla (Fig. 21,D). As the mouth is opened, the entire premaxilla and the lower jaw move anterio-ventrally (Fig. 20,D'). Menticirrhus saxatilis and Leiostomus xanthurus have a similar mechanism of jaw movement but their upper jaws seem more protrusible (Figs. 20, $\mathrm{E}^{\prime} \& \mathrm{~F}^{\prime}$ and $21, \mathrm{E} \& \mathrm{~F}$ ). In $M$. saxatilis, the mouth is inferior and the lower jaw is enclosed by the upper jaw (Fig. 20,E). L. xanthurus also has a small inferior mouth (Fig. 20,F).

The mouth position indicates'that L. fasciatus, C. regalis and B. chrysoura are the pelagic feeders (Fig. 20,A, B \& C) and that M. undulatus, M. saxatilis and L. xanthurus feed on the bottom (Fig. 20,D, E \& F). The relative length of the premaxilliary and dentary bones decreases and the height of the anterior dorsal process of the premaxilla increased from fishes adapted to feed in mid-water to those adapted to feed on the bottom (Fig. 2). This trend is also evident in the relative mouth size (Fig. 21, $a, b, c, d, e \& f, T a b l e 5) . ~ T h e$ Index number, the length of the upper jaw multiplied by the length of the lower jaw then divided by head length, decreases as the species trends toward a bottom feeding habit.

In bottom feeders, Micropogonias undulatus, Leiostomus xanthurus and Menticirrhus saxatilis, have protrusible premaxillae (Figs. 20,D', $E^{\prime} \& F^{\prime}$ and $\left.21, D, E \& F\right)$. This can be advantageous in getting the mouth opening close to food that is to be sucked in from the bottom (Alexander, 1967). The mid-water feeders, Larimus fasciatus, Cynoscion regalis and Bairdiella chrysoura, have lost the protrusibility of premaxillae (Figs. 20, $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime} \& C^{\prime}$ and $21, A, B \& C$ ). C. regalis and B. Chrysoura may compensate for this with faster swimming speed. Gero (1952) and Nyberg (1971) have discussed this aspect in detail. Larimus fasciatus differs from other sciaenids studied here. It may swim around with its mouth open and using its gill rakers as a filter similar to that of Engraulis (Gunther, 1962).

## Dentition:

Teeth on the premaxila and dentary are important in capturing prey whereas the pharyngeal teeth are used for grinding and/or transporting
food to the esophagus. In sciaenids, members of the genus Cynoscion usually have a pair of enlarged canine teeth at the tip of the upper jaw (Fig. 21, B). Other teeth are conical and present on narrow ridges of the premaxilla and dentary. The tips of the upper and lower Jaws are broad and have several rows of teeth which decrease in number to a single prominent row in the narrower posterior portion of the jaws. Small teeth also develop inside the larger functional row of upper jaw teeth and outside the lower jaw teeth. $L$. fasciatus and $B$. chrysoura have a band of teeth similar to $C$. regalis but lack $\rightarrow$ large canine teeth at the tip of the upper jaw (Fig. 21,A\&C), L. fasciatus teeth are finer than those of $B$. chrysoura. M. undulatus, L. xanthurus and $M$. saxatilis have broad villiform bands of teeth on the premaxillae and dentaries and also lack canine teeth.

Pharyngeal teeth are generally conical in sciaenids (Fig. 22). The lower pharyngeal teeth form a pair of separate narrow tooth patches and are situated on the most medial pairs of ceratobranchial bones. The upper pharyngeal teeth are mainly formed by two pairs of patches on the two most medial pairs of epibranchial bones. The pharyngeal plates are relatively small and narrow in Larimus fasciatus and Cynoscion regalis compared to the other sciaenids examined (Fig. 22,A \& B). The pharyngeal teeth of $L$. fasciatus and $C$. regalis are sharp, conical and directed backward but in Bairdiella chrysoura the pharyngeal teeth are blunt and the median ones are enlarged (Fig. 22,C). Micropogonias undulatus has much stronger and more enlarged pharyngeal teeth along the median rows (Fig. 22,D). Leiostomus xanthurus develops molarlform teeth medially on the pharyngeal plates (Fig. 22,F). Menticirrhus saxatilis has fine and sharp pharyngeal teeth (Fig. 22,E).

The sequential morphological changes in pharyngeal teeth reflect the feeding niches differentation from mid-water to benthic.

Gill rakers:

Gill rakers on the branchial arches of fishes are important in protecting the delicate gill filaments from abrasion by ingested materials and may also be adapted to particular food and feeding habits (Nikolsky, 1963). In sciaenids, the gill rakers reflect feeding niches by their numbers, size and shape. They are found on the dorsolateral surface of the branchial arch (Fig. 22) and along the inner surface of the branchial arch. In sciaenids, the lateral gill rakers are well-developed only on the first gill arch and the inner (or medial) gill rakers occur only as tubercles on all five gill arches. Only the rakers on the first gill arch are discussed here.

Menticirrhus saxatilis and Cynoscion regalis have the fewest gill rakers (Table 6). B. chrysoura and Micropogonias undulatus have an intermediate number and Leiostomus xanthurus and Larimus fasciatus have the most gill rakers. Numbers of inner gill rakers (Table 6) follow a similar sequence. The relative size of the gill rakers and their morphology differ among species (Fig. 23). L. fasciatus has the longest and the most closely spaced gill rakers (Fig. 23,A). Each raker has many minute spicules scattered on it (Fig. 23,a). C. regalis and $B$. chrysoura have long gill rakers compared with the length of the gill filaments (Fig. 23,B\&C). Numerous minute spicules are also present on each raker, especially on the basal portion of the raker (Fig. 23,b\&c). M. undulatus has relative shorter gill rakers (Fig. 23,D) with seemingly strong serrations limited to the basal half
of the raker (Fig. 23,d). The relative lengths of the lateral gill rakers in $M$. saxatilis and $L$. xanthurus are the shortest (Fig. 23, $E \& F$ ) and lack strong spicules (Fig. 23,e \& f). L. xanthurus has only slightly denticulated gill rakers and $M$. saxatilis has smooth gill rakers.

The inner gill rakers are knob-like, sometimes with spicules or teeth on their distal ends (Fig. 23, $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}, e^{\prime} \& f^{\prime}$ ). C. regalis, M. undulatus and M. saxatilis have broad, short inner gill rakers, with the height not longer than the width of the base. $C$. regalis and $M$. undulatus have prominent spicules at the distal ends of their inner gill rakers (Fig. $23, b^{\prime} \& d^{*}$ ). M. saxatilis lacks spicules on its inner gill rakers (Fig. 23, ${ }^{\prime}$ ). L. fasciatus, B. chrysoura, and $L$. xanthurus have long inner gill rakers, with the height longer than the width of the base. L. fasciatus and B. chrysoura have prominent spicules at the distal ends of their inner gill rakers (Fig. 23, $b^{\prime} \& c^{\prime}$ ). L. xanthurus has minute spicules on its inner gill rakers (Fig. 23, $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ ). Furthermore, in L. fasciatus a small inner gill raker is often present inbetween the larger inner gill rakers (Fig. 23, $a^{\prime}$ ). This is rather common among western Atlantic sciaenids.

The lateral and inner gill rakers on the second to fifth gill arches are similar in size and structure to the inner gill rakers on the first gill arch. The gill arches of these six species also differ in the relative lengths of the epibranchlal (upper) arm and ceratobranchial (lower) arm (Fig. 23). L. xanthurus has the shortest upper arm and M. saxatilis has the shortest lower arm. The numbers and size of the gill rakers indicate that mid-water feeders have lateral rakers longer than those of bottom feeders. The relative lengths of
inner rakers are longer in fishes with higher numbers of lateral rakers, e.g. L. fasciatus and L. xanthurus (Fig. 23,a'\& $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ and Table 6). Although $M$. undulatus has the strongest spicules on the lateral gill rakers (Fig. 23,d), the mid-water feeders usually have better developed spicules on the lateral rakers than the bottom feeders (Fig. 23). The morphological differentiation of gill rakers seems to relate to the filter feeding habits in the water column. Higher numbers of rakers (both inner and lateral) suggest that the filtering mechanism is more important in these fishes.

## Digestive tract:

The digestive tract of sciaenids includes four parts: esophagus, stomach, phloric caeca and intestine. The intestine usually has two loops (Fig. 24) except that of Cynoscion regalis, which is a straight tube from stomach to anus (Fig. 24,B). The relative position and size of the stomach and intestine vary with the amount of food present. The numbers of pyloric caeca and the relative length of the intestine may be correlated with the feeding habits (Suyehiro, 1942). The relative length of the intestine of these six species of sciaenid fishes (Table 7), may be grouped into three general categories. $C$. regalis has the shortest intestine. Bairdiella chrysoura has an Intermediate intestine length. Micropogonias undulatus, Leiostomus xanthurus, Larimus fasciatus, and Menticirrhus saxatilis have a long intestine. The numbers of pyloric caeca (Table 8) in these six sciaenid fishes also show a similar trend. C. regalis has the least number of pyloric caeca, four to five. B. chrysoura and M. saxatilis have six to eight pyloric caeca, $M$. undulatus and $L$. xanthurus have
seven to 10 pyloric caeca. L. fasciatus has 10 to 11 pyloric caeca. L. fasciatus and $L$, xanthurus have both a longer intestine and more pyloric caeca, but $L$. fasciatus is a mid-water feeder and $L$. xanthurus is a bottom feeder. They both have large amounts of small crustaceans in their diet. C. regalis has the shortest intestine and the fewest pyloric caeca, its diet is mainly composed of large crustaceans and fishes (see section "Food specialization"). Thus, the relative lengths of the intestine and the numbers of pyloric caeca in these sciaenids may be correlated with the size of the food rather than the feeding position in the water column, or their phylogenetic position (see part I of the whole study).

Pores and Barbels:

The mucus pores on the snout and the tip of the lower jaw, and mental barbels in fishes are sense organs probably involved in touch, taste, or both. The number and arrangement of the pores and barbels in sclaenid fishes are closely related to their feeding habitats (see Part I of the whole study). These six species of sciaenid fishes show a gradual increase in the number of pores from upper water column feeders to lower water colum and bottom feeders (Fig, 25). Larimus fasciatus has five marginal pores on the snout and four pores at the tip of the lower jaw (Fig. 25,A \& a). Cynoscion regalis has only two marginal pores on the snout and no pores or barbels on the lower jaw (Fig. 25, B \& b). Bairdiella chrysoura has five marginal and five upper pores on the snout, and six mental pores at the tip of lower jaw (Fig. 25, C \& c). Leiostomus xanthurus has five marginal and five upper pores on the snout, and five mental pores at the tip of the lower jaw (Fig. 25,F\&f).

Micropogonias undulatus also has five marginal and five upper pores on the snout, and five mental and six minute barbels at the tip of the lower jaw (Fig. 25,D \& d). Menticirrhus saxatilis has five marginal pores and three upper pores on the snout, and four mental pores and a short, rigid barbel at the tip of lower jaw (Fig. 25,E\&e). An apical pore is also present on the barbel of $M$. saxatilis. The anterior margin of the snout (rostral fold) in $L$. fasciatus and $c$. regalis are complete without notches (Fig. 25,A \& B). B. chrysoura and L. xanthurus have a similar indented rostral fold, although the former has a terminal mouth and the latter has an inferior mouth (Fig. 25, C \& F). Both $M$. undulatus and M. saxatilis have deeply notched rostral folds (Fig. 25,D \& E), correlated to their inferior mouth positions. The mental pores of $L$. fasciatus (Fig. 25,a) are the smallest of these sciaenids. The barbels of $M$. undulatus and $M$. saxatilis may differ in function as well as to number, because the single barbel of $M$. saxatilis has a pore at the tip, whereas barbels of $M$. undulatus do not (Fig. $25, \mathrm{~d} \& \mathrm{e}$ ). The numbers of pores increase as the feeding niche of the fish tends toward the bottom and barbels are present only in the bottom feeders.

