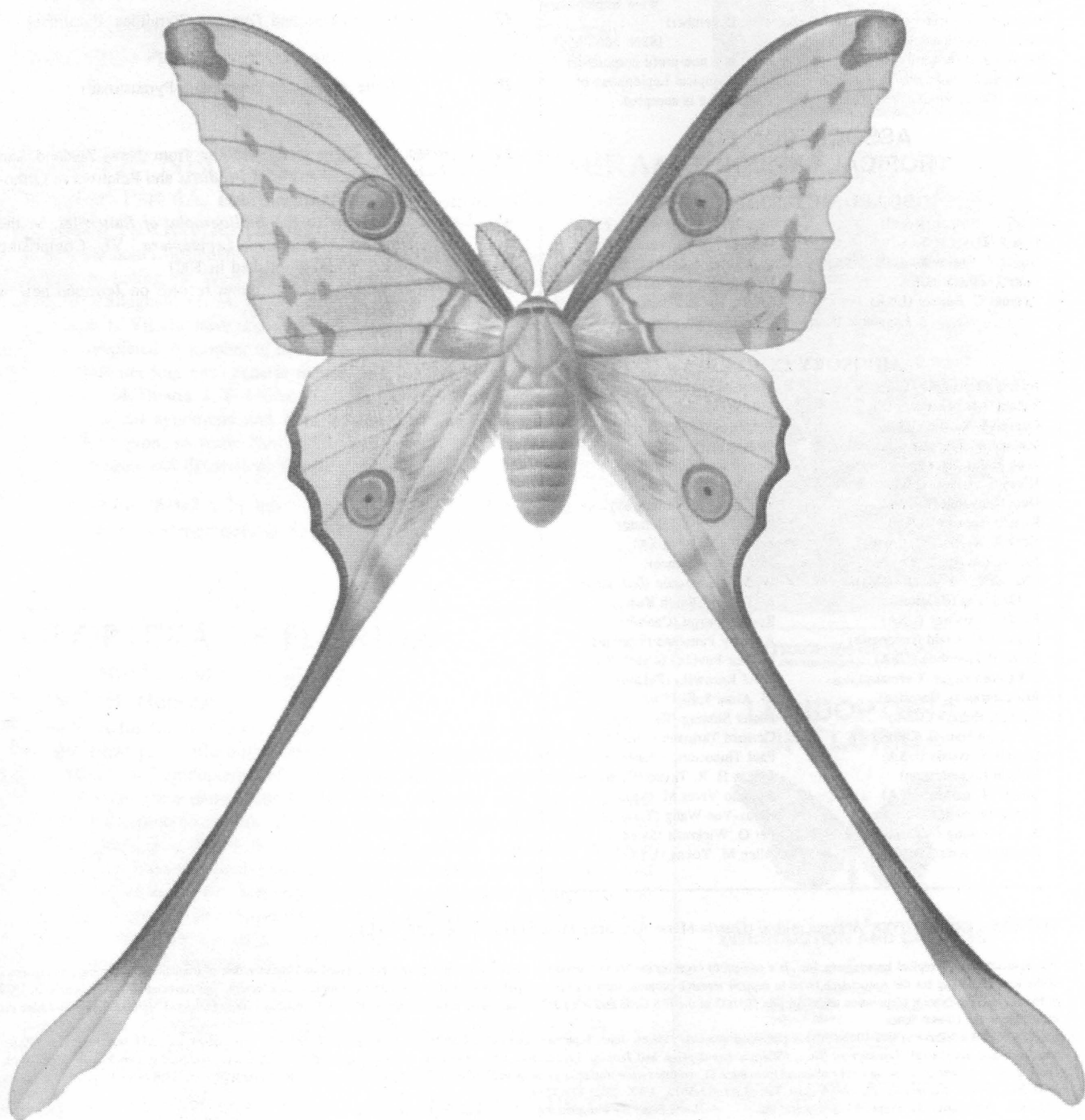


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TRIBAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE LEPIDOPTERA

J. B. HEPPNER¹

Florida State Collection of Arthropods, DPI, FDACS, P. O. Box 147100, Gainesville, Florida 32614, USA

ABSTRACT.—The worldwide biodiversity of the Lepidoptera is discussed in terms of current classification from higher categories down to the tribal and subtribal level. All 125 known families are treated, with 294 subfamilies listed.

KEY WORDS: biodiversity, cladistics, families, fauna, groups, subfamilies, subtribes, superfamilies, systematics, taxonomy, tribes, world.

The family classification of the Lepidoptera has been noted in several recent publications (see Heppner, 1992, 1996, 1998a, 1998b; Kristensen *et al.*, 1999; Scoble, 1992), but the classification down to tribal level has not been uniformly proposed for many decades (Zerny and Beier, 1936-38). One reason for this is the great confusion of tribal names, their irregular usage — either as tribes, subtribes, or elevated to subfamilies and families — based on the varying ideas of classification of various specialists, and the vast number of genera yet to be adequately studied worldwide. In terms of Lepidoptera, one can point out the dozens of odd genera that were found to be in completely wrong families when the editors of the generic catalog project checked every genus, to the extent possible, to determine their correct family placement (Fletcher and Nye, 1975-91); and still the family placement of many genera remains uncertain. One can also note below the great number of tribal names, particularly in Geometridae and Noctuidae, many of which may prove to be only subtribes once further studied in relation to the world fauna of the groups (likewise, see the large number of subtribes listed for the tribe Geometrini).

We do not yet have enough comparative knowledge of all groups, on a world basis, to know if the name proliferation in some families represents real biodiversity, or only that some enthusiastic taxonomic splitters have been diligently naming every odd genus as another subtribe (which eventually may be relegated to some level below the subtribe). The difficulty for Lepidoptera studies is that few taxonomists work on a group worldwide, particularly for such huge families as Noctuidae, and, thus, cannot realistically judge tribal limits based only on their study of a small group in one region of the world. Thus, we have a large number of tribal names for European Geometridae and Noctuidae, for example, but with no adequate study to see which of these names may apply to related groups in tropical Africa or Asia. Many researchers fail (or refuse) to comprehend that to elevate tribes to subfamily level, or subfamilies to family level, without comparative study of all Lepidoptera, brings only chaos to the parameters of such groups: one cannot have a "family" for one group be equal to only a tribal level in some other family if one is trying to still have a logical and reasonable classification. The corollary to this is also that one cannot obtain a realistic classification based on current "political correctness" or general "global consensus" views, as some authors like to state, implying that the question is already solved. During the Middle Ages the general view was that the earth was flat: that was also a "global consensus" for that time, yet this did not represent reality. Consensus does not bring us a classification that resembles the reality in nature that we have, only facts and logic can do that.

The classification presented herein is the most up-to-date available, based on as uniform an adherence to parameters at each level (family, subfamily, and tribe) as possible at this time. It already varies somewhat from earlier reports at the subfamily level (see Heppner,

1992, 1996), since so much is still being discovered. A subtribe classification has been used only sporadically so far, but these names have been added herein to elucidate the classification, since many of these names may be found listed as tribes in other works. On the other hand, some families are not even subdivided into subfamilies, let alone tribal divisions (of course, there are also a few families that have only one known species: e.g., Heterobathmiidae and Carthaeidae). Thus far, 294 valid subfamilies are considered herein for the 125 known families of Lepidoptera in the world.

ANALYSIS

Most specialists are not involved in worldwide studies in Lepidoptera, instead working only on regional faunas or particular families, and usually species only of one faunal region. A few exceptions exist: e.g., the work of Minet (1986, 1991), who has been doing extensive worldwide studies of different family groups and odd genera, although he splits off many more monobasic groups than may be useful. Likewise, there are my studies over the years (Heppner, 1991, 1996, 1998a,b, 2004), as also some global reviews like those of Common (1970, 1975) and the later revision of that (Nielsen and Common, 1991), plus summaries like those of Ehrlich (1960), Kristensen (1999), Munroe (1982), and Scoble (1992). Other studies, like those of Kuznetsov and Stekolnikov in a series of papers since 1976 (see Kuznetsov and Stekolnikov, 1978, for a basic summary), while in depth for most families, are nonetheless flawed because their studies involved only a single segment of adult morphology: i.e., exclusively the musculature of the male genitalia (as if this somehow would provide the answer to lepidopteran phylogeny better than other characters or what one finds in the larvae and pupae, etc.).

Among various studies, however, the tribal names found in many regional works are often the result of what one might call a "provincial" view (with no detriment intended), inasmuch as what are used as tribes in one region may actually only be equivalent to subtribes when compared with the world biodiversity of Lepidoptera. And, all this varies from specialist to specialist, as well. This is not to say that the classification published herein is the final word either: there is so much remaining to be discovered among many groups that we are a long way yet from a reasonably complete and stable classification down to tribal level. Even so, considerable work has been done in the last 30 years to elucidate the true placement of many odd genera that were left of uncertain status or else were completely misplaced (see Heppner, 1977; Nye *et al.*, 1975-91), although much remains to be done. Families are now fairly stable, however, and even subfamilies in most families, but beyond that there is still much confusion in many of the larger families, particularly Geometridae and Noctuidae. At the subfamily level, one source of confusion is the continued elevation of odd tribes as subfamilies, then later perhaps again considered a tribe after more study, sometimes as part of a different subfamily than in the past, and so forth.

¹. Contribution No. 895, Entomology Section, Bur. Ent. Nema. Plant Path., Div. Plant Industry, Florida Dept. Agric. & Consumer Serv.

Family-level changes at this time mainly involve the different views among specialists as to what constitutes a family: some split every odd group as a new family (the motto seems to be: better a new family than to try to work at it more and alter the parameters of an existing family), while others are at the opposite extreme and combine all kinds of groups together as larger families (remember that Linnaeus had only 3 "families" for all Lepidoptera, or at most 10, depending on how you view his groupings). There is also a major divergence of opinion on higher categories (families, subfamilies, tribes), between those who study only butterflies and those who only study moths. For example, some butterfly specialists once had almost every butterfly family as a superfamily in itself, rather than being all under the superfamily Papilionoidea: this is contrary to what the superfamily level is considered to be in the remainder of the Lepidoptera.

Since evolution is not always at the level where, when all the Lepidoptera are compared among each other, such that one has all category levels (from species on up) with distinct boundaries, we thus have intergrades as well: e.g., sibling-species for species that are just evolving into distinct species (and these are usually retained as a single species in our classifications at this time), so also it is reasonable to expect there to be "sibling" subfamilies and "sibling" families. This is part of what I view as the problem behind many disagreements as to what level various groups are: e.g., the controversy between Pyralidae and Crambidae, or more recently between such odd groups as Oenosandrinae in Notodontidae, etc. While I alter family definitions to incorporate odd tropical groups into existing families, if feasible, others tend to immediately split off such groups as separate entities, as already noted above. What may also be involved are what was just noted, a kind of "sibling" status. To engage this problem in a classification, I believe, the use of the "group" category below the family level is a useful option. Thus, we have the groups Crambina and Pyralina, since I do not consider the single main character dividing these two groups sufficient to warrant reverting to their split into two families, as was already done 100 years ago. Likewise, we have the case of the "families" Oenosandridae and Thaumetopoeidae, split off from Notodontidae: this case has been an on-going controversy (other than the newly segregated Oenosandridae) for decades. Yet again, I believe, this is a case of what could be termed "sibling" families, and thus, in the classification below these are listed as group names: Oenosandrinina, Thaumetopoeinina, and Notodontinina. Group names in a classification demonstrate that there is some level of difference between the groups greater than evident as subfamilies, yet not enough to warrant separate families. Of course, many cladists do not recognize this and elevate every odd group as a new higher taxon. Group names are also used in Arctiidae, Noctuidae, and Nymphalidae, and possibly more such arrangements may be needed in other families that are very diverse and may have "sibling" groupings; e.g., the Oecophoridae, where some authors have again elevated all the subfamilies as separate families (Kristensen *et al.*, 1999). Other candidates for the possible addition of "group" classifications may be Gracillariidae, Tineidae, and Zygaenidae, all with odd subfamilies that have sometimes been considered separate families (viz. Phyllocnistidae, for what now is subfamily Phyllocnistinae in Gracillariidae, and Hieroxestidae, for what now is subfamily Hieroxestinae in Tineidae). However, as with subgenera and subtribes, part of the problem therein is that many specialists simply refuse to use such relatively non-traditional categories, preferring instead to elevate all unusual taxa to the next higher level (yet among other insect orders subgroup usage is normal).

