The Great Trinity Forest Management Plan



Volume 24
Insects and Disease

GREAT TRINITY FOREST

Insects and Disease

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Guide to Insect Borers in North American Broadleaf Trees and Shrubs Continued

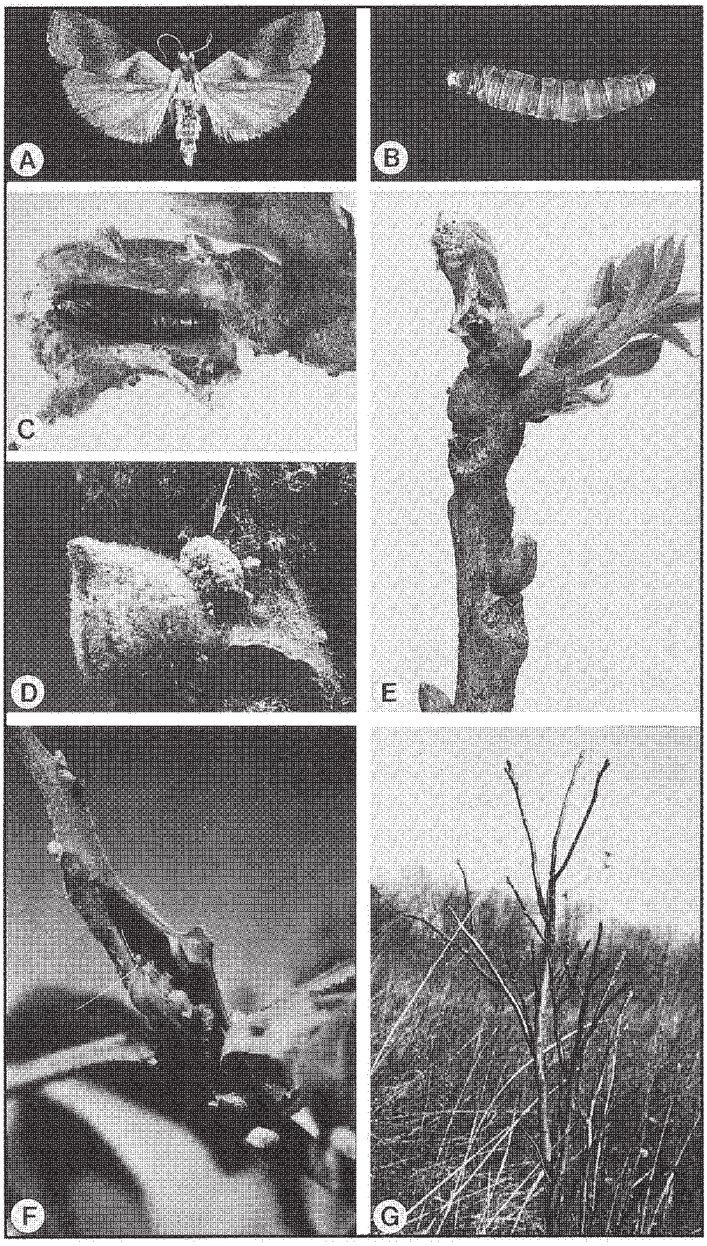


Figure 68—Acrobasis demotella, *walnut shoot moth: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa inside shoot; D, hibernaculum in bud axil; E, infested terminal bud failing to elongate; F, hollowed shoot; G, young tree damaged by attacks (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; D & G, courtesy G. Simmons; F, courtesy B. Weber).*

5 cm, and small, loose mounds of frass mixed with silk collect at entrance holes. Shoot tips beyond the larval tunnels usually wilt and die. Mature (fifth-instar) larvae complete feeding in shoots by late April in Missouri (Kearby 1978) and by mid-June in Michigan (Martinat and Wallner 1980) and then vacate shoots through entrance holes. Mature larvae pupate just below the soil surface in thin cocoons composed of soil particles. One generation per year has been recorded in Missouri (Kearby 1978) and in Michigan (Martinat and Wallner 1980).

Injury and damage. In spring, early-stage larvae bore into swelling, unfolding buds and terminal-bud clusters (figure 68E). From one to all buds in a cluster may be killed, resulting in blunt shoots or forked tops (Kearby 1978). Wilting and dying foliage on small succulent shoots is further evidence of attack. Infested shoots may be completely hollow (figure 68F). Small mounds of frass and silk collect near larval entrance holes in buds and in leaf axils (Neunzig 1972). If the attacked bud or shoot is not killed immediately, it is usually hollowed out and subject to breaking by wind (Weber and others 1980). On young black walnut trees, repeated attacks cause forking, branching, reduced growth, and ultimately misshape trees and greatly diminish their value for timber (figure 68G) (Martinat and Wallner 1980). The basal 4 to 6 m of a black walnut must be straight and free of forks and excessive branches to qualify as a prime sawlog or veneer log; thus, damage by this borer when trees are in the seedling and sapling stage can be ruinous (McKeague and Simmons 1979).

Control. No parasites have been reared from larvae and pupae, which is surprising because numerous parasites have been reared from the closely associated species, *A. juglandis* (LeBaron) (Martinat and Wallner 1980, Neunzig 1972). To minimize infestation culturally, new black walnut plantings should be relatively isolated from existing stands of *Carya* and *Juglans*. Where trees are grown for high-quality timber or veneer logs, corrective pruning is an effective alternative to insecticides (McKeague and Simmons 1978, 1979). Managers should prune soon after the current season's damage has been done and new shoots have grown enough to make it possible to leave the best of several shoots. Proper timing will permit pruning wounds to heal by the end of the growing season. Workers should leave the strongest shoot that is closest to the original damaged terminal to reestablish apical dominance and maintain a straight trunk and good form. Insecticides have been used successfully in Michigan to protect young black walnut plantings (McKeague and Simmons 1978).

Acrobasis nuxvorella Neunzig

pecan nut casebearer (figure 69)

Hosts. Pecan is the principal (possibly only) host (Neunzig 1970).

Range. Occurs throughout the range of its host from Florida west to Texas and northward to southern Illinois (Neunzig 1972).

Description. ***Adult.*** Grayish brown

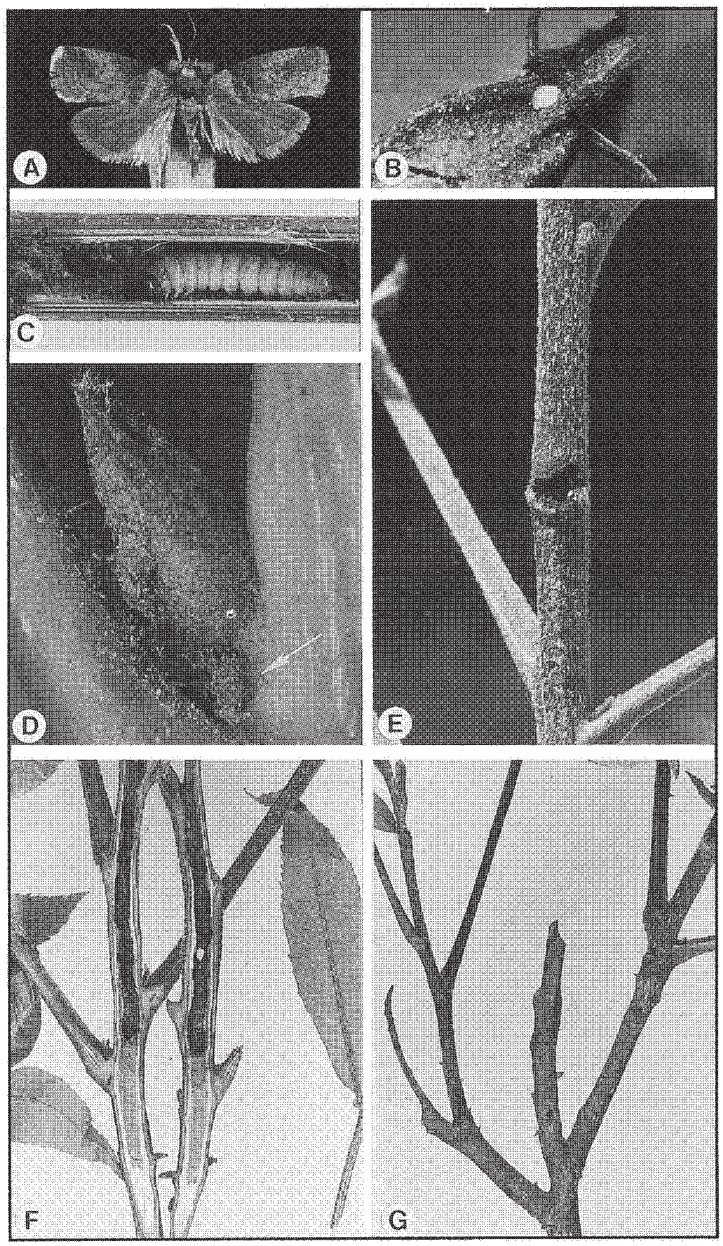


Figure 69—Acrobasis nuxvorella, *pecan nut casebearer: A, adult; B, egg on nutlet; C, larva; D, hibernaculum at base of lateral bud; E, entrance hole in shoot; F, hollowed shoot; G, terminal shoot killed (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; B & D, specimens courtesy V. Calcote; C, specimen courtesy E. Brown).*

moth with body length of about 7.6 mm and wingspan from 12 to 19 mm (figure 69A) (Neunzig 1972). Forewings light (Roseberg and Schaffner 1964) to dark gray (Payne and others 1979) with ridge of dark brown scales across wing about one-third distance from base. Head and body brown. ***Egg.*** Elliptical, convex above, flattened below with fine surface reticulations; about 0.56 by 0.34 mm (figure 69B). Greenish white when deposited, becoming reddish as incubation progresses (Gill 1925). ***Larva.*** Pale to dark purplish brown with greenish undertones and 11 to 17 mm long when mature (figure 69C). Head yellowish brown with brown to dark brown spots coalescing into bandlike maculations. Thoracic and anal shields brownish yellow to brown with some dark brown maculations. Pinacula pale brown. Circle of biordinal crochets on prolegs on abdominal segments 3 to 6 and 10 (Neunzig 1972). ***Pupa.*** Yellowish brown and 6.9 to 8.1 mm long. Head slightly wrinkled with distal region slightly produced anteriorly and rounded.

Biology. The number of generations per year varies: from four in Texas, three and occasionally a partial fourth in Florida and south Georgia, to three in eastern North Carolina (Neunzig 1972). Adults of the overwintering generation emerge from late April to mid-May in Texas and during the last 3 weeks of May in eastern North Carolina. Within a few days of emergence, females deposit their eggs (usually one or two per site) near the base of the calyx lobes of newly formed nuts. On hatching, the larvae feed and develop in small nuts. Moths emerge through the enlarged larval entrance holes, leaving empty pupal skins in the nuts (Gill 1925, Neunzig 1972). Over its range, first-generation adults emerge late May to July. After a brief period, first-generation adult females lay eggs on the nuts, about the time nuts are half grown. Moths of the second generation emerge from these eggs from late July through early September, and oviposit on large nuts and sometimes on leaves and buds. Third-generation larvae feed sparingly on the husks and reach their second stage with fall weather; they move to twigs to construct hibernacula near lateral buds, often between a bud and the twig (figure 69D). Occasionally, this borer partially or entirely completes a fourth generation in the southern range. Larvae overwinter in hibernacula and, as buds swell in spring, feed on them and then bore into expanding shoots. If shoots have elongated rapidly before larval attack, larvae enter at the base of leaf petioles. Some larvae of the overwintering generation pupate in injured shoots; others move to pupate under the platelike bark scales (Gill 1925, Neunzig 1972).

Injury and damage. Main external evidence of shoot infestation is wilted or dead small shoots soon after bud burst and during elongation in spring. Entrance holes may or may not contain small masses of frass and silk (figure 69E). Green shoots may be completely hollow (figure 69F) and often break from the wind. Larval galleries can be seen in the broken ends. Both terminal and side shoots may be killed, adversely

affecting tree form (figure 69G). The most severe injury, however, is the hollowing out of newly formed nuts by first-generation larvae. The nuts are small, blackened, and usually have a small hole near their bases covered by silk webbing and frass. Some later-generation larvae also feed on succulent shoots and leaf petioles; bud injury is usually light (Gill 1925). Although common throughout the Pecan Belt, populations of this borer are greatest in its western range, particularly in Texas and Oklahoma, where moderate losses sometimes occur (Payne and others 1979).

Control. Parasites are important natural controls; over 30 species of insect parasites have been reared from larvae and pupae (Neunzig 1972). Insecticide application is recommended when 3% or more of the previous year's shoots are infested with overwintering larvae or when there is a history of serious infestation (Payne and others 1979, 1982).

Acrobasis caryivorella Ragonot

[hickory shoot moth] (figure 70)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan, walnut. Most abundant on mockernut hickory, pignut hickory, and pecan (Neunzig 1972). Occasionally found on walnut.

Range. Occurs in southern Canada, throughout the eastern United States (USDA FS 1985), and as far west as New Mexico (Heinrich 1956).

Description. ***Adult.*** Grayish marked moth with wingspan of 19 to 24 mm (figure 70A) (Heinrich 1956). Forewings dark bluish gray with grayish white and orangish red patches. Hindwings whitish gray, darker in females. ***Larva.*** Purplish green with thorax darker than abdomen; from 13 to 19 mm long when mature (figure 70B). Thoracic and anal shields brown with dark brown maculations. Pinacula on thorax and abdomen transparent to pale brown, contrasting in color with surrounding integument (Neunzig 1972). ***Pupa.*** Reddish brown, 8.6 to 10.3 mm long. Head wrinkled; distal region distinctly produced anteriorly.

Biology. Moths of the overwintering generation usually emerge in April and May in Florida and Texas, late May in North Carolina, and July in Connecticut (Neunzig 1972). First-, second-, and third-generation moths have been reared during late June to July, August, and September to October, respectively, in Texas (Nickels 1951). Larvae from a summer generation have been collected during August in North Carolina and Connecticut (Leiby 1925, Neunzig 1972). Females deposit eggs in masses of 10 to 70 on the upper or lower surface of leaflets. Small larvae of summer broods feed on the underside of leaflets and form frass tubes along midribs. Large larvae pull and tie together with silk several leaves, which they partially eat. They pupate in chambers of frass and silk, usually in the leaf enclosure near the shoot base. Larvae of the last summer brood overwinter in hibernacula 3 mm long attached either to buds or to the tree trunk several centimeters above or below the soil surface (Leiby 1925, Nickels 1951, Phillips and others 1960). In early spring, larvae leave the hibernacula and enter opening buds and later tunnel into succulent shoots (figure 70C).

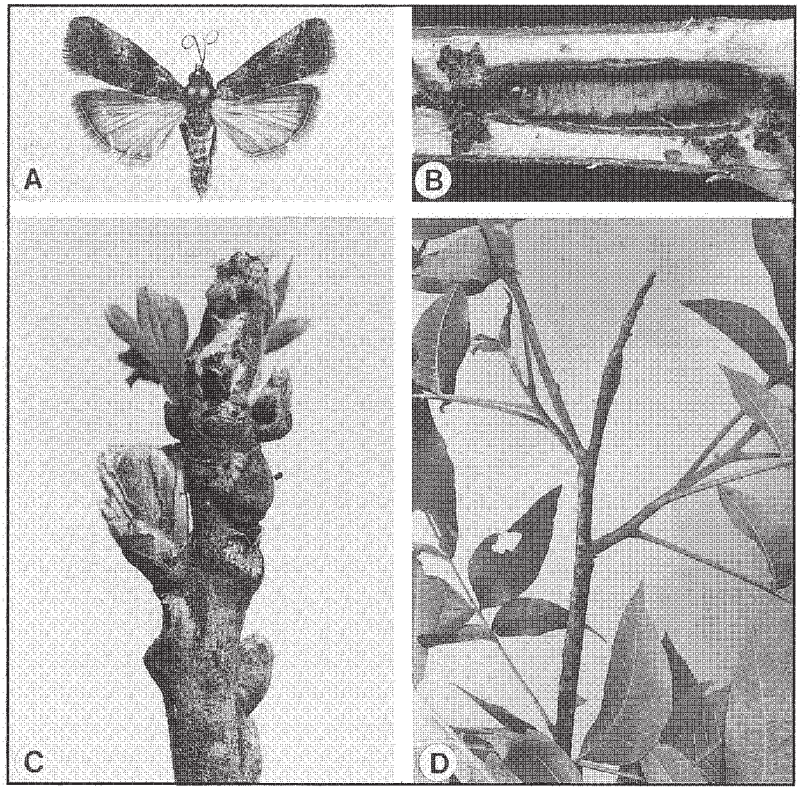


Figure 70—Acrobasis caryivorella, *[hickory shoot moth]: A, adult; B, larva; C, buds and shoot apex hollowed out; D, shoot mortality (A, specimen courtesy H. Neunzig).*

Injury and damage. Prefers vigorously growing trees, and larvae are most abundant on young trees (Neunzig 1972). Unsightly masses of dead leaves held together and pulled up around current shoot growth with loose strands of silk indicate attack (Neunzig 1972). Close inspection reveals that buds at the base of current year's shoots have been hollowed out and petioles of expanding leaves are shallowly tunneled. Eventually, all leaves of an infested shoot are pulled in about it with silk and parts of the leaflets eaten. Frass collects in the drawn-together leaves; often, several larvae inhabit the haphazardly constructed silk enclosure. Tunneled shoots become stunted, distorted, or die (figure 70D), adversely affecting tree form—an important consideration for timber purposes (Neunzig 1972). Young trees, particularly sprouts in recently cut-over areas, are especially vulnerable to injury. The insect has also severely damaged pecan seedlings in nurseries in Florida and Texas (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Parasites are probably the most effective natural controls of this borer; numerous hymenopterous and dipterous parasites have been reared from the larvae and pupae (Arnaud 1978, Krombein and others 1979, Neunzig 1972). Young trees, especially nursery stock, should be kept vigorous to help them overcome and outgrow the injuries with fewer adverse effects (Phillips and others 1960). Chemical controls can help minimize injury.

Hypsipyla grandella (Zeller)

[mahogany shoot borer] (figure 71)

Hosts. Mahogany, Spanish cedar. Many species of mahogany and Spanish cedar in the family Meliaceae are highly susceptible (Grypma and Gara 1970, Holsten and Gara 1975).

Range. South Florida and throughout the American Tropics, wherever its food plants grow (Heinrich 1956, Sliwa and Becker 1973).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brown to grayish brown moth with wingspan 23 to 45 mm (figure 71A) (Chellman 1978, Heinrich 1956). Forewings grayish brown shaded with dull rust red, especially on lower part. Wing veins distinctly overlaid with black. A dusting of whitish scales on middle to outer portion of forewings and black dots toward wing ends. Hindwings hyaline to white with narrow dark margin. ***Egg.*** Oval, flattened, white initially but red within 24 hours; 0.98 mm long, 0.50 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Creamy white when young, becoming light bluish to blue with maturity; reach about 25 mm long (figure 71B). ***Pupa.*** Brownish black and enclosed in silken cocoon (figure 71C).