Nares:

Sciaenid fishes have two pairs of closely set nostrils. The anterior one is usually round; the posterior one is oval and elongate (Fig. 26). A flap of skin is sometimes also present along the posterior margin of the anterior nostil in bottom feeding species. The nasal cavity is generally oval shaped with a cluster of olfactory laminae forming a nasal rosette anteriorly (Fig. 26). Larimus fasciatus has
the shortest nasal cavity (Fig. $26, A$ ) and Leiostomus xanthurus has the longest (Fig. 26,F). The shape of the nasal rosettes and olfactory laminae are similar in these six species of sciaenid fishes. The mean number of laminae (averaging both sides per specimen and rounding upward) differs among these species (Table 9) and is variable within a species. The numbers of laminae are 13 to 14 in $L$. fasciatus; 14 to 22 in Cynoscion regalis; 16 to 31 in $L$. xanthurus and 18 to 19 in Menticirrhus saxatilis. L. fasciatus, C. regalis, and B. chrysoura average fewer laminae than M. undulatus, L. xanthurus and M. saxatilis (Table 9). Within a species, the number of nasal laminae seems higher in larger specimens. The number of nasal laminae is greater in bottom feeding fishes.

Other Morphological Characters:

Differences in body shape, mouth structure, food specialization and habitat preferences of fishes may act to restrict interspecific competition within a fauna (Keast and Webb, 1966). The six species of sciaenid fishes discussed here show a correlation between body shape and feeding habitat (Fig. 27). Young Larimus fasciatus are oblong, and relatively deep and have a compressed body and a pointed tail (Fig. 27,A). These features, in combination with a strong oblique mouth and large eyes (Fig. 20,A\& $A^{\prime}$ and Table 5) Indicate that $L$. fasciatus is a moderate swimner that feeds in the upper water column by sight. Young cynoscion regalis have a fusiform and compressed body, and a long pointed tail, (Fig. 27,B). These features, in combination with a large oblique mouth and relatively large eyes (Fig. 20, B \& $\mathrm{B}^{\prime}$ and Table 5) indicate that $C$. regalis is a fast swimmer that feeds in the
upper water column by sight. Young Bairdiella chrysoura have an oblong and compressed body, and a broad and slightly rounded to truncate tail (Fig. 27,C). These features, together with its terminal mouth and relatively large eyes (Fig. 20, $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ and Table 5) indicate that B. chrysoura is a moderate swimmer that feeds in the middle water column. Young Micropogonias undulatus have an elongate and less compressed body and a long pointed tail (Fig. 27,D). These features, combined with an inferior mouth with barbels and relatively smaller eyes (Fig. 20,D \& $D^{\prime}$ and Table 5), indicate that $M$. undulatus is a moderate swimmer that feeds in the lower water column by sight, olfaction and touch. The young of Leiostomus xanthurus have a rather short and deep body, and a broad and truncate tail (Fig. 27,F). These features, combined with an inferior mouth and large eyes (Fig. 20, F \& F' and Table 5), indicate that $L$. xanthurus is a slow swimmer that feeds in the lower water column by sight and olfaction. Young Menticirrhus saxatilis have an elongate, round and narrow body, and a relatively pointed tail (Fig. 27,E). These features, combined with an inferior mouth with a pored-barbel (Fig. 25,e) and relative smaller eyes (Table 5) Indicate that $M$. saxatilis is a slow swimmer that feeds in the lower water column by sight, olfaction, and touch.

The cross sections of these young sciaenid fishes (Fig. 27) also Indicate their habitat. $L$. fasciatus, C. regalis, and B. chrysoura are compressed and have relatively narrow ventral surfaces (Fig. 27,A, $B \& C$ ) in comparison to $M$. undulatus, $L$. xanthurus and $M$. saxatilis (Fig. 27,D, E\&F). Some of these morphological characters such as the shape of the tails and the size of the eyes vary ontogenetically. Generaily, most juvenile sciaenids have pointed tails and relatively larger eyes than adults.

## V. Food Specialization:

The food habits of young sciaenids have been studied by numerous authors and the information reported by them is scattered and presented in different ways. Some of this work has been summarized for comparison with the present study (Tables 10 to 14). Only those studies having some sort of quantitative analysis were chosen for the comparison. Different authors have used different taxonomic catagories to analyze their information. The classification of the food items in the present study has been modified from Darnell (1961) and Qasim (1972). Six mafor food groups were employed more or less according to their vertical occurrence in the water column, from the upper water column to the bottom. They were fishes, macrozooplankton, microzooplankton, epibenthos, infauna and other organic matters. Within each food group, several items were listed and the trivial and generic names of the primary prey species in the study area were indicated. The boundaries for these six food groups are not definite, because some prey taxa move vertically in the water column and some taxa may also include both pelagic and benthic species in parts of the water columns. Generalized terms used by many authors such as shrimps, annelids, mollusks, crabs, et. al. were placed under respective food groups for the convenience of comparison. The food habits of each species were compared with previous studies from different geographic areas and seasons. Food items were listed in different catagorles for each species. Under each listed item, there were cases where more than a single food taxon was listed by the original authors. Then the one
that had the highest frequency (by occurrence, volume, or weight) was chosen to represent that item.

All fish specimens used for stomach analyses in this study were randomly selected from specimens collected in June to November (1972 to 1974). During this period, these sciaenids reach their maximum abundance and degree of sympatry. All specimens were young-of-the-year or yearlings.

Larimus fasciatus:

In this study, stomachs of 12 specimens of $L$. fasciatus (14 to 125 mm TL ) were examined. All stomachs contained crustaceans, exclusively: Neomysis americana in seven stomachs, Cumacea in five, Amphipoda (mostly Gammarus) in four and calanoid copepoda (mostly Acartia tonsa) in two. Most of these prey species were of small size.

Published information on food habits of $L$. fasciatus was scarce. Welsh and Breder (1923) reported on food of four L. fasciatus (50-110 ma SL) from Mississippi and Texas. Only two stomachs had food, one with a post-1arval clupeoid and the other with "schizopodous forms" (crustacean remains).

## Cynoscion regalis:

In this study, stomachs of 36 specimens (67-183 nm TL) of C. regalis were examined (Table 10). They fed only on Anchoa mitchilli and Neomysis americana. A. mitchilli was very abundant in the same area as C. regalis in the same months (Colvocoresses, 1975; Markle, 1976). Fishes and planktonic crustaceans were the major food items of c. regalis (Table 10). A shift of food habits with growth was noted by Thomas (1971), Merriner
(1975), and Stickney et. al. (1975). The smaller weakfish fed more on mysid shrimp and the larger weakfish fed more on fishes.

## Bairdiella chrysoura:

In this study, stomachs of 68 specimens ( $57-190 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL}$ ) of $B$. chrysoura were examined (Table 11). They fed mainly on Neomysis americanus and Anchoa mitchilli. Juvenile B. chrysoura fed mainly on crustaceans and fishes (Table 11). Smaller specimens (less than 40 mm SL) fed mostly on copepods but as they grew they fed more on Neomysis americanus, amphipods and other larger crustaceans. Fishes became more important food items for specimens over 70 mm SL (Thomas, 1971; Carr and Adams, 1973; Stickney, et. al., 1975).

## Micropogonias undulatus:

In this study, stomachs of 69 specimens (65-199 mm TL) of $M$. undulatus were examined (Table 12). They showed as wide a variety of prey items as have previous studies from other geographic areas (Table 12). Polychaetes and crustaceans were the main food items of the juvenile $M$. undulatus in the study area. Juvenile M. undulatus fed on a large variety of invertebrates and sometimes fishes (Table 12). Stickney, et. al. (1975) indicated that smaller specimens (less than 100 mm SL) depend extensively on hapacticoid copepods, which were mainly bottom dwellers. As the fish grew, they became more generalized feeders (Parker, 1971). Geographic variation in food habits of juvenile M. undulatus (Table 12) probably is attributable to availability of food species in the area.

Menticirrhus saxatilis:

In this study, stomachs of 20 specimens (36.5-118 mm TL) of $M$. saxatilis were examined. They all had crustaceans in the stomach and polychaetes were also important in their diet. The occurrence of organic detritus was also frequent. This suggests that $M$. saxatilis is a bottom feeder. Juvenile M. saxatilis also feed mainly on crustaceans and polychaetes (Table 13). Welsh \& Breder (1923) indicated that $M$. saxatilis fed mainly on relatively large crustaceans.

## Leiostomus xanthurus:

In this study, stomachs of 77 specimens (73-205 mm TL) of $L$. xanthurus were examined. Although they showed a wide variety of food species, the major part of the food was benthic. Pectinaria gouldii, a burrowing polychaete, was a major food item in the diet of $L$. xanthurus in the study area. This indicated that $L$. xanthurus not only feeds on the bottom but also on infauna. Juvenile $L$. xanthurus fed mostly on benthic invertebrates (Table 14). Stickney, et. al. (1975) chosed that harpacticoid copepods were the main food for juvenile L. xanthurus and that seasonal variations in diet were slight. Organic detritus and unidentified remains were also common in stomachs (Table 14).

To summarize the feeding habits of the juveniles of the six sciaenid species, a chart (Fig. 28) had been prepared for six food groups defined previously. The main food group of Larimus fasciatus was mostly planktonic (Fig. 28) and the primary food species was Neomysis americana. Cynoscion regalis and Bairdiella chrysoura fed
mainly on fishes and macrozooplankton (Fig. 28), the primary food species were Anchoa mitchilli and N. americana, respectively. Micropogonias . undulatus fed on a wide variety of food including all six food groups (Fig. 28), with the dominant food organisms $N$. americana and Nereis succinea. Menticirrhus saxatilis fed mainly on macrozooplankton and epibenthos (Fig. 28), with the primary food organisms being $N$. americana and polychaetes. Leiostomus xanthurus also fed on a wide variety of food including five food groups (Fig. 28). The dominant food organisms were $N$. americana and Pectinaria gouldii. Food specialization or selectivity of the fishes per se does not seem sufficient to indicate food partitioning among them. Neomysis americana was a very abundant and available food item to all species of sciaenids in the study area. This shrimp migrates vertically in response to change in ambient light (Herman, 1963). N. americana is negatively phototactic. In shallow turbid water (as in the study area) during daylight it might concentrate near the bottom in the darkest sector of the vertical light gradient (Stickney, et. al. 1975). Because of the abundance and availability of N. americana, the other prey items should provide a better indication of feeding specialization. As has been repeatedly shown (Tables 10 to 14), most fishes were sufficiently opportunistic in their food habits to take advantage of extremely abundant prey species. All the fishes in the present study were sampled by bottom trawl during the daytime. Therefore, both the prey and predators might have been dwelling close to the bottom.

Polychaetes were also the major food resources for the bottom feeders (Tables 12 to 14); Micropogonias undulatus, Leiostomus
xanthurus and Menticirrhus saxatilis. But, M. undulatus fed more on the "crawling" species of worms (Table 12) such as Nereis and Nephthys (Barnes, 1969) and L. xanthurus fed more on "tubiculous" or "burrowing" species of worms (Table 14) such as Pectinaria and Amphitrite. This is contradictory to the findings of Roelofs (1954) and Stickney et. al. (1975). Observations of the feeding behavior of these two species in the aquarlum agreed with Roelofs (1954). But, L. xanthurus seemed to "dive" into the bottom sand much more of ten than $M$. undulatus, and the depth of the "dives" by $L$. xanthurus was not shallower than $M$. undulatus as stated by Roelofs (1954).
VI. Correlation of Feeding Structures and Food Habits.