Until most specialists can agree on what is a family (subfamily, tribe, etc.) there will remain controversies as to what level any particular group should be classified as. For example, a recent work created a large number of "families" in Gelechioidea for odd groups that previously were maintained in Oecophoridae (see Hodges, 1999), this being a reversion back to a similar classification before

these groups were placed within Oecophoridae. So, back and forth from generation to generation, every 30 years or so, the family levels change when a new group of workers looks at the same problems and thinks of doing it differently again — *vive la différence!*, as it were — although in this particular case it was the result of an extreme interpretation of a cladistic analysis of the Gelechioidea that skewed (or rather, skewered) the results. Likewise, there are a larger number of monobasic superfamilies that have been proposed, simply because some specialists split off each odd family rather than redefine groupings to accommodate the odd, often tropical, species being studied. Remember that our classification was originally based mainly on European genera, and has since 1758 been repeatedly altered as more and more of the tropical diversity was discovered.

Current so-called "phylogenetic" cladistics (or Hennigian cladistics) is not any different or "better" than other recent taxonomic methodologies (e.g., actual phylogenetic taxonomy, as from Mayr and Simpson), being as inherently biased as past methodologies, although many specialists using cladistics generally do not acknowledge any subjectivity: their results, however, are as dependent on the characters chosen (and the computer program used when a computer analysis is involved) as older conclusions, and these results must also be interpreted (see the note above about Gelechioidea). Current methodologies are superior, however, at least in the one aspect that more and more specialists are using a wider array of more fundamental characters in family-level classification and their studies are more precise in assessments of synapomorphies, which is an improvement over what was done earlier in the past century; the only problem is that these same specialists may include wildly varying characters as family-level characters in trying to come to their conclusions (e.g., using various genitalic characters for family-level studies of inter-relationships is foregone to result in possibly erroneous conclusions simply because genitalic characters are mainly species specific, or generic-level, and will only rarely offer some characteristic that can be validly applied to family-level studies). In many families we also have varying classifications because one specialist uses only adult characters, while another makes use of larval and pupal characters, which often produces very different results: rather, all these characters should be integrated into an analysis, to thus provide a more solid framework for our classification. And finally, many of the cladists adhere to strict monophyly in groups (which actually is the most ideal), yet will then subjectively determine where to draw the line on what the family level is, or where the tribal level is, and so forth.

Another problem in achieving a stable classification is the lack of characters of the immature stages of a great many groups, even entire families. If we do not have the array of characters offered by larval and pupal morphology, then relationships can often be very inconclusive. Here is an area of study that students should make note of, since searching for the immature stages and biologies of families (and other unique groups), where these remain unknown, can bring great advances in our classification. For example, in Noctuidae the members of the highly unusual Papuan subfamily Cocytinae are completely unknown biologically, yet the larvae and pupae could offer many characters to show where their true affinities lie, since the adults are strange day-flying moths (only 2 species are known) that appear more like small sphingids than owlet moths. There are many other cases like this: entire families such as Neopseustidae, Eriocottidae, and Ratardidae, among others, are completely unknown biologically (see Heppner (1998) for a listing of other biologically unknown families and subgroups).

Thus, to reiterate, the classification below is based on a worldwide study of the groups involved, not just a regional understanding or bias. Various works have been consulted (see Heppner (1998) for listings of references), as well as personal studies over the last 30 years. While monophyly is the standard applied to groupings, differential rates of evolution have also split groups that could

otherwise be combined (e.g., for Sesiidae, and particularly for Zygaenoidea and Cossoidea), thus, a reasoned approach has been used overall.

The classification below is most tentative at the tribal level in Geometridae and Noctuidae. As noted previously, regional workers have often elevated what are subtribes to tribal level, such that more names have been proposed than for the biodiversity that is involved. Even herein, the tribal listings of some families may be too extensive (e.g., in Geometridae), and many of the names may be dropped to subtribe level in the future, following more extensive study and comparative review of each group. However, the large biodiversity of some families may require large numbers of tribes. And, if some genus is unique, it may require a separate tribe (or other category) even if monobasic (witness Carthaeidae, with a single unique species that requires its own family). Many families are so vast, however, that progress is slow and will require the work of many specialists willing to take on the task. Phylogenetic arrangements (from primitive to advanced taxa) also vary regionally and by specialist in some cases: as an example, most subfamily and tribal arrangements in the family Geometridae vary between works and specialists of the New World fauna (e.g., Ennominae as a more primitive group in the family, thus, near the beginning of the listing) and the Old World fauna (e.g., Ennominae at the end, or as the most advanced geometrids). As noted previously, many worldwide studies are still needed but cannot be realistically advantageous until the immature stages are known for all families, thus giving those crucial character sets their due consideration and possibly resolving the conflicts of classifications as we see in families like the Geometridae.

TRIBAL NAMES

Synonyms are not included in the classification listing below, but can be found in the index (1,984 names), with notation as to what the correct name is for each taxon. Some of the synonym names have been used by others simply due to the erroneous view that once an older generic name is added to a group then the higher level taxon must adopt the name of the oldest included genus: the new Zoological Code (ICZN, 1999) specifically advises against this kind of instability, thus the more stable names in the literature are used. One of the best examples of this is the continued erroneous usage of Roeslerstammiidae instead of the long-used name Amphitheridae (in this case merely because an older European genus was added to the formerly tropical family and the reviser, not being familiar enough with the Code, simply thought the family name had to then be changed; and oddly, other specialists who know the Code better continue to perpetuate this error). The name Roeslerstammiidae is also invalid, since the original usage did not even include any of the species currently in this group, thus the senior name is Amphitheridae, as well as being the only valid name (Heppner, 2005b).

Another erroneous usage is Acentropinae, instead of Nymphulinae, in Pyralidae; again because an older generic name is involved. In this case the ICZN has even made a formal ruling for the use of Acentropinae, but many specialists will ignore this since a strange ICZN commission vote was involved (the commissioners actually voted "against" Acentropinae but due to bureaucratic rules of the ICZN their lack of a quorum of voters automatically favored the ruling for Acentropinae!). Should one question the sanity of ICZN rules that leave it to some bureaucratic solution, rather than the logical choice that even Commission members voted for based on the Code and the facts? One also has the recent use of Macariini instead of Semiothisini in Geometridae, simply because the genus *Macaria* is now added to the *Semiothisa* group as a valid, but older genus (again erroneous usage). Likewise, there is the recent unconscionable use of Strepsimaninae (Kristensen *et al.*, 1999) instead of the well-known Hypenodinae in Noctuidae (in this case, because the older genus *Strepsimanes* has now been added to

Hypenodinae; again erroneous usage). Even more egregious is the new use of Erebiinae instead of the well-known Catocalinae by some researchers, again for supposed use of the oldest name. Contrarily, the use of Nepticulidae instead of Stigmellidae, is precisely the same type of case (*Stigmella* is the senior generic name over *Nepticula*), yet various researchers strangely in this case retain the use of the supposed junior name, Nepticulidae. If workers fail to read the Code and continue to erroneously change higher taxon names whenever an older genus is added to a group, or when it suits them, then we will continue to have a lot of name changes and cause continued instability and confusion.

DISCUSSIONS

Primitive Moths

Among those families considered the most primitive of lepidopterans, there is little controversy that Micropterigidae are the most basal group remaining among living Lepidoptera. Recent studies by Davis (1999), plus those of Minet (1986, 1991) and others, have clarified the basal divisions of the order Lepidoptera such that, barring any discoveries of other primitive taxa in remote tropical regions, we probably have a clear picture of the evolutionary development from Zeugloptera to Ditrysia, the remainder of lepidopteran families. The only recent addition is of a surprising new monotrysian family added to Nepticulina, the Andesianidae (Davis, 2003), for three Valdivian species previously misplaced among Cossidae.

Incurvarioidea

This group of families is still in need of further study, since some specialists continue elevating almost all the subfamilies as separate families, thus we have some listing Crinopterygidae, Lamproniidae, and Prodoxidae as separate families (Davis, 1999). As noted in the introduction, some specialists always make new families rather than incorporate new character states within the framework of an existing family, thus multiplying families right and left. As listed herein, the 5 families show cohesive characters with their included subfamilies.

Tineoidea

Among Tineoidea, the series category is used to demarcate Tineiformes and Gracillariiformes; some specialists, however, make these into two separate superfamilies. The basal area of the superfamily now has the Acrolophidae segregated as a separate family from the remaining Tineidae, the acrolophids being considered the most primitive group of the superfamily.

In Tineidae, there remains considerable study yet needed on a worldwide basis to clarify all the levels and relationships among the subfamilies and tribes listed, many of which have also been thought of as separate families in the past. Also, the presumed most advanced group, the Hieroxestinae, have recently again been presented as a separate family by some (Davis and Robinson, 1999).

Psychidae likewise need study for their subfamily classification, with some specialists still using family names for Lypusidae, so the relationships among all the psychid taxa remain uncertain.

The remaining families, comprising the Gracillariiformes, are all small except for the main leafminer group, the Gracillariidae. Amphitheridae is still unjustifiably called Roeslerstammiidae by many specialists, mainly just following each other without further question from a beginning point where someone incorrectly changed the family name.

In Gracillariidae, the Phyllocnistinae have often been viewed as a separate family, but cohesive characters do not warrant that. As in other such cases, to elevate this group as a separate family would require every subfamily of Lepidoptera to also be elevated to family-level, if one tried to treat all groups with the same arguments as used for having Phyllocnistidae as a separate family, thus giving us some 300 "families" worldwide.

Gelechioidea

As already noted in the introduction, this superfamily has reverted from few families to many families, back and forth, about once every generation of specialists. Currently, we have 11 families, but some specialists now want again to elevate practically every subfamily, especially among the Oecophoridae, as a distinct family (Hodges, 1999): this can easily be done, but the definition we would have of such "families" would require the elevation of all other subfamilies as well, as already mentioned above. The most recent modification of this view is by Kaila (2004), with at least 16 "families" indicated in his cladology, and others would push the total to over 20 families. Note again, that to elevate all these groups in Gelechioidea to family-level would require equal usage for the rest of the order, or about 300 "families" in total.

Is it useful to classify the Lepidoptera with 300 families or with 125 families? Should every odd group simply be called a "family" now? In Coleoptera, various specialists are also now engaged in a widespread "splitting" campaign, and thus have about 10 families of weevils for what previously was considered one family, for example. If one wishes, one can continue on such a path to the point where we have a "family" for every odd group, or as in birds where one has a different genus for almost every other species: obviously every species is different but we need some common sense in where to draw the lines for higher taxon groupings. The denegation of what a "genus" is has also been accelerating in recent decades as much as has the family concept: one can look at bird classification, where many "genera" now contain only a few or a single species. Some taxonomists have actually enunciated a belief that a genus should automatically not have more than 5 species, as if this were a fact of nature! Of course, these persons have never studied the genus *Coleophora* with over 1,000 species worldwide, among other such large genera! As noted earlier, the reduction in parameters for genera and families has been progressing since the time of Linnaeus, but in the last 100 years or so we have made a critical analysis of what a family should be and what a genus should be, notwithstanding taxonomically insane trends among higher animals, like bird classification.

In Oecophoridae, notwithstanding the above comments, there still remains a need for considerable study. The group is so vast worldwide that it has been difficult to handle by any one person, and most of the past classifications have mainly involved the European fauna instead of dealing with the vast tropical fauna. Ian Common (formerly of CSIRO, Canberra, Australia) is one of the few now trying to make some sense of the many genera of oecophorids from Australia, where most of the biodiversity appears to reside. The current subfamilies have been listed in Oecophoridae for some time and only recently has there again been an effort to split them all into separate families (Hodges, 1999). New developments have shown, however, that some odd groups, like the so-called Symmocidae and Holcopogonidae, previously either separate families or placed in Blastobasidae, may well best go in Oecophoridae, along with Glyphidocerini, in Autostichinae. The Oecophoridae are extremely diverse, yet have cohesive character traits, thus they are a very large family that has become very biodiverse, yet compared to other family characters across all Lepidoptera, are rightfully together as one family. Unfortunately, some researchers cannot comprehend (or refuse to do so) a "family" that is diverse and large (yet cohesive nonetheless), much as was noted above for the splitting of genera based on a maximum size of 5 species, as if this were not some arbitrary choice but some law of nature.