Biology. Moths live 7 to 8 days, are nocturnal, and remain hidden in tree foliage and grass during the day (Holsten 1976). After mating, females deposit about 300 eggs during evening and early morning. Eggs are laid singly or in small clusters of three to four in or on leaf axils, on leaf scars, and adjacent to the midrib or side veins of leaflets. Eggs hatch in about 4 days, and the young larvae bore in new shoots, usually at leaf axes. Larvae enter the pith

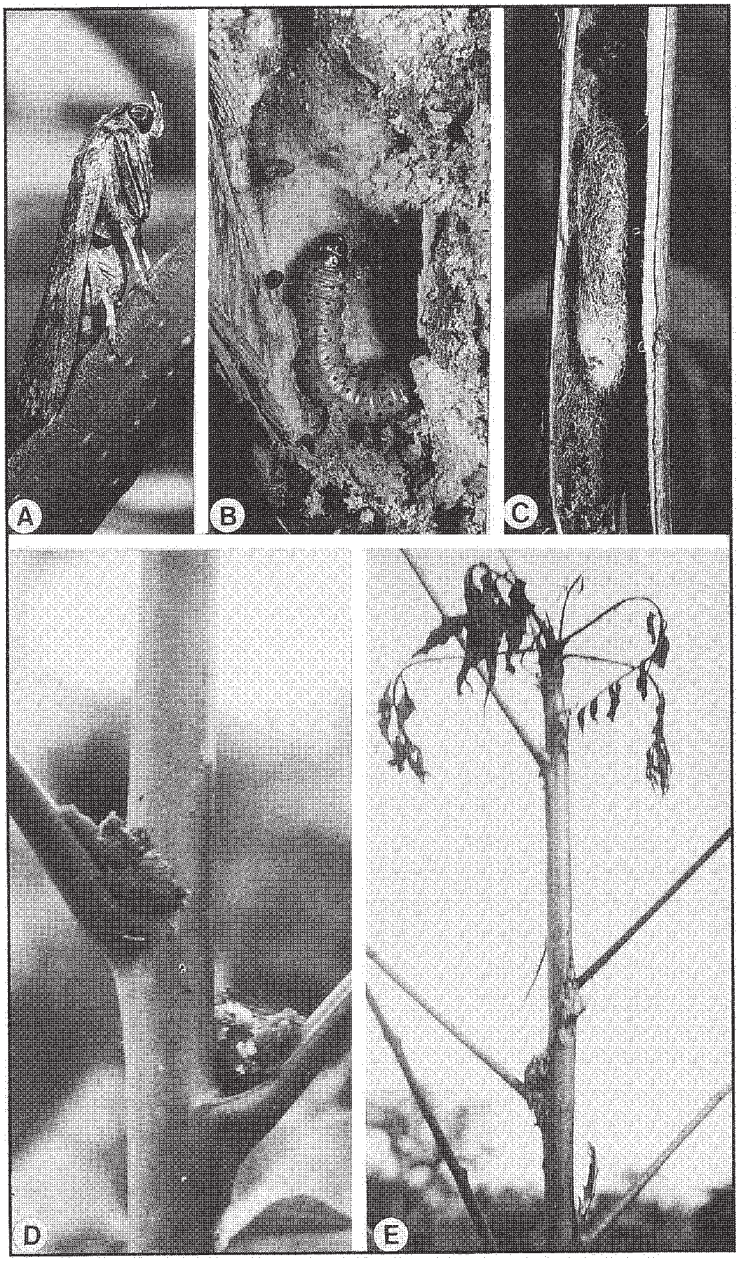


Figure 71—Hypsipyla grandella, *[mahogany shoot borer]: A, adult in resting position; B, larva in burrow; C, silken cocoon in shoot gallery; D, clumps of frass on infested shoot; E, dying shoot (A-C, courtesy E. Holsten; D-E, courtesy J. Whitmore).*

and tunnel down the shoots, feeding on the unlignified parts of the stems, axils, and pith. Larvae spend up to about 10% of their time outside the stems feeding and web-building. Seed capsules may also be attached. Entrance holes are always protected by a covering of silk, plant particles, and frass. There are five to seven larval instars. The larval stage lasts 20 to 30 days. Final-instar larvae usually spin silken cocoons at upper end of tunnels, where they pupate. Most larvae pupate in their galleries, but some pupate in the soil under the tree. The pupal stage lasts about 10 days. In Florida, there is evidence of at least two generations per year, with the heaviest brood beginning in March or April and peaking in May (Howard 1991).

Injury and damage. Clumps of frass silked together at leaf axils on the shoots provide good evidence of infestation (figure 71D) (Holsten 1976). Scraping away frass reveals larval entrance holes. Dissection of infested shoots exposes the larvae and galleries. Tender terminals and branches on young trees are apt to be attacked. Dead and dying shoots become noticeable during heavy infestations (figure 71E). Attacks on developing shoots reduce growth and generally stunt plants (Holsten and Gara 1975). Seedlings and saplings 1 to 5 years old are damaged most, and many plants under 3 m tall are killed (Allan and others 1973). Resprouting followed by repeated attacks results in numerous side branches and, consequently, in badly formed trees unsuitable for timber. This insect is a formidable obstacle to growing mahogany in many regions and has prevented establishment of plantations in some areas.

Control. Natural controls—including egg, larval, and pupal parasites, fungal diseases, and entomogenous nematodes—help to reduce populations but often do not prevent economic losses. Cultural control through pruning and destroying infested twigs and fruits, planting best suited sites, and planting least susceptible species will minimize losses. Soil-applied systemic insecticides and protective sprays directed at the spring brood are sometimes necessary to establish new plantations (Allan and others 1973, Chellman 1978, Howard 1991).

Elasmopalpus lignosellus (Zeller)

lesser cornstalk borer (figure 72)

Hosts. Black locust, dogwood, tupelo, sycamore, pine, redcedar, Arizona cypress, and baldcypress. Corn, peanuts, and many other legumes and grasses are attacked, but plants in the grass family are preferred; attacks trees only occasionally (Dixon 1982b, Luginbill and Ainslee 1917).

Range. Throughout the southern half of the United States but most damaging in sandy soil along the south Atlantic and Gulf Coasts. Also occurs throughout Central and South America (Luginbill and Ainslee 1917).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brownish moth with wingspan of 17 to 25 mm (figure 72A) (Luginbill and Ainslee 1917). Forewings narrow and elongate with oblique distal margins; yellow ochre to light brown in males and dark brown in females. Hindwings whitish with gray to brown anterior

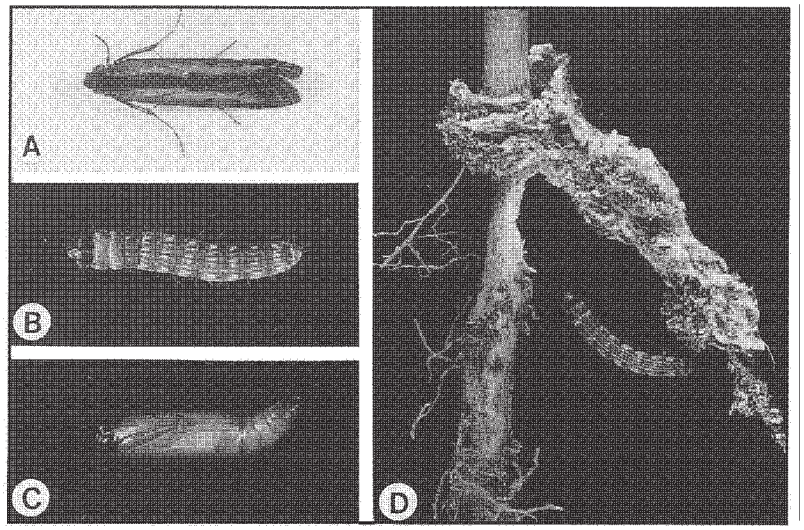


Figure 72—Elasmopaplus lignosellus, *lesser cornstalk borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, seedling injured at root collar with silken feeding tube (specimens courtesy J. Todd).*

and distal margins. Head brown to black. ***Egg.*** Oval, 0.7 mm long by 0.2 mm wide, with sculptured surface; pale green when first deposited, becoming iridescent crimson at maturity. ***Larva.*** Greenish brown and about 16 mm long when mature (figure 72B). Head and cervical shield shiny brownish black; body pale green with longitudinal, somewhat broken white and purple stripes. ***Pupa.*** Pale yellowish green initially, gradually becoming dark brown, with six hooked spines on abdomen tip, and about 8 mm long (figure 72C).

Biology. Moths emerge during early June in southern Georgia and are caught almost continually in light traps through August (Leuck 1966). Average life of adults is 10 days, and each female deposits about 125 eggs. Eggs are generally deposited singly on the upper and lower sides of leaves, at any point along the stem, and in soil just below the surface with grains of sand adhering to them. Eggs hatch within a week, and early-instar larvae mine lower branches or begin to feed on stem and roots below the soil surface (Dixon 1982a). Larvae construct radiating tubelike shelters of silk, soil, and excrement near the root collar just below the soil surface. Feeding by larvae on woody tree seedlings is characterized by surface or subcortical burrowing and girdling and often results in gall-like swellings and callus tissue around the feeding site (Snyder 1936). Larvae pass through six instars, and total larval development requires 13 to 24 days (Dupree 1965, Leuck 1966). The pupal stage is 8 to 10 days. By late summer, most life stages are present in infested plants as generations overlap. The winter is passed in either the larval or pupal stage in soil or soil litter. It completes two to four generations per year (Dixon 1982b).

Injury and damage. The first sign of infestation in forest tree nurseries is wilting foliage. As seedlings begin to die, they may remain upright or fall over. Removing soil from around the base of the seedlings reveals larval burrows girdling the stem and gall-like swelling and callus tissue at wound sites. Sometimes, seedlings are severed just below ground (Snyder 1936). Close inspection of the soil near feeding sites exposes small tubes, composed of silk and soil particles, radiating from the injured seedling (figure 72D). Only one larva is found in a silken tube. Larvae squirm vigorously when disturbed (Dixon 1982a). When adults are disturbed and forced to fly during daylight, they fly with short, jerky movements (Dixon 1982a). During the 1930's, 1 to 2% of the black locust seedlings in forest tree nurseries in Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana and up to 10% of those in North Carolina nurseries were killed (Snyder 1936). More recently, in a central Florida forest tree nursery, this borer killed about 1 million hardwood and softwood seedlings and injured as many more (Dixon 1982b). Mortality of flowering dogwood in the Florida nursery was 70%, and the remaining 30% suffered injury.

Control. Parasites are abundant (Arnaud 1978, Krombein and others 1979). In Texas, larval mortality from insect parasites ranges from 5 to 9%, and pupal mortality averages about 5% (Johnson and

Smith 1981). Culturally, selected covercrop rotation, late-fall clear-fallowing, proper soil fertilization, and irrigation will help to ameliorate the factors conducive to infestation. When such practices fail, granular insecticides can be incorporated in the soil before covercrops are sown. In serious borer infestations, insecticides can be applied to nursery beds as soil drenches; this may have to be repeated several times because adequate exposure of larvae to the chemical is difficult, as they retreat into their silklined shelters when disturbed (Dixon 1982b).

Nephopteryx carneella Hulst

[willow gall inquiline]

Hosts. Willow. Willow only known host (Heinrich 1956).

Range. Maine and Massachusetts west to Wisconsin and Indiana and in Ontario and Manitoba (Heinrich 1956).

Description. ***Adult.*** Powdery gray moth with reddish markings (Forbes 1923, Heinrich 1956). Forewings light brown color to bluish gray with small reddish and blackish markings; hindwings smoky white with faint yellowish tint. Wingspan ranges from 20 to 23 mm. Females slightly darker than males. Immature stages have not been described.

Biology. Adults are present from April to July (Heinrich 1956). Larvae burrow into galls made by gallmaking sawflies (*Euura* spp.) on host plants. Here they live, feed, and complete their development.

Injury and damage. Fine frass and small openings in host galls may provide evidence of infestation. Opening galls will reveal larval burrows, frass, and sometimes the larvae. This species bores in galls made by other insects on host plants. It has no known economic consequence.

Control. Controls are not needed.

Meroptera cviatella Dyar

[poplar bud borer]

Hosts. Poplar. Cottonwood listed, but other poplars probably susceptible (Heinrich 1956). Leadplant mentioned as a host but believed to be so only by accident.

Range. Known only from Illinois and Mississippi (Heinrich 1956).

Description. ***Adult.*** Reddish brown and gray moth with wingspan of 23 to 25 mm (Forbes 1923, Heinrich 1956). Forewings bright reddish brown with purplish gray shading toward outer margin, which may have indistinct lines dusted with blackish and whitish scales. Hindwings pale smoky brown, darkened towards outer margin. Immature stages have not been described.

Biology. Adults are present in June and July (Heinrich 1956). The larvae tunnel and feed in buds and new shoots.

Injury and damage. Failure of buds and shoots to develop is evidence of infestation. Small holes and burrows in buds and new shoots can be found on close examination. Damage has been negligible.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Terastia meticulosalis Guenee

[bucare twig borer] (figure 73)

Hosts. Coralbean, kapok. These are the only recorded hosts (Chellman 1978,

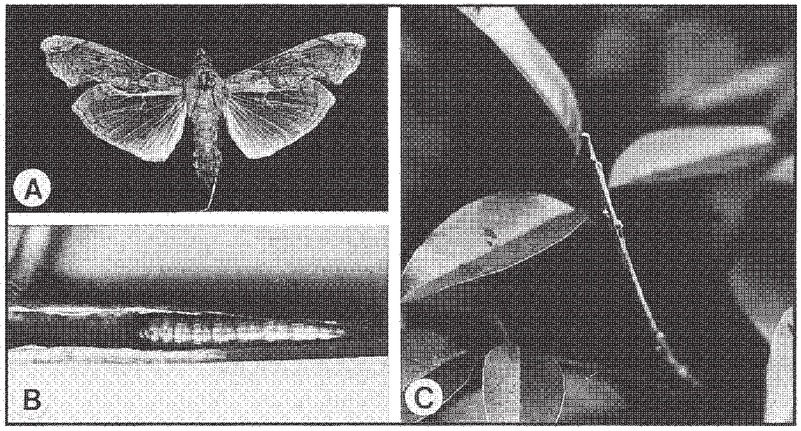


Figure 73—Terastia meticulosalis, *[bucare twig borer]: A, adult; B, larva in twig gallery; C, twig killed by larva (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; B & C, courtesy C. Chellman).*

Kimball 1965).

Range. In North America known only from Florida, where it is most common in the Peninsula and Keys (Chellman 1978, Kimball 1965). Also occurs in Honduras, Santo Domingo, Ceylon, Java, the Philippines, Hawaii, and India (Swezey 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Light brown moth with prominent dark brown markings on forewings (figure 73A) (Chellman 1978). Wings peculiarly shaped and quite distinct. Wingspan approximately 37 mm. ***Larva.*** Whitish to light reddish (figure 73B). Mature larva about 25 mm long.

Biology. Moths lay eggs on the twigs of host plants. Young larvae bore into tender twigs and immature seed pods and completely hollow them, causing much twig dieback. Mature larvae exit their galleries and move to the ground where they spin large silken cocoons where they pupate (Swezey 1923). This twig borer has at least two generations per year in southern Florida (Chellman 1978).

Injury and damage. Browning and dying twigs provide evidence of infestation (figure 73C) (Chellman 1978). Examination of the dying twigs reveals tunnels and larvae. All the new growth on some plants may be killed back (Swezey 1923). Heavy populations give infested trees a ragged appearance. Severe infestations can sometimes kill small plants.

Control. Clipping and destroying infested twigs on ornamentals while larvae are present help to alleviate the problem, especially if done on a neighborhood basis (Chellman 1978). Several insecticides will control the pest, but spray applications must be carefully timed and applied before the young caterpillars bore into twigs.

Ostrinia nubilalis (Hübner)

European corn borer (figure 74)

Hosts. Sycamore, poplar, yellow-poplar, peach, apple, pear. This polyphagous species feeds on plants representing 131 genera of 40 families including grains, grasses, weeds, herbaceous plants, flowers, and trees (Hodgson 1928). Corn is the preferred nonwoody plant. Trees are attacked only occasionally unless growing near heavily infested preferred hosts (Anonymous 1979, Tedders and others 1981).

Range. Introduced into the United States during the early 1900's and spread throughout the corn-growing areas east of the Rocky Mountains (Baerg 1951).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brownish moth with 24- to 29-mm wingspan (figure 74A) (Vinal and Caffrey 1919). Forewings yellowish and brown with some streaking, banding, and spotting; hindwings grayish brown (Vinal and Caffrey 1919). Head covered with light yellowish brown scales. Dorsum of thorax cinnamon brown in males and light yellowish brown in females. ***Egg.*** Circular to oval and slightly convex on upper surface, averaging 0.97 mm long and 0.74 mm wide. Egg surface sculptured with shallow pentagonal pits. When first deposited, eggs opaque to iridescent white and within 2 days assume yellowish tinge (Vinal and Caffrey 1919). ***Larva.*** Measures about 25 mm long with head capsule width of about 2.2 mm when

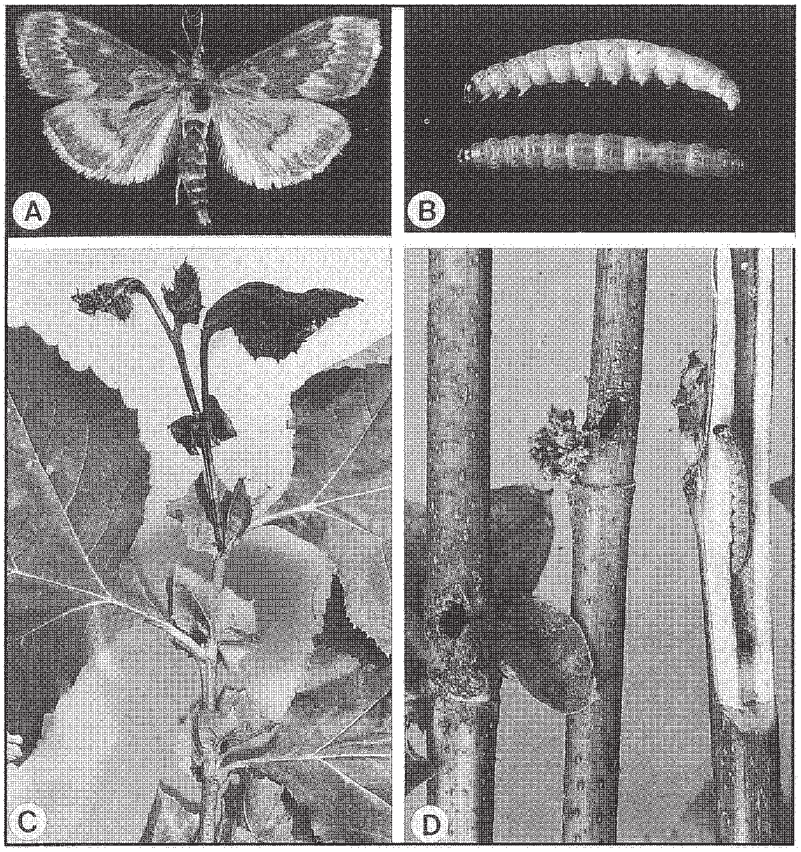


Figure 74—Ostrinia nubilalis, *European corn borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, seedling terminal killed by larva; D, entrance holes, frass, and gallery in sycamore seedlings (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; B-D, specimens courtesy P. Marshall).*

mature (figure 74B). Head and thoracic shields shiny brown and mottled with black. Dirty white to pink body, gray or light brown with narrow, dark brown median line on dorsum; broad, pale brown to pink subdorsal line; and narrow, pale brown lateral line. Fleshy abdominal prolegs bear almost complete circle of crochets (Peterson 1962, Vinal and Caffrey 1919). ***Pupa.*** Light to dark brown and about 14 to 17 mm long. Tenth abdominal segment extended to form dark brown to black cremaster bearing eight long, hooked spines.

Biology. This borer overwinters within tunnels in its host as mature larvae, which pupate in May and emerge as adults during June in Illinois. Females deposit 500 to 600 eggs on leaves of host plants; egg incubation is about 1 week. In herbaceous hosts, young larvae feed on tassels and leaf sheaths and later burrow in stems and fruits. Development of first generation is completed in July; most moths emerge during August. Larvae of the second generation feed on, or within, hosts until the advent of severe winter weather. Larval feeding is resumed during spring. This borer has one or two generations per year (Baerg 1951, Vinal and Caffrey 1919).

Injury and damage. On tree seedlings, the first sign of infestation is rapid wilting and dying of foliage, terminal leaders, and lateral branch tips, which at first may appear to be caused by a leaf disease (figure 74C). Closer inspection reveals large holes, up to 6.5 mm in diameter, in stems just above the lateral leaf axils, or occasionally just below the leaf axils (figure 74D). Noticeable quantities of large granular frass and excrement accumulate near entrances. The larval tunnel, kept relatively free of frass, extends in the pith from the entrance hole almost to the terminal bud and may extend several centimeters below the entrance hole.* On peach seedlings, injury can range from 2-mm-diameter holes in the bark to injuries that cause 10-mm-diameter limbs to break under their own weight. A conspicuous gummy exudate mixed with frass accumulates at larval feeding sites (Tedders and others 1981). In northern Italy, it causes considerable injury in tree nurseries by boring into succulent stems and lateral shoots of poplar seedlings, particularly clones that have strongly developed medullary tissue like that in eastern cottonwood (Anonymous 1979). About 90% of the limbs on 1- and 2-year-old trees in a Georgia peach orchard were damaged by larvae that had migrated late in the season from browntop millet that had been interplanted among the trees (Tedders and others 1981). In a similar case, 30% of the terminal shoots of 1-year-old sycamore nursery stock, and some yellow-poplar seedlings, were tunneled by larvae in an Indiana nursery.* In every recorded instance of significant damage to tree seedlings, more preferred hosts such as corn, cover crops, or weeds, either grew nearby or were interplanted with the trees. In such cases, the trees were attacked in late summer by larvae

*Marshall, P.T. August 31, 1978. (personal communication). Indiana Department of Natural Resources, Vallonia, IN.

that had migrated from the herbaceous plants.