Larimus fasciatus and Cynoscion regalis have oblique mouths (Fig. 20,A \& B) and their upper jaws are slightly or not protrusible (Fig. 21, A \& B). These features allow them to feed anteriorly and dorsally to the longitudinal axis of their bodies along their swiming course. Their mouth opens as the lower jaw drops anterio-ventrally and the distal ends of the premaxillae move forward (Fig. 20, $A^{\prime} \& B^{\prime}$ ). The mouth openings of $L$. fasciatus and $C$. regalis are relatively larger than in the other species studied (Table 5). The anterior views of their mouth openings (Fig. 21, $a, a^{\prime}, b \& b^{\prime}$ ) show that the upper jaws (premaxillae) are larger or equal to the lower jaws (dentaries). Although both of them feed "anterio-dorsally and pelagically" they did show differences in diet (Fig. 28). The following morphological characters are correlated with the dietary differences. The premaxillary and dentary teeth of both species are sharp and ridge-1ike. C. regalis has much larger teeth than $L$. fasciatus (Fig. 21,A \& B) especially a pair of large canines at the tip of upper jaw in c. regalis. These large sharp teeth are adaptations for grasping larger swimming prey. Both species have small sharp pharynegeal teeth (Fig. 23,A \& B). The arrangement and size of the gill rakers (Fig. 23,A\&B) in $L$. fasciatus are much denser and longer than those of $c$. regalis. These differences reflect the food contents in the stomachs of $L$. fasciatus, which consisted of small crustaceans collected by the filtering function of the gill rakers. The stomach contents of $C$. regalis consisted of large crustaceans and fishes (Table 10). L. fasciatus has a much longer twolooped intestine than the straight intestine of $c$. regalis ( 4 to 5 ).

These morphological differences are probably correlated with the size of food ingested. The pore systems of C. regalis and L. fasciatus are not well-developed. C. regalis has only two marginal pores on the snout (Fig. 25,B) whereas L. fasciatus has five marginal pores on the snout and four pores on the tip of the lower jaw (Fig. 25, A). In addition, the fusiform $C$. regalis (Fig. 27,B) is adapted for fast swimming and active predation. The robust, and presumably slower joving L. fasciatus (Fig. 27,A) is probably better adapted for a plankton picking type of feeding (Davis \& Birdsong, 1973).

Bairdiella chrysoura has a slightly oblique terminal mouth (Fig. 20, C) and a slightiy protrusible upper jaw (Fig. 20, $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ ). These features allow the fish to feed directly in front of its body axis along its swimming course. Its mouth opens as the lower jaw drops anterio-ventrally and the premaxillae move forward (Fig. 20, $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ ). The relative size of the mouth opening in $B$. chrysoura (Table 5) is similar to $L$. fasciatus and C. regalis. The anterior view of its mouth opening shows equal upper and lower jaws (Fig. 20, $c^{\prime}$ ). Although $B$. chrysoura feeds "anteriorly", a "median" pelagic feeder, its stomach contents are similar to those of c. regalis (Fig. 28) except for a smaller proportion of fishes. The difference in the morphology of feeding structures may also give a clue to food partitioning between B. chrysoura and C. regalis. The jaw teeth of $B$. chrysoura are strong, conical and arranged in narrow ridges, but lacks a pair of canines at the tip of the premaxilla (Fig. 2l, C). Its pharyngeal teeth are relatively stronger and blunter than in C. regalis (Fig. 22, C), especially along the median rows. Gill rakers of $B$. chrysoura are Intermediate between $L$. fasciatus and $C$. regalis in number (Table 6)
and length (Fig. 23,C). The intestine of B. chrysoura has two loops and its relative length and number of pyloric caeca (6 to 8) are also Intermediate between L. fasciatus and C. regalis (Fig. 24, C and Tables $7 \& 8$ ). These intermediate features reflect the intermediate feeding habits of $B$. chrysoura (Fig. 28). In addition, the body shape of B. chrysoura is oblong (Fig. 27,C) and not fusiform as in C. regalis, thus resulting in slower swimming and less efficiency in capturing fishes, as reflected in the diet. The relatively well-developed pore systems of B. chrysoura (Fig. 25,C), three upper and five marginal pores on the snout and six mental pores on the tip of the lower jaw, also may indicate that $B$. chrysoura depends more on "taste" and "touch" than "sight" feeding lower in the water column than $L$. fasciatus and c. regalis.

Micropogonias undulatus, Leiostomus xanthurus and Menticirrhus saxatilis have inferior mouths (Fig. 20,D, $E \& F$ ) and rather protrusible premaxillae (Fig. 20, $D^{\prime}, E^{\prime} \& F^{\prime}$ ). These features enable them to feed "anteriorly and ventrally" to their body axis along their swimming courses. Their mouths open as the lower jaw drops ventrally backward and premaxillae protrudes antero-ventrally (Fig. 20, $D^{\prime}, E^{\prime} \& F^{\prime}$ ). Their mouth openings are relatively smaller than the pelagic feeders described previously (Table 5). The anterior views of their mouth openings (Fig. 20,d, e\&f) show that the upper jaws (premaxillae) are smaller than the lower jaws (dentaries). Although they all feed anteroventrally, and benthically, there are differences in their feeding habits (Fig. 28). These differences are reflected in the structural differences in the feeding apparatus and feeding behavior among them. The jaw teeth of M. undulatus, $L$. xanthurus and M. saxatilis are all

In bands and the outer row of teeth in the upper jaw and the inner row of teeth in the lower jaws are slightly enlarged. The pharyngeal teeth of $M$. undulatus and M. saxatilis are conical (Fig. 22,D\&E) and the median rows are larger and blunt. L, xanthurus has smaller pharyngeal teeth and the median ones are molariform (Fig. 22,F). The gill rakers of these three bottom feeding sciaenids differ in number (Table 6) and size (Fig. 23,D, E \& F). M. saxatilis has the fewest and shortest gill rakers among them. $M$. undulatus has fewer but longer gill rakers than L. xanthurus. The inner gill rakers of L. xanthurus (Fig. 23,f') are best developed, and most numerous (Table 6). This is reflected in the larger amounts of small crustaceans (e.g. copepods), ingested by $L$. xanthurus (Table 14). The relative length of intestines (Table 7) and in situ position (Fig. 24,D, E \& F) are similar among benthic feeders. The average relative intestinal length of $M$. undulatus and M. saxatilis is slightly shorter than in $L$. xanthurus (Table 7). The intestine of L. xanthurus is much thinner than in M. undulatus and M. saxatilis, and the food is visible through the intestinal wall. $L$. xanthurus is the only sciaenid fish in the study area with a completely black peritoneal lining. The numbers of pyloric caeca of these bottom feeders are similar (Table 8). The pore and barbel system differ among M. undulatus, L. xanthurus and M. saxatilis. They all have five upper and five marginal pores on the tip of snout (Fig. 25, D, E\&F). $M$. undulatus and $M$. saxatilis also have a deeply notched rostral fold. Ventrally, M. undulatus has five pores and six miniature barbels (Fig. 25,d); M. saxatilis hes four pores and a short rigid barbel with an apical pore (Fig. 25,e); L. xanthurus has five pores and no barbel (Fig. 25,f). M, saxatilis also has the most pronounced snout and most
elongate and rounded body form (Fig. 27, E). L. xanthurus has the least pronounced snout and shortest and deepest body form (Fig. 27,F). M. undulatus is intermediate in snout and body form between M. saxatilis and $L$. xanthurus.

The length of snout and body form reflect the feeding habits of these three species. Food habits (Fig. 28) indicate that M, saxatilis and $M$. undulatus feed on the substrate, on the epifauna, more than they feed "into" the substrate on the infauna. L. xanthurus feeds more on the infauna. The long projecting snout seems to be an obstacle for fishes with an inferior mouth to forage into the bottom for food. Roelofs' (1945) observations on feeding behavior of M. undulatus and L. xanthurus in aquaria with sandy bottoms were repeated during the present study. Juveniles of both species foraged into the bottom sand often, especially when the substrate was freshly dug from the beach. Foraging tapered off gradually, especially in $M$. undulatus, apparently as the food in the substrate decreased. Brine shrimp (Artemia) were fed to these two species in the aquarium. Both $M$. undulatus and $L$. xanthurus were able to feed on brine shrimp just below the water surface. $M$. undulatus fed on the surface shrimp in an oblique to vertical position. To feed on brine shrimp close to the surface, L. xanthurus occasionally maneuvered in an oblique upside down position, with the dorsal fin pointing toward the bottom to overcome its inferior mouth position.

Other accessory organs of feeding, such as the nares and eyes also reflect the feeding habits of young sciaenid fishes. The numbers of nasal laminae of the six species (Table 9) overlap due to ontogenetic changes. The absolute number of the nasal laminae increase as the
fishes grow larger. The upper ends of ranges in number (Table 9) are most important, as they indicate the highest number of nasal laminae each species may develop. Generally, the bottom feeders, M. undulatus and $L$. xanthurus, have more nasal laminae than $L$. fasciatus, C. regalis and B. chrysoura (Table 9). M. saxatilis has relatively fewer nasal laminae than other benthic feeders, but it has a pored mental barbel on the lower jaw. This may suggest that $M$. saxatilis depends more on "touch" sense for foraging than other benthic feeders. The relative eye size of $M$. saxatilis is smaller than in other sciaenid fishes studied here (Table 5). Larger eye sizes are found among the pelagic feeders, L. fasciatus, C. regalis and B. chrysoura (Table 5). Allometrically, the relative eye size of all these sciaenid fishes is larger in young specimens and smaller in adults. For benthic feeders, decrease in relative eye size with growth is faster than for the pelagic feeders, The relative roles of olfaction, touch and vision in feeding in young sciaenids studied may be hypothesized as follows. The benthic feeders, M. undulatus, L. xanthurus and M. saxatilis depend more on their senses of "smell" or "touch" or both to locate their prey. The pelagic feeders, L. fasciatus, C. regalis and B. chrysoura depend more on their senses of "sight" to catch their prey, especially in C. regalis and B. chrysoura which prey on Anchoa mitchilli, an active small anchovy.

Morphological differences in the feeding apparatus; especially the mouth position, slze and protrusibility, the form of teeth and the gill raker structure are limiting factors for the habitat and the size of the prey species which can be eaten by the fish. Evidently, the off-bottom feeders, L. fasciatus, C. regalis and B. chrysoura almost
completely lack any sedentary benthos in their diets (Fig. 28), Even among the bottom feeders, $M$. undulatus feeds more on epibenthic polychaete species (Table 13) and $L$. xanthurus feeds more on the burrowing polychaete species (Table 14).

Morphological differences of the digestive tract, the number of pyloric caeca and the length of intestine may be an adaptation to more efficient use of food already ingested. As is evident in L. fasciatus and $L$. xanthurus, size of the food items is important, $L$. fasciatus fed exclusively on small crustaceans (small Mysidacea and Amphipoda); L. xanthurus fed mainly on copepods (Table 14). L. fasciatus is mainly a pelagic feeder and $L$. xanthurus is mainly a benthic feeder. Both species have longer intestines (Table 7) and more pyloric caeca (Table 8) than other species in their respective groups (pelagic and benthic).

The so-called "selective feeding habits" of these young sciaenids reported by many previous authors (see citation of Tables 10-14) are not evident in the present study. Partitioning of food among these young sciaenids depends more on the habitats of the prey species than on the "selective preferences" of the fishes. These juvenile sciaenids feed opportunistically in a limited depth range in the water colum, probably within or close to two meters above the bottom. Within this layer of the water column, Larimus fasciatus, Cynoscion regalis, and Bairdiella chrysoura feed in the upper portion of the water column and Micropogonias undulatus, Leiostomus xanthurus and Menticirrhus saxatilis feed in the lower portion of the water column to the bottom. The difference in habitat preference of fuvenile sciaenids from York River was also demostrated by Cooke (1974).
Feeding niche division and resulting dietary differences among these species of sciaenids in the Chesapeake estuary area are attributable to differences in feeding behavior imposed upon these species by adaptive morphological limitations rather than to selective feeding per se.