Lecithoceridae were long thought to belong in Gelechioidea, but are now considered more primitive and related more to Oecophoridae and Elachistidae.

Elachistidae are considered herein as a smaller family than some other researchers view it. A recent classification has relegated almost all Oecophoridae to an enlarged concept of Elachistidae (Minet, 1990), or even as a separate superfamily (Kuznetsov and

Stekolnikov, 1984), but this elevates all other groups, such that Gelechioidea would have to be a "suborder" of Lepidoptera, as Kaila (1999) also noted): clearly there is considerable elevation going on for different groups in the minds of some specialists, or splitting, as already alluded to in the introduction. The true Elachistidae (*sensu stricto*) have recently been studied on a worldwide basis by Kaila (1999), but he did not arrange the genera into a higher classification other than what his consensus tree showed: based on his studies, the classification used herein makes use of appropriate subfamily and tribal names but more study is needed.

Copromorphoidea

This small superfamily has only 4 included families: Copromorphidae, Alucitidae, Carposinidae, and Epermeniidae. The cohesive characters of this grouping have already been well established (Heppner, 1977). Recent attempts to continue splitting up this group into separate superfamilies for Epermeniidae and Alucitidae are based on erroneous conclusions of Minet (1986, 1991) as to what should be a superfamily, as well as continuing the taxonomic fiction that Alucitidae are somehow related to Pterophoridae (as was done even 150 years ago because both have split wings) (Dugdale *et al.*, 1999b).

Yponomeutoidea

This superfamily comprises 9 families at present: Ochsenheimeriidae, Glyphipterigidae, Plutellidae, Attetidae, Yponomeutidae, Argyresthiidae, Lyonetiidae, Acrolepiidae, and Heliodinidae. My studies had first considered Glyphipterigidae to belong in Copromorphoidea (Heppner, 1977), based especially on larval characters, but the family evidently best represents basal elements within Yponomeutoidea, as does Ochsenheimeriidae (earlier transferred from Tineoidea). Recent study has shown some primitive genera from New Zealand and Australia, thought to be Plutellidae, to actually belong to basal groups within Glyphipterigidae, subfamily Orthoteliinae (Heppner, 2005a). While splitters run rampant in other superfamilies, they oddly continue maintaining Attetidae as a subfamily in Yponomeutidae, yet segregate Ypsolophinae as a separate family from Plutellidae (Dugdale *et al.*, 1999a).

Immoidea

This is a monobasic superfamily, with only the family Immidae (Heppner, 1977, 1982). The family is pantropical, but mostly from tropical Asia. A recent addition is a subfamily classification due to the addition of Prodidactinae (new status), currently a *nomen nudum* published in a paper by Epstein and Brown (2003) that is invalid by nomenclatural rules of the zoological code (Art. 8.6 and 9.7): the name is listed herein in case the authors validate the name. Prodidactinae were defined as a family (Prodidactidae) but the characters indicate that the single genus is only of subfamily status in Immidae (another case where authors would rather have a "new family" than appropriately modify an existing family to accommodate a strange new tropical member).

Pyraloidea

The superfamily includes three families: Hyblaeidae, Thyrididae, and Pyralidae. Cladist splitters have split this into no less than three separate "superfamilies" (two subfamilies of Thyrididae are even split off by some as separate "families"). Larval characters in particular show superfamily cohesion for all the included groups.

One large controversy is the recent splitting of Pyralidae by elevating to family level its two groupings, as Crambidae and Pyralidae, whereby almost all genera commonly viewed as "pyralids" are now in Crambidae, leaving Pyralidae with only the minor subfamilies and the phycitines (Munroe and Solis, 1999). Minet (1991) even considered all the major subgroups as separate "families", thus with 5 families (including also "Acentropidae," Pyraustidae, and Phycitidae). There is nothing new in all this: all

has already been done over 100 years ago when another splitting craze in taxonomy was loose on the planet. Again, the cohesiveness of Pyralidae, with all the groupings included as subfamilies, has been viewed as logical for the family already for many decades, until recently. A recent paper has refined characters of the subfamilies of "Crambidae" (Solis and Maes, 2002), although it is based only on adult characters.

When one internal morphological character was discovered that did indeed segregate the pyralids from the crambines, Munroe (1972) chose the logical view to use a subgroup classification, as is often done in other insect orders where the family may be evolving but still retains enough other characters to remain as one family. Cladist purists cannot follow this (and others often refuse to use unconventional subgroups), so see only splitting as a solution, although if they simply lowered their "family" level cut on their cladology trees (where they arbitrarily have chosen a certain level of similarity to be called a subfamily or family), they would come to the conclusion also of having only one family Pyralidae. Using the "group" category below family level, of course, shows that there is a distinction between the two groups but also shows that this is not large enough a difference overall to segregate them as separate families.

Pterophoroidea

This superfamily includes the plume moths, Pterophoridae, plus two odd related tropical families, Tineodidae and Oxychirotidae (Heppner, 1997, 1998c). Some researchers now include Oxychirotidae within Tineodidae (Dugdale *et al.*, 1999b), but wing venation and larval biologies differ.

Sesioidea

This superfamily has been defined with modern character studies already since 1981 (Heppner and Duckworth, 1981), now including 4 families: Brachodidae, Sesiidae, Urodidae, and Choreutidae. The cladist splitters do not agree and split off Urodidae and Choreutidae as separate superfamilies, mainly based on studies of only adult characters and idiosyncratic levels of cohesion of groups to exclude (Edwards *et al.*, 1999). There has been some recent restructuring of the tribes within Sesiidae, plus the addition of tribes for odd tropical genera.

Zygaenoidea

The old concept of this superfamily has been shown to be heterogeneous, mainly due to groupings thought to be similar due to some traits (e.g., larval shape as slug caterpillars) that now are known to only indicate convergent evolution (Heppner, 1998b, 2005c). While the main family, Zygaenidae, is clear enough, the odd smaller groups that are related have always caused confusion. Thus, the families that actually are cossoid, and not zygaenoid, were moved to Cossoidea (Heppner, 1998b). Researchers focused only on apparent similarities (e.g., the similar larvae), fail to agree with this and forget that convergent evolution can provide such results as similar larvae (which nonetheless show differences as well). Families remaining in Zygaenoidea include Heterogynidae, Zygaenidae, Himantopteridae, Lacturidae, Somabrachyidae, and Megalopygidae. Some researchers continue attempts to split Zygaenidae into several "families" and others include Somabrachyidae within Megalopygidae, or split out groups like Aididae (Epstein *et al.*, 1999).

Cossoidea

This superfamily is actually the basal stem of the Cossina group of superfamilies that includes all the remaining Lepidoptera up to Noctuidae, being fundamentally evolved from different ancestors than where the Zygaenoidea ended up from. Cossoidea now include 6 families: Cossidae, Dudgeoneidae, Metarbelidae, Cyclotornidae, Epipyropidae, and Dalceridae. Again, the slug-like larvae of

Dalceridae have some researchers confused into believing they should be part of Zygaenoidea, while the family morphology shows an evolution derived from cossoid ancestors (Heppner, 1998b).

Castnioidea

This monobasic superfamily represents a basal, rather primitive family, the Castniidae, that appear to best be placed as a separate superfamily, although clearly also derived from cossoid-like ancestors.

Tortricoidea

We now place the Tortricidae in their own superfamily. The actual placement of the group in the overall classification varies among researchers, since some place the group near the Tineoidea (Horak, 1999), but in relation to all Lepidoptera they appear best placed in our linear format after the Castnioidea and at the end of what are termed the "microlepidoptera." The true layout of families in our classification would be better seen in three dimensions, whereby Tortricoidea would be seen to retain some primitive features like Tineoidea but otherwise advanced enough to place the group 3-dimensionally to the side in another lineage from tineoid-like ancestors; but, a paper layout requires placement linearly in only two dimensions (Heppner, 1998b).

Calliduloidea

This small Old World group includes only 3 families: Ratardidae, Pterothysanidae, and Callidulidae. All are day-fliers, and most callidulids even fly and perch like butterflies.

Uranoidea

This superfamily includes 5 families: Epicopeiidae, Apoprogonidae, Sematuridae, Uraniidae, and Epiplemididae. Most species are Old World, but at least Epiplemididae are found in all regions. Cladists have recently moved Epiplemididae into Uraniidae (Minet and Scoble, 1999), in a reversal from their usual splitting, but the groups are different enough to remain as separate families, particularly in terms of their larvae. The superfamily is rather closely related to Calliduloidea.

Geometroidea

The family Geometridae, being such a biodiverse family (21,150 spp. worldwide), still requires considerable study to conform all the higher category (subfamily and tribe) names by region, such that what a tribe is in Europe has the same meaning as a tribe in North America or Asia: currently, there is wide disagreement on this matter between North American specialists and European specialists. What we have now are numerous tribal names that remain of uncertain status: are they tribes or only subtribes? For example, most of the group names in the subfamily Geometrinae have been treated as tribes in the past, but recently Holloway (1996) probably correctly noted that there should be only two tribes and all remaining names ought to be at most subtribes. Likewise, to follow the use of subtribes in Geometrinae, many of the Ennominae tribes probably only warrant subtribal status as well, but which do and how they should be arranged remains unclear: e.g., one can identify about 6 groupings of tribes in Ennominae, so perhaps these should be tribes and the remaining names only subtribes. Holloway (1996) also now uses an enlarged concept of Boarmiini that would put many other groups as subtribes therein, even more than listed herein. Consequently, the listing of tribes in Geometridae herein is still tentative. The listed arrangement of the tribes within each subfamily is also tentative, since this also varies regionally: most classifications in Europe have Ourapterygini, for example, near the middle of Ennominae, while in North America it is towards the end of the subfamily. One needs to also determine which groups are considered the most advanced: most specialists now agree that such subfamilies as Archiarinae and Oenochrominae are more primitive geometrids,

but some place Ennominae as advanced while others place Larentiinae as advanced. The classification of Geometridae herein is an attempt to show the relationships of the various tribes and subfamilies, but it is far from final and mainly represents revision of conventional arrangements by specialists that often do not like to use subtribes (thus, all such names are tribes in their mind). Additionally, more odd tropical groups are discerned all the time, so much work remains to be done with this large family.

Hedylidae are retained in Geometroidea herein. While they may indeed represent the evolutionary development that gave us the butterflies, their base characters retain them more to Geometroidea than they do to Papilionoidea (Heppner, 1998b). Obviously, others disagree and put them as part of the butterflies, or else make the usual split as a separate superfamily, Hedyloidea (Minet and Scoble, 1999).

Papilionoidea

The butterfly workers have often had considerably differing classifications over the years, from the 7 families we now list to many more and even added superfamilies for the larger families of butterflies. Again, putting the classification in the perspective of world lepidopteran biodiversity, one finds that most butterflies are not that different from each other (e.g., nymphalids are all in one family and not in their own superfamily) in relation to how moths are classified. To maintain a uniform family level one cannot have more splitting among the butterflies. Some researchers now include Libytheidae within the Nymphalidae (Ackery *et al.*, 1999), but this is unrealistic given their great morphological differences. Hesperidae are split by some into their own superfamily, but this is not necessary when one uses the "series" subgrouping to show that their divergence from higher butterflies is not so great that a separate superfamily is needed. Riodinidae follows the new Neotropical catalog (Lamas *et al.*, 2004).

Drepanoidea

A small superfamily, including 4 families: Axiidae, Thyatiridae, Cyclidiidae, and Drepanidae. Most species are Old World.

Bombycoidea

This well-known grouping of moths now includes 13 families: Carthaeidae, Eupterotidae, Apatelodidae, Bombycidae, Mimallonidae, Anthelidae, and Lasiocampidae in the series Bombyciformes, and Endromidae, Lemoniidae, Brahmaeidae, Oxytenidae, Cercophanidae, and Saturniidae in the series Saturniiformes (Heppner, 1998b). Sphingidae are generally excluded to their own superfamily, but some workers keep them within Bombycoidea (Lemaire and Minet, 1999).

Sphingoidea

The single family Sphingidae comprises this monobasic superfamily of well-known moths, the hawk moths (or sphinx moths). Some alterations of the tribes have been made in recent years (Lemaire and Minet, 1999).