Control. Numerous parasites have been recorded (Arnaud 1978, Krombein and others 1979). Several insect parasites have been introduced from Europe to control the borer, and appreciable results have been obtained in some areas. Populations are adversely affected by dry summers and cold winters. Crows and other birds are effective larval predators (Baerg 1951). Despite many natural enemies of this borer, populations have to be controlled by insecticides, cultural methods, and planting resistant plant varieties. Cultural controls include plowing under infested herbaceous host plants and shredding or storing hosts in silos to destroy hibernating larvae. Several insecticides are registered for control and are effective when properly timed and applied.

Family Thyrididae—Window-winged Moths

This family consists of a small group of moths similar to the pyralids. The adults have clear spaces or hyaline patches and striae on the wings (Borror and others 1981, Holland 1968). The labial palpi extend straight forward or are obliquely upturned and sometimes twice the length of the head. Larvae have five pairs of abdominal prolegs and burrow in twigs, stems, flowers, and seeds.

Genus and Species

Hexeris enhydris (Grote) *192*

Hexeris enhydris (Grote)

[seagrape borer] (figure 75)

Hosts. Seagrape, pigeon plum. Seagrape seems to be the major host (Chellman 1978).

Range. Central and south Florida (Johnson and Lyon 1988).

Description. ***Adult.*** Pale brown to yellowish brown moth with wingspan of 34 to 38 mm (figure 75A) (Chellman 1978, Grote 1875). Forewings have rusty wavy lines on yellowish background and somewhat mottled or subreticulate. Median brown line bent at middle of wing, and united with outer line from costa to form noticeable crooked Y. Undersides of wings with same line marks but narrower than those on upper surface. Labial palpi extend straight forward for more than twice length of head. Antennae simple and short (Grote 1875). ***Larva.*** Head light brown; body pale brown and partially translucent; measures

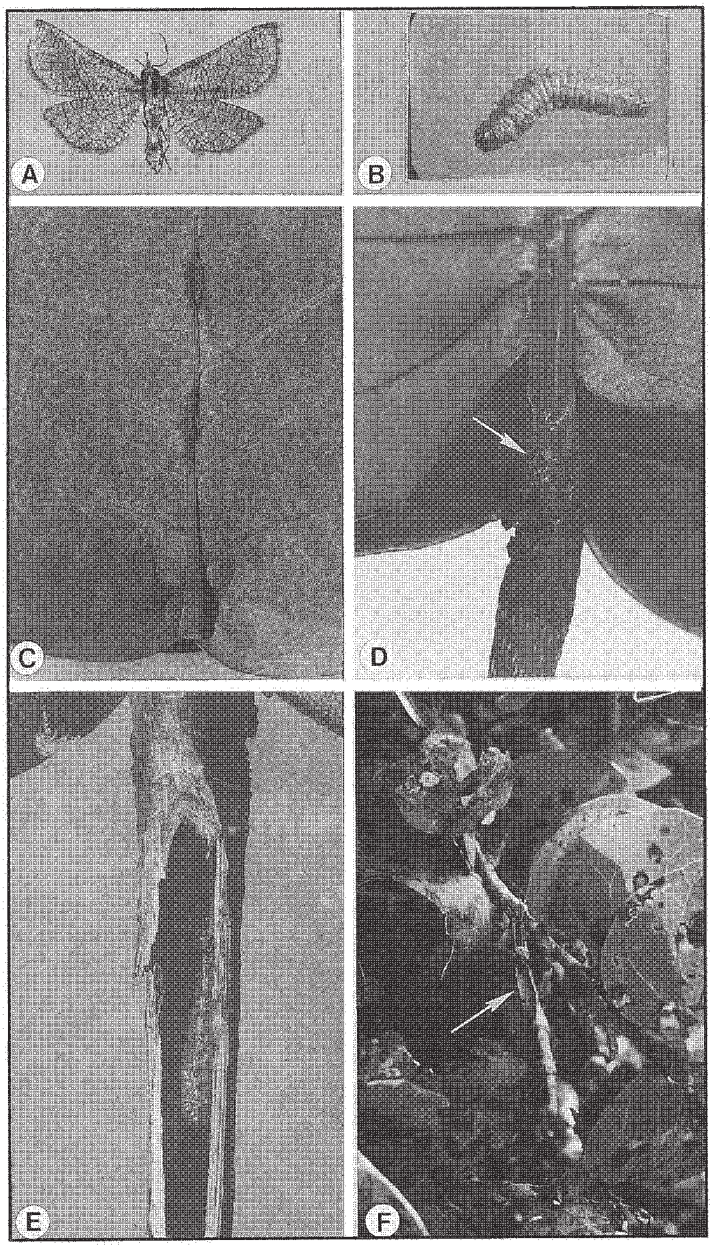


Figure 75—Hexeris enhydris, *[seagrape borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, early injury to leaf midrib; D, entrance hole in infested shoot; E, closeup of gallery with larva; F, seagrape shoot hollowed out by larva (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; B-E, courtesy W. Johnson; F, courtesy C. Chellman).*

15 to 16 mm in length when mature (figure 75B) (Chellman 1978, Johnson and Lyon 1988).

Biology. Adults are present from March to May, July to September, and again in December (Johnson and Lyon 1988). Larvae feed and develop primarily in twigs and leaf petioles and less frequently in main leaf veins. Feeding larvae sometimes completely hollow out leaf petioles and twigs, leaving only shells. Larvae chew one or more small holes along galleries to eject their frass. Pupation occurs within stem galleries. The seagrape borer has at least three generations per year in southern Florida (Chellman 1978).

Injury and damage. Small stems, leaf petioles, and leaf midribs may be attacked (figure 75C) (Chellman 1978, Johnson and Lyon 1988). One or more small round holes with or without small clumps of frass may be found on infested stems (figure 75D). Splitting infested stems reveals the tunnels and sometimes larvae (figure 75E). Infested stems often split, flare open, and die back (figure 75F). When leaf petioles are attacked, the leaves turn brown, causing flagging, which is an excellent diagnostic symptom. Repeated attacks cause serious twig dieback and sometimes mortality of young plants. This borer is the most important pest of seagrape. Infested stems are left weakened and subject to breaking in the wind.

Control. Plants should be frequently inspected throughout the year for evidence of infestation. Infested twigs and leaves should be clipped and destroyed while larvae are present to minimize damage. It can also be controlled with insecticides, although repeated sprayings will probably be necessary. Best control is obtained when sprays are applied before young caterpillars penetrate into twigs.

Family Pterophoridae—Plume Moths

The pterophorids are a small family of frail, elegant moths whose divided wings suggest feathers (Borror and others 1981, Craighead 1950). Forewings are deeply cleft, and the hindwings are split into three feather-like divisions. At rest, the wings are folded close together and held horizontally at right angles to the body. The larvae are dull white with brown or purple markings and bear two forcep-like prongs and long setae on the anal plate. They bore into the stems and roots of shrubs and small trees.

Genus and Species

Oidaematophorus
balanotes (Meyrick) *195*
kellicottii (Fish) *197*
grandis (Fish) *199*

Oidaematophorus balanotes (Meyrick)

[baccharis borer] (figure 76)

Hosts. Baccharis, bayberry. Baccharis and bayberry groups reported as hosts (Cashatt 1972, Forbes 1923); recent unpublished findings suggest that eastern baccharis is a major host.

Range. Primarily a southeastern species, found from southern Florida north to Maryland and New Jersey and west to Texas and Arizona (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Cashatt 1972, Forbes 1923, Kimball 1965).

Description. ***Adult.*** Largest of stem-boring pterophorids, slender-bodied moth with long legs and narrow wings (figure 76A) (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Cashatt 1972, Meyrick 1908). Forewings cleft and brownish white with dark spots at vein tips and indistinct brown dash line extending from base to near cleft. Hindwings pale brown. Wingspan varies from 30 to 42 mm. Light brown to brownish white or tan with indistinctly striped abdomen, whitish antennae, and pale brown legs. ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, oval, and about 0.54 by 0.33 mm. ***Larva.*** Creamy white with brown markings and 18 to 25 mm long when mature (figure 76B). Head dark brown around the mouthparts, with light brown mottling elsewhere. Thoracic shield with brown granulations. Anal plate brown and hardened with two prominent prongs and ringed with long hairs. Crochets in uniordinal semicircle. ***Pupa.*** Slender, tannish brown, and 16 to 22 mm long (figure 76C).

Biology. Adults emerge every month, depending on location (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Cashatt 1972). In Florida, moths have been found during all months, but mostly in late winter and spring. Emergence is recorded during July and August in Maryland, August in Arizona, July and October in South Carolina, and from June to November in Texas; reared entirely during September in Mississippi. Moths deposit eggs on the bark of hosts. Larvae enter the bark and make long, narrow, nearly straight galleries in wood. Most attacks occur in the main stem and less frequently in branches. Entrance holes have been found from just above the groundline to 1.5 m (figure 76D). Larval galleries always enter bark and wood at an oblique angle, and nearly always extend downward into the roots, sometimes as

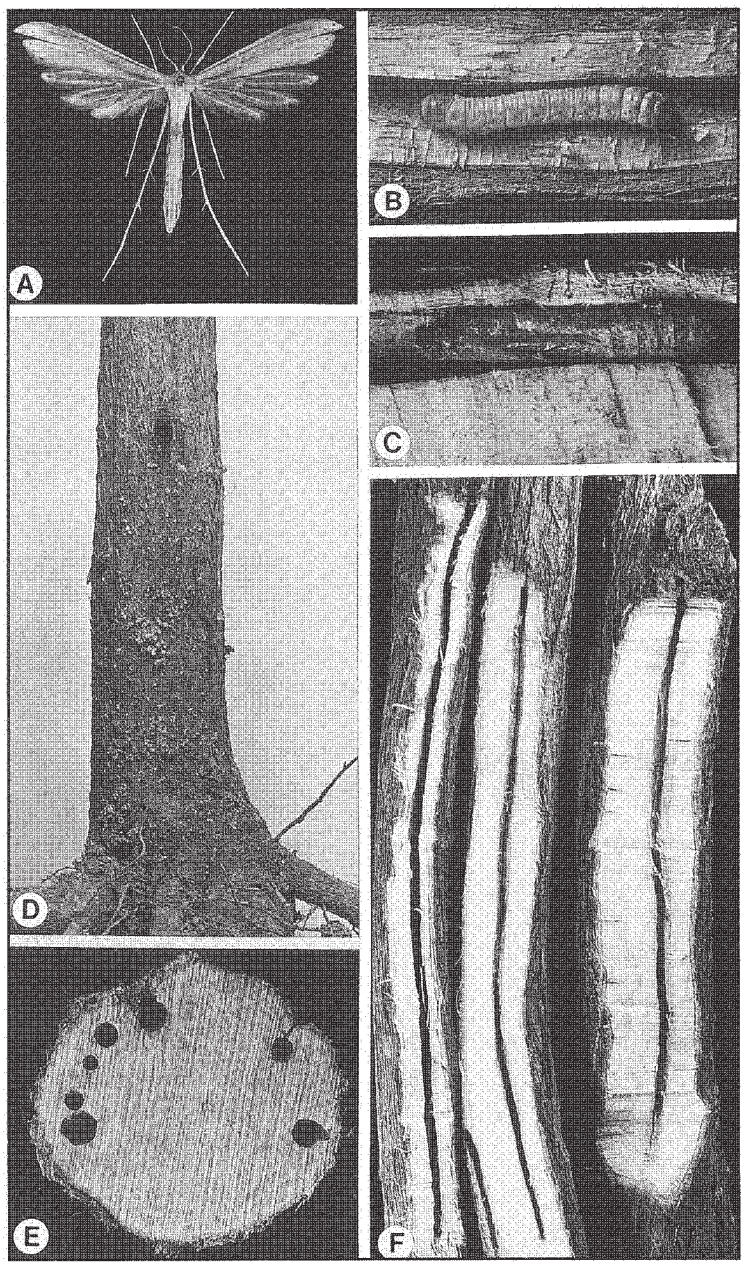


Figure 76—Oidaematophorus balanotes, *[baccharis borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, entrance hole in baccharis stem; E, cross section of stem showing seven round galleries; F, long narrow galleries exposed.*

much as 10 cm below ground. Although the galleries are in the xylem, they are usually only a few millimeters beneath the wood surface (figure 76E). Completed galleries range from 15 to 23 cm long and 4 to 5 mm in diameter. Pupation occurs freely within the gallery for 16 to 19 days, without a pupation chamber. Empty pupal skins at various locations in galleries indicate that moths eclose from the pupae within galleries, unlike many other woodboring Lepidoptera in which the pupae move to the exit holes for adult emergence. There appears to be one generation per year, with considerable overlapping of broods in some areas.

Injury and damage. The earliest evidence of attack is sap-stained spots, often mixed with fine frass on bark. Later, round to oval entrance holes 2 to 4 mm in diameter, often with yellowish white frass adhering to bark below entrances, become noticeable. Dissection of infested stems reveals the long cylindrical nearly straight galleries and sometimes tunneling larvae (figure 76F). Bark occasionally cracks open along shallow galleries and forms long bark scars that show evidence of previous infestation. Small stems, particularly branches, sometimes break at injured sites. Heavy infestations have been found recently in thickets of eastern baccharis near Jackson, Mississippi.

Control. Ichneumonid parasites—*Telelucha* sp.—have been reared from specimens in Mississippi, but rates of parasitism have been low. Direct controls have not been needed. This borer is being studied by Australian scientists as a possible biocontrol agent for weed *Baccharis* spp. in pastures.

Oidaematophorus kellicottii (Fish)

[goldenrod borer] (figure 77)

Hosts. Baccharis, goldenrod. Goldenrod is mentioned as the host in early reports, but recent unpublished findings suggest that baccharis, especially eastern baccharis, is a common host (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Bennett 1963, Cashatt 1972, Kimball 1965).

Range. Like the closely related *O. balanotes*, primarily an eastern species reported from Massachusetts and New York south to southern Florida and west to Colorado and Utah (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Cashatt 1972). Also recorded from Quebec (Forbes 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender-bodied moth with long legs, narrow wings, and cream colored with slightly darker brown markings (figure 77A) (Cashatt 1972, Fernald 1898). Forewing brownish white with indistinct brown dash extending from base, which fades out toward cleft. Hindwings uniformly brownish white with silky luster. Wingspan ranges from 14 to 29 mm. Body light brownish white dusted with brown scales. Distinguished from other stem-boring pterophorids by its smallness and distinct spot at base of wing cleft. ***Larva.*** Creamy white and light brown, and 12 to 18 mm long (figure 77B). Head, thoracic shield, and dorsum of caudal four or five abdominal segments brown. Abdomen terminates into a dark brown anal plate with two pronglike processes and long hairs. ***Pupa.*** Long (10 to 15 mm) and

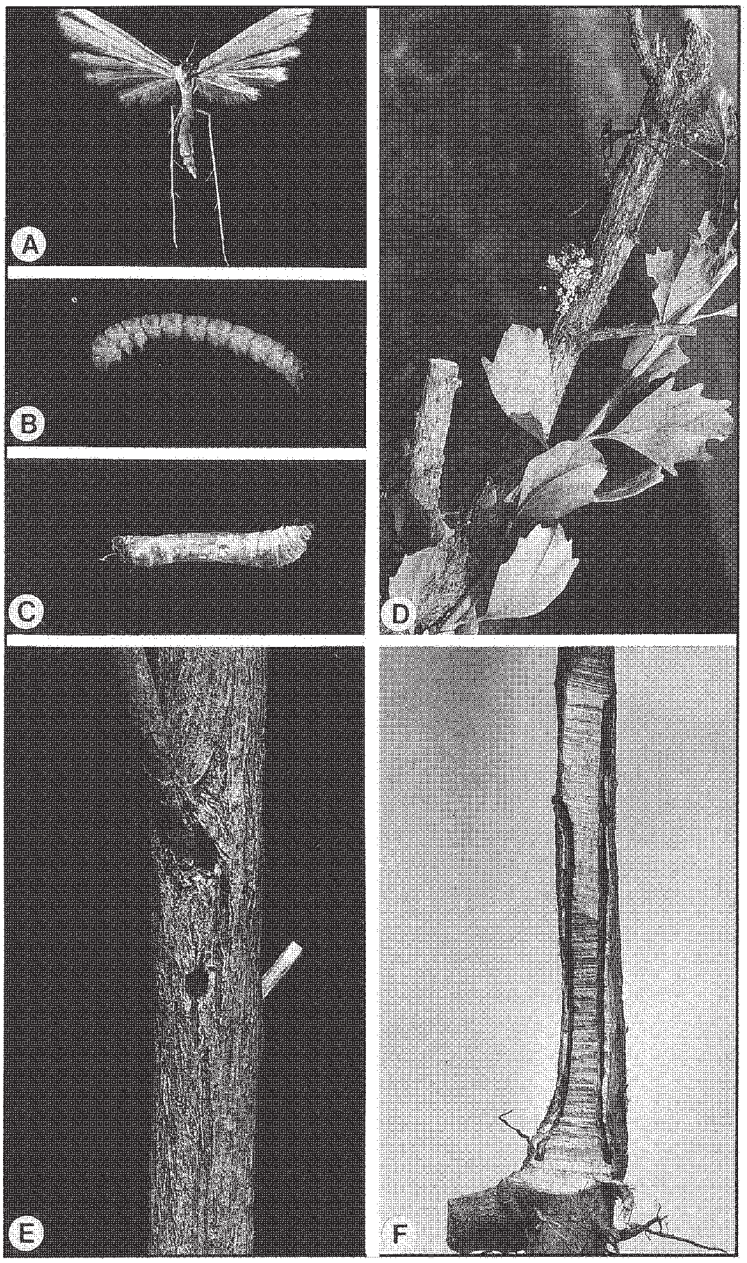


Figure 77—Oidaematophorus kellicottii, *[goldenrod borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, clump of frass on baccharis stem; E, entrance hole on stem; F, stem sawn open to expose two galleries (A, specimen courtesy R. L. Brown).*

slender, light brown (figure 77C).

Biology. Moths emerge during most months, depending on latitude (Cashatt 1972, Kimball 1965). Although most specimens have been collected during June and July, emergence has occurred as early as February in Florida and as late as October in New York. In goldenrod, larvae initially bore into branches (Fernald 1898), but by mid-September they abandon the branches, move down the plant, and bore into the main stem a few centimeters above the groundline. Here, larvae bore downward into the roots, where they overwinter. During spring, larvae work their way back to the aboveground entrances, enlarge the galleries, plug openings loosely with frass and debris, and pupate in the galleries. Empty fresh galleries in main stems of baccharis have been found during fall, indicating the possibility of larval movement. Galleries in baccharis are long and cylindrical, similar to those made by *O. balanotes*, but slightly smaller. This borer has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. New attack sites in baccharis can be recognized by sap oozing from the bark and fine yellowish brown frass in bark crevices. Frass becomes coarse granular and is often clumped at round gallery entrances (figure 77D and E). Long, slender galleries are just beneath the wood surface (figure 77F). Larvae tunnel in the main stem and branches, sometimes causing breakage of host parts.

Control. Nothing is known of natural enemies, and direct controls have not been needed.

Oidaematophorus grandis (Fish)

[coyote brush borer] (figure 78)

Hosts. Coyote brush. Coyote brush is the only host recorded (Cashatt 1972, Grinnell 1908).

Range. Southwestern species recorded only from coastal California, Mexico, and Guatemala (Fernald 1898, Lange 1939). Florida and Maryland have been mentioned in its distribution (Barnes and Lindsey 1921, Lange 1939), but these locations seem unlikely.

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender-bodied moth with long slender legs and narrow forewings cut by fissure or cleft in outer margin (figure 78A) (Cashatt 1972, Fernald 1898, Grinnell 1908). Forewings brownish white, paler toward inner margin with faded dark spots at wing tips. Hindwings pale brownish white to grayish white. Wingspans 30 to 36 mm. Body brownish white with indistinct brown longitudinal line on abdomen. ***Egg.*** Oval, glossy, pale yellowish, and averages 0.52 mm long and 0.31 mm wide (Lange 1939). ***Larva.*** Creamy white with reddish brown or purplish markings (Lange 1939, Peterson 1962, Williams 1909). Mature larvae with dorsal purplish longitudinal line, oblique subdorsal purplish dash on each abdominal segment, purplish dash cephalad on each spiracle, and brown head and thoracic shield (figure 78B). Abdominal segments 9 and 10 transformed dorsally into dark brown chitinous plate equipped with two forceplike prongs and long periphery hairs. Mature larvae 16 to 20 mm long. ***Pupa.*** Long, slender, and cylindrical with head end obliquely truncate.