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Table 1.
Growth of Spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts. Growth of spat,
Table 1. (continued, growth of Leiostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Pacheco, $195 \%$ |  | Chao, 1976 |  | Fildebrand \& cable, 1930 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Lower Chesapeake Bay $\varepsilon$ York River, Virginia |  | York River, virginia |  | Beaufort, North Carolina |  |
| Period | May 1955 to Feb. 1956 |  | Jan. 1972 to Dec. 1974 |  | Prior to 1930 |  |
| Gear* | P \& 30 ft |  | 16 ft T E S |  | Pl $\varepsilon$ T |  |
| Source | Table 3 |  | Fig. 6 (present study) |  | Tables 7 E 8 |  |
| Length (mm) | Total length |  | Total length |  | Total Iength |  |
| Age groups* | 0 | I | 0 | I | 0 | I |
| January |  | 155-255 |  | 95-175 | 4-21 | 82-195 |
| February |  | 150-275 |  | 70-140 | 3-27 | 91-200 |
| March |  |  |  | 90-160 | 10-39 | 93-200 |
| ${ }_{\text {April }}$ |  |  | - | -95-1.85 | $\begin{array}{r}7.5-54 \\ 11 \\ \hline 104\end{array}$ | 84-214 |
| June | 115-(140) | (145)-210 | 25-105 | 140-235 | 29-119 | 122-198 |
| July | 115-(150) | (155)-230 | 35-155 | 155-235 | 43-127 | 130-228 |
| August | 125-(180) | (200)-245 | 55-(175) | (160)-250 | 67-139 | 140-219 |
| September | - | (190)-260 | (\%0-(195) | (170) ${ }^{230}$ | - | - |
| November | 165-(205) |  | 80 -185 | (160)-240 | 90-188 | 190-264 |
| December | 155-185 | 220-240 | 75-190 |  | 1.5-9.2 | 84-188 |

Table 1. (continued, growth of Letostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Shealy, et. al., 1974 |  | Music, 1974 |  | Townsend, 1956 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | South Carolina |  | Georgia |  | Alligator Harbor, Florida |  |
| Period. | Feb. 1973 toJan. 1974 |  | Oct. 1970 to Sept. 1973 |  | March 1955 to May 1956 |  |
| Gear* | 20 ft T |  | $40 \mathrm{ft} \mathrm{T}, 12 \mathrm{ft} \mathrm{s}, 300 \mathrm{ft}$ G |  | 150 E | S |
| Source | Table 27 |  | Fig. 10 |  | Table I |  |
| Length (mm) | Total length |  | Total length |  | Total length |  |
| Age groups* | 0 | I | 0 | I | 0 | I |
| January |  | 88-207 |  | 80-250 |  |  |
| February |  | 83-142 | 10-35 | 85-225 | 10-34 | 95-159 |
| March |  | 123-182 | 10-40 | 95-225 | 15-54 | 105-175 |
| April | 18-52 | 107-162 | 15-75 | 95-280 | 20-74 | 105-184 |
| May | 23-82 | 88-147 | 30-100 | 120-260 | 20-89 | 125-189 |
| June | 33-(132) |  | 40-130 | 135-270 | 60-89 | 145-164 |
| July | 23-(152) |  | 45-(170) | (170)-280 | 60-99 | 145-159 |
| August | 48-117 | 153-157 | 45-(175) | (175)-280 | 75-99 | 165-169 |
| September | 73-132 | 148-152 | 65-150 | 150-265 | 100-109 |  |
| October | 78-127 |  | 80-150 | 150-250 | 70-124 | 145-169 |
| November | 78-127 |  | 75-115 | 120-250 | 85-129 |  |
| December | 83-147 | 168-192 | 65-95 | 100-260 |  |  |

Table 1. (continued, growth of Leiostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Springer \& Woodbum, 1960 | Sundararaj, 1960 | Dunham, 1972 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Tampa Bay, Florida | Lake Ponchartrain, Louisiana | Coast, Louisiana |
| Period | Jan. to Dec. 1958 | July 1953 to May 1955 | July 1969 to June 1972 |
| Gear* | T, 80 ft S E Pu | T, Tr \& S,R | 16 ft T |
| Source | Table 13 | Fig. 17 | Fig. 21 |
| Length (mun) | Stan:dard length | Total length | Total lenath |
| Age groups* | 0 I | 0 I | 0 I |
| January | 13-31 | 15-25 90-165 | 100-170 |
| Februaxy | 13-49 | 15-40 115-165 | 10-80 110-170 |
| March | 10-73 | 10-75 140-230 | 20-100 210-170 |
| April | 19-79 | 30-100 140-255 | 40-110 |
| May | 25-85 | 45-120 (120)-240 | 50-125 |
| June | 31-103 | 55-145 150-255 | 50-155 |
| July | 48-118 | 40-160 165-250 | 20-155 |
| August | 49-103 | 85-(180) (180)-215 | 70-160 |
| September | 52-82 | 95-(150) (150)-210 | 90-170 210 |
| October | 52-97 | 90-150 170-190 | 120-160 |
| November | 67-91 | 110-(170) (170)-205 | 100-180 |
| December | 76-109 | 135-155 | 70-180 |

Table 1. (continued, growth of leiostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Nelson, 1969 |  | Parker, 1971 |  | Pearse, 1928 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Mobile Bay, Alabama |  | Galveston Bay, Texas |  | Subine River to Rio Grande, Texas |  |  |
| Period | May 1963 | April 1964 | Jan. 19 | Dec. 1965 | March 19 | to May 1 | 1927 |
| Gear* | 16 ft T |  | 4.0 m . |  | Tr , T, | \& G |  |
| Source | Table 9 |  | Table 2 |  | Table 31 |  |  |
| Length (mm) | Total length |  | Total lenath |  | Total length |  |  |
| Age groups* | 0 | I | 0 | I | 0 | I |  |
| January |  | 75-160 |  | 60-170 |  |  |  |
| February |  | 90-125 | 30 | 70-180 |  |  |  |
| March |  | 90-180 | 10-30 | 60-190 |  |  |  |
| April | 45-70 | 90-165 | 10-70 | 90-150 | 10-90 | 120-250 |  |
| May | 45-(125) | (130)-171 | 30-100 | 110-190 | 40-120 | 130-250 |  |
| June | 50-140 | 170-180 | 30-110 | 140-190 | 70-(150) | (150)-230 |  |
| July | 55-145 | 200 | 30-140 | 170 | 80-140 | 150-230 |  |
| August | 80-135 |  | 30-150 | 170-180 | 110-(220) | 230-270 |  |
| September |  |  | 30-160 |  | 110-(240) | 250-260 |  |
| Cctober | 95-(190) |  | 50-160 |  | 110-(170) | (170)-260 |  |
| November | 95-165 |  | 60-150 |  | 130-190 | 200-250 |  |
| December | 90-175 | 200 | 70-180 |  | 130-190 | 200-250 |  |

Table 2.
Growth of Weakfish, Cynoscion regalis from different estuarine areas along u. S. Atlantic coast. -
Athantic coast.

| Author | Thomas, 1971 | Pearson, 1941 | Chao, 1976 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Delaware River, Delaware | Lower Chesapeake Bay | York River, Virginia |
| Period | 1969 | 1929-1930 | Jan. 1972 to Dec. 1974 |
| Gear* | T E S | Pl \& P | 16 ft T |
| Source | Table 4 | Fig. 23 | Figs. 10 to 12 (present study) |
| Length (mm) | Total length | Total length | Total length |
| Age groups* | 0 I | 0 I | 0 I |
| January |  |  | 60-200 |
| February |  |  | 315 |
| March |  |  |  |
| April |  | 130-250 | 65-175 |
| May |  |  | 155-330 |
| June | 5-70 |  | 140-385 |
| July | 15-125 | 20-(150) | 20-55 105-305 |
| August | 15-(185) | 30-(160) | 10-(95) 100-370 |
| September | 70-(185) | (130)-180 | 70-(110) 115-300 |
| October | 40-(175) |  | 35-(135) 140-325 |
| November |  |  | 65-(140) 140-205 |
| December | . |  | 95-(170) |

Age group: 0 represents smallest groups of young-of-the-year taken from January on, other fishes (including overwintering
young-of-the-year) are included in age group I. Parentheses indicate that the boundary of age 0 and $I$ groups is indistinguishable.
Table 2. (continued, growth of Cynoscion regalis)

| Author | Hildebrand E Cable, 1934 |  | Shealy et. al., 1974 |  | Whhood, 1974 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lecality | Beaufort, North Carolina |  | South Carolina coast |  | Georgia coast |  |
| Period | $?$ |  | Feb. 1973 to Jan. 1974 |  | Oct. 1970 to Sept. 1973 |  |
| Gear** | Pl, P \& T |  | 20 ft T |  | 40 ft T . |  |
| Source | Table 4 |  | Table 32 |  | Table 7 |  |
| Length (mm) | Total length |  | Total length |  | fotal length |  |
| Age groups* | 0 | $\pm$ | 0 | I | 0 | I |
| January |  | 75-204 |  | 138-327 |  | 68-438 |
| February |  | 105-274 |  |  |  | 68-388 |
| March |  | 90-230 |  | 155 |  | 83-358 |
| April |  | 80-284 |  | 118-188 |  | 78-408 |
| May | 4-9 | 125-224 |  |  |  | 48-358 |
| June | 4-44 | 95-279 | 23-47 | 72 | 13-(128) | (133)-328 |
| July | 4-(39) | 40-379 | 23-(52) | (53)-187 | 18-(173) | (178)-363 |
| August | 4-(64) | 65-369 | 23-(72) | (73)-182 | 23-(203) | (208)-323 |
| September | 10-(79) | 80-314 | 23-(67) | (68) -208 | 18-(213) | (218)-388 |
| October | 45-(94) | 100-329 | 28-(72) | (73)-228 | 28-(223) | (228)-313 |
| November | 45-(99) | (100)-329 | 68-72 | 78-702 | 48-(233) | (238)-348 |
| December | 85-(94) | (95)-299 | 88-92 | 108-197 | 53-(233) | (238)-348 |

Table 3. Growth of silver perch, Baindiella chrysoura, from different estuarine areas along U. S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts.
,om blu Table .
Growth of silver perch, Bairilella chrysoura



[^1]Table 3. (continued, growth of Bairdiella chrysoura)

| Author | Shealy et al. 1974 |  | Springer \& Woodburn, 1960 |  | Reid, 1954 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | South Carolina coast |  | Tampa Bay, Florida |  | Cedar Key, Florida |  |
| Period | Feb. 1973 to Jan. 1974 |  | Oct. 1957 to Dec. 1958 |  | June 1950 to May 1951 |  |
| Gear* | 20 ft |  | T, S \& Pu |  | 15 ft T, S \& Pu |  |
| Source | Table 42 |  | Fig. 12 |  | Fig. 10 |  |
| Length (mm) | Totai length |  | Standard length |  | Standard length |  |
| Age groups* | $\bigcirc$ | I | $\bigcirc$ | I | $\bigcirc$ | I |
| January <br> February | 18-(72) | ${ }_{88}^{93-182}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} 67 \\ 52-76 \end{gathered}$ |  | 55-60 |
| March |  | ${ }_{\text {98-172 }}$ |  | 67-73 |  | 65-95 |
| ${ }_{\text {May }}{ }^{\text {April }}$ |  | - $713-182$ | 13-25 |  |  | 84-110 |
| June |  | 123-132 | 16-52 |  | 15-50 |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { Juil }}{\text { August }}$ | $33-87$ $58-107$ | -128-192 |  |  | $\underset{\substack{20-70 \\ 5-80}}{ }$ |  |
| September | 73-132 | 138-177 | 25-85 |  | 10-82 |  |
| October | 78-(187) |  | 28-91 |  | 40-95 |  |
| November | 98-(172) $98-(182)$ |  | $\stackrel{19-97}{45-106}$ |  | 50-70 |  |

Table 4. Growth of Croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, from different estuarine areas along U. S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts.