Noctuoidea

Almost a third of all Lepidoptera belong to Noctuoidea, including 6 families: Notodontidae, Dioptidae, Thyretidae, Lymantriidae, Arctiidae, and Noctuidae (Heppner, 1991, 1998b). Various odd members of the families have more recently been segregated as several "families" of their own, again based mainly on cladist artificial rules on what level a researcher considers a family to be defined. In our classification we use subgroupings to show what differences there are, rather than do unnecessary splitting: this is especially needed in Noctuidae, where recent splitting has not only given us Aganinae and Hermiinae, but now also include a complete splitting of the Noctuidae to include also the "families" Erebiidae (even the Catocalinae name is changed!), Nolidae,

Acronictidae, Pantheidae, etc. Tribes are noted in the listing below but subtribes are mostly not included, as has been done to a profuse extent for Europe (Beck, 1999b), since the rest of the world fauna has not had equivalent treatment and many of the European subtribal names may be simply excessive splitting (many of these European subtribes are monobasic, representing only a single genus) (Kitching and Rawlins, 1999).

The splitting trend in noctuids has been progressing for the past 20 years or so (see Kitching, 1984; Speidel *et al.*, 1996), what cladists consider a correct trend due to "rigorous application of cladistic principles" rather than past vague group definitions, as Speidel *et al.* (1996) put it: the problem with this is as noted already, the results are from whatever their computer program version and cladology analysis gives them, which is not necessarily correct but based only on these current parameters and their subjective analysis. This is no different than past work, just with more precise characters and the use of computers, but the result is still subjective as always and dependent on how experienced a taxonomist the compiler actually is — the problem is that some cladists fervently believe their methodology is akin to reassembling the phylogenetic lineage from God himself (or DNA) and the results cannot thus be questioned other than possibly with slight refinements using another computer program, all the while forgetting that it is they (not God) who decide where to draw the line on what a family is or what a genus is.

Again, the noctuid workers cannot split odd subgroups away in Noctuidae as "families" without also having all other Lepidoptera subfamilies elevated to family-level in their view of what a family constitutes. There has to be concordance throughout the order for all higher groupings. Of course, if one can agree with a classification where a "family" is defined one way among micros and another way among butterflies and another way among noctuids, then perhaps the mad hatters tea party can resume and all logic for an overall classification of all the Lepidoptera can be ignored. Is it rational to have three different definitions of what a "family" is within the classification of one order of insects? Clearly, each level of a classification must be maintained in as rational a cohesive form throughout an order as possible, given all our human subjectivities in any case and based on what the evolution of the order shows us, not cladist fantasies based on a narrow view of only one group. In Noctuidae, for example, various attempts have continued for the past 100 years to resurrect "Nolidae" about every generation as new taxonomists studied the group: they otherwise conform well to the overall concept of the family Noctuidae. The Nolinae (or Nolidae) may represent an offshoot, also supported by larval characters, but this shows more a development from lithosine Arctiidae than from Noctuidae (Beck, 1999a), however what may be involved here is again a basal element remaining in the family, much as with some of the oecophorids that are herein retained within Oecophoridae. Holloway (2003) has expanded this segregation to include other subfamilies within an enlarged Nolidae, based on his views of the group for the Asian tropics. Likewise, the use of non-conventional subgroups also retains such odd tropical groups as Aganinae within the Noctuidae, so Nolinae may have to be handled similarly if the evidence mounts.

CONCLUSIONS

Since few researchers study all Lepidoptera from all regions of the world, the specialist studying a single group, perhaps only for one faunal region, quickly can find any odd tropical group to require a "new" family. To classify our Lepidoptera one can only resort to uniformity of what each level of the classification is to mean, at least insofar as is humanly possible. The pure cladist view is to simply draw a line on their computer trees for each level, but this methodology, while seemingly simple and clear, is not so when we are dealing with nature: too many character variables negate this from being perfectly applicable to each group for the entire order.

Likewise, the methodology of making all characters in a computer analysis equal (i.e., some hair on a leg being equal in value to having 6 legs, for example) does not work in nature, since some characters are more fundamental than others (e.g., the 6 legs versus only 4 legs!). The true phylogenetic taxonomist, on the other hand, modifies each grouping to conform not only to an overall level within the classification but also to the evolution of the group involved; thus, there are sometimes shifts needed on the cladist trees on where the line is for different groups, yet in such a way that the definition of the level chosen is not compromised. What is meant here is that different "rates" of evolution need to be included in a valid classification, not simply just morphology, and this is something the cladologists do not fully acknowledge (thus, the errors, as for example, in not seeing convergent evolution in the case of some Zygaenoidea and Cossoidea, or to see that Brachodidae are related to Sesiidae even though the Sesiidae advanced very rapidly from their brachodid-like ancestors). To split families, like Noctuidae, into many "families" and yet be ignorant of what a family is among primitive moths, or among butterflies, will not give us a stable or logical classification: we need conformity of level throughout the Lepidoptera in order to arrive at a reasonable classification that approximates their evolution and phylogeny.

We can proceed with splitting and end up with 300 or so "families" in Lepidoptera — the beetle people are nearly there already, in their cladist frenzy of splitting (there are even 10 or more "families" just for weevils alone!) — but a rational classification will keep groups about equal throughout, from micros to noctuids. For the past 100 years or so the concept of what a "family" is in Lepidoptera has been relatively stable, until recently. If we want, we can have 300 families of Lepidoptera. Is this reasonable? Is this useful? These are questions we need to consider when continuing the efforts to split off odd groups from families that they can otherwise reside in. One can actually modify family definitions: this is something that some Lepidoptera researchers seem unaware of, thinking instead that somehow the original description of a family is sacred and that any group falling outside this first definition requires a "new" family to be named. We have refined family definitions since the time of Linnaeus, so modifying a family definition to include some odd group, if it really can be included, can be done. What we find is simply that many researchers refuse to change families and instead name a new family. This is more political than rational or scientific. There are more synonyms to family names than there are valid families, as many researchers have learned over the years. Thus, further erosion of what constitutes a "family" should be discouraged, otherwise to be rational in our classifications then all lepidopteran subfamilies would need to be elevated to family level: you cannot have "Nolidae" or "Danaiidae" without also elevating all other groups currently at the subfamily level. You either have logic derived from what the evolution of the Lepidoptera shows us to be different families, their characters, or you have a mad hatters party.

Finally, what you see in the listing below of families, subfamilies, tribes, and in some cases subtribes, is not the final word on Lepidoptera classification. Only recently was a valid new family added to the list for an odd tropical group (Andesianidae), so as more remote areas of the world are further surveyed it is reasonable to assume that a few more odd groups may yet be discovered. Likewise, further knowledge and study of some obscure groups, as for example those families where we as yet do not know the larvae, may yet modify our classification in unforeseen ways. Nonetheless, the present classification, I believe, best represents a uniform and rational view of lepidopteran evolution and phylogeny as we currently know it to be, and with concordant values of higher groupings throughout the order Lepidoptera.

Trying to make a classification based not on fact, but on a "consensus" view of the facts is nonsensical, just like it was when the "global consensus" was that the earth was flat: the "global

consensus" can be wrong, as was discovered in 1492 (and already earlier by the Chinese). Many other erroneous "consensus" views abound even today, such as the current view that the Incas built the monuments in Cuzco, Peru (when they themselves told the early Spanish explorers that the buildings were already there and very old when their people first came into the valley of Cuzco and made use of them, yet the consensus archaeologists maintain the fiction that these are ruins built by the Incas); or, the view that the Egyptians somehow built the great pyramid and sphinx at Giza, Egypt (when we know that the early Egyptians did not have the mathematical or engineering skill to make such perfect buildings, while their own pyramid attempts were all inferior copies and the sphinx was even stated by them to be there from ancient days long before their people were even civilized, yet consensus egyptologists continue the fiction that these monuments were built by the Egyptians). Plate tectonics was also fully dismissed as complete fantasy 45 years ago by the then-prevalent "global consensus" of geologists, yet we all know that this is a proven fact and is now taught in every high school in the world as a basic tenet of modern geology. Even crustal displacement is gaining ground as a possibly valid theory of earth movements. Let the archaeologists and egyptologists continue with their heads in the sand, but we need not follow their wooden-headed examples in our work on Lepidoptera classification.

Classification is not a political game of consensus building, but a reasoned study of the species we are dealing with as they are in nature and as they evolved to the present day, whereby we then attempt to outline this evolution into some kind of order showing the relationships among the included groups. It also is not based on a single methodology, such as computer generated cladologies using the most recent cladistics computer program that uses all possible characters equally (no matter how nonsensical that may be), and which is then deemed the only methodology possible for classification. As noted earlier, no matter what classification is used, the classification outline should even be seen 3-dimensionally to better show relative evolution in different lineages, but we have to organize it 2-dimensionally to get it linearly on paper.

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LEPIDOPTERA

Suborder ZEUGLOPTERA

MICROPTERIGOIDEA

1. MICROPTERIGIDAE - Mandibulate Archaic Moths
Micropteriginæ
Sabatincinæ

Suborder AGLOSSATA

AGATHIPHAGOIDEA

2. AGATHIPHAGIDAE - Kauri Moths

Suborder HETEROBATHMIINA

HETEROBATHMIOIDEA

3. HETEROBATHMIIDAE - Valdivian Archaic Moths

Suborder GLOSSATA

Cohort DACNONYPHA

Infraorder DACNONYPHA

ERIOCRANIOIDEA

4. ERIOCRANIIDAE - Sparkling Archaic Sun Moths
5. ACANTHOPTEROCETIDAE - Archaic Sun Moths
Acanthopteroctetinae
Catapterginae

Infraorder LOPHOCORONINA

LOPHOCORONOIDEA

6. LOPHOCORONIDAE - Australian Archaic Sun Moths

Cohort MYOGLOSSATA

Subcohort MYOGLOSSATA

Infraorder NEOPSEUSTINA

NEOPSEUSTOIDEA

7. NEOPSEUSTIDAE - Archaic Bell Moths

Subcohort NEOLEPIDOPTERA

Infraorder EXOPORIA

MNESARCHAEOIDEA

8. MNESARCHAEIDAE - New Zealand Primitive Moths

HEPIALOIDEA

9. NEOTHEORIDAE - Amazonian Primitive Ghost Moths
10. ANOMOSETIDAE - Australian Primitive Ghost Moths
11. PROTOHEORIDAE - African Primitive Ghost Moths
12. HEPIALIDAE - Ghost Moths
13. PALAEOSSETIDAE - Miniature Ghost Moths

Infraorder HETERONEURA

Division MONOTRYZIA

Section NEPTICULINA

ANDESIANOIDEA

14. ANDESIANIDAE - Valdivian Forest Moths

NEPTICULOIDEA

15. NEPTICULIDAE - Pygmy Moths
Pectinivalvinae
Nepticulinae
Nepticulini
Trifurculini
16. OPOSTEGIDAE - Eye-Cap Moths

TISCHERIOIDEA

17. TISCHERIIDAE - Trumpet Leafminer Moths

PALAEPHATOIDEA

18. PALAEPHATIDAE - Gondwanaland Moths

Section INCURVARIINA

INCURVARIOIDEA

19. INCURVARIIDAE - Leafcutter Moths
Incurvariinae
Crimpteryginae
20. CECIDOSIDAE - Gall Moths
21. PRODOXIDAE - Yucca Moths
Lamproniinae
Prodoxinae
22. ADELIDAE - Longhorned Fairy Moths
Nematopogoninae
Adelinae
23. HELIOZELIDAE - Shield Bearer Moths

Division DITRYZIA

Section TINEINA

Subsection TINEINA

TINEOIDEA

Series Tineiformes

24. ACROLOPHIDAE - Tube Moths
Amydriinae
Acrolophinae
25. TINEIDAE - Fungus Moths
Euplocaminae
Myrmecozelinae
Harmacoloninae
Meessiinae
Infurcitineini
Meessiini
Dryadulinae
Scardiinae
Nemapogoninae
Tineinae
Setomorphinae
Perissomasticinae
Hapsiferinae

Hieroxestinae
 Erechthiinae
 Siloscinae
 Stathmopolitinae
 Teichobiinae

26. ERIOCOTTIDAE - Old World Spiny-Winged Moths

Eriocottinae
 Compsocteninae

27. PSYCHIDAE - Bagworm Moths

Lypusinae
 Naryciinae
 Narycini
 Dahlicini
 Taleporiinae
 Eotaleporiini
 Taleporiini
 Placodomini
 Typhoniinae
 Penestoglossini
 Dissoctenioidini
 Typhoniini
 Scoriodytini
 Psychinae
 Psychini
 Peloponnesini
 Epichnopterygini
 Stichobasini