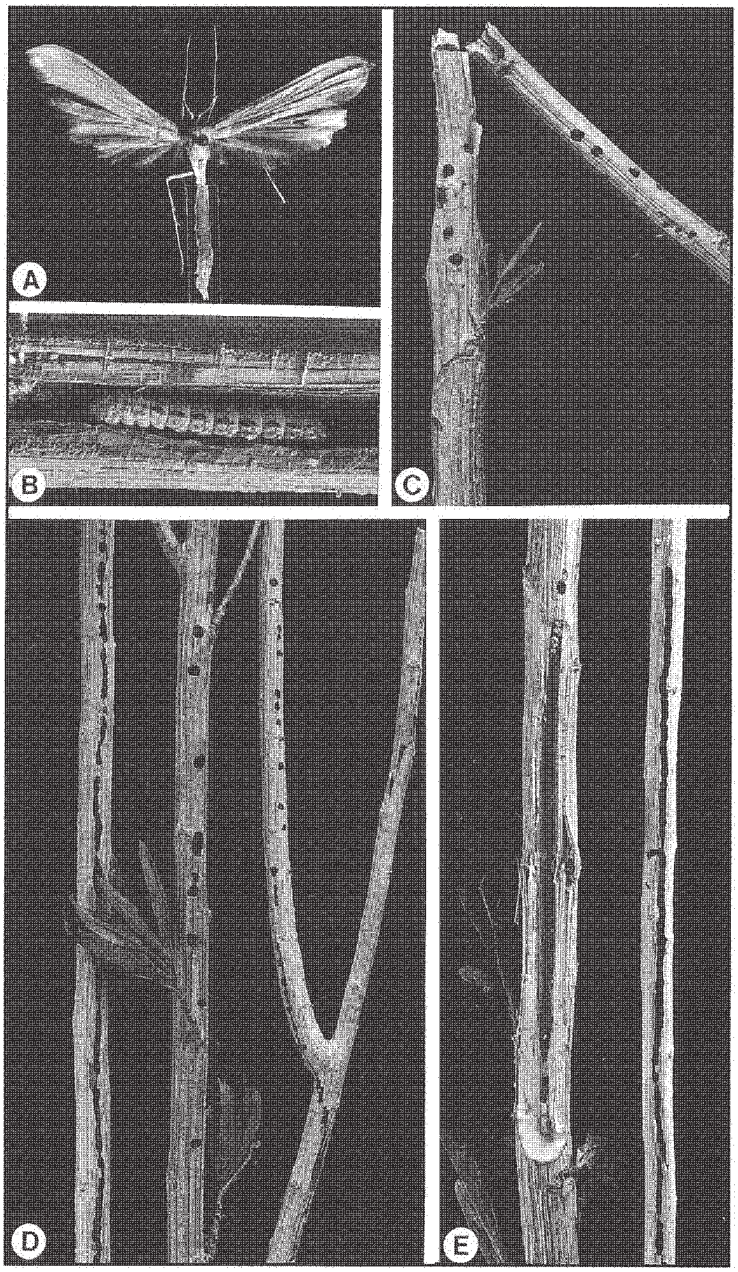


Figure 78—Oidaematophorus grandis, *[coyote brush borer]: A, adult; B, larva in gallery; C, stem broken at weakened site; D, series of holes in coyote brush; E, galleries exposed in stems (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges).*

Biology. In California, adults emerge May to September with the peak in June (Lange 1939, Williams 1909). Moths mate at night, and females deposit eggs on the underside of leaves and on the bark of hosts. Eggs hatch in about 21 days. Larvae bore through the bark and produce long smooth cylindrical galleries in the woody part of the stem just slightly beneath the surface of the sapwood. Galleries sometimes extend below ground level. Several parallel galleries often occur in large stems and are generally quite straight and almost invariably open to the underside of the branch or the leaning side of the trunk. Larvae move freely within the long smooth burrows, which they keep free of frass. Mature larvae pupate within the gallery without forming a pupation chamber. Pupae are generally found some distance from the bottom of the gallery but they are very active and may move considerably within the gallery. There is one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Initially, attack sites can be recognized by oozing sap that stains the bark. Later, white to pale yellowish frass may accumulate at entrances and beneath infested plants (Williams 1909). Broken stems frequently call attention to infestations (figure 78C). Galleries enter the stem at an oblique angle, usually on the underside of branches and the leaning side of main stems. Attacks are most prevalent in the base of the main stem and lower branches (Tilden 1950). Infested stems usually have a series of small holes, more or less in a straight line (figure 78D). Galleries are long and narrow and usually in the center of stems (figure 78E). Weakened stems occasionally break or die back, but most injured parts heal over and recover. First- and second-instar larvae sometimes live as inquilines in stem galls made by other insects, resulting in destruction of the gall interior and its inhabitants (Tilden 1950).

Control. A hymenopterous parasite—*Pimpla pterophorae* Ashmead—has been reared from infested stems (Lange 1939). Other hymenopterous parasite cocoons have been found within larval galleries, but none has been identified (Williams 1909). Direct controls have not been needed.

Family Noctuidae—Owlet Moths

Noctuidae is the largest family of Lepidoptera, but only a few species are borers in trees. The nocturnal habits of the moths and the ability of their eyes to shine brightly in the dark have suggested the name "owlet moths" (Borror and others 1981, Craighead 1950). Moths vary in form, size, and color, but most are medium sized, heavy bodied, and dull in color. The forewings are strong and narrower than hindwings, and when at rest, the wings are held rooflike over the abdomen in a triangular outline. Most larvae are naked with only scattered setae and have five pairs of prolegs. Borer species tunnel in the shoots of host plants.

Genus and Species

Papaipema
nebris (Guenée) *202*
cataphracta (Grote) *205*
furcata (Smith) *207*
Achatodes
zeae (Harris) *209*

Papaipema nebris (Guenée)

stalk borer (figure 79)

Hosts. Sycamore, maple, elm, ash, poplar, catalpa, willow, boxelder, sumac, elder, apple, peach, plum, hawthorn. A polyphagous species that attacks both herbaceous and woody plants; recorded from 176 plant species representing 44 families (Decker 1931, Filer and others 1977). Corn is a preferred cultivated host; other Gramineae and giant ragweed are favored wild hosts. This borer less commonly attacks hardwood trees.

Range. A native insect, occurs throughout the United States east of the Rocky Mountains (Metcalf and other 1962) and from Nova Scotia west to Manitoba (Decker 1931).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust brownish moth with wingspan of 25 to 40 mm (figure 79A) (Decker 1931). Fore-wings varying shades of olive red or purplish brown sprinkled with gray; some have a group of white spots in medial area. Small white spots along distal third of anterior wing margin and white to yellowish line curves toward hind margin. Body reddish brown with white-tipped scales, producing overall mouse gray color. ***Egg.*** Globular, 0.6 by 0.4 mm, and pearly white when first deposited, gradually turning to brownish gray or amber. ***Larva.*** Head light brown with dark brown streak extending from the ocelli to ventral margin of cervical shield (figure 79B) (Peterson 1962). Dirty white body with four broad purplish brown stripes (dorsal and subdorsal) interrupted by distinct band of purplish brown around third thoracic and first three abdominal segments; from 26 to 32 mm long when mature. Prothoracic shield broad, partly divided, and yellowish to light brown with dark lateral stripe. Anal shield yellowish to pale brown. ***Pupa.*** Heavy bodied, brown, and 16 to 22 mm long.

Biology. Moths emerge from mid-August to mid-October (Solomon 1988b). Up to 2,000 eggs are deposited by each female, usually in creases of folded or rolled leaves of dead, dry grasses and weeds (Metcalf and others1962). Eggs overwinter

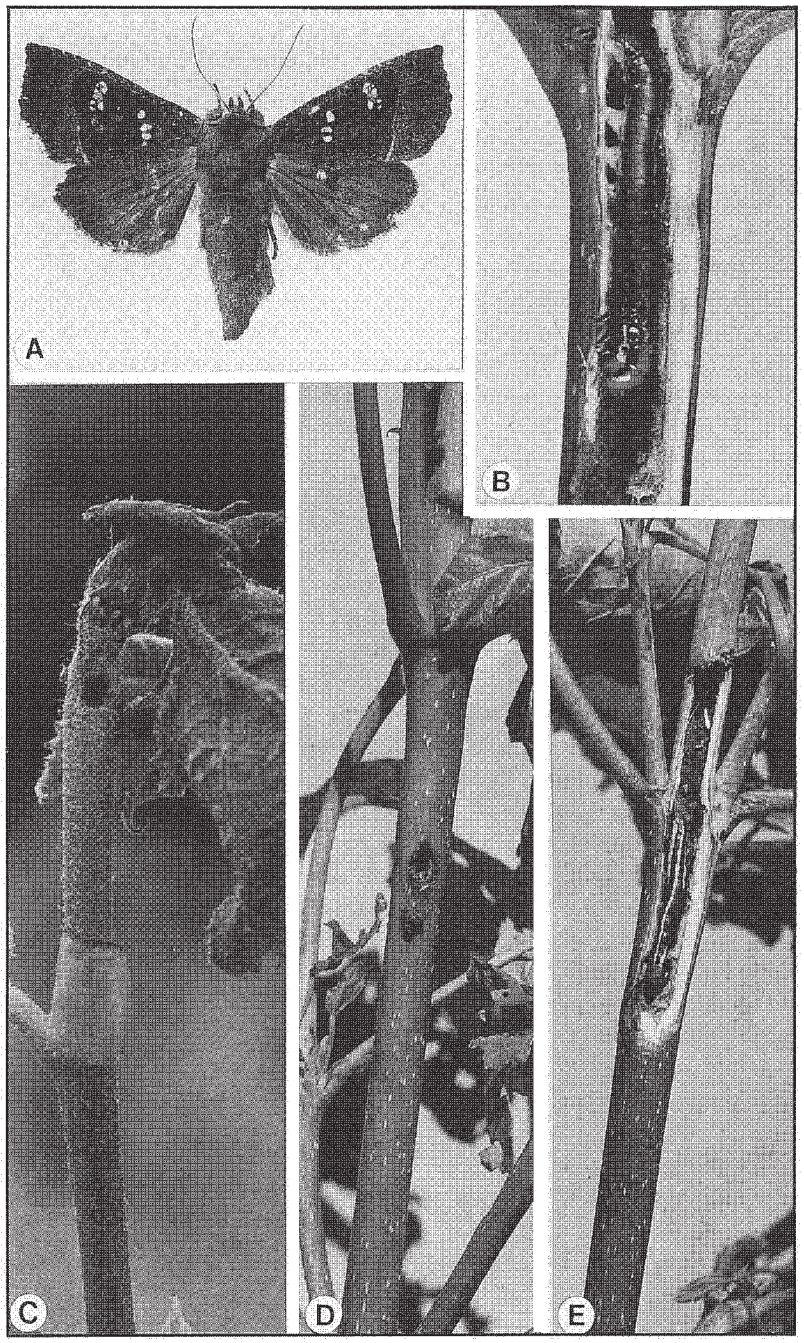


Figure 79—Papaipema nebris, *stalk borer: A, adult; B, larva in gallery; C, dying sycamore shoot with entrance hole; D, entrance hole with frass in silver maple; E, gallery exposed.*

and hatch the following May or June. Newly hatched larvae burrow in the stems of grasses and small-stemmed weeds and continually seek larger succulent stems as they grow (Decker 1931). It is usually during the late stages of development that larvae migrate from herbaceous plants and attack young trees. Larvae wander considerably during development, and each may feed on several shoots of the same plant, several plants, or on many different species of plants (McDaniel 1935). Small larvae usually enter herbaceous plants near their base and burrow upward; however, as larvae grow, they may bore into stems at any point, usually burrowing toward tips (Decker 1931). Larvae keep their galleries fairly free of frass, expelling it from the entrance holes. Larvae have been reported to molt from 7 to 14 times and require from 60 to 130 days to develop (Decker 1931). Full-grown larvae usually abandon their hosts and move to the ground, where they form oval cells below the soil surface in which to pupate. Occasionally, larvae will remain in their hosts, forming pupal chambers of frass and silk at the bottoms of their tunnels (Decker 1931). Pupation occurs from late July to late August and averages 25 days (Decker 1931). This species has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Sudden wilting, drooping, and dying of succulent current year's growth, particularly terminals, on young trees during late spring and summer is the first evidence (figure 79C) (Filer and others 1977, Solomon 1988b). Closer inspection reveals larval entrance holes about 3 mm in diameter near the base of injured terminals or branches. Frass with distinct excrement pellets mixed with sap are ejected from entrance holes and are often present on the bark or foliage beneath (figure 79D) (McDaniel 1935). Larvae tunnel in the stem center (figure 79E) and often consume most of the woody contents of shoots; such weakened branch tips break off readily. Many branch tips on young trees can be damaged in a short time. Larvae prefer thick-stemmed herbaceous plants. This borer occasionally infests succulent current-year shoots of young deciduous trees and woody shrubs. Economically significant damage to trees rarely occurs over wide areas, but noticeable losses sometimes occur in nurseries and young plantations and, to a lesser extent, to young trees in natural stands (Solomon 1988b).

Control. The most important control in forest tree nurseries and young hardwood plantations is to destroy breeding sites by thoroughly cleaning up host weeds in fall and winter. Mowing fence rows and field borders is effective but must be done about mid-August just before oviposition. Mowing too early will drive larvae into susceptible crops (Metcalf and others 1962). Damage can sometimes be reduced on young trees if the wilted tips are promptly pruned below the injury and destroyed. Populations are adversely affected by many hymenopterous and dipterous parasites (Arnaud 1978, Krombein and others 1979); predaceous birds, mammals, and insects; and diseases (Decker 1931). Chemical controls may be needed occasionally.

Papaipema cataphracta (Grote)

burdock borer (figure 80)

Hosts. Cottonwood, boxelder, elder. Over 30 hosts—mostly large-rooted thick-stemmed herbaceous plants—have been reported (Tietz 1972). Burdock and thistle are favored wild hosts (Bird 1898). Broadleaf trees are occasionally attacked.

Range. Occurs from the northeast Atlantic Coastal region west through New York and Pennsylvania to Minnesota and Colorado (Forbes 1954) and south to Mississippi.

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust yellowish brown moth with wingspan of 30 to 35 mm (figure 80A). Forewings generally straw yellow, scaled, with grayish brown markings (Forbes 1954). Yellow spot on apex of each forewing. ***Larva.*** About 29 to 35 mm long (figure 80B). Head pale yellowish brown with darker brown at posterior margin. Cervical shield light brown with darker brown longitudinal stripes along each side. Pale white body with four broad purplish brown stripes along entire length of body. These continuous body stripes distinguish *P. cataphracta* from *P. nebris*, which has stripes interrupted on first three abdominal segments by purplish brown band (Decker 1931). ***Pupa.*** Chestnut brown, generally smooth except for dorsal punctations, about 14 mm long, cremaster with two small downward-pointing spines.

Biology. Moths emerge from early September to early October (Decker 1931, Drake and Decker 1927, Knutson 1944). Females deposit up to 2,000 eggs in the creases of rolled or folded leaf blades of dead grasses and weeds; there, eggs overwinter and hatch the following spring. Initially, newly hatched larvae burrow into stems of weeds. When the larvae are 2 to 6 weeks old, they leave their initial herbaceous hosts and move to new hosts, which can be thick-stemmed woody plants. Most reports indicate May as the time that larvae infest tree shoots, but infestations have been observed through July and early August (Solomon 1988b). Field and cage studies show that typical larvae wander considerably during development and repeatedly burrow into susceptible shoots for 1 to 2 weeks, abandon them, and seek larger shoots. In cages over clumps of cottonwood sprouts, single larvae have tunneled up to 12 separate shoots. In late July to early September, full-grown larvae in cottonwood shoots usually abandon galleries and move to the ground, where they form pupation sites of loose silk and frass just below the soil surface or under debris. A few larvae remain in their hosts and simply enlarge tunnels in the shoots to form pupation chambers. The pupal stage lasts 25 to 33 days. This borer has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Injury in cottonwood nurseries in Mississippi usually becomes noticeable from late April to early May, when coppice sprouts are 30 to 60 cm tall (figure 80C) (Solomon 1988b). Injured stems are easily detected by wilting and drooping shoots with browning or blackening leaves. Examination of damaged shoots often reveals round entrance holes 2 to 3 mm in

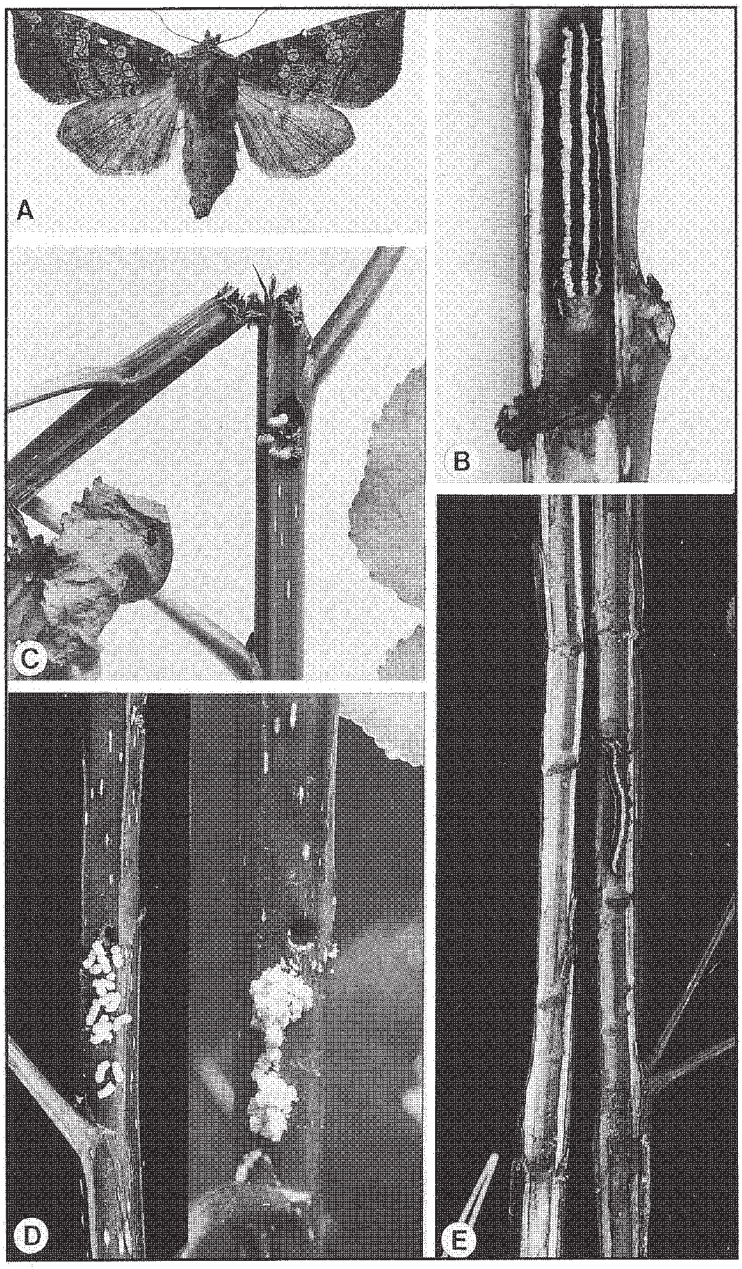


Figure 80—Papaipema cataphracta, *burdock borer: A, adult; B, larva in gallery; C, cottonwood shoot broken at weakened site; D, entrance holes with frass on infested shoots; E, stem split to expose tunnel and larva.*

diameter and 8 to 30 cm below the shoot tops (figure 80D). Entrance holes usually are kept open but occasionally loosely plugged with frass. Frass is sometimes fragmented and mixed with oozing sap on the stem just below entrance holes. More typically, frass consists mostly of distinctly white, cylindrical excrement pellets 1 to 2 mm in diameter and 2 to 3 mm long near entrance holes and on the ground below. Dissection of damaged cottonwood shoots reveals galleries in the centers extending in either direction from the entrance holes but usually upward or distally (figure 80E). Active galleries are kept open and mostly free of frass, and are 2 to 4 cm long. Occasionally branch tips and the aboveground part of seedling tree stems are killed (Washburn 1910). Young cottonwood trees have been moderately infested and damaged in some areas. In surveys, 4 to 12% of the coppice shoots in cottonwood nurseries in Mississippi have been attacked. About three-fourths of the infested shoots die back or break (Solomon 1988b).

Control. Larvae are extensively parasitized by *Chasmias scelestus* (Cresson) (Carlson 1979), *Exorista* sp., *Gyrmnochaeta ruficornis* (Williston), *Lixophaga variabilis* (Coquillett), *Lydella radicis* (Townsend), and *Winthemia rufopicta* (Bigot) (Arnaud 1978, Washburn 1910). Tree nurseries and young plantations can be protected from infestation by plowing under cover-crop refuse and weeds adjoining new plantings during autumn or early spring. Fence rows of weeds and grasses near tree plantings can also be burned during winter to destroy borer eggs (Drake and Decker 1927). Insecticides timed to correspond to earliest attacks can help minimize losses.