| Buthor | Thomas, 1971 | Haven, 1957 |  | Chao (1976) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Delaware River, Delaware | York River, Virginia |  | York River, Virginia |  |
| Period | June 1968 to Dec. 1970 | Oct. 1952 to July 1953 |  | Jan. 1972 to Dec. 1974 |  |
| Gear* | 16 ft T | 30 ft T |  | 16 ft T $\mathcal{E} \mathrm{S}$ |  |
| Source | Table 70 | Fig. 7 |  | Figs. 16 to 19 (present study) |  |
| Length (mm) | Total length | Total Iength |  | Total length |  |
| Age groups* | 0 I | 0 | I | 0 | $I$ |
| January |  | 15-(85) | (95) -105 |  | 20-120 |
| February |  | 10-60 | (45)-100 |  | 20-155 |
| March |  | 10-(70) | (70)-120 |  | 20-175 |
| April |  | 10-(65) | 70-100 |  | 25-120 |
| May |  | 25-(90) | 70-140 | 20-30 | (20)-240 |
| June |  | 40-(120) | (120)-155 | 20-70 | (60)-245 |
| July |  | 75-145 | (135)-175 | 30-(120) | (80) -250 |
| August |  | N. S. | N.S. | 30-(90) | (70)-240 |
| September |  | N.S. | N. S. | 10-(100) | (70)-195 |
| October | 20 135-140 | 10-(40) | (40)-85 | 10-(110) | (100)-250 |
| Novenber | 25 | 15-(60) | (60)-115 | 35-100 | (60) -250 |
| December | 20-50 | 10-(60) | (60)-120 | 20-110 | 165-175 |

Age group: $\begin{aligned} & 0 \text { represents smallest group of young-of-the-year first taken from January on, other fishes (including overwintering } \\ & \text { young-of-the-year) are included in age group I. Parentheses indicate that the boundary of age } 0 \text { and age } I \text { groups }\end{aligned} \quad$ is indistinguishable. N.S.; no sample. is indistinguishable. N.S.; no sample.
Table 4. (continued, growth of Micropogonias undulatus)

| Author | Hildebrand $\varepsilon$ Cable, 1930 |  | Shealy, et. al., 1974 |  | Hoese, 2973 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Beaufort, N. C. |  | Coast South Carolina |  | Georgia, coast |  |
| Period | Spring 1926 to Summer 1927 |  | Feb. 1973 to Jan. 1974 |  | Aug. 1956 to Aug. 1966 |  |
| Gear ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ | $T \& \mathrm{Pl}$ |  | 20 ft T |  | 30 E 40 ft T |  |
| Source | Tables 9 \& 10 |  | Table 22 |  | Fig. 12 |  |
| Length (man) | Total length |  | Total lergth |  | Total 1 ergth |  |
| Age groups* | 0 | I | 0 | I | 0 | I |
| January | 3-24 | 25-269 | 18-97 | 108-297 | 10-80 | 120-130 |
| February | 3-29 | 40-294 | 28-82 | 113-187 | 20-80 |  |
| March | 2-24 | 40-294 | 13-102 | 123-173 | 20-80 | 110-120 |
| April | 25-19 | 100-259 | 18-(132) | 138-192 | 40-100 |  |
| May | 8-25 | 195-239 | 28-112 |  | 20-110 |  |
| June |  | 31-284 | 33-142 |  | 50-140 | 200-210 |
| July |  | 43-234 | 28-(182) |  | 60-140 |  |
| August |  | 66-289 | 53-177 |  | 90-160 | 190-200 |
| September | 2-9 | 80-279 | 78-182 |  | 60-150 |  |
| October November | - $\begin{array}{r}2-50 \\ 1.5-66\end{array}$ | 98-294 | 68-182 |  | 100-180 |  |
| December | 2.5-69 | 85-259 | 48-163 | 183-197 |  |  |

Table 4. (continued, growth of Micropogonias undulatus)

| Author. | Hansen, 1969 |  | Suttkus, 1955 |  | Parker, 1971 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Pensacola, Florida |  | Lake Pontchatrain, 6 Louisiana Coast |  | Galveston Bay, Texas |  |
| Period | Aug. 1963 to Dec. 1965 |  | July 1953 to Oct. 195 |  | Jan. 1963 to Dec. 1965 |  |
| Gear* | 5 mm |  | т Es |  | 4.9 mT |  |
| Source | Fig. 2Total length |  | Table 1 <br> Total length |  | Fig. 21 <br> Total length |  |
| Length (mm) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age groups* | $\bigcirc$ | I | 0 | I | $\bigcirc$ | I |
| January | 15-20 | 45-95 | 10-79 | 120-189 | 10-(80) | 90-200 |
| February | ${ }^{20-25}$ | 40-95 | 10-89 | 130-179 | 10-(90) | (90)-250 |
| ${ }_{\text {Mpril }}$ | N.s. ${ }^{15-35}$ | 75-8.5 | $20-119$ $20-129$ | - | $10-(90)$ $10-(120)$ | (100)-250 |
| May | 20-(75) | (60)-235 | 30-139 | 140-319 | $10-(130)$ | (130)-240 |
| June | 30-(95) | (90)-150 | 30-139 | 140-329 | 40-(140) | (156)-250 |
| July | 35-(90) | (90)-145 | 50-159 | 160-380 | ${ }^{30-(150)}$ | (150)-230 |
| A Aunust | 35-(110) | (100)-150 | 80-169 | 170-319 | - $60-160$ | (170-250 |
| Septenber | - $45-(110)$ | (110)-150 | ${ }^{80-189}$ | (170)-349 |  | ${ }_{60-220}$ |
| Novenber | 50-105 |  | 20-59 | 130-309 | 10-(60) | 60-210 |
| December | 10-95 |  | 10-79 | 120-299 | 10-(70) | 70-230 |

* Index of mouth size $=$ (upper jaw length $x$ lower jaw length) $/$ head length.
Table 5. Relative size of mouth and eye diameter in six species of fuvenile sciaenids from York River.

| Species | SL (mm) | Index of mouth size |  |  |  | SL (mm) | Eye diameter in \% of SL |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Range | $\overline{\mathrm{x}}$ | S.D. | N. |  | Range | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | S.D. | N. |
| Larimus fasciatus | 55.3-107 | $3.17-5.90$ | 4.634 | 0.957 | 20 | 55.3-107 | 7.38-9.84 | 8.602 | 0.672 | 21 |
| Cynoscion regalis | 35.2-75.3 | 1.929-3.54 | 2.827 | 0.518 | 22 | 35.2-82.4 | 8.20-11.45 | 9.55 | 0.782 | 26 |
| Bairdiella chrysoura | 38.4-76.2 | $1.76-3.08$ | 2.494 | 0.431 | 17 | 30.0-75.3 | 8.27-10.82 | 9.407 | 0.677 | 20 |
| Micropogonias undulatus | 35.5-116 | $1.20-2.41$ | 1.686 | 0.325 | 30 | 35.5-116 | 6.45-9.46 | 7.850 | 0.837 | 30 |
| Menticirrhus saxatilis | 29.2-99.6 | $0.50-1.37$ | 0.957 | 0.264 | 30 | 29.2-99.6 | 6.03-8.56 | 7.043 | 0.644 | 30 |
| Leiostomus xanthurus | 47.4-146 | 0.77-2.64 | 1.472 | 0.477 | 30 | 47.4-163 | 7.05-11.11 | 9.139 | 0.889 | 46 |

Table 6. Total number of lateral and medial gill rakers in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River.

| Species | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |  | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 |  |  | N | $\bar{x}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Menticirrhus saxatilis |  |  |  |  |  | 6 | 11 | 9 | 3 |  | I |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 30 | 12.04 |
| (29.2-99.6 mm SL) |  | 20 | 4 |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [ 30 | 6.73 ] |
| Cynoscion regalis |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 8 | 13 | 13 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 37 | 17.19 |
| ( $35.2-75.3 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}$ ) |  |  | [1 |  | 4 | 10 | 8 | 2 |  | 2) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [ 27 | 11.40] |
| Micropogonias undulatus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |  | 3 | 16 | 15 | 7 |  |  |  | 42 | 22.55 |
| (35.5-116 mm SL$)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 8 | 16 | $4]$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [ 30 | 15.73] |
| Bairdiella chrysoura |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 2 | 3 | 13 | 14 | 1 |  |  | 33 | 24.27 |
| (38.4-75.3 mm SL) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [1 | 2 |  | 5 | 6 | $6]$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | + |  |  | [ 20 | 15.70] |
|  | 18 | 19 |  | 0 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 |  | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 |  | . 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 N | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ |
| Leiostomus xanthurus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 4 | 7 | 6 | 12 | 9 | 13 | 3 | 1 |  |  | 55 | 32.29 |
| ( $47.4-148 \mathrm{~mm}$ SL) |  |  |  |  |  |  | [1 | 1 | 4 |  | 9 | 7 | 14 | 6 | 2] |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [ 44 | 27.18] |
| Larimus fasciatus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 5 | 9 | 5 | 2 | 122 | 38.00 |
| (55.3-107 mm SL) |  | 1 |  | 5 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 1] |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | [ 21 | $21.04]$ |

[] medial gill rakers
Table 7. Relative length of intestine in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River.

| Species | SL (mm) | Intestine length in \% of SL <br> Range <br> $\bar{x}$ |  | S.D. | N. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cynoscion regalis | $35.2-152$ | $35.5-49.6$ | 40.24 | 3.07 | 36 |
| Bairdiella chrysoura | $30.0-151$ | $46.1-64.1$ | 55.34 | 5.92 | 30 |
| Micropogonias undulatus | $35.5-145$ | $52.3-88.6$ | 65.57 | 6.56 | 39 |
| Menticirrhus saxatilis | $29.2-91.2$ | $56.6-88.2$ | 76.06 | 6.67 | 26 |
| Larimus fasciatus | $35.3-99.8$ | $73.1-97.7$ | 83.87 | 9.08 | 14 |
| Leiostomus xanthurus | $47.4-166$ | $73.6-97.8$ | 84.69 | 6.95 | 30 |

Table 8. Number of pyloric caeca in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River.
Species
$\frac{\text { Cynoscion }}{(35.2-82.4 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL})}$
Bairdiella chrysoura

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (30.0-75.3 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL}) \\
& \text { Menticirrhus saxatilis }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { (29.2-99.6 mm SL) } \\
\text { Micropogonias undulatus }
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
(35.5-116 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{SL})
$$

Leiostomus xanthurus
(47.4-148 mm SL)
Larimus fasciatus
(55.3-107 mm SL)
Table 9. Number of laminae in olfactory rossettes in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River.

Table 10. Stomach contents of weakfish, Gynoscion regalis from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic coast.

| Author | Chao, present study |  | Welsh \& Breder, 1923 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality Y | York River, Virginia | Acushnet River, Massachusetts | Cape Charles, Virginia | Winyah Bay, South Carolina | Fernandina, Florida |
| Period J | June to Aug. 1973 | Sept. 1882 | Sept. 1916 | July 1915 | March 1920 |
| Source 0 | Original | D. 159 | p: 160 | p. 161 | p. 161 |
| Number of specimens Empty stomachs Length of specimens | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \\ & 2 \\ & 70-183 \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \\ & 5 \\ & 7-11 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{si} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 45 \\ & 0 \\ & 43-11.5 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{SL} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 34 \\ & 5 \\ & 2.8-6.2 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{SL} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 105 \\ & 74 \\ & 5-17 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{SL} \end{aligned}$ |
| Quantitative Method | \% of occurrence | \% of volume | \% of volume | \% of volume | 7 of volume |
| Fishes $\frac{\text { Anchoa }}{\text { Others }} \frac{\text { mitchilli }}{\alpha}$ ramains | $\begin{array}{r} 72.2 \\ 8.3 \end{array}$ | 48.0 | 2.0 | 9 | 18 |
| Macrozooplankton |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\frac{\text { Neonvsis }}{\text { Isopoda }}$ americana | a 63.9 | 0.5 |  | 6 |  |
| Deiapoda (shrimps) <br> Ochers \& remains |  | 47.0 | $\begin{array}{r} 0.5 \\ 91.0 \end{array}$ | 83 | 46 18 |
| Microzooplankton Copepoda Calanoid sp. Others \& remains |  |  | 3.5 | 2 |  |
| Epibenthos <br> Polychaeta Neris succinea Amphipoda Gaztrarus sp. Others $\&$ remains | . | 0.5 | 3.0 |  |  |
| Unidentified remains | s 5.6 | 4.0 |  |  | 18 |