Oiketicinae
 Metasini
 Acanthopsychini
 Oreopsychini
 Phalacropterygini
 Apteroini
 Oiketicini

28. ARRHENOPHANIDAE - Tropical Lattice Moths

Series Gracillariiformes

29. AMPHITHERIDAE - Double-Eye Moths
 30. SCHRECKENSTEINIIDAE - Bristle-Legged Moths
 31. DOUGLASIIDAE - Douglas Moths
 32. BUCCULATRICIDAE - Ribbed-Cocoon Maker

Moths

33. GRACILLARIIDAE - Leafminer Moths
 Gracillariinae
 Lithocolletinae
 Phyllocnistinae

GELECHIOIDEA

34. OECOPHORIDAE - Concealer Moths

Depressariinae
 Depressariini
 Depressariina
 Epigraphiina
 Telechrysidina
 Amphisbatini
 Cryptolechiini
 Cacochroina
 Cryptolechiina
 Hypercalliini
 Ethmiinae
 Peleopodinae
 Acriini
 Peleopodini
 Autostichinae
 Autostichini
 Oegoconiini
 Symmocini
 Glyphidocerini
 Oeciini
 Schistonoeini

Xyloryctinae
 Stenomatinae
 Oecophorinae
 Oecophorini
 Oecophorina
 Herrichiina
 Denisiina

Deoclonini
 Philobotini
 Syringopaini
 Stathmopodini
 Lamprysticini
 Pleurotini

Hypertrophinae
 Chimabachinae
 Carcinini
 Chimabachini

Deuteroniinae
 Deuteroniini
 Aeolanthini

35. LECITHOCERIDAE - Tropical Longhorned Moths

Ceuthomadarinae
 Oditinae
 Scythropiodini
 Oditini

Lecithocerinae
 Torodorinae

36. ELACHISTIDAE - Grass Miner Moths

Coelopoetinae
 Elachistinae
 Mendesiini
 Perittiini
 Stephensiini
 Elachistini

37. PTEROLONCHIDAE - Lance-Wing Moths

38. GELECHIIDAE - Twirler Moths

Physoptilinae
 Gelechiinae
 Apatetrini
 Anomologini
 Gelechiini
 Gnorimoschemini
 Pexicopiinae
 Pexicopiini
 Anacampsini
 Chelariini

Dichomeridinae

39. BLASTOBASIDAE - Scavenger Moths

Holcocerinae
 Blastobasinae
 Blastobasini
 Pigritiini

40. COLEOPHORIDAE - Casebearer Moths

Coleophorinae
 Batrachedrinae
 Epimartini
 Batrachedrini

41. MOMPHIDAE - Mompha Moths

42. AGONOXENIDAE - Palm Moths

Agonoxeninae
 Blastodacninae
 Blastodacnini
 Parametriotini

43. COSMOPTERIGIDAE - Cosmet Moths

Antequerinae
 Cosmopteriginae
 Chrysopeteiinae

44. SCYTHRIDIDAE - Flower Moths

COPROMORPHOIDEA

- 45. COPROMORPHIDAE - Tropical Fruitworm Moths
- 46. ALUCITIDAE - Many-Plumed Moths
- 47. CARPOSINIDAE - Fruitworm Moths
- 48. EPERMENIIDAE - Fringe-Tufted Moths
 - Epermeniinae
 - Ochromolopinae

YPONOMEUTOIDEA

- 49. OCHSENHEIMERIIDAE - Cereal Stem Moths
- 50. GLYPHIPTERIGIDAE - Sedge Moths
 - Orthoteliinae
 - Glyphipteriginae
- 51. PLUTELLIDAE - Diamondback Moths
 - Ypsolophinae
 - Plutellinae
 - Scythropiinae
 - Praydinae
- 52. ATTEVIDAE - Tropical Ermine Moths
- 53. YPONOMEUTIDAE - Ermine Moths
 - Saridoscelinae
 - Yponomeutinae
 - Niphonymphini
 - Yponomeutini
 - Cedestinae
- 54. ARGYRESTHIIDAE - Shiny Head-Standing Moths
- 55. LYONETIIDAE - Lyonet Moths
 - Cemistominae
 - Lyonetiinae
 - Bedelliinae
- 56. ACROLEPIIDAE - False Diamondback Moths
- 57. HELIODINIDAE - Sun Moths

IMMOIDEA

- 58. IMMIDAE - Imma Moths
 - Prodidactinae
 - Imminae

PYRALOIDEA

- 59. HYBLAEIDAE - Teak Moths
- 60. THYRIDIDAE - Picture-Winged Leaf Moths
 - Simaethistinae
 - Whalleyaninae
 - Argyrotypinae
 - Thyridinae
 - Siculodinae
 - Siculodini
 - Rhodoneurini
 - Striglininae
- 61. PYRALIDAE - Snout Moths
 - Group Crambinae
 - Crambinae
 - Ancylolomiini
 - Diptychophorini
 - Argyriini
 - Haimbachiini
 - Chilonini
 - Myelobiini
 - Erupini
 - Crambini
 - Schoenobiinae
 - Cybalomiinae
 - Linostinae
 - Scopariinae
 - Scopariini
 - Eudoniini
 - Heliothelini

- Musotiminae
- Midilinae
- Nymphulinae
 - Nymphulini
 - Argyractini
- Noordinae
- Odontiinae
 - Hercynini
 - Odontiini
 - Eurrhypini
- Wurthiinae
- Evergestinae
 - Evergestini
 - Orenaiini
- Glaphyriinae
 - Glaphyriini
 - Hydririni
 - Cathariini
 - Dichogamini
- Pyraustinae
 - Pyraustini
 - Spilomelini
- Group Pyralininae
- Pyralinae
 - Pyralini
 - Endotrichini
- Chrysauginae
- Galleriinae
 - Galleriini
 - Megarhridini
 - Tirathabini
 - Cacotherapiini
- Epipaschiinae
- Phycitinae
 - Cryptoblabini
 - Phycitini
 - Acrobasiina
 - Phycitina
 - Anerastiini
 - Peoriini

PTEROPHOROIDEA

- 62. TINEODIDAE - False Plume Moths
- 63. OXYCHIROTIDAE - Tropical Plume Moths
- 64. PTEROPHORIDAE - Plume Moths
 - Macropiratininae
 - Agdistinae
 - Ochyroticinae
 - Deuterocopininae
 - Pterophorinae
 - Platyptiliini
 - Pterophorini

Subsection SESIINA

SESIOIDEA

- 65. BRACHODIDAE - Little Bear Moths
 - Pseudocossinae
 - Brachodinae
 - Phycodinae
- 66. SESIIDAE - Clearwing Moths
 - Tinhiinae
 - Tinhiini
 - Similipepsini
 - Pennisetiini
 - Paraglosseceini
 - Paranthreninae
 - Paranthrenini
 - Cissuvorini

Sesiinae
 Osminiini
 Melittiini
 Sesiini
 Synanthedonini
 Bembeciini

67. URODIDAE - False Burnet Moths

Galacticinae
 Urodinae

68. CHOREUTIDAE - Metalmark Moths

Millieriinae
 Brenthiinae
 Choreutinae

ZYGAENOIDEA

69. HETEROGYNIDAE - Mediterranean Burnet Moths

70. ZYGAENIDAE - Burnet Moths

Zygaeninae
 Phaudinae
 Charideinae
 Chalcosiinae
 Agalopini
 Chalcosiini

Anomoeotinae
 Callizygaeninae
 Procridinae

Procridini
 Artonini

71. HIMANTOPTERIDAE - Long-Tailed Burnet Moths

72. LACTURIDAE - Tropical Burnet Moths

73. SOMABRACHYIDAE - Mediterranean Flannel Moths

74. MEGALOPYGIDAE - Flannel Moths

Aidinae
 Megalopyginae
 Trosiinae

Section COSSINA**Subsection COSSINA****COSSOIDEA****Series Cossiformes**

75. COSSIDAE - Carpenterworm Moths

Chilecomadiinae
 Hypoptinae
 Cossulinae
 Cossinae
 Zeuzerinae

76. DUDGEONEIDAE - Dudgeon Carpenterworm Moths

77. METARBELIDAE - Tropical Carpenterworm Moths

Series Limacodiformes

78. CYCLOTORNIDAE - Australian Parasite Moths

79. EPIPYROPIDAE - Planthopper Parasite Moths

Epipyropinae
 Heteropsychinae

80. DALCERIDAE - Tropical Slug Caterpillar Moths

Acraginae
 Dalcerinae

81. LIMACODIDAE - Slug Caterpillar Moths

82. CHRYSOPOLOMIDAE - African Slug Caterpillar Moths

Ectropinae
 Chrysopolominae

CASTNIOIDEA

83. CASTNIIDAE - Giant Butterfly Moths

Synemoninae
 Neocastniinae

Castniinae

Castniini
 Gazerini

TORTRICOIDEA

84. TORTRICIDAE - Leafroller Moths

Tortricinae

Phricanthini
 Schoenotenini
 Cnephasiini
 Cochylini
 Euliini
 Tortricini
 Ceracini
 Archipini
 Epitimyriini
 Atteriini
 Niasomini
 Sparganothini

Chlidanotinae

Polyorthini
 Hilarographini
 Chlidanotini

Olethreutinae

Gatesclarkeaniini
 Bactrini
 Microcorsini
 Olethreutini
 Eucosmini
 Grapholitini

Subsection BOMBYCINA**CALLIDULOIDEA**

85. RATARDIDAE - Oriental Parnassian Moths

86. PTEROTHYSANIDAE - Parnassian Moths

Pterothysaninae
 Hibridinae

87. CALLIDULIDAE - Old World Butterfly Moths

Griveaudiinae
 Callidulinae

URANIOIDEA

88. EPICOPEIIDAE - Oriental Swallowtail Moths

Schistomitridinae
 Epicopeiinae

89. APOPROGONIDAE - African Skipper Moths

90. SEMATURIDAE - American Swallowtail Moths

91. URANIIDAE - Swallowtail Moths

Uraniinae
 Microniinae

92. EPIPLEMIDAE - Crenulate Moths

Auzeinae
 Epipleminae

GEOMETROIDEA

93. GEOMETRIDAE - Geometer Moths

Archiearinae
 Oenochrominae
 Alsophilini
 Oenochromini
 Diptychini
 Ametridini

Orthostixinae
 Ennominae

Abraxini
 Cassymini
 Eutoeini

Semiothisini
 Boarmiini
 Apochimina
 Wilemaniina
 Phaseliina
 Gnophina
 Angeronina
 Bupalina
 Cystidiina
 Desertobiina
 Cheimoptenina
 Boarmiina
 Melanchroini
 Melanolophiini
 Bistonini
 Bistonina
 Erranina
 Milioniini
 Obeidiini
 Diptychini
 Anagogini
 Scardamiini
 Baptini
 Plutodini
 Sphacelodini
 Emplociini
 Lithini
 Palyadini
 Caberini
 Theriini
 Epionini
 Colotoini
 Onychorini
 Prosoplophini
 Azelinini
 Odontoperini
 Thinopterygini
 Nacophorini
 Gonodontini
 Oxydiini
 Campaeini
 Ennomini
 Epiranthini
 Ourapterygini
 Desmobathrinae
 Eumeleini
 Desmobathrini
 Geometrinae
 Dysphaniini
 Geometrini
 Pseudoterpnina
 Geometrina
 Timandromorphina
 Neohipparchina
 Aracimina
 Nemoriina
 Rhomboristina
 Lophochoristina
 Comibaenina
 Synchlorigina
 Hemitheina
 Microloxiina
 Hierochthoniina
 Dichordophorina
 Sterrhinae
 Sterrhini
 Scopulini
 Cyllopodini
 Rhodostrophini
 Cosymbiini
 Timandrini

Rhodometrini
 Larentiinae
 Trichopterygini
 Lythriini
 Cataclysmiini
 Xanthorhoini
 Larentiini
 Hydriomenini
 Stamnodini
 Cidariini
 Operophterini
 Athenini
 Phileremini
 Rheumapterini
 Solitaneini
 Melanthiini
 Perizomini
 Eudulini
 Eupitheciini
 Chesiadini