Papaipema furcata (Smith)

[ash shoot borer] (figure 81)

Hosts. Ash, boxelder, buttonbush. White, black, and green ashes reported as hosts (Bird 1915, Leonard 1928). Also observed recently in boxelder and buttonbush.

Range. Occurs from New Hampshire west to Iowa, Minnesota, and Manitoba and south to Mississippi (Forbes 1954).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust yellowish brown moth with wingspan of 33 to 45 mm (figure 81A) (Forbes 1954). Forewings light straw yellow, dusted with pale brown, with gray-brown wavy markings and several white dots. ***Larva.*** Head yellowish brown with dark chestnut brown markings (figure 81B) (Franklin 1908). Cervical shield yellowish brown with darker margins and with small dark spot on each side. Body mostly pale grayish flesh color to light purple; about 30 mm long when mature. Mid-dorsal pale stripe absent on anterior abdominal segments in all except first instar (Crumb 1956). This character distinguishes *P. furcata* from *P. nebris*, which has a mid-dorsal pale stripe. Black anal shield.

Biology. Moths emerge from late August to early September (Forbes 1954) and deposit eggs in early fall, presumably near branch tips (Bird 1915). Eggs lay dormant through winter and hatch early the following May. Newly hatched larvae enter succulent

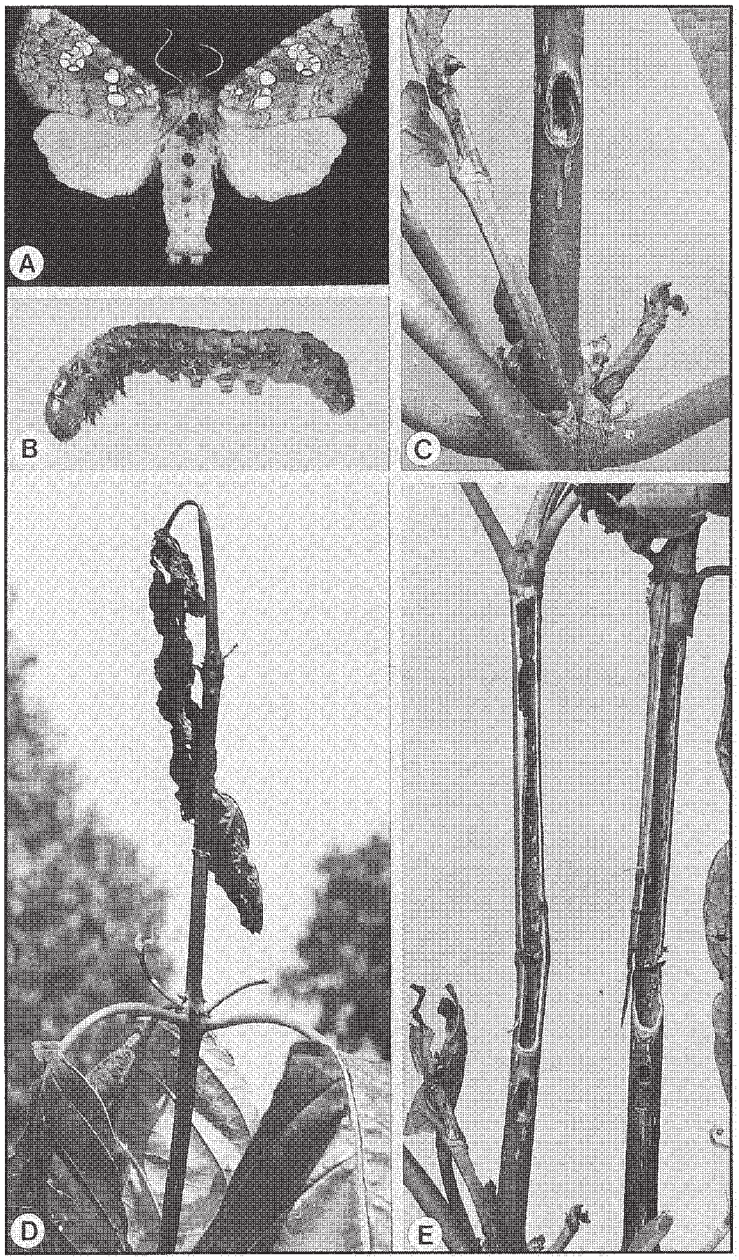


Figure 81—Papaipema furcata, *[ash shoot borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, entrance hole in shoot; D, buttonbush shoot killed by larva; E, galleries exposed in shoots (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges).*

new growth near the attachment of terminal leaves; they feed for a short time, leave the current growth, and move to the previous year's growth, where they usually enter just below the site of the winter bud. Mature larvae vacate their tunnels through oval exit holes (figure 81C) and move to the soil where pupation occurs for about 30 days. The ash shoot borer has one generation per year (Knutson 1944).

Injury and damage. The first signs of infestation are withered and dead leaves near the tips of the current shoot growth (figure 81D). Open round entrance holes about 2 mm in diameter are found several centimeters below shoot tips (figure 81C). Young larvae expel considerable frass from entrance holes on the new growth. Frass extrusion is not as apparent when older larvae leave the new growth and enter the previous year's growth (Bird 1915). Dissection of infested shoots will reveal the tunnels usually extending toward the apex (figure 81E). New growth on hundreds of young ash trees in nurseries has been destroyed by this borer (Knutson 1944). Scattered light damage has been observed in natural stands of young green ash, boxelder, and buttonbush in Mississippi.

Control. There is little information on natural enemies. The severity of injury to young trees might be reduced by carefully inspecting new growth in late May and June and then pruning and destroying infested tips before larvae begin to enter older wood. Properly timed application of insecticides may be needed occasionally in nurseries and young plantations.

Achatodes zeae (Harris)

elder shoot borer (figure 82)

Hosts. Elder, alder. Elders, both wild and ornamental, are the major hosts (Silver 1933, Tietz 1972). Alder and some herbaceous plants may rarely be hosts.

Range. Maine south to Florida and Alabama and west to Louisiana, Iowa, and Wisconsin (Silver 1933). Its range appears to correspond to that of American elder, one of its preferred hosts.

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust reddish brown moth with hairy body and wingspan ranging from 28 to 34 mm (figure 82A); female slightly larger than male (Silver 1933). Forewings rusty red and mottled with gray with brownish yellow spot near tips; hindwings yellowish gray. Head and thorax reddish, mixed with yellow. Abdomen fiery red above and dark brown below. ***Egg.*** Round and somewhat flattened with surface roughened and pebblelike around periphery and smooth and glossy in center. Eggs change from white to tan soon after deposition and measure about 0.61 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white with black head, thoracic shield, anal shield, pinacula, thoracic legs, and spiracles; 23 to 33 mm when fully grown (figure 82B). The thoracic shield is broad with a well-defined median line. The strongly chitinized anal shield has a rough surface and bears six prominent tubercles on the posterior margin (Godfrey 1987). ***Pupa.*** Initially tan but gradually changes to reddish brown and range from 17 to 21 mm long. The abdomen terminates in a short, broadly truncated ridge or process bearing four short, heavy spines.

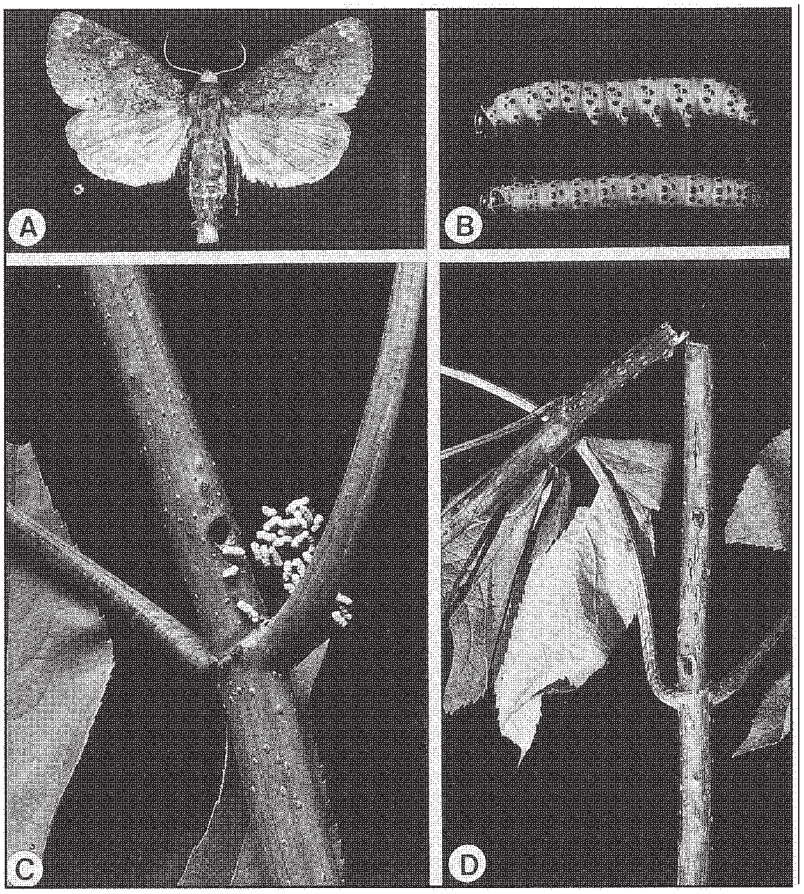


Figure 82—Achatodes zeae, *elder shoot borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, entrance hole in elder shoot with white excrement pellets; D, stem broken at weakened site (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges).*

Biology. Moths emerge during July, mate, and oviposit nocturnally (Silver 1933). Females deposit 150 to 500 eggs in small clusters averaging about 18 eggs per cluster; adjoining eggs occur in more or less straight rows that do not overlap. Eggs, deposited in crevices or tight bark folds of dead branches or shoots, usually between the inner bark and wood, are held firmly in place in a gluelike substance secreted by the female (Breakey 1930). Eggs deposited in July overwinter and hatch in late April and early May. Newly hatched larvae feed inconspicuously among unfolding leaves of lateral branches until the third or fourth instar and then migrate to succulent sprouts (Silver 1933). Larvae usually make entrance holes near the base of new sprouts, typically 3 to 5 cm above ground level. Although larvae may tunnel in either direction, most move upward, sometimes nearly to the apex of shoots. Larvae usually complete development in single large shoots but may vacate small shoots and seek others to complete their feeding. Occasionally, two or more larvae will develop in a shoot. Larvae feed for 35 to 68 days, completing development about the first week of June (Herrick 1935). When ready to pupate, larvae abandon current shoots and seek dry, dead, vertical shoots that they enter through holes made by larvae of previous infestations. Larvae burrow through the pith of the old, dry shoots for up to 20 cm, packing frass behind them. Eventually, larvae turn sharply and cut exit holes, either completely through or almost through, to the bark surface where pupation occurs. Exit holes are partially or completely plugged with loose, coarse frass, or occasionally closed-off with thin layers of tightly woven silken threads. Pupation lasts about 15 to 18 days. It completes one generation per year (Breakey 1930, Herrick 1935).

Injury and damage. Earliest signs of attack consist of holes 2 to 3 mm in diameter with sappy frass being ejected. Eventually, round holes 3 to 5 mm in diameter and large quantities of frass, consisting mostly of white excrement pellets, become noticeable (figure 82C). Infested shoots often wilt, droop over, and sometimes die or break off (figure 82D). Heavily damaged ground sprouts may not succumb but often fail to produce new shoots the next year (Breakey 1930, Silver 1933). By slicing infested stems longitudinally during summer, one can observe long larval galleries in the pith. Galleries are kept partially clear of frass. Although injury by this borer is most common in wild hosts, economically damaging injury has been reported only where elder has been grown commercially or where ornamentals have been destroyed or badly disfigured (Silver 1933).

Control. Birds, rodents, and parasites are important natural enemies. Studies have shown that as many as 20% of the pupae are destroyed by woodpeckers. Four hymenopterous larval parasites and seven hymenopterous pupal parasites were reported in Wisconsin studies (Breakey 1930, Krombein and others 1979). Several

tachinid parasites have also been found in other localities (Arnaud 1978). This borer can be controlled by collecting and burning, during fall and winter, old dead elder branches and shoots on which eggs have been deposited (Herrick 1935, Silver 1933).

Order Coleoptera—Beetles

Beetles comprise the largest order of insects, including the largest group of borers, and can be distinguished by their hard leathery forewings (elytra) that meet in a straight line along the middle of the back (Borror and others 1981, Craighead 1950). The elytra cover the long membranous hindwings used for flying. Some beetles have their heads drawn out into more or less elongated snouts, with mouth parts at the end. Larvae vary considerably in form and habits, but most are white to yellowish with dark heads and light to amber thoracic shields, elongate, rounded to flattened bodies, and straight to crescent shapes. They feed in shoots, branches, trunks, and roots of healthy, weakened, dying, and dead trees, and in green logs and moist lumber. Some are very specific as to host part and condition. Economically, the beetles are the most important order of forest insects. They cause huge losses to standing timber through degrade, decline, and mortality; to shade and ornamental trees and shrubs through esthetic damage and mortality; and to seedlings in nurseries, plantations, seed orchards, and natural stands through growth loss, stem deformation, and mortality.

Family

Buprestidae *213*
Bostrichidae *284*
Lymexylidae *290*
Cerambycidae *294*
Brentidae *476*
Curculionidae *479*
Scolytidae *503*
Platypodidae *578*

Family Buprestidae—Flatheaded Borers

The buprestids are a large important family of borers. The adults are flattened and elliptical or oval and often beautifully marked with black, copper, green, or blue, often with a metallic luster (Craighead 1950, Furniss and Carolin 1977). Larvae are typically "flatheaded," a condition produced by the enlargement of the first and sometimes second and third thoracic segments that is so characteristic as to readily distinguish them from all other larvae found in trees. The adults are most active on sunny days and are commonly observed running rapidly over the bark, stopping frequently to oviposit. A few species attack healthy trees; most prefer weakened, injured, dying, or recently dead trees. A number of species mine in the cambium of branches, trunks, and roots, some bore extensively in the wood, and others feed in both sites. Larval galleries are flattened, oval in cross section, winding, and always packed tightly with frass. Some make spiral galleries around small stems. Emerging beetles leave characteristic oval, elliptical, D-shaped, or round holes in the bark. Some economically important species girdle and kill trees; several hasten the death of weakened trees; some cause degrade in wood products sawn from infested trees and logs; and others act as gallmakers or twig pruners.

Genus and Species

Agrilus
bilineatus (Weber) *214*
anxius Gory *217*

horni Kerremans *220*
granulatus granulatus (Say) *222*
granulatus liragus Barter and Brown *224*
granulatus populi Fisher *227*
criddlei Frost *227*
politus (Say) *229*
burkei Fisher *230*
pensus Horn *232*
acutipennis Mannerheim *234*
angelicus Horn *237*
arcuatus torquatus LeConte *239*
otiosus Say *242*
juglandis Knull *244*
cephalicus LeConte *244*
difficilis Gory *246*
champlaini Frost *249*
sayi Saunders *249*
masculinus Horn *252*
vittaticollis Randall *254*
sinuatus (Olivier) *256*
crataegi Frost *258*
fuscipennis Gory *260*
ruficollis (Fabricius) *262*
aurichalceus Redtenbacher *264*
Eupristocerus
cogitans Weber *265*
Chrysobothris
femorata (Olivier) *267*
mali Horn *270*
bacchari Van Dyke *272*
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Descarpentriesina
cyanipes (Say) *274*
californica Chamberlin *276*
thureura (Say) 277
Dicerca
lepida LeConte *277*
pugionata (Germar) *279*
tenebrica (Kirby) *280*
Texania
campestris (Say) *280*
Ptosima
gibbicollis (Say) *282*

Agrilus bilineatus (Weber)

twolined chestnut borer (figure 83)

Hosts. Chestnut, oak, beech. American chestnut was the primary host before chestnut blight killed most of it during the early to middle years of this century (Chapman 1915). Since then, the oaks including white, scarlet, bur, northern red, black, chestnut, water, Nuttall, and live oaks are preferred hosts (Dunbar and Stephens 1976). A variety of *A. bilineatus* called "carpini" occasionally attacks American hornbeam, eastern hophornbeam, and honeylocust (Cote and Allen 1980, Fisher 1928).

Range. Indigenous to North America (Cote and Allen 1980). Occurs in southeastern Canada southward throughout the eastern and central United States and westward to Texas and the Rocky Mountains (Dunbar and Stephens 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slightly flattened bluish black beetle, usually with light yellowish or whitish pubescent stripe on each elytron, 6 to 12 mm long (figure 83A) (Solomon and others 1987). ***Egg***. Oval, somewhat flattened, and about 1 mm long (Chapman 1915). ***Larva.*** White, slender, flattened, with brown anal forceps at rear end; grows to about 25 mm long (figure

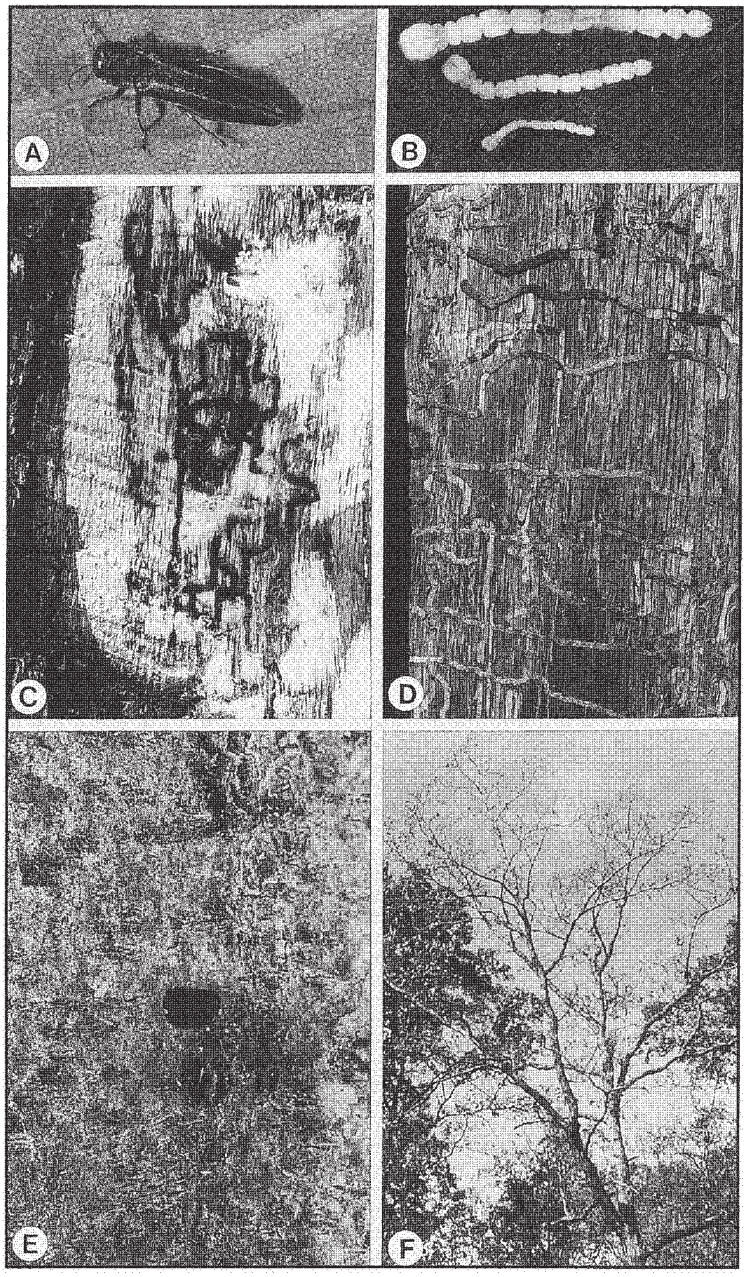


Figure 83—Agrilus bilineatus, *twolined chestnut borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, galleries under bark of living tree; D, galleries beneath bark of dying tree; E, D-shaped exit hole in bark; F, oak tree dying from larval attacks (A, B, D, E, courtesy R. Haack).*

83B) (Solomon and others 1987).

Biology. Adults emerge May through August and live about 2 weeks (Dunbar and Stephens 1974, 1976). They feed on leaves of many trees but prefer those of their hosts. Females, attracted to host volatiles, oviposit in bark crevices, preferring the bottom of crevices in rough bark. From 1 to 10 eggs are usually laid in a cluster (Chapman 1915). Eggs hatch in 10 to 14 days, and the larvae burrow through the bark and begin feeding between the bark and wood (Solomon and others 1987). Feeding ceases in autumn, and larvae burrow outward in the bark. Larvae overwinter in pupal chambers constructed just beneath the outer surface of the bark. In spring, pupation begins, and the transformed adults emerge through characteristic D-shaped holes. Usually, there is one generation per year; however, 2 years may be required in its northern range. Complex associations with other organisms sometimes exist. Along with defoliation caused by the gypsy moth, interaction between the borer and the shoestring fungus—*Armillaria mellea* (Vahl. ex Fr.) Karst—may be partially responsible for death of oaks (Wargo 1977). Other borer–fungus interactions include the fungi *Endothia parasitica* (Murrill) and *Ceratocystis fagacearum* (Bretz) (Dunbar and Stephens 1976) and at least six species of secondary borers (Cote and Allen 1980).