Table 10. (continued, stomach contents of Cmoscion regalis)

| AuthorLocality | Thomas, 1971 |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Del | aware River, Delaw |  |  |
| Period | June 1969 | Iuly 1969 | Aug. 1969 | Sept. 1969 | Oct. 1969 |
| Source | Table 20 | Table 20 | Table 20 | Table 20 | Table 20 |
| Number of specimens | 71 | 94 | 94 | 120 | 66 |
| Empty 5 tomachs | 10 | 11 | 10 | 18 | 12.180 |
| Length of specimens | 11-76 ma TL | 5-123 mm TL | 15-180 м пm TL | 20-180 तm TL | 61-180 |
| Quantitative method | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence | \% of oceurrence | \% of occurzence |
| Fishes | $7.0 \%$ | 14.9\% | $16.0{ }^{*}$ | 33.3* | 34.8 ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ |
| Anchoamitchilit | 1.4 | 2.1 | 1.1 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Others of retioins | 2.8 | 7.4 | 13.8 | 12.5 | 30.3 |
| Macrozooplankton |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sysid sp. | 74.6 | 59.6 | 65.8 | 66.7 |  |
| Neonvis americana |  | 4.3 | 2.1 | 1.7 |  |
| Deiapoda (shrimps) |  | 2.1 | 3.2 | 6.7 | 10.6 |
| Others \& remilns |  |  |  |  |  |
| Microzooplankton |  |  |  |  |  |
| Copepoda | 19.7 | 4.3 | 2.1 | 3.3 |  |
| Calanoid sp. Others \& remains | 9.9 | 4.3 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 1.5 |
| Epibenthes |  |  |  |  |  |
| Polychaeta |  |  |  |  |  |
| Xeris succinea Aphipoda |  | . |  |  |  |
| Gam-arus sp. | 9.9 | 58.5 | 58.5 | 28.3 | 28.8 |
| Others $\alpha$ remains |  |  |  |  |  |
| Unidentified zemains |  |  |  |  |  |

[^2]Table 10. (continued, stomach contents of Cynoscion regalis)

| Author | Merrinex, 1975 |  | Stickney, et. al:, 1975 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | Pamlico sound \& Morehead City, North Carolina |  | Savannah River \& Ossabow sound, Georgia |  |
| Pexiod | June 1967 to Jan. 1970 |  | May 1972 to July 1973 |  |
| Source | Table 1 |  | Table 1 |  |
| Number of specimens | 2159 |  | 120 |  |
| Empty stomachs | 1342 |  | 35 |  |
| Length of specimens | 135-481 mm SL |  | 30-169 dim SL |  |
| Quantitative method | \% of occurrence | \% of volume | \% of occurrence |  |
| Fishes 20.0 |  |  |  |  |
| Anchoa mitehilli | 58.1 | 15.6 | 2.5 |  |
| Others exemains | 15.7 | 74.0 | 31.7 |  |
| Macrozooplankton 0 |  |  |  |  |
| Mysid sp. |  |  | 0.8 |  |
| Neomysis americana | 31.0 | 0.9 | 55.0 |  |
| Isopoda |  |  | 2.5 |  |
| Delapoda (shrimps) | 0.1 |  | 2.5 |  |
| Others 6 remains | 1.5 | 1.2 |  |  |
| Microzooplankton 5 |  |  |  |  |
| Copepoda |  | . ${ }^{\text {- }}$ | 5.0 |  |
| Calanoid sp. |  | - | 2.5 |  |
| Others \& remains |  |  |  |  |
| Epibenthos 0.5 |  |  |  |  |
| Polychaeta | 0.5 | - |  |  |
| Meris succinea |  |  | 15.015 |  |
| Amphipoda |  |  | 2.52 .5 |  |
| Gammarus sp. |  |  | 1.71 .7 |  |
| Others 6 remains | 1.5 | 0.1 | 9.29 .2 |  |
| Unidentified remains | 96.8 | 8.2 | 2.52 .5 | . |

Table 11. Stomach contents of silver perch, Bairdiella chxysoura from different estuarine areas along u. S. Atlantic and Gulf of -


* Rll fishes combined
Table I1. (continued, contents of Bairdiella chrysoura)

Table 12. Stomach contents of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico coasts.
(

| Author <br> Locality | Chao <br> York River, Virginia | Thomas, 1971 <br> Delaware River, Delaware | Roelofs, 1954 <br> Coast, North Carolina | Welsh \& Breder, 1923 Winyah Bay Cape Canaveral South Carolina Florida |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Period | June to Aug. 1973 | Nov. to Dec. 1970 | All seasons 1950 | July 1915 Dec. 1919 |
| Source | Original | Tabie 71 | Table 1 | P. 184 P. 183 |
| Number of specimens Empty stomachs Length of specimens | $\begin{aligned} & 69 \\ & 5 \\ & 56-199 \mathrm{~mm} \text { TL } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25 \\ & 3 \\ & 23-50 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 159 \\ & ? \\ & 60-140 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{cr} 37 & 24 \\ 0 & \\ 4.2-6.2 \mathrm{~cm} & \text { SL } \\ \end{array}$ |
| Quantitative method | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence | \% of volume |
| Fish E Remains | 20.3 |  | 3.1 | 0.7 |
| Macrozooplankton |  |  |  |  |
| Mysidace | 3.1 | 64.0 | 5.7 |  |
| Neomysis americana | 35.9 |  |  |  |
| Isopoda - | 1.6 | 4.0 |  |  |
| Decapoda (or shrimp) | ) 9.4 |  | 3.1 | 7.024 .0 |
| Insecta | 1. 6 |  |  |  |
| Others \& Remains | 3.1 |  |  | 7.0 |
| Microzooplankton 760 |  |  |  |  |
| Copepoda | 3.1 | 76.0 | 25.2 |  |
| Calanoid | 10.9 |  |  |  |
| farpacticoid Ostracoda |  |  | - 4 |  |
| Others $\mathcal{E}$ Remains | 6.3 | . | 4.4 | 2.0 |

Table 12. (continued, stomach contents of Micropogonias undulatus)

| Author | Chao | Thomas, 1971 | Roelofs, 1954 | Welsh \& Winyah Bay | Breder, 1923 Cape Canaveral |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Epibenthos |  |  |  |  |  |
| Annelids (or polych | aets)67.2 |  | 89.9 | 29.0 | 3.0 |
| $\frac{10 y s}{\text { Giycinde }}$ Solitaria |  |  |  |  |  |
| Phyllodocid | 1.6 |  |  |  |  |
| Spionid | 6.3 |  |  |  |  |
| Cumacea | 4.7 |  |  | 2.0 |  |
| Amphipoda ${ }_{\text {che }}^{\text {Gamanarus sp. }}$ | 21.9 |  | 5.7 |  |  |
| $\frac{\text { canaharus sp. }}{\text { Crabs }}$ | 3.9 |  |  |  |  |
| Others $\varepsilon$ Remains | 6.3 |  |  | 1.0 | 2.5 |
| Infauna |  |  |  |  |  |
| Pectinaria gouldii | 15.6 |  |  |  |  |
| Comple | 1.6 |  |  |  |  |
| Pelecypoda |  |  | 11.3 |  |  |
| Nematoda |  |  | 0.6 |  |  |
| Others $\varepsilon$ Remains |  |  |  |  |  |
| Unidentified Remains Organic Matters | $\varepsilon \quad 23.5$ |  | 4.4 | 22.0 | 48.0 |

Table 12. (continued, stomach contents of Micropogonias undulatus)

Table 12. (continued, stomach contents of Micropogonias undulatus)

Table 13. Stomach contents of northern kingfish, Menticirrhus saxatilis, from different
estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic coast.

| Author | Chao | Welsh \& Breder, 1945 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | York River, Virginia | Cape May, | Falmouth, |
| Period | March 1972 to Dec. 1974 | New Jersey <br> August, 1916 | Massachusetts August, 1892 |
| Source | Original | P. 194 | p. 194 |
| Number of specimens | 20 | 21 | 17 |
| Empty Stomachs | 0 |  |  |
| Length of Specimens | 37-118 mm TL | $1.9-7.2 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{SL}$ | $2.4-7.4 \mathrm{~cm} \mathrm{SL}$ |
| Quantitative Methods | \% of Occurrence | \% of Volume | \% of Volume |
| Macrozooplankton |  |  |  |
| Neomysis americana | 35.0 |  |  |
| Isopoda |  | 5.0 |  |
| Decapoda (shrimp) |  | 9.0 | 42.0 |
| Crangon septemspinosa | 5.0 |  |  |
| Palaemonetes | 10.0 |  |  |
| Insecta | 5.0 |  |  |
| Others \& remains | 70.0 | 9.0 | 42.0 |
| Microzooplankton |  |  |  |
| Copepoda | 5.0 |  |  |
| Calanoid | 5.0 |  |  |
| Others \& remains |  |  |  |
| Epibenthos |  |  |  |
| Polychoete | 70.0 | 19.0 |  |
| Glycindae solitaria | 10.0 |  |  |
| Spionids sp. | 15.0 |  |  |
| Amphipoda ${ }^{\text {Gammarus }} \mathrm{sp}$. | 35.0 | 30.0 |  |
| Gammarus Sp. | 15.0 |  |  |
| Unidentified Remains |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

Table 14. Stomach contents of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus from different estuarine areas along U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico
coasts.

| Author | Chao | Roelofs, 1954 | Stickney, et. al. 1975 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | York River, Virginia | North Carolina | Savannah River $\varepsilon$ Ossabow Sound, Georgia |
| Period | June to Aug. 1973 | All Season, 1950? | May 1972 to July 1973 |
| Source | Original | Table 1 | Table 1 |
| Number of specimens | 77 | 73 | 126 |
| Empty stomachs | 4 | 0 | 7 |
| Length of specimens | 73-202 mm TL | 60 to 140 mm TL | 50 to 149 mm SL |
| Quantitative method | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence | \% of occurrence |


Table 14. (continued, stomach contents of Leiostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Chao | Roelofs, 1954 | Stickney, et. al. 1975 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Epibenthos |  |  |  |
| Annelids (or polychaete) | 56. 6 | 32.9 | 1.1. 6 |
| Neris succinea | 27.4 |  | 9.1 |
| Glycince solitaria | 37.0 |  |  |
| Nephtinys sp. | 11.0 |  |  |
| Phylicdocid | 6.8 |  |  |
| Spionid | 6.8 |  |  |
| Oligocinaete | 4.1 |  | 1.7: |
| Cumacea | 21.9 |  | 13.2 |
| Amphipoda | 24.7 |  |  |
| Gammarus Sp. | 12. 3 |  | 11. 6 |
| Crabs | 1.4 |  |  |
| Cnidaria | 9.6 |  |  |
| Others $\mathcal{E}$ Remains | 5.5 | 13.7 | 2.5 |
| Infauna |  |  |  |
| Pectinaria gouldii | 53.4 |  |  |
| Ampharetid | 19.2 |  |  |
| Gastropoda | 20.5 |  | 0.8 |
| Pelecypoda | 27.4 | 11.0 | . |
| Nematoda | 34.2 | 71.2 |  |
| Others \& Remains | 5.5 |  | 5.0 |
| Unidentified Remains \& |  |  |  |
| Organic Matters | 42.5 | 23.3 | 35.6 |

Table 14. (continued, stomach contents of Leiostomus xanthurus)

| Author | Welsh \& Breder, 1945 | Fownsend, 1956 | Parker, 1971 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Locality | St. Vincent Sound, Florida | Alligator Harbor, Florida | Lake Pontcha Train, Louisiana | Clear Lake, Texas |
| Period | April 1915 | June 1955 to Nay 1956 | July 1959 to March 1951 |  |
| Source | P. 179 | Table 3 | Table 13 |  |
| Number of specimens | 50 | 45 | 22 | 457 |
| Empty stomachs | 0 | 9 | 4 | 60 |
| Length of specimens | 2.1-3.5 cm SL | 16-163 mm SL | $40-99 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{TL}$ | 18-99 mm TL |
| Quantitative method | \% of volume | $\%$ of occurrence | \% of occurre |  |
| Fish r Remains 11.1 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Mysidace |  |  | 14.5 | 8.5 |
| Neomysis americana |  |  |  |  |
| Isopoda |  |  | 7.0 | 16.0 |
| Decapeda (or shrimp) |  | 5.5 | 19.0 | 15.0 |
| Insecta Others \& Remains | . |  | 14.0 | 19.0 |
| Microzooplankton . . . . |  |  |  |  |
| Copepoda | 8.0 | 66.7 | 3.0 | 1.0 |
| Cyclopoid |  |  |  |  |
| Calanoid |  |  |  |  |
| Harpacticoid |  |  |  |  |
| Ostracoda | 72.0 | 2.8 | 5.0 | 3.0 |
| Others \& Remains | 1.0 |  | 14.5 | 13.0 |

Table 14. (continued, stomach contents of Leiostomus xanthurus)


Fig. 1
The trawl strata, substrata, and beach seine stations (•) in the York River estuary, Virginia. Strata: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, M and P. Substrata: N. north shoal; C. channel; and $S$. south shoal. Substrata in Mattaponi River expressed as M-1, M-2 and $\mathrm{M}-3$, in Pamunkey River as $\mathrm{P}-1, \mathrm{P}-2$ and $\mathrm{P}-3$. River distances from the mouth of York River ( 0 km ) are indicated in kilometers.