94. HEDYLIDAE - American Butterfly Moths

PAPILIONOIDEA**Series Hesperiiiformes**

95. HESPERIIDAE - Skipper Butterflies

Coeliadinae
 Pyrrhopyginae
 Pyrrhopygini
 Passovini
 Oxynetrini
 Zoniini
 Pyrginae
 Eudamini
 Pyrgini
 Trapezitinae
 Heteropterinae
 Megathyminae
 Aegialini
 Agathymini
 Megathymini
 Hesperinae

Series Papilioniformes

96. PAPILIONIDAE - Swallowtail Butterflies

Baroniinae
 Parnassiinae
 Parnassiini
 Zerynthiini
 Papilioninae
 Troidini
 Battina
 Troidina
 Leptocercini
 Graphiina
 Leptocercina
 Teinopalpini
 Papilionini

97. PIERIDAE - Yellow-White Butterflies

Pseudopontiinae
 Dismorphiinae
 Leptideini
 Dismorphiini
 Pierinae
 Pierini
 Anthocharidini
 Coliadinae
 Colotini
 Coliadini
 Gonepterygini

98. LYCAENIDAE - Gossamer-Winged Butterflies

Lipteninae
 Pentilini
 Liptenini
 Poritiinae
 Liphyrinae
 Miletinae
 Spalgini
 Lachnocnemini
 Miletini
 Tarakina
 Miletina
 Curetinae
 Lycaeninae
 Theclinae
 Eumaeini
 Eumaeina
 Tomarina
 Deudorigina
 Luciini
 Theclini
 Ogyrina
 Arhopalina
 Theclina
 Zesiini
 Amblypodini
 Aphnaeini
 Iolaini
 Iolaina
 Remelanina
 Hypolycaenina
 Horagini
 Oxyridina
 Hypothecina
 Catapaecilmatina
 Loxurina
 Horagina
 Cheritrina
 Polyommatainae
 Lycaenesthina
 Candalidini
 Polyommataini
 Zizeerina
 Lampidina
 Everina
 Lycaenopsina
 Scolitantidina
 Polyommataina
 Niphandina

99. RIODINIDAE - Metalmark Butterflies

Styginae
 Hamearinae
 Euselasiinae
 Corrahiinae
 Riodininae
 Mesosemiini
 Mesosemiina
 Napaecina
 Eurybiini
 Riodinini
 Symbachiini
 Charitini
 Helicopini
 Emesini
 Nymphidiini
 Aricorina
 Lemoniadinina
 Nymphidiina
 Theopina
 Stalachtini

100. LIBYTHEIDAE - Snout Butterflies

101. NYMPHALIDAE - Brush-Footed Butterflies

Group Nymphalinae
 Tellervinae
 Danaina
 Danaini
 Amaurina
 Danaina
 Euploeini
 Euploeina
 Ideina
 Lycoreini
 Itunina
 Lycoreina
 Ithomiinae
 Tithoreini
 Melinaeini
 Mechanitini
 Napeogenini
 Ithomiini
 Oleriini
 Dircennini
 Godyridini
 Acraeinae
 Acraeini
 Pardopsini
 Heliconiinae
 Argynniini
 Heliconiini
 Nymphalinae
 Coeini
 Nymphalini
 Kallimini
 Melitaeini
 Euphydryina
 Melitaeina
 Phyciodina
 Neptini
 Pseudergolini
 Euthaliini
 Catagrammini
 Limenitidini
 Cyrestidini
 Biblidini
 Biblidina
 Eurytelina
 Epicaliina
 Ageroniina
 Epiphilina
 Eubagina
 Callicorina
 Group Satyrinae
 Calinaginae
 Apaturinae
 Apaturini
 Charaxini
 Anaeini
 Zaretini
 Preponini
 Prothoini
 Amathusiinae
 Morphinae
 Antirrheini
 Morphini
 Brassolinae
 Biini
 Brassolini
 Naropini
 Satyrinae
 Lethini
 Satyrini
 Pronophilina

Maniolina
 Erebiina
 Hypocystina
 Euptychiina
 Coenonymphina
 Melanargiina
 Satyrina
 Hipparchiina
 Melanitini
 Haeterini
 Elymniini
 Parargina
 Elymniina
 Mycalesini
 Ypthimini

DREPANOIDEA

102. AXIIDAE - Gold Moths
 103. THYATIRIDAE - False Owlet Moths
 Thyatirinae
 Thyatirini
 Habrosynini
 Macrothyatirini
 Tetheini
 Polyplocinae
 Ceranemotini
 Polyplocini
 104. CYCLIDIIDAE - Giant Hooktip Moths
 105. DREPANIDAE - Hooktip Moths
 Drepaninae
 Drepanini
 Cilicini
 Oretinae
 Nidarinae

BOMBYCOIDEA**Series Bombyciformes**

106. CARTHAEIDAE - Australian Silkworm Moths
 107. EUPTEROTIDAE - Giant Lappet Moths
 Janinae
 Eupterotinae
 Panacelinae
 108. APATELODIDAE - American Silkworm Moths
 Apatelodinae
 Epiinae
 Phiditiinae
 109. BOMBYCIDAE - Silkworm Moths
 Bombycinae
 Prismostictinae
 110. MIMALLONIDAE - Sackbearer Moths
 111. ANTHELIDAE - Australian Lappet Moths
 Munychryiinae
 Anthelinae
 112. LASIOCAMPIDAE - Lappet Moths
 Chondrosteginae
 Chionopsychinae
 Poecilocampinae
 Macromphaliinae
 Lasiocampinae
 Gonometini
 Gastropachini
 Lasiocampini
 Malacosomatini

Series Saturniiformes

113. ENDROMIDAE - Glory Moths
 Endrominae
 Mirininae
 114. LEMONIIDAE - Autumn Silkworm Moths
 Lemoniinae

- Sabaliinae
 115. BRAHMAEIDAE - Brahmin Moths
 Dactyloceratinae
 Brahmaeinae
 116. OXYTENIDAE - Tropical American Silkworm Moths
 117. CERCOPHANIDAE - Andean Moon Moths
 Cercophaninae
 Janiodinae
 118. SATURNIIDAE - Emperor Moths
 Arsenurinae
 Arsenurini
 Almeidaiini
 Ceratocampinae
 Hemileucinae
 Hemileucini
 Polythysanini
 Agliinae
 Ludiinae
 Salassinae
 Saturniinae
 Saturniini
 Attacini
 Urotini

SPHINGOIDEA

119. SPHINGIDAE - Hawk Moths
 Sphinginae
 Acherontiini
 Sphingini
 Smerinthinae
 Sphingulini
 Ambulycini
 Smerinthini
 Macroglossinae
 Dilophonotini
 Philampelini
 Macroglossini

NOCTUOIDEA

120. NOTODONTIDAE - Prominent Moths
 Group Oenosandrinina
 Oenosandrinae
 Group Thaumatopoeinina
 Thaumatopoeinae
 Group Notodontinina
 Pygaerinae
 Pygaerini
 Rosemini
 Platychasmatinae
 Notodontinae
 Notodontini
 Dicranurini
 Phalerinae
 Dudusinae
 Dudusini
 Scranciini
 Heterocampinae
 Heterocampini
 Stauropini
 Hemiceratini
 Hapigini
 Hylaeorini
 Desmeocraerini
 Ceirini
 Acrotenini
 Nystaleinae
 Meiceratinae
 121. DIOPTIDAE - American False Tiger Moths
 Doinae

Dioprinae
 122. THYRETIDAE - African Maiden Moths
 123. LYMANTRIIDAE - Tussock Moths
 Orgyiinae
 Lymantriinae
 Lymantriini
 Euproctidini
 124. ARCTIIDAE - Tiger Moths
 Group Pericopina
 Pericopinae
 Group Arctiina
 Lithosiinae
 Phryganopterygini
 Acsalini
 Lithosiini
 Eudesmiini
 Cisthenini
 Nudariini
 Endrosini
 Arctiinae
 Callimorphini
 Callimorphina
 Nyctemerina
 Utetheisini
 Arctiini
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INDEX TO FAMILY-LEVEL NAMES

The index includes 1,984 names (including synonyms). Highlighted names are higher category names (above family level) and are capitalized (except for series names). Valid family names are also capitalized, but not highlighted. Synonyms have been added to the index as currently known; these are not noted in the classification listing but can be found in the index with notation to the current correct name (synonyms are all lower case in italics). All names are referred by family number; higher category names are referred to the next listed family number. A large number of subtribal names noted for European Noctuidae by Beck (1999b) are not included herein since the rest of the world is not defined equivalently to subtribal level in this family.

As in all zoological naming, the names are spelled according to specified rules as to endings, although there is irregularity in some of the higher category names: order names end in *-tera*; suborder, cohort, subcohort, infraorder names vary and end in *-tera*, *-ata*, or *-ina*; division names end in *-trysia*; section and subsection names end in *-ina*; superfamily names end in *-oidea*; series names end in *-formes*; family names end in *-idae*; group names end in *-ina*; subfamily names end in *-inae*; tribal names end in *-ini*; and subtribe names end in *-ina* (sometimes written with *-idi* or *-iti* endings). The actual taxon names are modified in some cases due to the spelling of the name-bearing generic-base name that a tribe, subfamily, or family is derived from: the spellings are corrected herein as currently known about (e.g., in Riodinidae, the misformed tribal name *Lemoniini* is corrected to *Lemoniadini* (as already noted in Hall and Heppner, 1999. *Trop. Lepid.*, 10:30) (now *Lemoniadini*), since the generic-base name, *Lemonias*, is different from the name *Lemonia*, in the moth family *Lemoniidae*).

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DISTRIBUTION NOTES ON TAIWAN MOTHS,

2. *MIMICIA PSEUDOLIBATRIX*

(LEPIDOPTERA: PYRALIDAE: PYRALINAE)

J. B. HEPPNER¹

Florida State Collection of Arthropods, DPI, FDACS, P.O. Box 147100, Gainesville, Florida 32614-7100, USA

ABSTRACT.— The Chinese pyraline species, *Mimicia pseudolibatrix* (Caradja), is newly recorded from Taiwan and named as a new subspecies, as *M. p. taiwana* n. subsp., with distribution records from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey. Notes also give specimen records from China and Japan.

KEYWORDS: Asia, Catocalinae, China, East Asia, Fujian, Guangdong, Höne Collection, Japan, *Mimicia pseudolibatrix taiwana* n. subsp., Noctuidae, Oriental, Pyralinae, *Scoliopteryx*, taxonomy.

This second report on Taiwan moths from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey (Heppner, 2003), begun in 1981, treats the large species, *Mimicia pseudolibatrix* (Caradja), subfamily Pyralinae, newly recorded herein for Taiwan. The species was originally described in the genus *Hybolomia* by Caradja (1925), based on a single male from the Höne Collection, collected at Lianping (formerly Lienping), Guangdong Province, southern China, from Höne's collecting in the Guangdong region during 1920-23. Höne was in China from 1917-46 and made collections over most areas of the country east of the Tibetan plateau (Niethammer, 1963). His vast collections of Lepidoptera from China, mostly moths, are now in museums in Germany (mostly in Bonn and Karlsruhe), other than what Caradja received from him and which is now preserved in the natural history museum in Bucharest, Romania.

Meyrick (1934) later named a new genus, *Mellia*, for this unusual pyralid species. Strand (1935) then coined a new name for the genus (*Meltalia*) because of some nomenclatural point, but his name is now listed as a synonym of the Meyrick name, with both names being junior to *Mimicia* Caradja (1925) (first named as a subgenus of *Hybolomia*) (Inoue, 1988; Sugi, 2000).

In subsequent notes about material from China, Caradja (1934) noted that among H. Höne (1883-1963) specimens collected in China, as well as in other collections by R. E. Mell (1878-1970) made in the years 1908-21, there were further specimens from Lianping, China, specifically at a nearby mountain pass called "Tsatmicku-gao", 18 km south of Lianping, at 900m elevation. The added specimens totaled 35 more collected at light from the same site in China, dated 11 Jul, 26 Sep, and 7 Oct (no year indicated), presumably collected by Mell. Caradja (1934) also mentioned two specimens from a location called "Kwanshien" (in Sichuan Prov., near Chengdu) in his German text, but this may be in error since this was in reference to the type "pair", but Caradja (1925) described the species from only a single male stated to be from Lianping. The variety "*obscura*" (Caradja, 1935) was also described from Guangdong Province but is merely a melanic form.