Injury and damage. Attacks usually begin in the upper branches of the crown and progress downward as the tree weakens (Solomon and others 1987). Feeding larvae excavate zigzag or meandering mines in the inner bark and on the surface of the main trunk (figure 83C and D) and larger branches (Dunbar and Stephens 1976). Principal injury results from larvae feeding in phloem and cambium. When translocation is interrupted as a result of larval feeding in the cambium, sudden wilting and browning of foliage in the tree tops occur. D-shaped emergence holes in the bark of weakened and dying trees provide good evidence of infestation (figure 83E). Weakened trees usually die (figure 83F) during the season of initial attack, but most healthy trees that are infested take 1 to 3 years to die (Dunbar and Stephens 1974). Population densities up to 73 larvae per square meter in dying trees have been measured. Red and white oaks throughout the eastern United States are the principal economically important trees attacked. Trees stressed by drought, insect defoliation, or other factors are most susceptible (Dunn and others 1987). Feeding larvae destroy cambium and girdle the tree, causing extensive mortality in weakened stands (Solomon and others 1987). The insect can increase in numbers rapidly and bring about large-scale mortality. In some areas, as many as 75% of the infested trees may be killed. When weakened trees are scarce and the beetles numerous, healthy trees may be severely damaged.

Control. Insect parasites affecting populations include *Atanycolus simplex* Cresson, *Spathius simillimus* Ashmead, and *Trichogramma* sp. (Dunbar and Stephens 1976); *Phasgonophora sulcata* Westwood and *Wroughtonia ligator* (Say) (Cote and Allen 1980); and *Doryctes anatolikus* Marsh

(Marsh 1979). Predaceous insects reported are *Adelocera oculatus* LeConte and *Tenebrioides bimaculatus* (Melsheimer) (Dunbar and Stephens 1976), *Phyllobaenus* sp., *P. verticalis* (Say), and *T. corticalis* (Melsheimer) (Cote and Allen 1980). Birds prey on larvae, pupae, and adults. Large numbers of adults were recovered from the stomach of a wood thrush (Dunbar and Stephens 1976). The northern downy woodpecker and the eastern hairy woodpecker prey on prepupae and pupae, sometimes consuming up to three-fourths of local populations (Cote and Allen 1980). Host condition is a major factor regulating populations. Larvae in trees that die and dry too quickly may be unable to complete development, whereas those boring in vigorous hosts may be engulfed in new growth or phloem exudate (Dunbar and Stephens 1976). Good sanitation—cutting and using or burning infested and dying trees—helps to alleviate the problem. Fell-and-leave before mid-July will ensure high larval mortality (Haack and Benjamin 1980a). From mid-July through August, larvae can be killed by debarking felled trees. Afterwards, infested bark must be chipped, burned, or sprayed to kill larvae. Insecticides sometimes may be useful in managing populations (Haack and Benjamin 1980b).

Agrilus anxius Gory

bronze birch borer (figure 84)

Hosts. Birch. Principal hosts are paper and water birches but other species of birch, including yellow, gray, western paper, sweet, and horticultural cut-leaf weeping birches are also attacked (Carlson and Knight 1969, MacAloney 1968). Reported on beech and aspen, but the species attacking aspen is the related borer *A. granulatus liragus* Barter and Brown.

Range. Throughout the range of birches in Canada from Newfoundland to British Columbia and in the United States from Maine westward to Idaho and Washington and south to Missouri (Carlson and Knight 1969, MacAloney 1968).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slighty flattened, olive-black beetle, sometimes with faint coppery reflections (figure 84A). Females 7.7 to 11.3 mm long; males 6.5 to 9.8 mm. Males with greenish frons, females with copper bronze. ***Egg.*** Oval, flattened on two sides, and 1.3 to 1.5 mm long and 0.8 to 1.0 mm wide (figure 84B). Initially creamy white, but becomes yellowish before hatching (Barter 1957). ***Larva.*** All larval instars originally whitish, acquiring creamy or yellowish brown tint when feeding on discolored cambium. Ranges from 2.5 mm long when newly hatched to 38 mm at maturity. Larvae (figure 84C) with moderately wide second thoracic segment and flat ribbonlike abdominal segments (Barter 1957). ***Pupa.*** Creamy white, darkens during development (figure 84D) (MacAloney 1968).

Biology. Adults emerge late May to August, depending on seasonal temperatures and location. After feeding on foliage, adults may live 3 weeks (MacAloney 1968). Oviposition begins about 1 week after adults emerge. Females prefer to oviposit in bark crevices beneath loose pieces of outer bark. They lay eggs singly or in clusters of up to 14, and the eggs hatch in about 2 weeks

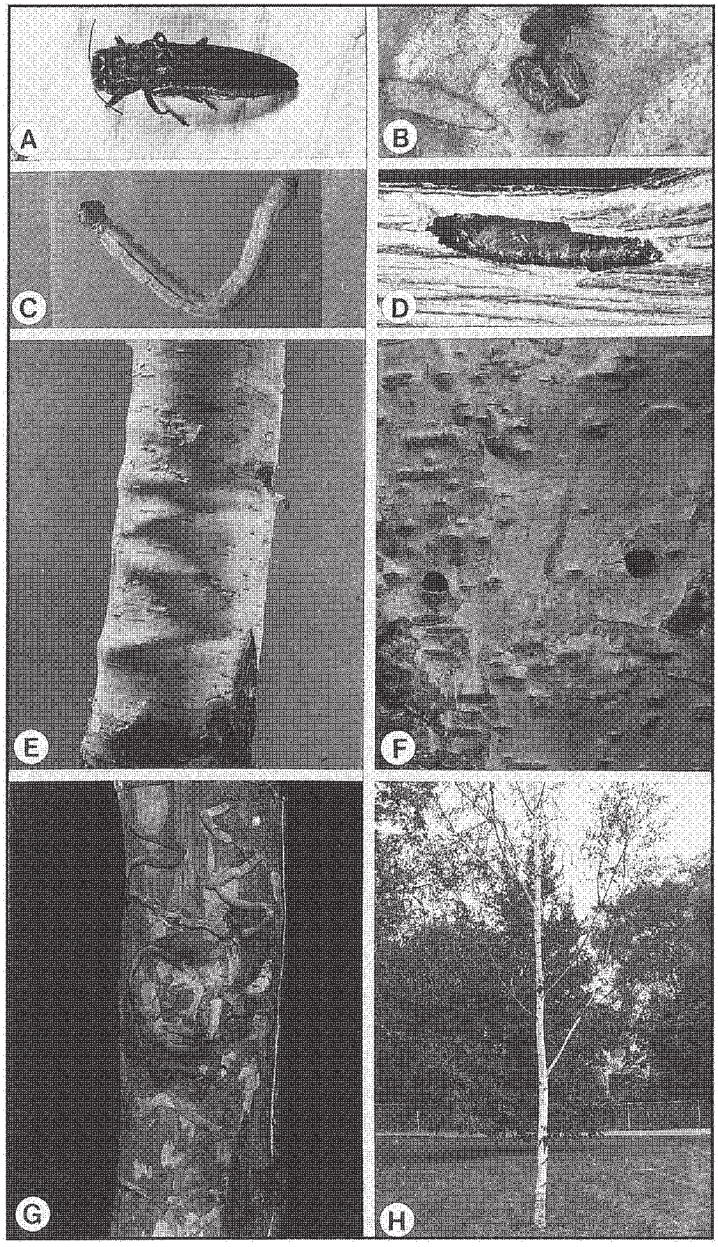


Figure 84—Agrilus anxius, *bronze birch borer: A, adult; B, eggs; C, larva; D, pupa in pupal chamber; E, swellings on bark; F, D-shaped emergence holes; G, galleries beneath bark; H, birch tree dying from borer attacks (A, B, D, courtesy D. Nielsen; C, E-H, courtesy W. Johnson).*

(Barter 1957). Newly hatched larvae begin chewing through the bark to the cambium, leaving the chorions of the eggs packed with fine frass. Larvae tunnel between the bark and wood, except for very short trips into the xylem. Larvae hibernate when the weather cools and, because of the long emergence, all larval stages may be present during hibernation (Barter 1957). The life cycle can be 1 or 2 years, depending on emergence date, host quality, climate, and geographic location. Pupation usually occurs during spring, but some occurs in summer (MacAloney 1968).

Injury and damage. Initially, this buprestid beetle typically attacks the crown, especially branches about 18 mm in diameter. Wilting and dying of the crown are often the first indications of attack. In subsequent years, attacks occur further downward into the bole (MacAloney 1968). Examination of infested limbs and branches may reveal ridges (figure 84E), bumps, and D-shaped adult emergence holes (figure 84F) in the bark. These holes may be surrounded by red-stained bark. Removal of the bark where ridges are abundant exposes the sawdust-packed galleries (figure 84G) (Heller 1979). Although repeated attacks often severely injure or kill trees (figure 84H), many survive, especially when growing conditions are good. In surviving trees, callus grows over the larval feeding tunnels. Healing results in many visible ridgelike swellings on the bark of previously infested trees (Barter 1957). Shade, ornamental, and forest trees are attacked. Damage results from girdling the cambium of branches and trunks and reduced translocation of food. The extent of damage is determined by number of borers and their distribution in the tree (Barter 1957). It is often considered a secondary insect pest, one that occurs after previous injury to trees (Anderson 1944), but apparently healthy trees can be attacked and killed (Balch and Prebble 1940, MacAloney 1968). Beginning in the early 1930's, widespread birch dieback occurred in Canada and the northeastern United States; trees that would have provided at least 1 million cords of wood were killed in Canada during 1939 alone (Brown 1940). Serious outbreaks of the bronze birch borer developed along with the dieback (MacAloney 1968).

Control. Nineteen species of insect parasites, including 6 species of egg parasites and 13 species of larval parasites, have been reported (Loerch and Cameron 1983). Egg parasitism has been the highest and most consistent cause of mortality, averaging 55% in New Brunswick (Barter 1957) but only 7% in Pennsylvania (Loerch and Cameron 1983). Larval parasitism generally averages under 20% (Barter 1957, Loerch and Cameron 1983). The importance of woodpeckers varies, but predation of 27 to 89% of the mature larvae and pupae has been reported (Barter 1957, Loerch and Cameron 1983). Cultural control practices include cutting of overmature and defective trees, preventing injuries to young trees, pruning infested parts of trees, and watering during dry periods (Mac-Aloney 1968). Insecticides can be used to protect valuable trees (Akers and Nielsen 1984, Barter 1957).

Agrilus horni Kerremans

[aspen root girdler] (figure 85)

Hosts. Poplar. Trembling aspen is the major host, but bigtooth aspen and balsam poplar are also commonly attacked (Carlson and Knight 1969). Aspen hybrids and the Eurasian species *Populus alba* L. and *P. tremula* L. are also readily infested (Carlson and Knight 1969, Nord and others 1965).

Range. Recorded from Massachusetts and New York in the Northeast; Wisconsin, Michigan, South Dakota, and Iowa in the Midwest; Arizona in the Southwest; and southern Ontario and Aweme, Manitoba, to the north (Carlson and Knight 1969, Nord and others 1965).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slightly flattened, black beetle, 6.5 to 11.5 mm long, with green reflections giving it bronze or coppery appearance (figure 85A). Females slightly larger than males. Taxonomically similar to *A. anxius* Gory and *A. granulatus liragus* Barter and Brown, but can be reliably distinguished by shorter male genitalia and shorter ovipositors (Carlson and Knight 1969). Also, beetles with more dense pubescence on lateral abdominal sclerites, more uniform pubescence on elytra, and front of head more convex than similar species. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, flattened and oval in outline, 1.2 mm long and 0.8 mm wide. Egg chorions darken as embryos develop, a characteristic not noted in *A. anxius* and *A. granulatus liragus* (Carlson and Knight 1969). ***Larva.*** White except for black mandibles, brownish anal forceps, and 25 mm long at maturity (figure 85B). ***Pupa.*** Creamy white and darkens with age within pupal chamber (figure 85C).

Biology. Adults are present in May and June, and emergence varies with weather. Beetles feed on leaves about 3 weeks before oviposition begins. Eggs are deposited over several weeks at the base of host plants, usually within 3 cm of the ground. Eggs are laid singly or in small groups on the smooth bark surface of small stems especially in aspen sucker stands. They hatch after 2 weeks, and the larvae tunnel into the cortex of the lower stem and then straight down into a large lateral root where they burrow outward in a generally straight line for 20 to 50 cm. They move to the cambium-xylem interface, turn and tunnel back toward the main stem, encircling the root with a tight spiral gallery. This part of the gallery is flattened in cross section and filled with tightly packed fine granular frass. On reaching the stem, the larvae continue the tightly spiraled gallery for 5 to 25 cm above ground. They then bore to the center of the stem and form pupal chambers. When the chambers are complete, larvae bore exit tunnels to the outer layers of bark and then return to the pupal chambers, where they overwinter. Although the duration of development is unknown, the total gallery lengths and extended oviposition periods suggest a 2-year life cycle (Nord and others 1965).

Injury and damage. Young trees in aspen sucker stands with stem diameters of less than 18 mm appear most susceptible to attack (Nord and others 1965). Most trees attacked are 12 mm or less in diameter. Attacks occur in the lower stem

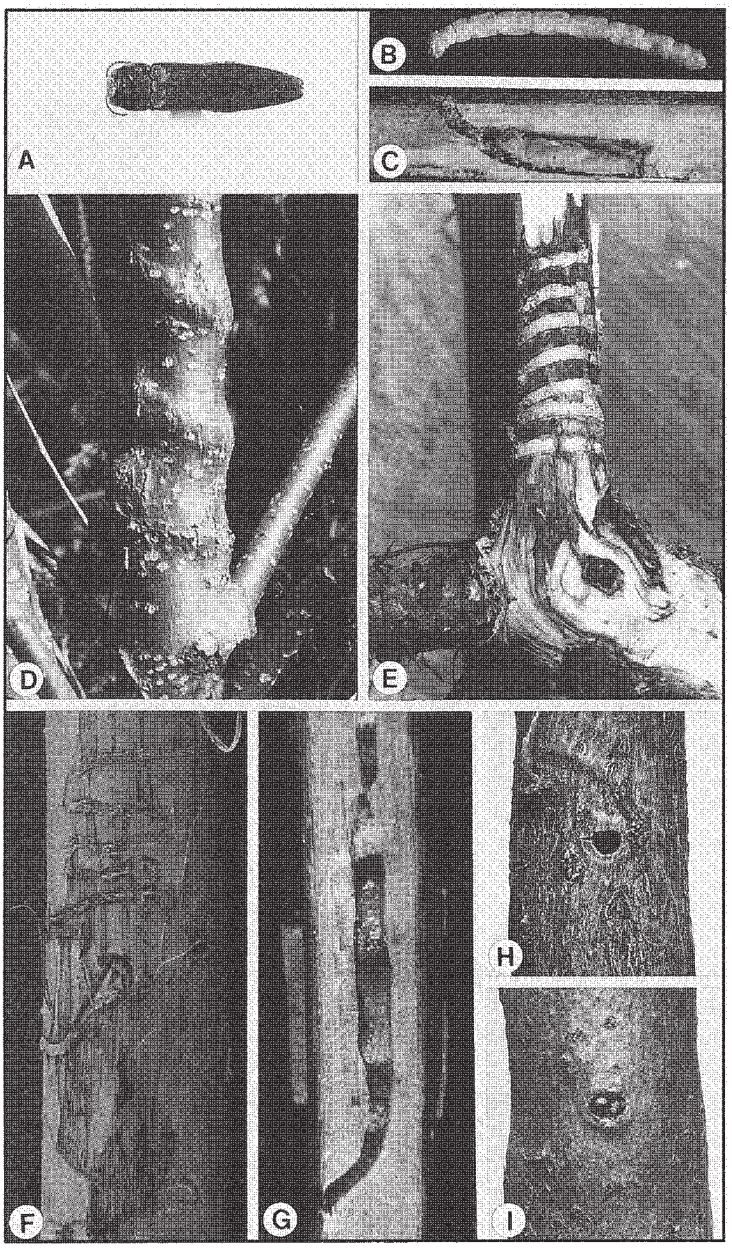


Figure 85—Agrilus horni, *[aspen root girdler]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, spiral swellings on bark; E, spiral galleries; F, sinuate galleries on large stem; G, pupation chamber with larva; H, D-shaped exit hole; I, bark scar over exit hole (A, F-I, courtesy E. Hart; B, C, E, courtesy J. Nord; D, courtesy M. Ostry).*

and roots. Weakened, dying, and dead sprouts and young planted stock may be the most noticeable signs of infestation. Examination of affected plants reveals swellings that typically spiral around the lower stems (figure 85D). Removing bark exposes the flattened, spiral, frass-packed galleries on the surface of the wood (figure 85E). Some galleries meander back and forth besides spiraling around the stems and roots (figure 85F). Enlarged pupal chambers can be found in the stem centers by splitting infested stems (figure 85G). D-shaped emergence holes (figure 85H) are present in the bark and heal to form slightly oval bark scars (figure 85I). Roots and stems of young, apparently healthy aspen suckers are often heavily attacked. Suckers may be killed, but rates of mortality vary depending on the extent of infestation. The insect can survive in weakened or vigorous suckers. A damage survey in 4-year-old quaking aspen stands showed that 4% of the aspen suckers in the sampled areas had been killed by the borer. Damage is generally insignificant, maybe even helpful, in dense natural stands. However, this insect can be economically damaging in sparsely stocked natural stands, in test plantings, and in commercial plantations on dry sandy sites with few trees per hectare (Nord and others 1965).

Control. Natural egg mortality is high (Nord and others 1965). Some eggs darken, indicative of parasitism, but no egg parasites have been reared. Other eggs simply shrivel and disappear, possibly because of infertility or ant predation. Seven species of insect parasites have been recovered from mature larvae—including *Cenocolius sanguineiventrus* (Ashmead), *Mastrus smithii* (Packard), *Metastenus* sp., *Tetrastichus nordi* Burks, *Xylophrurus agrili* (Viereck), *X. bicolor maurus* Townes, and *X. fasciatus fasciatus* (Ashmead) (Burks 1979, Carlson 1979, Marsh 1979, Nord and others 1965). In a study of 140 infested aspen suckers collected at each of 2 locations, *T. nordi* parasitized 26 and 33% of the larvae, and *Xylophrurus* spp. parasitized 11 and 5%.

Agrilus granulatus granulatus (Say)

[granulate poplar borer] (figure 86)

Hosts. Poplar. Reared from Lombardy poplar, eastern cottonwood, and black cottonwood (Fisher 1928, Mutchler and Weiss 1922).