Fig. 2
Monthly means of the bottom temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen in the York River estuary from May, 1972 to August, 1973. Strata: A to $G$ in York River and $P$ in Pamunkey River. Substrata: N. north shoal, C. channel and S. south shoal.



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DISSOLVED OXYGEN (mg./1) ........... } \\
& \text { SALINITY }(\% \mathrm{O})-- \\
& \text { TEMPERATURE }\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$






Fig. 3
Seasonal abundance of four juvenile sciaenids with depth and distance upstream in the York River.

Mean numerical catch per tow expressed as $\log (\bar{x}+1)$.
Strata: A to G; substrata: N. north shoal, C.
channel and S. south shoal.

C
















Fig. 4
Seasonal abundance of four juvenile sciaenids in Mattaponi and Pamunkey rivers. Mean numerical catch per tow expressed as $\log (\bar{x}+1)$. Strata: M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River. Substrata: 1, 2 and 3 designated by river distance upstream.

D. Cynoscion regalis
$\square$ Micropogonias undulatus
8 Leiostomus xanthurus

## Fig. 5

Seasonal mean abundance of four juvenile sciaenids along the salinity gradient (strata) in the York River estuary. Grand mean numerical catch of channel and shoals per tow expressed as $\log (\bar{x}+1)$. Strata: A to G in York River, M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River.


Cynoscion regalis
Bairdia/la chysoura
$\square$ Micropogonias undulatus
图 Leiostomus xanthurus

Fig. 6
Monthly length frequency distributions of juvenile spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from York River, 1972-74. Mode I, young-of-the-year; mode II, yearlings, Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments. Only the lower portion of river (strata A to D) represented in 1974.


Leiostomus xanthurus, 1972 Total


Leiostomus xanthurus, 1973 Total.


Leiostomus xanthurus, 1974 Total

## Fig. 7

Length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, by river distance (strata) upstream in the York River estuary. Pooled total, May to July 1972-74. Strata: A to $G$ in York River, M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.


Leiostomus xanthurus May to July, 1972-1974

Fig. 8
Length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, by depth of York River. Pooled total, May to July 1972-74. Frequencies expressed as log $(x+1)$ at 5 min increments.




Fig. 9
Monthly length frequency distributions of spot, Leiostomus xanthurus, from the beach seine catches of York River, 1972-74. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.

Leiostomus xanthurus 1972 Beach Seine


Leiostomus xanthurus 1973 Beach Seine


Leiostomus xanthurus 1974 Beach Seine

## Fig. 10

Monthly length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoṣcion regalis, from York River, 1972-74. Mode I, young-of-the-year; mode II, yearlings. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments. Only the lower portion of river (strata A to D) represented in 1974.


Cynoscion regalis 1973 Total


Fig. 11
Length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, by river distance (strata) upstream of the York River estuary. Pooled total, August to October 1972-74. Strata: A to G in York River, M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.

Cynoscion regalis August to October, 1972-1974

Fig. 12
Length frequency distributions of weakfish, Cynoscion regalis, by depth of York River. Pooled total, August to October, 1972-74. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.

## Fig: 13

Monthly length frequency distributions of silverperch, Bairdiella chrysoura from York River, 1972-74.Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.Only the lower portion of river (strata A to D)represented in 1974.


Bairdiella chrysoura 1972 Total
$(1+x) 907$

Fig. 14
Length frequency distributions of silver perch, Bairdiella chrysoura by river distance (strata) upstream of the York River estuary. Pooled total, August to October, 1972-74. Strata: A to $G$ in York River, M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.


Bairdiella chrysoura August to October, 1972-1974

Fig. 15
Length frequency distributions of silver perch,
Bairdiella chrysoura by depth of York River.
Pooled total, August to October, 1972-74.
Frequencles expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm
increments.


## Fig. 16

Monthly length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus from York River, 1972-74. Modes I \& II, young-of-the-year; mode III, yearling. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm fncrements. Only the lower portion of river (strata A to D) represented in 1974.


Micropogonias undulatus 1972 Total


Micropogonias undulatus 1973 Total


Micropogonias undulatus 1974 Total

Fig. 17
Length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus by river distance (strata) upstream of the York River estuary. Pooled total, September to November, 1972-74. Strata: A to G in York River, M. Mattaponi River, P. Pamunkey River. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.


Micropogonias undulatus September to November, 1972-1.974

Fig. 18Length frequency distributions of croaker,Micropogonias undulatus, by depth of York River.Pooled total, September to November, 1972-74.Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm
increments.


Fig. 19
Length frequency distributions of croaker, Micropogonias undulatus, from beach seine catches of York River, May to September, 1972. Frequencies expressed as $\log (x+1)$ at 5 mm increments.


Micropogonias undulatus May to September 1972, Beach Seine

Fig. 20
Mouth position and opening in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. $A, A^{\prime}, a \& a^{\prime}$, Larimus fasciatus; $B, B^{\prime}, b \& b^{\prime}$, Cynoscion regalis; C, $C^{\prime}, ~ c \& ~ c^{\prime}$, Bairdiella chrysoura; D, $D^{\prime \prime}, d \& d^{\prime}$, Micropogonias undulatus; E, E', e \& e', Menticirrhus saxatilis; $F, F^{\prime}, f \& f^{\prime}$, Leiostomus xanthurus. $A, B, C, D, E \& F$, mouth closed. $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, D^{\prime}, E^{\prime}$ \& F' mouth wide open. Front view of mouth openings (Iower case letters) in corresponding positions.


$\leftrightarrow 0$



Fig. 21
Osteology of mouth opening in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A. Larimus fasciatus; B. Cynoscion regalis; C. Bairdiella chrysoura; D. Micropogonias undulatus; E. Menticirrhus saxatilis; F. Leiostomus xanthurus.


Portions of right pharyngeal teeth in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A. Larimus

fasciatus; B, Cynoscion regalis; C. Bairdiella

chrysoura; D. Micropogonias undulatus; E.
Menticirrhus saxatilis; F. Leiostomus xanthurus.
Anterior end toward the middle of the page.


UPPER PHARYNGEAL TEETH


Fig. 23
First right gill arch in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A, a \& $a^{\prime}$, Larimus fasciatus; $B, b \& b^{\prime}$, Cynoscion regalis; $c, c \& c^{\prime}$, Bairdiella chrysoura; D, d \& d', Micropogonias undulatus; E, e\& $e^{\prime}$, Menticirrhus saxatilis; $F, f$ \& $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}$, Leiostomus xanthurus. $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{e} \& \mathrm{f}$, lateral view at the corner; $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}, e^{\prime}, \&$ f', medial view at the corner.



Fig. 24
Ventral view of the digestive tract of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A. Larimus fasciatus; B. Cynoscion regalis; C. Bairdiella chrysoura; D. Micropogonias undulatus; E. Menticirrhus saxatilis; F. Leiostomus xanthurus.


Fig. 25
Snout pores (capital letters) and mental pores and barbels (lower case letters) in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A \& a, Larimus fasciatus; B \& b, Cynoscion regalis; C \& c, Bairdiella chrysoura; D \& d, Micropogonias undulatus; E\&e, Menticirrhus saxatilis; F \& f, Leiostomus xanthurus.


Fig. 26
Right olfactory rosette and nasal cavity in six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A. Larimus fasciatus; B. Cynoscion regalis; C. Bairdiella chrysoura; D. Micropogonias undulatus; E. Menticirrhus saxatilis; F. Leiostomus xanthurus. Dotted circles represent nostrils, the anterior nostril to the right.


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Fig. 27

Body shape and cross sections of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River. A. Larimus fasciatus; B. Cynoscion regalis; C. Bairdiella chrysoura; D. Micropogonias undulatus; E. Menticirrhus saxatilis; F. Leiostomus xanthurus.



Fig. 28

Frequencies of occurrence of various categories of food groups in stomachs of six species of juvenile sciaenids from York River.

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## APPENDIX

Mean surface and bottom water temperature (TEMP), salinity (SALN) and dissolved oxygen (D.O.) of the York River estuary from March 1972 to March 1974. Strata are expressed as A, B, C, D, E, F \& G for the York River and $M$ for the Mattaponi and $P$ for Pamunkey rivers. Substrata are expressed as N (north choal), C (channel) and S (south shoal) for each stratum of the York River. Quantitative units: Depth; in meters.

TEMP; in ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.
SALN; in parts per ten thousand for strata $A$ to $D$, others in . D.O.; in one tenth of $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{l}$ for strata A to D , others in $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{I}$.

|  | TEMP |  |  |  |  |  | SAL |  |  |  |  | D.u. |  |  |  |
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|  | mean | max | MIN | 5 D | No | HEAN | Max | Min | 50 | NO | mear | max | H1N | 50 | No |
| $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{N}$ | 10.4 | 11.5 | 10.0 | 0.57 | 11 | 169 | 173 | 163 | \#.96 | 11 | 100 | 108 | 54 | 9.97 | 11 |
| A-C | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 0.00 | 8 | 163 | 172 | 117 | 7.52 | - | 4 | 107 | 10 | 1.67 | 8 |
| A-S | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 0.00 | 6 | 155 | 172 | 122 | 3.57 | c | 134 | 106 | 103 | 1.41 | $\epsilon$ |
| 8-N | 9.7 | 11.0 | 9.0 | 0.86 | 11 | 104 | 170 | 124 | 3.75 | 11 | 100 | 107 | 63 | 1.aó | 11 |
| B-C | 9.3 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 0.47 | 6 | 163 | 170 | 159 | 4.76 | 0 | $\mathrm{iO}_{4}$ | 106 | 143 | 1.41 | 6 |
| S | 9.1 | 9.5 | 9.0 | 0.19 | 11 | 152 | 161 | 145 | 6. $\mathrm{S}_{4}$ | 11 | 1ve | 105 | 100 | 1.70 | 11 |
| N | 9.3 | 10.0 | 9.0 | U. 39 | 11 | 163 | 100 | 120 | 3.42 | 21 | 103 | 105 | 100 | 1.16 | 11 |
| c-c | 9.0 | 4.0 | 9.4 | 0.00 | ${ }^{\circ}$ | 153 | 150 | 144 | 6.47 | , | 103 | 103 | $i v 2$ | 0.50 | 8 |
| C-s | 10.3 | 14.5 | 4.0 | 2.23 | 14 | 156 | 104 | 145 | a. 62 | 14 | 96. | 107 | 76 | U. 14 | 4 |
| D-N | 9.5 | 14.0 | 4.0 | 0.40 | 14 | 133 | 101 | 123 | 2.88 | 14 | 76 | 107 | 70 | 0.14 | 14 |
| D-C | 4.1 | \%. 5 | 9.0 | U. $\angle 0$ | 10 | 134 | 140 | $1<9$ | 3.53 | 10 | 128 | 410 | 67 | 4.10 | 10 |
| O-S | 9.6 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 0.43 | 11 | 134 | 1.5 | 119 | 3.43 | 11 | 103 | 112 | 43 | 5.04 | 11 |