Since Caradja's (1925) original description of this interesting moth, few if any additional specimens have been taken in China, as far as is known (Luh and Kuan, 1953), and only recently has a survey in Fujian Province, at Wuyishan Nature Reserve, obtained the species again and extended its known range to another province of China (Wang *et al.*, 2003). The Fujian data involves only a single female, collected 1 Sep 1981 (Wang *et al.*, 2003).



Fig. 1. Paratype forewing of *Mimicia pseudolibatrix taiwana* ♀, from Taiwan.

In 1988, the species was reported for the first time from Japan by Inoue (1988), for two specimens collected at Kiune, Niimi City, Okayama Prefecture: a male on 15 Sep 1986 and a female on 9 Aug 1987 (S. Yano coll.). In 2003, an additional female was found in Niigata Prefecture, Japan, on 25 Aug 2003 (Sakurai, 2003). Evidently, this species is very rare in Japan, since Japan is among the best surveyed of any nation for Lepidoptera yet only 3 specimens have been found there in the last 160 years, unless the species has somehow recently gotten to Japan and Taiwan.

In 1996 and again in 2005, the species was found in mid-elevation mountains in northern Taiwan, at about 1500m elevation in mid-July, in the Tamanshan range south of Taipei, near forest at the mountain resort town called Upper Palin, Taoyuan County (J. B. Heppner, collector). Both females were taken at blacklight in July. Another female was found in 1996 only about 20km northeast from there at the mountain area of Mingchih (1250m), while in mid-July 2005 another female was taken at Litonshan, Hsinchu Co. (1450m).

In the original description, Caradja (1925) noted the resemblance of the species to the noctuid, *Scoliopteryx libatrix* (Linnaeus), a European species of the subfamily Catocalinae that also occurs in East Asia, including Taiwan. The resemblance, of course, prompted Caradja (1925) to name the new pyralid after the noctuid. Although even a cursory examination clearly shows that *M. pseudolibatrix* belongs in Pyralidae, collections of unsorted noctuid moths should still be checked for any possible specimens of this pyralid inadvertently left there due to this superficial resemblance to *Scoliopteryx libatrix*.

The collection data from Japan and Taiwan, as well as China, indicate the species is active during several months from July to October, perhaps with two generations. However, nothing is otherwise known of its life cycle or what the larvae may feed on.

¹ Contribution No. 995, Entomology Section, Bur. Ent. Nema. Plant Path., Div. Plant Industry, Florida Dept. Agric. & Consumer Serv., Gainesville, Florida.

Given that only a single specimen has turned up in Taiwan in the last 25 years of intensive collecting in Taiwan with the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey, besides the extensive collecting activities by the Japanese in Taiwan already since 1895 by both professional and amateur lepidopterists, *M. pseudolibatrix* would seem to be as rare in Taiwan as it is in Japan. However, at the right time and in the right place the species can be found in numbers, as was noted by Caradja (1934) for the 35 additional specimens taken at one locality in Guangdong, China, up to that time.

In Taiwan, the habitat of *M. pseudolibatrix* is typical Chinese subtropical montane forest, mostly hardwoods mixed with some tropical species, as well as cedars and other trees from higher elevations, and with numerous understory plants. The forests are, thus, similar to original forest in mountains of Guangdong and Fujian, where the moths have been found in mainland China.

The following new name is provided for the Taiwan population of *M. pseudolibatrix*:

Mimicia pseudolibatrix taiwana Heppner, n. subsp.

Adult similar in size (female 38mm wingspan) to mainland Chinese specimens, with similar wing maculation: forewing coloration reddish-brown (with orange highlights), with short white costal margin mark angled as in the nominate subspecies but more uniform in thickness (not narrowed at middle as in mainland China population); more basal central angular white mark also thicker than in nominate subspecies; postmedian curved white fascia with costal widening angled mesally (not angled slightly distal as in mainland China populations); hindwing uniformly gray but for slight brown tinge near margins. Males not known for Taiwan but in China they are much smaller (28mm) than the females.

Holotype female: TAIWAN.—Taoyuan Co.: Upper Palin (1500m), 11-18 Jul 1996, J.B. Heppner. Deposited with the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, Taiwan (on indefinite loan to the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida).

Paratypes (3 ♀): Hsinchu Co.: Litonshan (1450m), 13 Jul 2005 (1 ♀), J. B. Heppner. Taoyuan Co.: Upper Palin (1350m), 4-5 Jul 2005 (1 ♀), Mingchih For. Res. Area (1250m), 9-10 Jul 1996 (1 ♀), J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang.

Etymology.—Named after the island of Taiwan.

Distribution.—China (Fujian and Guangdong), Japan, and Taiwan.

Notes.—The mainland China population of *M. pseudolibatrix* is darker brown than those of *M. p. taiwana* in Taiwan, as also in Japan. Adults have been figured by Wang *et al.* (2003) from Fujian, and by Inoue (1988) and Sakurai (2003) from Japan. The biology of the species remains to be studied more, but Yoshimatsu (1991) reported on the immature stages reared on artificial diet in Japan.

The Taiwan catalog update (Heppner, 2005) will list over 140 other new species records for Taiwan from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey, all added since publication of the original Taiwan catalog (Heppner and Inoue, 1992), but *M. pseudolibatrix* can already be added below as follows (with appropriate catalog number for insertion into the 1992 catalog):

MIMICIA Caradja, 1925

Mellia Meyrick, 1934

Melitalia Strand, 1935

- 394.1 *pseudolibatrix* (Caradja, 1925) (*Hybolomia*) China (Guangdong)
var. *obscura* (Caradja, 1935) (*Mellia*) China (Guangdong)
a) *taiwana* Heppner, n. subsp. Taiwan

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey project began in 1980 with organizational meetings at the National Taiwan Museum (then called the Taiwan Provincial Museum), in Taipei, by J. F. G. Clarke (Smithso-

nian Institution, Washington, DC), and the first survey trip was by Dr. Don R. Davis, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, in 1981. All subsequent trips were by the author, since 1982, and were primarily funded by two National Science Foundation grants (INT-8119539 and INT-8721716), plus survey grants from the Smithsonian Institution and added support from the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Division of Plant Industry, Florida Dept. of Agriculture and Consumer Services, Gainesville, Florida. In Taiwan, project support has been primarily from the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, and the Taiwan Forestry Research Institute, Taipei, and their entomology staffs, as well as a publication grant from the Pacific Cultural Foundation, Taipei. Special thanks to H.-Y. Wang, National Taiwan Museum, for facilitating all field trips in Taiwan since 1982. Principal housing of survey specimens is with the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida, for the study of the collections, plus samples at the Smithsonian Institution and the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei.

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DISTRIBUTION NOTES ON TAIWAN MOTHS, 3. *PYRAUSTA MYSTICA* (LEPIDOPTERA: PYRALIDAE: PYRAUSTINAE)

J. B. HEPPNER ¹

Florida State Collection of Arthropods, DPI, FDACS, P.O. Box 147100, Gainesville, Florida 32614-7100, USA

ABSTRACT.— Notes are provided on specimens from Taiwan of the Chinese (Sichuan) pyralid species *Pyrausta mystica* Caradja, including the first Taiwan records. The taxon *Pyrausta mystica taitungensis* n. subsp. is described as a new subspecies from Taiwan.

KEYWORDS: Asia, China, East Asia, Oriental, *Pyrausta mystica taitungensis* n. subsp., Pyraustinae, Sichuan, taxonomy.

Among many new moths recorded for Taiwan from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Project, this third note reports on a rare species of the pyralid subfamily Pyraustinae described from Sichuan, China, and now recorded for the first time from Taiwan. This is another of many to be added to the 1992 catalog (Heppner and Inoue, 1992), as will be noted in the additions to the catalog (Hepper, 2005).

Much of the Taiwan lepidopteran fauna is a disjunct remnant from the Himalaya Mountains of Nepal and western China, possibly isolated now in the higher mountains of Taiwan since the last Ice Age regression of habitats that once were continual from the Himalayas to Taiwan. Taiwan has the highest mountain area east of the Himalayas, other than for the isolated peak of Kinabalu in northern Borneo, so cooler habitats in Taiwan mountains have allowed these remnant lepidopterans to survive there. Likewise, many species from western Sichuan also have disjunct remnant populations in Taiwan. On the highest Taiwan mountains one also finds plants and Lepidoptera typical of Japan and even of northern Eurasian species.

The Himalayan and Sichuan lepidopteran faunas in Taiwan are sometimes at various elevations, depending on the species, and not necessarily all above 2000m elevation, where most of the Himalayan fauna begins in Taiwan in earnest. Such is the case with the small blackish pyralid moth found in Taiwan at only 720m elevation near the southeast region of Taiwan, in Taitung County. A similar moth was described from a single male from Sichuan, China, by A. Caradja (1932). He appropriately named it *Pyrausta mystica* Caradja, since he was unsure of its generic placement and had not seen anything similar from China or from the European fauna of his native Romania. The unique holotype of the species is in the natural history museum in Bucharest, Romania, along with the rest of the large Caradja Collection of Lepidoptera, much of it being Chinese moths.

The current Lepidoptera curator of the Muzeul National de Istoria Naturala 'Grigore Antipa', Bucharest, Romania, Dr. Mihai Stanescu, kindly helped reconfirm the label data and physical aspects of Caradja's type. The holotype male of *P. mystica*, type no. 177636 (Museum Bucharest, MGAB), has the following label data: Omei-shan (2300m), Sichuan, China, 20 Jul 1931, G. Franck. The rather worn male specimen has a wingspan of 19mm, and appears as illustrated in Fig. 1.

On earlier visits of mine to Romania and the Bucharest museum to study types there, in 1980 and again in 1984, I had already photographed the type specimen of *P. mystica*, along with many

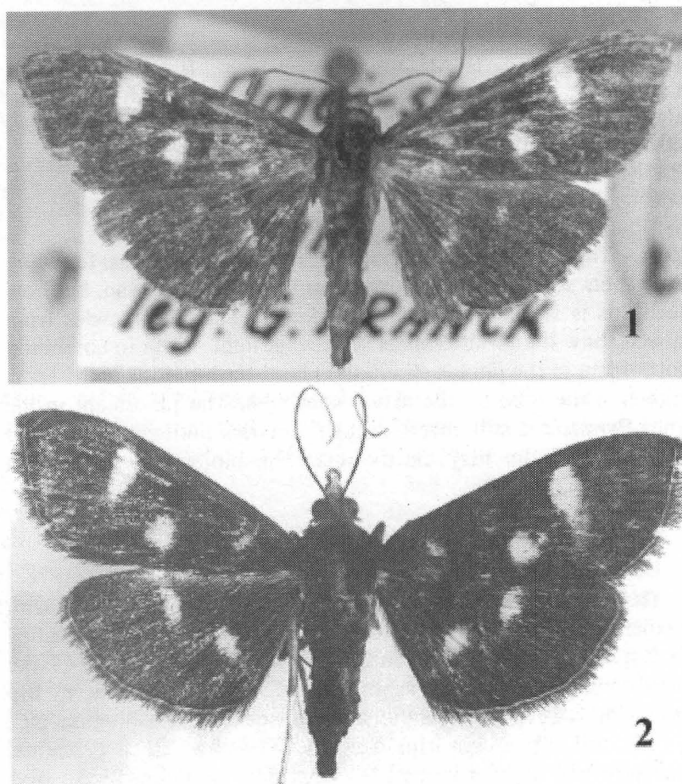


Fig. 1-2. Adults of *Pyrausta mystica*: 1) holotype male, *P. m. mystica*, Omeishan, Sichuan, China (MGAB). 2) holotype female, *P. m. taitungensis*, Bishan Hot Springs, Taitung Co., Taiwan (FSCA).

others, but did not have time or need then to dissect it for genitalic examination. After sorting of the many collections obtained in Taiwan since 1981 from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Project, specimens of a small pyralid were found that could not be readily placed to any known species until the photograph of the Caradja type of *P. mystica* was checked to verify that the specimens unquestionably are the same species. Unfortunately, all the Taiwan specimens thus far are females, so no genitalic confirmation is as yet possible.

The Caradja collection has only the single male holotype of *P. mystica* and no other specimens of the species are known of in any other collection thus far, other than the 3 females from Taiwan. None of the more recent Chinese works on pyralid moths include the species and it was not even included in the last Chinese catalog

¹ Contribution No. 996, Entomology Section, Bur. Ent. Nema. Plant Path., Div. Plant Industry, Florida Dept. Agric. & Consumer Serv., Gainesville, Florida.

of Lepidoptera, by Wu (1938), although finally listed in the catalog update for Pyralidae by Luh and Kuan (1953). Thus, it is likely that no other specimens of the species have been collected in China.