Range. The Great Plains eastward to New York, south to North Carolina and Louisiana, and west to Colorado and Montana (Carlson and Knight 1969, Fisher 1928). In Canada, common in both native and planted poplars, particularly in the grassland and southern regions of Alberta (Brown and Stevenson 1965).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slightly flattened, olive brown beetle, moderately shining, narrow, and 7 to 11 mm long (figure 86A) (Fisher 1928). Males slightly shorter and more slender than females. Body covered with short, recumbent, whitish pubescence. Each elytron ornamented with three spots of more dense whitish to golden hairs, one in basal depression, one in front of middle, and other near apical fourth. In living beetles, these spots distinguish this species

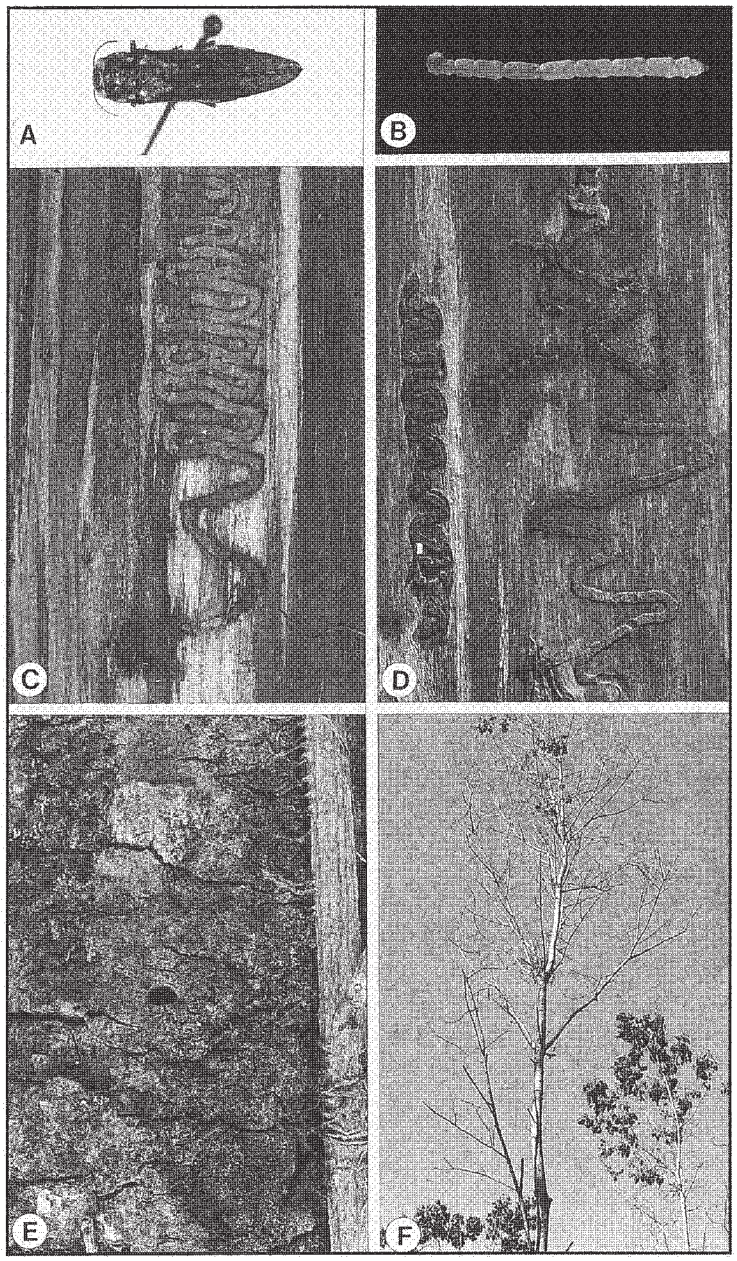


Figure 86—Agrilus granulatus granulatus, *[granulate poplar borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, single gallery with tight loops; D, multiple meandering galleries; E, D-shaped emergence hole; F, tree dying from larval girdling (A, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

from *A. g. liragus* Barter and Brown (Carlson and Knight 1969, Fisher 1928). ***Larva.*** Elongate, very narrow, and 27 to 40 mm long (figure 86B). Body flattened with widened prothorax, white except for brown mouthparts and anal forceps.

Biology. Adults emerge during June and July (Mutchler and Weiss 1922, Packard 1890) and feed on the foliage of host trees. Females deposit eggs in crevices of rough bark on branches and trunks of susceptible trees. They prefer trees severely weakened by drought, disease, and poor site conditions (Ives and Wong 1988). In the beetle's southern range, populations are most prevalent in river bottoms at lower altitudes. Larvae usually feed and develop beneath the bark but occasionally tunnel into the wood briefly, then back to the cambium. In October, larvae bore obliquely into the wood 2.5 to 5 cm, a few centimeters up or down, then curving back to within 3 to 8 mm of the wood surface. Here, they enlarge the galleries and overwinter in a folded or bent position. Pupation begins in May and lasts about 2 weeks. The life history is little known, but it appears to have a 1- or 2-year generation similar to that of *A. g. liragus*.

Injury and damage. Thin crowns and dying branches are early symptoms of attack. Trees from sapling to sawlog size may be attacked. Although sap spots occasionally appear on the bark, little other surface damage indicates early infestation. Extensive galleries can be exposed by removing bark. Galleries in the cambium vary from very tight zigzag loops extending vertically (figure 86C) to those that meander without much pattern (figure 86D) (Mutchler and Weiss 1922). Small D-shaped holes are left in the bark by emerging beetles (figure 86E). Infested trees may succumb suddenly or slowly over several years, depending on other stresses (figure 86F). The deaths of many trees previously attributed to drought are now charged to this borer (Brown and Stevenson 1965, Packard 1890).

Control. Woodpeckers have been observed feeding on the larvae, but their effectiveness has not been evaluated. Good cultural practices that promote high tree vigor and reduce the incidence of disease help to minimize infestations and losses.

Agrilus granulatus liragus Barter and Brown

bronze poplar borer (figure 87)

Hosts. Poplar. Five species of poplars—including quaking aspen, bigtooth aspen, balsam poplar, black cottonwood, and eastern cottonwood—are reported as hosts (Barter 1965).

Range. Newfoundland west to British Columbia; also found in the United States southward to Pennsylvania and westward to northern California and Oregon (Barter and Brown 1949, Nelson and Westcott 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Beetle that is structurally similar to *A. g. granulatus* but described as distinct subspecies based on color, morphology of male genitalia, and preferred host plants (Barter and Brown 1949, Carlson and Knight 1969). Slightly flattened beetle blackish with green reflections (figure 87A). Male head greenish. As

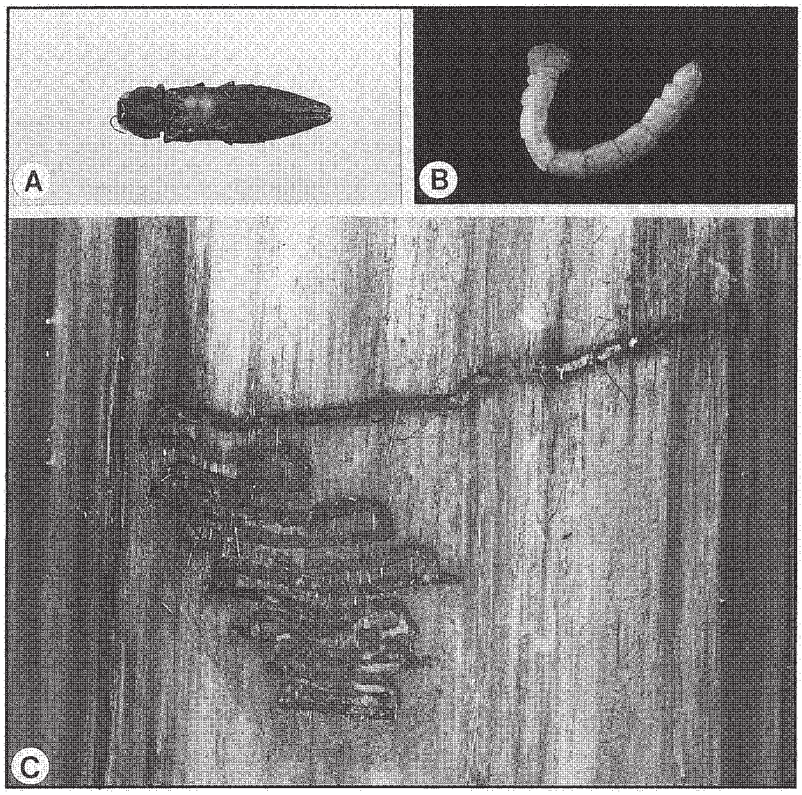


Figure 87—Agrilus granulatus liragus, *bronze poplar borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, single gallery beneath bark (A, specimen courtesy R. L. Brown).*

compared to *A. anxius*, coppery reflections nearly always lacking and never distinct. Male adults 7.2 to 10.3 mm long; females 6.8 to 11.5 mm long. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, flattened, oval, and about 1.2 by 0.8 mm (Carlson and Knight 1969). ***Larva.*** Long and slender—measuring 30 to 40 mm long and 2 to 3.5 mm wide (figure 87B). Prothorax wider than rest of body with median I-shaped line (Benoit 1965). Body white except for dark mandibles and prominent brown anal forceps.

Biology. In Canada, adults emerge from early June to late August (Barter 1965, Ives and Wong 1988). Emergence may begin earlier or later, with a corresponding change in its end, depending on prevailing environmental conditions. Adults feed on foliage of hosts for about 1 week before laying eggs. They deposit eggs in bark crevices in groups of five to eight. Each female deposits several groups of eggs, most frequently on the sunny side of trees when the temperature is about 27 °C (Barter 1965). Hatching from eggs in about 2 weeks, larvae bore directly through the bark to the cambium for most of their feeding, moving occasionally into the phloem and cortex. First-instar larvae travel about 8 to 16 cm before molting. Later instars travel much farther. Generally, larvae bore into the xylem to molt; a completed tunnel shows four such departures from the regular feeding tunnel, suggesting five larval instars. Mature larvae make pupal cells, and pupation occurs either in the outer xylem or in thick bark in spring. Borers in severely weakened trees usually complete a generation in 1 year, particularly in their southern range; those in more vigorous hosts require 2 years to complete development, especially in their northern range (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Injury and damage. Foliage discolors and leaves drop in portions of the crown after the initial attack (Barter 1965). Branch mortality soon becomes noticeable. Successful infestations in weakened trees typically move downward on the bole and often girdle and kill the tree. Removing the bark from affected branches or trunks reveals the larval feeding galleries in the cambium. Flattened galleries packed with frass range from 30 to 60 cm long and 0.6 to 3.0 mm wide (figure 87C). Gallery characteristics vary with condition of the host (Carlson and Knight 1969). In severely weakened trees, galleries usually meander without any distinct pattern. In vigorous hosts, a zigzag or sinuate gallery is the rule. Galleries weave back and forth across the grain with successive loops closer together in the most vigorous hosts. Emerging beetles leave D-shaped emergence holes in the bark (Ives and Wong 1988). Attacks on the branches and trunks of trees cause deterioration and frequently death of the hosts. Larval feeding damages the phloem and cambium, interfering with the movement of plant food (Barter 1965). The insect is most likely to become established in overmature or injured trees and in young trees released from the dominance of other trees. Felled, topped, and girdled trees and those damaged by the poplar borer (*Saperda calcarata* Say) and hypoxylon canker are particularly suscepti-

ble (USDA FS 1985). Evidence exists that infestation by this borer increases the incidence of hypoxylon canker (Barter 1965).

Control. Both egg and larval parasites have been reared. In one study, two egg parasites—*Coccidencyrtus* sp. and *Thysanus* sp. in the family Encyrtidae—destroyed about half the eggs. Five species of insect parasites—*Atanycolus charus* (Riley), *Doryctes* sp., *Ephialtes* sp., *Phasgonophora sulcata* Westwood, and *Testrastichus* sp. (probably *rugglesi* Rohwer)—were reared from the larvae. Range of from 2 to 20% parasitism by *P. sulcata* was most common (Barter 1965). Larvae and pupae are frequently prey of woodpeckers. In one study of standing trees, when larvae were pupating and transforming to adults in late spring, woodpeckers took up to 40% of full-grown larvae, pupae, and teneral adults from individual trees (Barter 1965). Maintenance of high tree vigor helps to reduce the incidence of attack. Because susceptibility to the borer is enhanced by injuries caused by other insects, wind, animals, and fungi, measures that prevent such injuries can reduce attacks and their severity (Barter 1965).

Agrilus granulatus populi Fisher

[western poplar agrilus]

Hosts. Poplar. Although black cottonwood is the main host (Fisher 1928), adults have been collected on Lombardy poplar, and other *Populus* species may also serve as hosts.

Range. Occurs from California and Oregon east to Montana and Wyoming and north to British Columbia (Barr 1971, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, strongly shining, and slightly flattened beetle (Fisher 1928). Head green becoming slightly coppery toward neck. Pronotum bronzy green, sometimes with brownish copper tinge. Elytra vary from golden green to reddish copper, sometimes with distinct violet tinge. Each elytron ornamented with three small pubescent spots. Color beneath bronzy green. Beetles 7.5 to 9.8 mm long and 1.8 to 2.5 mm wide.

Biology. Adults are active May to July (Fisher 1928). Larvae bore beneath the bark where they burrow, feed, and develop. This species, similar in habits to the closely related subspecies *A. g. granulatus*, is found mostly in river bottomlands at lower altitudes (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Injury and damage. Weakened and dying trees should be examined for infestation. Removing the bark reveals the frass-packed meandering mines and larvae. Damage has been negligible, except in the Reno, Nevada, area. Little else is known of this insect's importance.

Control. Nothing is known of natural and cultural controls, and direct controls have not been needed.

Agrilus criddlei Frost

[willow gall agrilus] (figure 88)

Hosts. Willow. Willows are the only known hosts (Stein and Kennedy 1972).

Range. A northern species recorded from the northern Great Plains as well as

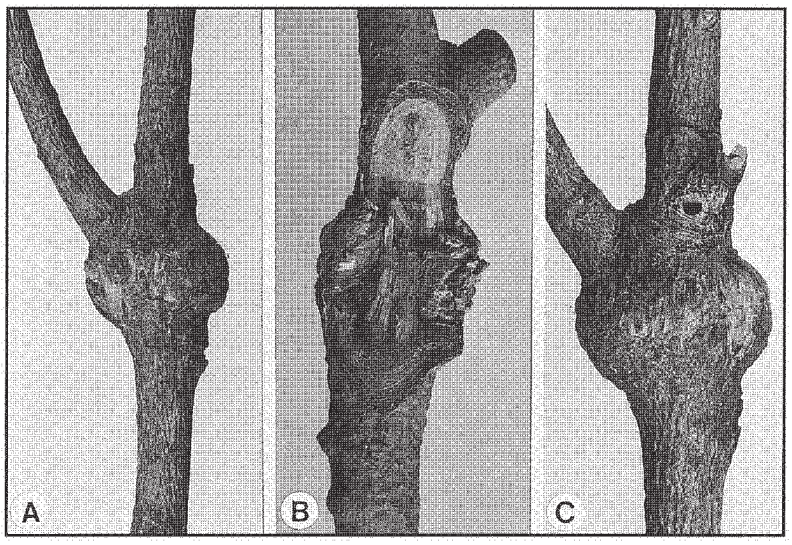


Figure 88—Agrilus criddlei, *[willow gall agrilus]: A, gall on willow stem; B, gall opened to expose larval mines; C, D-shaped exit hole just above gall (specimens courtesy S. Wellso).*

Michigan, Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928, Stein and Kennedy 1972).

Description. ***Adult.*** Rather robust, moderately shiny, slightly flattened beetle 6.5 to 9.0 mm long. Females slightly more robust than males. Beetles bronzy black with slightly bluish or coppery reflection. Antennae serrated beginning with fourth segment and extend beyond middle of pronotum in males and only to middle of pronotum in females (Fisher 1928, Wellso and others 1976).

Biology. Adults emerge in June (Stein and Kennedy 1972). Females oviposit on 1-year-old or older woody branches. Larvae burrow into the branches and make serpentine mines. Feeding larvae pack their mines with fine granular frass. Galls develop at feeding injuries and gradually encircle the branches. New adults make exit holes in or near the galls.

Injury and damage. Branch galls in the crowns (figure 88A) 5 cm or less in diameter provide good visible evidence of infestation (Stein and Kennedy 1972). Galls often split on one or more sides, exposing galleries (figure 88B) and underlying tissues (Wellso and others 1976). A D-shaped emergence hole may be found in the vicinity of each gall (figure 88C). Galled branches frequently die back. Infestations are widely scattered; thus, damage is of minor importance.

Control. One hymenopterous parasite—*Euderus chillcotti* Yoshimoto—has been reported (Burks 1979). Direct controls have not been needed.

Agrilus politus (Say)

[common willow agrilus]

Hosts. Willow, maple. Preferred hosts are arroyo willow, Scouler willow, Pacific willow, and weeping willow (Burke 1917b, Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928). Rocky Mountain maple, striped maple, and dwarf maple also are hosts. California buckeye, coast live oak, hawthorn, honeylocust, hazel, and alder are mentioned as hosts (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928, Mutchler and Weiss 1922), but these hosts were probably attacked by closely related *Agrilus* species.

Range. Throughout the United States and southern Canada (Doane and others 1936, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slightly flattened beetle, 5.0 to 8.5 mm long (Blatchley 1910, Fisher 1928). Bright brassy to coppery, purplish, greenish, or bluish and moderately shiny. Antennae barely reach middle of pronotum. Pronotum wider than long, and sides curved slightly outward. Elytra wider than base of pronotum, widen slightly behind middle, then taper obliquely to narrowly rounded tips with finely toothed margins. Wing covers somewhat separated at tips, giving an almost forked appearance. ***Egg.*** Almost transparent white, shiny, and oval with soft shell. ***Larva.*** Pale white, greatly elongate, and flattened.

Biology. Adults emerge from May through August and feed on the foliage of host plants before ovipositing (Essig 1958). Eggs are deposited in flattened, circular masses of 2 to 12 on the smooth bark of branches near the axils of shoots or near

bark lenticels. Females cover eggs with a protective secretion that hardens into a brown capsulelike cover; these appear as conspicuous scalelike objects on the branches. After incubation of about 3 weeks, new larvae bore through the egg shells into the bark and fill the vacated eggs with frass. Groups of larvae often burrow side by side in the same direction on the surface of the wood, lengthwise along the twig for 7 to 10 mm; then larvae branch out, forming galleries that circumscribe the branch and eventually girdle it. The girdling by larval galleries stimulates abnormal growth, resulting in knotty swellings or galls and cracking the outer bark, eventually killing the branch. The larvae construct pupal cells deep in the wood of trunks and branches from May to mid-June. There is a 1-year life cycle in the southern portion of its range and a 2-year life cycle in the northern portion (Burke 1917b).

Injury and damage. Branch dieback and tree mortality are symptoms of attack (Doane and others 1936). Larvae mine the inner bark and wood of normal, injured, and dying trees and shrubs (Burke 1917b). Removal of bark will reveal many flat, frass-filled larval galleries that often encircle and girdle stems. Attacks often result in swollen areas and gall-like growths on the branches and trunk (Burke 1917b). Good evidence of infestation is D-shaped holes in the bark made by emerging beetles. Trees that are attacked repeatedly and survive often develop bark scars that detract from their esthetic value.

Control. This beetle can be controlled by cutting and destroying infested branches before leaf emergence in spring (Hutchings 1923). Insecticides may be needed to protect valuable trees.

Agrilus burkei Fisher

[blue alder agrilus] (figure 89)

Hosts. Alder. White alder is preferred,* but the insect also has been reared from mountain alder (Burke 1917b, Fisher 1928). Other alders probably serve as hosts.

Range. A western species occurring from California* east through the Rocky Mountains to Wyoming and north to British Columbia (Fisher 1928, Maser and Beer 1971).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate beetle, strongly attenuate posteriorly, slightly flattened, deep blue to bluish green, moderately shiny, and 6 to 9 mm long and 1.8 to 2.5 mm wide (figure 89A) (Fisher 1928). Pronotum markedly wider than long and widest at middle. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at base and sparsely clothed with very short whitish pubescence. Beetles resemble *A. politus* but usually darker blue and less shiny. ***Egg.*** Whitish, oval to round, flattened, and scalelike (figure 89B). ***Larva.*** Slender, flattened, whitish, and 20 to 25 mm long (figure 89C).

Biology. Adults begin emerging during late March in California* and have been collected as late as July 9 in Oregon (Fisher 1928). New adults feed on the foliage of host trees for a week or more, mate, and oviposit on the bark of trunks and branches. Females deposit 3 to 10 eggs in masses

*Koehler, C.S.; Svihra, P. December 16, 1988. (personal communication). University of California, Berkeley, CA.