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|  | MEAN | ilax | M1iN | 5 | N | ：12a | Max | ：11\％ |  |  |
|  | 27.9 | 31.0 | 25.3 | 2.21 | 10 | 164 | 101 | 149 | 2.71 | 10 |
| C | 26.9 | 27.0 | 26.6 | 0.16 | 8 | 101 | 105 | 17s | 2.98 |  |
| 5 | 20．0 | $2 \% .0$ | 20.1 | \％．0J | 10 | 13s | i01 | 17. | 1.20 | 10 |
| － | 27.3 | 30.5 | 25.4 | 2.38 | 14 | Lus | 103 | 15 | 3.72 | 14 |
| B－C | 26.0 | 20.1 | 25.3 | 0.12 | － | 176 | 171 | 173 | 1.85 |  |
| －S | 20.3 | 27.7 | 25.5 | 0.95 | 13 | lus | 171 | 152 | ロ．ナ | 13 |
| C－s | 27.1 | 23.0 | 25.7 | C． 43 | 14 | 100 | 17\％ | 1＋4 | 7.4 | 14 |
| C－c | 26.1 | 26.5 | 25.1 | 0.33 | 6 | 180 | 183 | 171 | ＜．49 |  |
| S | 26.4 | 23.0 | 26.0 | 0.85 | 15 | 150 | $1 / 1$ | 146 | 0.06 | 16 |
| － | 27.9 | 25.0 | 20.0 | زو 0. | 14 | 153 | 163 | 1： | 9．t1 | 14 |
| － | 26.7 | 26.8 | 26.5 | 0.14 | \％ | 169 | 172 | 164 | ． 40 |  |
| －5 | 27. |  |  | 0.28 | 12 |  |  |  |  |  |


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| A－： | 15.3 | 18.0 | 13.9 | 1.45 | 12 | 1と2 | 1d 6 | 1／c | 4.42 | 12 | \％$\%$ | 10\％ | 22 | 7．4y | $1<$ |
| $A-C$ | 14．7 | 13.1 | 14．0 | 0.46 | 6 | 1ヵ7 | 13り | 1ご | 1．10 | 0 | $4{ }^{4}$ | $\pm 1$ | 77 | 4.20 | 6 |
| $A-5$ | 14.7 | 14.7 | 14．6 | 0.15 | $\dagger$ | 180 | 15.5 | 1とi | U．50 | 4 | 91 | 100 | 74 | 7.00 | 4 |
| B－I！ | 16.0 | 17.0 | 14－0 | 1．65 | 12 | 104 | 1\％0 | 1J\％ | ＋－いく | i＜ | 97 | 100 | 73 | 0.86 | 12 |
| $B-C$ | 15.1 | 15.2 | 15.0 | D． 0 d | 6 | 126 | 1\％ | 1ジく | 5.31 | c | 15 | 93 | 63 | 1．79 | ＋ |
| －-5 | 13.0 | $10 \cdot 0$ | 18．0 | 0.00 | 6 | 110 | 110 | $17 \dot{\omega}$ | 1）．0u | $c$ | c 7 | 07 | 07 | N．00 | 6 |
| $C-N$ | 10.0 | 10.0 | 14.5 | 1．09 | 10 | 101 | 106 | 100 | 0.60 | 14 | ob | 3 7 | ¢1 | 2.94 | 1J |
| $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{C}$ | 15．9 | 10．4 | 14.7 | 0．60 | 5 | 179 | 100 | 177 | L．2S | 6 | 17 | 41 | b7 | U． 20 | 0 |
| C－S | 20.3 | 23.0 | 15．8 | 2.60 | 14 | 169 | 177 | 16も | － 0 | 14 | 64 | 69 | 44 | 0.35 | 14 |
| D－N | 17.4 | 18.0 | 16．1 | ． 0.82 | 10 | 157 | 175 | 14i | 1．50 | 10 | 01 | 90 | 44 | 6． 04 | 10 |
| D－C | 16.0 | 16．4 | 15．3 | 0．26 | $\square$ | 177 | 175 | 174 | 2.12 | d | 00 | 40 | 33 | 2.00 | 8 |
| D－S | 22.2 | 75.4 | 1̇． 2 | 6． 37 | 12 | 15c | 117 | 15j | 6．03 | 12 | 00 | $00^{5}$ | 40 | U．00 | 12 |

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| A－${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 7－U | 10.0 | 2．J | j． 56 | 10 | 106 | 18 | レン | 3．7is | 43 | 144 | 11\％ | ン | 0．14 | $10^{\circ}$ |
| A－C | 9.1 | 4.2 | 9．J | 0． 03 | 3 | 157 | 163 | 153 | j．1く | ＊ | Lい， | 113 | 104 | j．i 7 | 0 |
| A－S | G． 3 | 4.7 | 8.9 | 0.36 | i | ！ul | 106 | 136 | 4.15 | 6 | 101 | 121 | 104 | L．${ }^{1} 1$ | 6 |
| $\dot{s} \rightarrow \mathrm{~N}$ | 3.0 | 12．5 | 4.0 | 3.51 | 13 | 145 | $1 / 3$ | 1＜j | ソ． 5 | 10 | 201 | 111 | 104 | 1．8y | 10 |
| B－C | 9．2 | 9．9 | 8.8 | 0.38 | 10 | 165 | 204 | 1ヵU | 4．0i | 10 | $1 \cup 7$ | 110 | 102 | 3.07 | 10 |
| $B-S$ | 8．t | 10．J | 1．J | 1．40 | 12 | 1） | 100 | 1＋\％ | 3．25 | 12 | G | 114 | 04 | 9．0．3 | 12 |
| $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{N}$ | d． 3 | 4.0 | 7.0 | 0.94 | 18 | 1＜4 | 1もり | L3t | 1．61 | 10 | 44 | 114 | 64 | 6.03 | 10 |
| $C-C$ | \％． 3 | 9.3 | 9.6 | 0.23 | 0 | 140 | 171 | 137 | 3.35 | $b$ | Gt | 101 | 50 | 5.132 | \％ |
| $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{S}$ | 3.2 | 11．0 | 7.4 | 1.67 | 13 | 100 | 170 | 151 | 3.34 | 10 | $\cdots$ | 1Jo | 6 | 1.02 | 13 |
| U－N | 7.9 | 11．0 | 3．3 | 3.09 | 24 | 154 | $15 \angle$ | 107 | 0．34 | $<4$ | 54 | 111 | 69 | 1.76 | 24 |
| U－C | 10．0 | 1U．U | 9.4 | U． 08 | 10 | 157 | 172 | $14 \%$ | J．40 | 13 | 103 | 100 | 55 | 2．19 | 10 |
| D－S | 6.5 | 10.0 | 3.0 | 3.47 | 12 | 151 | 173 | 1＇\％ | i． 70 | 10 | ザ | 105 | dt | 5.23 | 12 |

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|  |  |  | TEMP |  |  |  |  | L |  |  |
|  | MEAN | MAX | MIN | S D | NO | MEAN | MAX | MIN | S D | No |
| E-N | 25.70 | 25.8 | 25.6 | 0.100 | 4 | 14.04 | 15.12 | 12.71 | 0.897 | 4 |
| E-C | 25.85 | 26.1 | 25.6 | 0.250 | 4 | 13.59 | 14.53 | 11.11 | 1.129 | 4 |
| E-S | 26.37 | 27.3 | 25.4 | 0.596 | 9 | 13.24 | 14.72 | 11.22 | 1.223 | 9 |
| $\mathrm{F}-\mathrm{N}$ | 26.47 | 27.6 | 24.5 | 0.979 | 6 | 8.90 | 9.81 | 6.83 | 1.002 | 6 |
| F-C | 26.80 | 26.8 | 26.8 | 0.000 | 2 | 9.21 | 9.21 | 9.21 | 0.000 | 2 |
| F-S | 25.50 | 26.0 | 25.0 | 0.500 | 2 | 10.57 | 11.79 | 8.91 | 0.910 | 8 |
| G-N | 25.0 |  |  |  | 1 | 7.03 |  |  |  | 1 |
| G-C | 25.33 | 25.5 | 25.0 | 0.230 | 3 | 7.57 | 9.22 | 6.20 | 1.249 | 3 |
| G-S | 25.63 | 26.0 | 25.0 | 0.415 | 4 | 6.32 | 7.26 | 5.98 | 0.543 | 4 |

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|  | MEAN | MAX | MIN | 5 D | Nu | MEAD | $\because A A$ | － 110 | $3 \square$ | NL | MEAS | $\max$ | HIN | S U | NO |
| $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{N}$ | 13.5 | 13.4 | 13．3 | 0.03 | 12 | $<10$ | 21； | $\leq 1 \pm$ | 1．7 | 12 | 00 | c2 | 70 | 1.70 | 12 |
| $A-C$ | 13.7 | 14.5 | 13.3 | 0.34 | 16 | 217 | $\angle \angle 6$ | 215 | 1．bu | 16 | 3 | 60 | $1 \%$ | 3.10 | 10 |
| $A-S$ | 14.4 | 15.0 | 14．1． | 0.40 | 6 | 220 | 221 | $<19$ | U．＂\％ | 4 | L1 | 42 | 78 | 1．0y | U |
| $B-N$ | 14．i | 14.4 | 13．7 | 0.25 | 12 | 214 | く1り | 215 | 1．V） | 12 | id4 | 43 | 7 \％ | 4.71 | 12 |
| B－C | 13．7 | 14．1 | 13．3 | 0.27 | 10 | $<22$ | $2+6$ | 215 | ＜．12 | 10 | － | y | 80 | 3.50 | 10 |
| B－S | 13．7 | 1ン．0 | 12．0 | 1.07 | 12 | 21.3 | $<15$ | ＜13 | J．13 | 12 | 07 | ui | 02 | 1.00 | 12 |
| C－N | 13.3 | 13.9 | 13.0 | U．38 | 12 | ＜13 | ＜1 | 217 | 1．13 | 12 | 47 | 83 | 02 | 1．60 | 12 |
| C－C | 13.1 | 13.6 | 12．9 | 0.25 | 10 | 215 | 270 | 211 | 3．41 | 10 | B6 | 95 | 00 | 5.69 | 10 |
| C－S | 14.6 | 10.7 | $12 . y$ | 1.53 | 10 | 212 | 214 | 210 | 1．75 | $1 \dot{c}$ | 04 | －3 | 78 | 7.63 | 14 |
| D－N | 12.2 | $14=4$ | 4.4 | 2.03 | 10 | 20u | 22い | 17 i | 0.68 | $\pm 0$ | d9 | 74 | 70 | 7.03 | 18 |
| D－C | 12．5 | 13.0 | 12－3 | 0.81 | 3 | 145 | 215 | 175 | 7.01 | $\because$ | c2 | 27 | 75 | 4.32 | 0 |
| $D-S$ | 13.3 | 14．1 | 12－2 | 0.54 | 12 | 204 | 214 | 1ek | $v=17$ | $1:$ | 03 | Yj | 77 | 4.25 | 12 |



















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## VITA

## Chao, Labbish Ning

Born in China on the 2nd day of the eighth month in the year of Boar (1947). Received B.S. degree from Tunghai University, Taiwan Province, China, June, 1968 ; M.S. from Northeastern University, Boston, June 1972. Entered the graduate school of the College of William and Mary, March 1972. Became Ph.D. candidate of the College of William and Mary, May, 1974. R

In June, 1974, author received an award from the Edward C. and Charlotte E. Raney Fund of the American Society of Ichthyologists and Hexptologists.in


[^0]:    . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .U. coroides

[^1]:    *Gear: Pl, plankton net; Pu, puchnet; S, seine; T, trawl.
    Age groups: 0 represents smallest group of young-of-the-year first taken from January on, other fishes (including overwintering young-of-the-year) are included in age group I. . Parentheses indicate that the boundary of age 0 and $I$ groups
    s indistinguishable.

[^2]:    * All fishes combined