The following new name is provided for the Taiwan population of *P. mystica*:

***Pyrausta mystica taitungensis* Heppner, n. subsp.**

Adult similar in size (female 19-20mm wingspan) to mainland Chinese specimen, with similar wing maculation: body and forewing coloration brown-black, with 2 white (slight cream color) oval spots past mid-wing (more elongate than in nominate subspecies), angled from the end of cell equidistantly from termen border, the radial spot being somewhat larger than the cubital spot; also a much smaller white spot near the base; hindwing dark like forewing and white spots near midwing as in forewing except somewhat more elongated or oval than in forewing (males have these reduced and the inner spot elongated diffusely toward anal angle of wing margin); overall the wings and body have a bluish sheen in fresh specimens. Males not known for Taiwan but in China they are similar to females except for the hindwing spot pattern, where in the male the white marks are elongated instead of rounded as in the female.

Holotype female: TAIWAN.—Taitung Co.: Bishan Hot Springs (720m), 26-29 Oct 1984, J.B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang. Deposited with the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, Taiwan (on indefinite loan to the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida).

Paratypes (2 ♀): same data as holotype (FSCA).

Etymology.—Named after the county of Taitung of the type locality.

Distribution.—China (Sichuan) and Taiwan.

Notes.—The Sichuan, China, population of *P. mystica* has forewing white spots somewhat more oval than those from Taiwan, but how much this is sexual variation is not known yet. The females from Taiwan show the "white" spots somewhat light-cream in coloration (not evident in the photos where the photo-flash has made the spots brighter white than on the actual specimen. The placement in the genus *Pyrausta* is still uncertain for *P. mystica* until examination of the male genitalia may clarify this. The biology of *P. mystica* remains unknown.

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The Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey project began in 1980 with organizational meetings at the National Taiwan Museum (then called the Taiwan Provincial Museum), in Taipei, by J. F. G. Clarke (Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC), and the first survey trip was by Dr. Don R. Davis, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, in 1981. All subsequent trips were by the author, since 1982, and were primarily funded by two National Science Foundation grants (INT-8119539 and INT-8721716), plus survey grants from the Smithsonian Institution and added support from the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Division of Plant Industry, Florida Dept. of Agriculture and Consumer Services, Gainesville, Florida. In Taiwan, project support has been primarily from the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, and the Taiwan Forestry Research Institute, Taipei, and their entomology staffs, as well as a publication grant from the Pacific Cultural Foundation, Taipei. Special thanks to H.-Y. Wang, National Taiwan Museum, for facilitating all field trips in Taiwan since 1982. Principal housing of survey specimens is with the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida, for the study of the collections, plus samples at the Smithsonian Institution and the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei.

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DISTRIBUTION NOTES ON TAIWAN MOTHS, 4. GENERA *LIXA* AND *TAMRACA* (LEPIDOPTERA: PYRALIDAE: PYRALINAE)

J. B. HEPPNER ¹

Florida State Collection of Arthropods, DPI, FDACS, P.O. Box 147100, Gainesville, Florida 32614-7100, USA

ABSTRACT.— Notes are provided on specimens from Taiwan in the Asian pyralid genera *Lixa* Walker and *Tamraca* Moore, including new Taiwan records, and description of the subspecies, *Lixa productalis taiwana* n. subsp. and *Tamraca torridalis taiwana* n. subsp. from Taiwan.

KEYWORDS: Asia, Borneo, China, East Asia, Japan, *Lixa productalis taiwana* n. subsp., Malaysia, Oriental, Pyralinae, Sarawak, Sulawesi, *Tamraca torridalis taiwana* n. subsp., taxonomy.

Among many new moths recorded for Taiwan from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Project, this note reports on some species in the pyralid genera *Lixa* Walker and *Tamraca* Moore, both in the subfamily Pyralinae. While *Lixa* has 6 known species in Asia, *Tamraca* includes only two species. The new Taiwan records below are added to the Taiwan catalog of 1992 (Heppner and Inoue, 1992), and are further listed in the catalog updates (Heppner, 2005).

All specimens reported on below are from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey, currently housed at the Florida State Collection of Arthropods (FSCA), Gainesville, Florida.

LIXA Walker

The genus *Lixa* Walker ([1866]) presently contains 6 known species, all from Southeast Asia (Robinson *et al.*, 1994). The type species of the genus, *Lixa productalis* Walker, originally described from Sarawak, Borneo (Walker, [1866]), has until now remained known only from Borneo (thus far Sarawak and Brunei). Specimens from the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey include 34 specimens of this species, which can now be reported for Taiwan for the first time, named herein as a new subspecies for Taiwan.

Lixa productalis taiwana Heppner, n. subsp.

Adults similar in size (male 20-25mm wingspan; female 27-28mm) to Bornean specimens, with similar wing maculation: body and forewing coloration reddish orange-brown, with HW more orange; FW with 1 fuscous line at 1/3 from base and a subterminal line angled near tornus, and costa with tan edge; HW with 2 curved fuscous lines (Taiwan specimens with HW more orange than from Borneo). Female similar to male.

Holotype male: TAIWAN.— Taoyuan Co.: Upper Palin (1500m), 11-18 Jul 1996, J.B. Heppner. Deposited with the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, Taiwan (on indefinite loan to the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida).

Paratypes (32 ♂, 3 ♀): TAIWAN.— Chiayi Co.: Fennchihwu (1450m), 2-4 Jul 1985, J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang (1 ♂). Hsinchu Co.: Litonshan (1450m), 13 Jul 2005, J. B. Heppner (2 ♂). Ilan Co.: Fushan Bot. Sta. (650m), 20-24 Jul 1996, J. B. Heppner (1 ♂, 1 ♀). Tuchen [Chilan For. Sta.] (480m), 1-2 Jul 1982, J. B. Heppner (1 ♂). Nantou Co.: Lo Farm, 8 km E. Puli (750m), 10-11 Jul 2005, J. B. Heppner (2 ♂). Taichung Co.: Kukuan (700m), 6 Jul 1985, J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang (1 ♂). Taipei Co.: Wulai (200m), 17-19 Jun 1985, J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang (4 ♂). Taoyuan Co.: Upper Palin (1350m), 7-9 Jul 1986, J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang (1 ♂). Upper Palin (1500m), 11-18 Jul 1996, J. B. Heppner (19 ♂, 2 ♀). All FSCA. Etymology.— Named after the island of Taiwan.

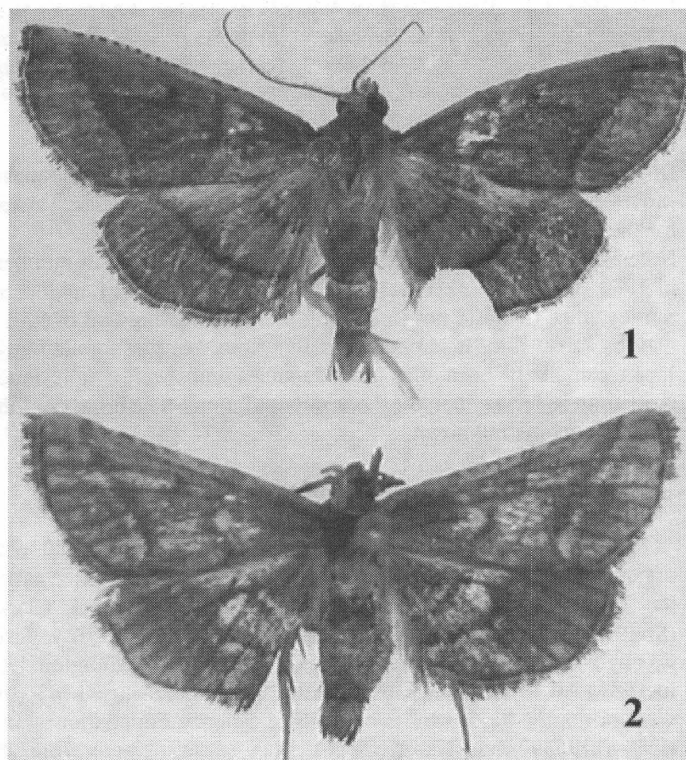


Fig. 1-2. Adults: 1) *Lixa productalis taiwana*, holotype male. 2) *Tamraca torridalis taiwana*, holotype male.

Distribution.—Borneo (Sarawak, East Malaysia) and Taiwan.

Notes.— The Taiwan population has the hindwings much more orange-brown than those from Borneo, which are more red-brown. The biology of the species remains unknown.

TAMRACA Moore

The genus *Tamraca* Moore (1887) was described for an unusual pyralid already described earlier from Sri Lanka, *Asopia torridalis* Lederer (1863). Walker (1965) described the same species again from northern India as *Varnia incerta* Walker. Since then the species, as *T. torridalis*, has been known from the Indian region and other parts of Southeast Asia (east at least to Sulawesi), as well as southern China (Hampson, 1896; Wang *et al.*, 2003). Later, it was

1. Contribution No. 997, Entomology Section, Bur. Ent. Nema. Plant Path., Div. Plant Industry, Florida Dept. Agric. & Consumer Serv., Gainesville, Florida.

reported from Japan (Inoue *et al.*, 1982) and Taiwan (Heppner and Inoue, 1992).

The following subspecies is described for the Taiwan populations:

***Tamraca torridalis taiwana* Heppner, n. subsp.**

Adults similar (male 20-22mm wingspan; female 20-34), with similar wing maculation to those from Southeast Asia: body and forewing coloration mostly fuscous on FW costa and radius, plus similar small spot at mid-wing (near costa) and on subterminal line, with remainder of wing red-brown intermixed with yellow, plus some fuscous along anal margin. HW mostly fuscous, with central light tan area surrounded with yellow and red-brown between 2 curved fuscous lines angled to anal margin and base.

Holotype male: TAIWAN.—Nantou Co.: Lienhuachih For. Sta. (700m), nr. Puli, 7-12 Sep 1983, J.B. Heppner. Deposited with the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, Taiwan (on indefinite loan to the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida).

Paratypes (25 ♂, 16 ♀): TAIWAN.—*Ilan Co.*: 5 km. N. Nanao (100m), 11-13 Oct 1984, J. B. Heppner & H.-Y. Wang (3 ♂). Tuchia [Chilan For. Sta.] (480m), 1-2 Jul 1982, J. B. Heppner (1 ♂, 1 ♀). *Hualien Co.*: Kuyuan (750m), Taroko Gorge, 6-7 Jul 2005, J. B. Heppner (1 ♀). *Nantou Co.*: Lienhuachih For. Sta. (700m), 7-12 Sep 1983, J. B. Heppner (21 ♂, 14 ♀). All FSCA.

Etymology.—Named after the island of Taiwan.

Distribution.—Sri Lanka and India/Nepal to Malayasia and Indonesia (Sulawesi), and China to Japan for the nominate subspecies; Taiwan for the Taiwan subspecies.

Notes.—Although the species was collected in Taiwan in numbers in 1983 (two were taken earlier in 1982), the Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey since then did not find many more, indicating that overall it may be fairly rare. It is unclear at this time, but the population in Japan can likely be named as a Japanese subspecies: it is much more orange-brown than the Taiwan populations. The biology of the species remains unknown.

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The Taiwan Lepidoptera Survey project began in 1980 with organizational meetings at the National Taiwan Museum (then called the Taiwan Provincial Museum), in Taipei, by J. F. G. Clarke (Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC), and the first survey trip was by Dr. Don R. Davis, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, in 1981. All subsequent trips were by the author, since 1982, and were primarily funded by two National Science Foundation grants (INT-8119539 and INT-8721716), plus survey grants from the Smithsonian Institution and added support from the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Division of Plant Industry, Florida Dept. of Agriculture and Consumer Services, Gainesville, Florida. In Taiwan, project support has been primarily from the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei, and the Taiwan Forestry Research Institute, Taipei, and their entomology staffs, as well as a publication grant from the Pacific Cultural Foundation, Taipei. Special thanks to H.-Y. Wang, National Taiwan Museum, for facilitating all field trips in Taiwan since 1982. Principal housing of survey specimens is with the Florida State Collection of Arthropods, Gainesville, Florida, for the study of the collections, plus samples at the Smithsonian Institution and the National Taiwan Museum, Taipei.

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