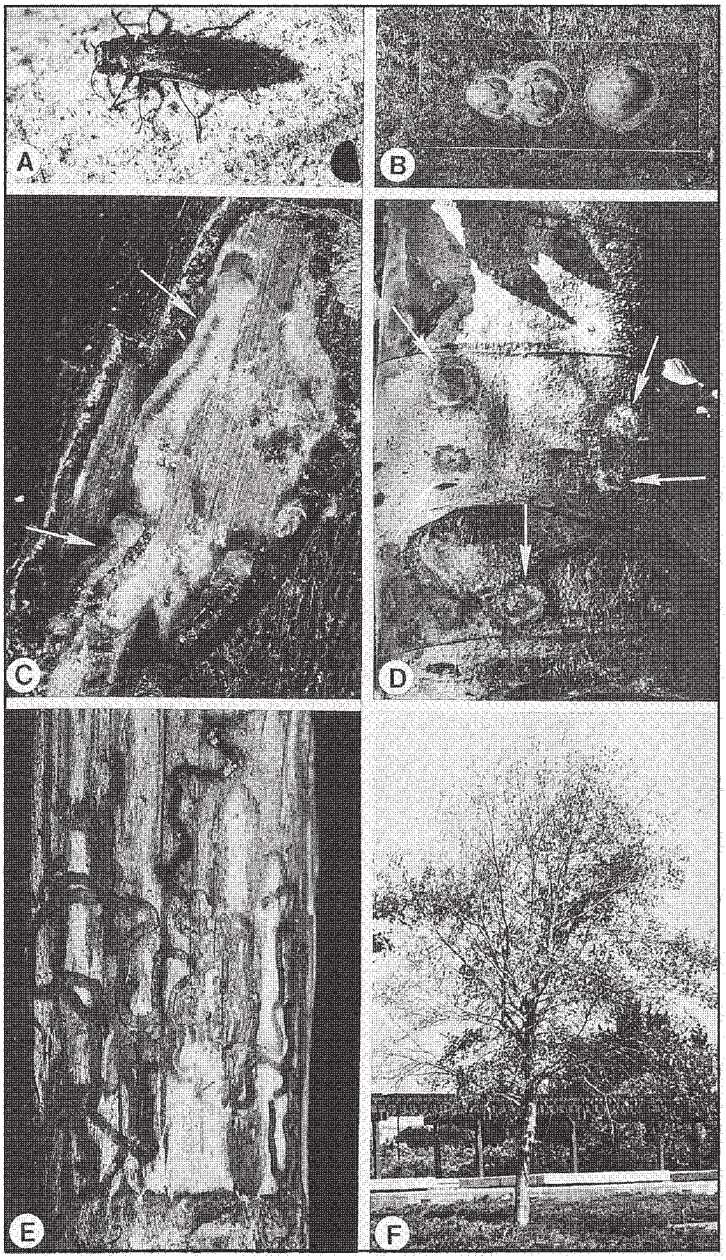


Figure 89—Agrilus burkei, *[blue alder agrilus]: A, adult and D-shaped exit hole; B, eggs; C, larvae under bark; D, sap-stained spots at points of attack; E, galleries under bark; F, dying infested alder (courtesy C. Koehler).*

3 to 5 mm in diameter. Eggs usually are deposited on moderately to severely stressed trees; few eggs are laid on trees that are in either very poor or very good condition. Adults live about 12 days. Eggs hatch in 1 to 2 weeks, and the young larvae burrow through the bottom of the egg chorions into the bark. Larvae feed beneath the bark in the cambium where they make long winding galleries. Larvae overwinter in their burrows, then pupate in spring in enlarged chambers at the end of their galleries. There is one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Most noticeable symptoms are yellowing, wilting foliage, and dieback of branches. Closer examination reveals copious sap exuding from infested sites, which prominently stains the bark (figure 89D). Callus growth at injured sites beneath the bark sometimes causes light-colored blisters, ridging, and swellings similar to those caused by *A. anxius*. Removing bark will reveal the white larvae and numerous long, winding, frass-filled galleries that often intersect and cross many times (figure 89E). Many D-shaped emergence holes are left in the bark by emerging beetles (figure 89A). Heavy infestations can girdle and kill susceptible trees; those that survive may be heavily scarred. Many infested small trees succumb (figure 89F). In 1978, reports of decline of white alder in Napa County, California, were common (Koehler 1985). Two years later, this insect killed native alders in a disturbed riparian zone in Del Norte County. Since about 1980, white alder has been propagated in nurseries and then outplanted to dry California landscapes. Here, the trees are stressed and have suffered greatly from attacks.

Control. This borer prefers stressed trees, so practices that help keep trees in good vigor are recommended. Young trees, especially those newly transplanted, should be shaded to prevent sunscald, which often predisposes them to attack. In lightly infested trees, attacked branches can be pruned out and burned (Burke 1917b). In high-risk areas, resistant species, such as new varieties of Italian alder, should be planted (Koehler 1985). Insecticides may be required to protect high-value trees.

Agrilus pensus Horn

[alder-birch borer] (figure 90)

Hosts. Alder, birch. Reared from speckled alder and river birch, both serving equally well as larval hosts (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Range. Occurs from New Brunswick south to North Carolina and west to Michigan and southern Manitoba, Canada (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Description. ***Adult.*** Long slender beetle with slightly flattened body about 7.5 mm long and 2 mm wide. Pronotum wider than long and lateral margins rounded slightly outward. Elytra about as wide as posterior margin of pronotum. Sides of elytra nearly parallel to just past middle, then taper obliquely toward their narrowly rounded tips. Tips separated and margined with fine teeth. Eyes large and widely separated. Antennae, serrate from fourth segment, extend to about middle of pronotum.

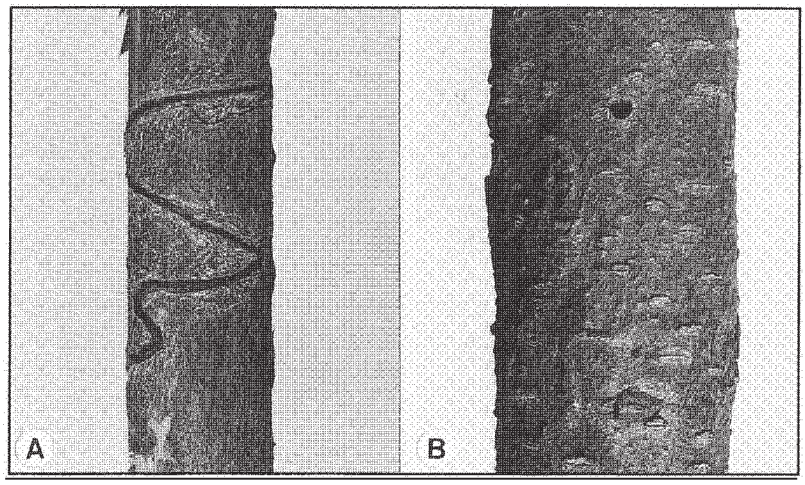


Figure 90—Agrilus pensus, *[alder-birch borer]: A, sinuate gallery beneath bark; B, D-shaped hole made by emerging adult (specimens courtesy S. Wellso).*

Dorsal surface of body feebly shining. Head bronze green, pronotum and elytra dark reddish copper (sometimes with a blackish green tinge), and underside of body reddish copper. Tarsal claws of both sexes cleft near apices (Fisher 1928). ***Egg.*** Creamy white when deposited, flattened and oval, measuring about 1.2 by 0.8 mm (Carlson and Knight 1969). ***Larva.*** Whitish, elongate, legless, and pronotum noticeably wider than other body segments. Thoracic and abdominal spiracles C-shaped. Abdomen ends in chitinous forcep-like structure (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Biology. Pupation has been recorded as early as April (Fisher 1928), with adults emerging in May and June (Carlson and Knight 1969) in the eastern United States. Adults do not emerge until July and August in Nova Scotia (Chamberlin 1926). Females deposit eggs on the bark of healthy to moderately stressed hosts but never on trees where death is imminent. These insects seldom occur in large populations that quickly girdle host trees, unlike related *Agrilus* spp. After embryonic development ends in about 2 weeks, larvae bore into the bark, packing the chorions with frass, and leaving little or no external evidence of infestation. Little is known about the behavior of larvae except that they spend much of their early lives in the xylem (Carlson and Knight 1969). Mortality rates of young larvae are high owing to the resistance offered by vigorous trees. Larvae pupate in the xylem fairly near the surface, and adults emerge directly through the bark. Two years are required to complete development.

Injury and damage. It is often difficult to distinguish infested speckled alders from uninfested ones (Carlson and Knight 1969). Although healthy trees may be attacked, those showing some physiological stress are better candidates. The beetle is more likely to attack alders in a healthier condition than those attacked by most other *Agrilus* species, yet it presumably infests unhealthy river birch (Carlson and Knight 1969). When infestation is suspected, one can readily peel back the bark with a sharp knife to expose galleries and larvae. Galleries are always packed with fine frass and follow no pattern; however, those on the surface of the wood are often sinuate (figure 90A). Galleries seldom spiral around the branch, even on those as small as 25 mm in diameter. They frequently penetrate deep into the xylem, sometimes going completely through the stem to the opposite side. Emerging adults make D-shaped holes (figure 90B). Although populations are seldom as high as those of many other *Agrilus* species, this borer appears to play more of a primary role in killing trees than its near relatives.

Control. Woodpeckers are important in limiting populations, feeding mainly on larvae they find in pupal chambers during winter. On finding one specimen, they will then efficiently find and eat nearly all larvae in the tree (Carlson and Knight 1969).

Agrilus acutipennis Mannerheim

[spotworm borer] (figure 91)

Hosts. Oak. White and overcup oaks are specific hosts (Donley and others 1974,

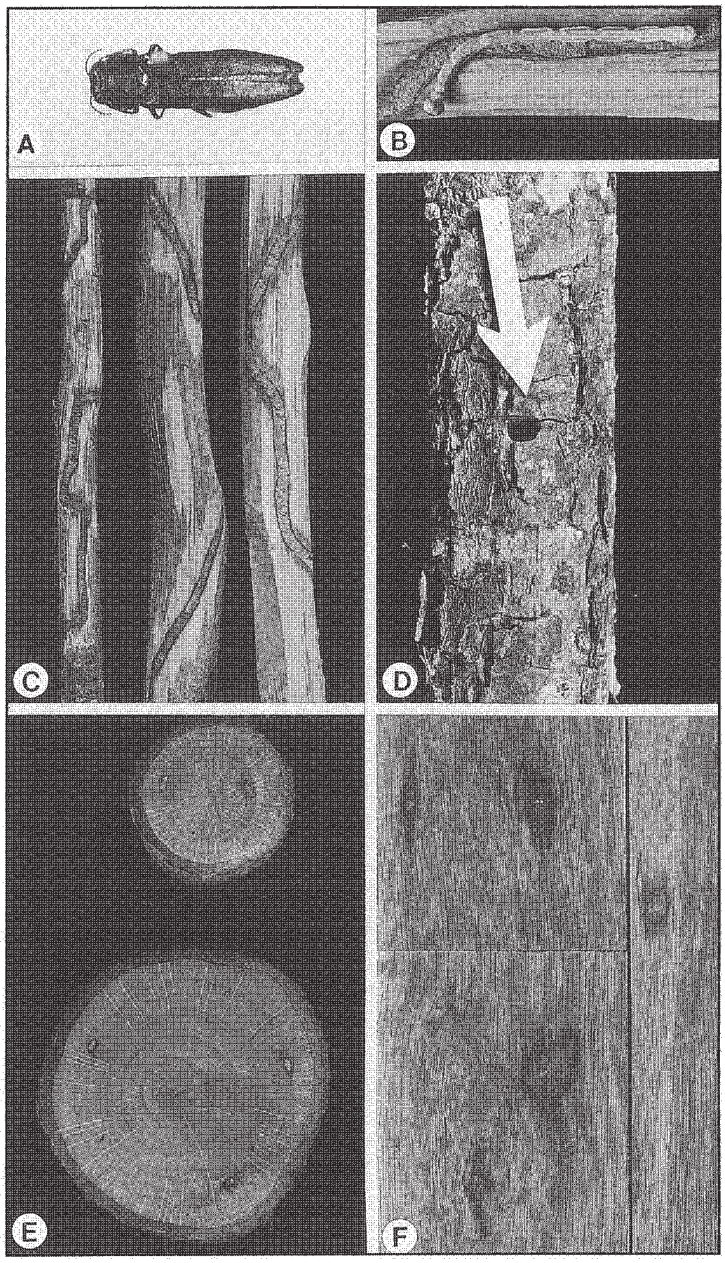


Figure 91—Agrilus acutipennis, *[spotworm borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, galleries on surface of sapwood; D, D-shaped exit hole; E, cross section of overcup oak showing flattened oval galleries; F, stained spots with galleries in white oak lumber.*

Morris 1964). Other white oaks probably also serve as hosts. Adults have been collected from the foliage of birch, poplar, and hazelnut, but it is doubtful that they are larval hosts (Fisher 1928).

Range. Widely distributed from Maine south to Florida and west to Texas and Colorado (Fisher 1928, Mutchler and Weiss 1922). Also reported from Ontario, Quebec, and Newfoundland.

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender to moderately robust beetle, slightly flattened (figure 91A) (Fisher 1928). Feebly shining, dark blue to black with less distinct greenish tinge. Antennae extend to about middle of pronotum on male; slightly shorter on female. Adults 7.5 to 12.7 mm long. ***Larva.*** Slender, white, and extremely elongate, ranging from 25.4 to 33.0 mm (figure 91B) (Morris 1964). Body noticeably flattened, with prothorax slightly wider than body.

Biology. Adults emerge in May and June and sometimes through July (Chittenden 1900b, Morris 1964). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices on host trees (Morris 1964). Larvae bore through the bark and excavate patches of the inner bark about 13 mm in diameter. They soon enter the cambium and tunnel spirally, primarily in the outermost growth ring. Gallery lengths have not been measured adequately, but individual galleries are at least 1 m or more in saplings and small trees. Larvae pupate in enlarged chambers in the tunnels, and new adults emerge in late spring and early summer. A generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Trees growing on river bottomlands subjected to backwater flooding from December through June are most apt to be infested. Larvae cause injuries by tunneling the outermost growth ring of the sapwood (Morris 1964). By cutting away the bark of infested saplings, one can observe larval feeding sites. Galleries are long, crooked (occasionally spiralling around the stem), flattened, and packed tightly with frass (figure 91C). Adults leave small D-shaped emergence holes in the bark (figure 91D), but there is little other evidence of infestation on the bark surface. Ends of fresh-cut logs usually show irregular lines of stained wood where the spots are exposed. On large sawlogs, the stains resemble scribbled handwriting on log ends, and woodsmen read them as a sign of infestation and poor-quality wood. Cross sections of small stems may reveal tiny frass-packed galleries surrounded by dark stain (figure 91E). In sawn lumber, spotworm damage is characterized by dark stains, oval to diamond or spindle shaped in cross section and about 25.4 to 43.2 mm long with a 1.5-mm frass-packed hole in the center of the stain (figure 91F). Larvae tunnel the outer sapwood of host trees, leaving defects called "grease spots" or "worm spots." Lumber with heavy spotworm defect is graded as Sound Wormy or No. 3A Common, which is worth about $60 less per thousand board feet than lumber without the defect (Morris 1964). Defect has been reported as particularly prevalent in overcup oak from river bottoms of the lower Ouachita, White, Arkansas, Alabama,

and Pearl Rivers and in smaller river bottomlands in Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi. Lumber degraded by spotworm defects has been suggested for use as character-marked paneling that could help lumbermen recover some of the losses from degrade (Solomon 1986).

Control. Evidence of woodpecker predation has been observed, but no other natural controls have been recorded. Direct controls have not been investigated.

Agrilus angelicus Horn

[oak twig girdler] (figure 92)

Hosts. Oak. Prefers coast live oak (Johnson and Lyon 1988). Other hosts include California black oak, canyon live oak, Engelmann oak, interior live oak, and several introduced oaks (Burke 1920).

Range. Throughout most of California from sea level to 1,800 m elevation (Burke 1920).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, brownish bronze to bluish black beetle with coppery or golden thorax; 5 to 7 mm long and 1.5 to 2.0 mm wide (figure 92A). Males with their green faces can be distinguished from the brownish-bronze-faced females. ***Egg.*** Slightly more than 1 mm in diameter, flattened; darkens before hatching. Covered with sticky, varnishlike material that catches dust and makes it difficult to see on twig bark (Brown and Eads 1965a, Burke 1920). ***Larva.*** Legless, whitish, moderately flattened, and 18 to 25 mm at maturity (figure 92B) (Brown and Eads 1965a). Prothorax widest part of body with head sunken into it. At times, larva resembles minute string of flattened link sausages (Miller and others 1950). ***Pupa.*** Delicate, whitish, and about 7 to 9 mm by 1 to 2 mm (figure 92C) (Burke 1920).

Biology. Adults emerge from May to September, with most appearing during the first half of this period. Adults feed on leaves but do not cause significant damage. Oviposition occurs soon after mating, and females deposit eggs singly on roughened bark of twigs, usually at the junctions of the current and previous year's growth (Brown and Eads 1965a). Living about 2 weeks, females die soon after ovipositing (Burke 1920). Eggs hatch in 2 to 3 weeks. New larvae bore through the bottoms of the eggs into the twigs, leaving the chorions packed with fine frass (Burke 1920). Young larvae tunnel toward the base just beneath the bark, making linear galleries several centimeters long toward older twig growth (Brown and Eads 1965a). After 3 to 6 months, larvae begin to mine spirally around the twigs. Leaves on girdled twigs die and turn brown. The following season, larvae continue the spiral, girdling toward the bases for 30 cm or more, causing infested twigs to die back still further. Mature larvae tunnel 15 cm or more back into the dead twigs where they pupate. The pupal stage lasts 2 to 3 weeks. New adults chew holes in the twigs to exit. The life cycle requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Patches of yellow, brown, or dead leaves at various locations on the tree are the first evidence of injury. In severe infestations, most of the twigs smaller than 12 mm in diameter may be girdled (figure 92D) and killed. Carefully peeling

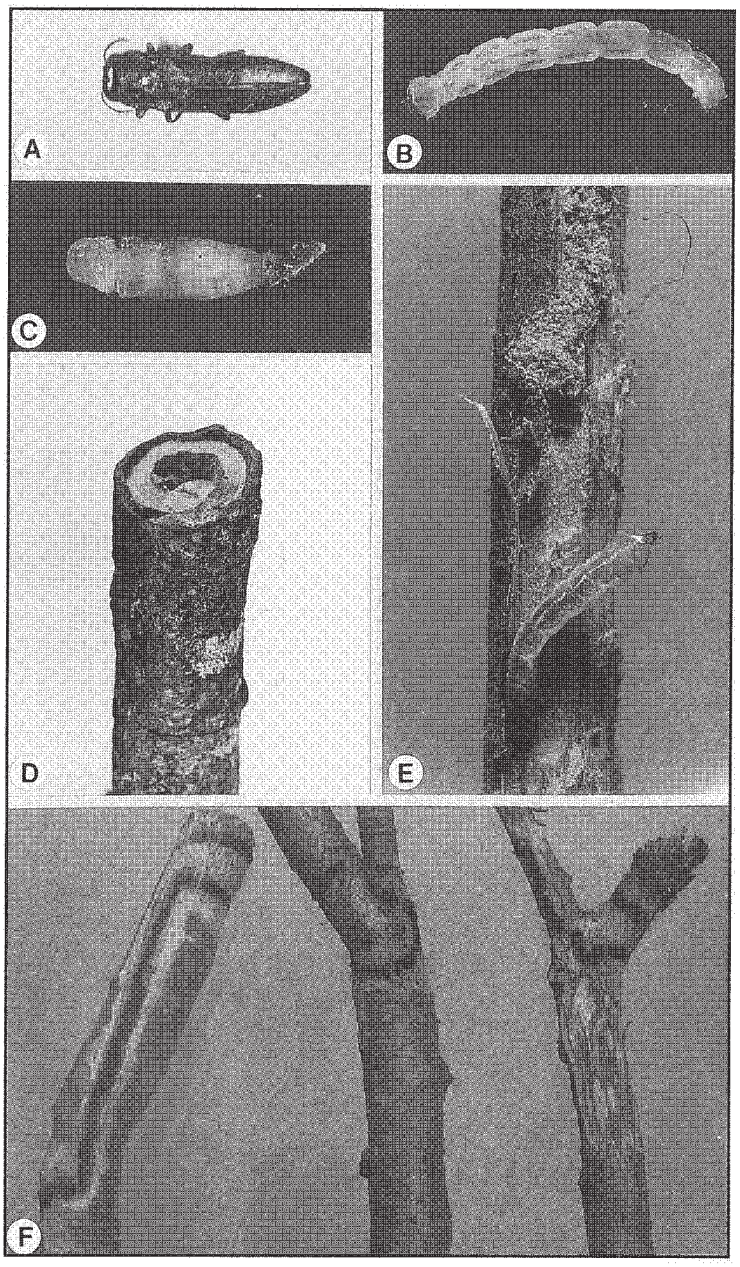


Figure 92—Agrilus angelicus, *[oak twig girdler]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, twig end with spiral girdle; E, frass-packed gallery and larva exposed in twig; F, bark removed to expose galleries (A-D, courtesy L. Brown; E & F, courtesy W. Johnson).*

the bark from dying twigs will reveal larvae (figure 92E) and the internal injury. Tunnels are often spiral and filled with brown frass (figure 92F). Larvae may be found in tunnels next to the living part of the twigs (Miller and others 1950). The larvae usually reverse direction near the end of their development and move up the twigs for short distances before entering the wood and pupating (Burke 1920). This borer is considered to be *the* major insect pest of oak trees in southern California (Johnson and Lyon 1988). The ornamental value of heavily infested trees is often greatly reduced by the general ragged appearance caused by girdler damage (Burke 1920).

Control. Nine species of hymenopterous parasites have been reared (Burke 1920, Krombein and others 1979). In one study near Palo Alto, *Doryctes* sp. parasitized 50% of the girdlers. Small girdler populations can be suppressed by pruning and destroying infested twigs, especially on an area or neighborhood basis (Burke 1920, Miller and others 1950). Insecticidal sprays directed at the adult stage and applied during early June along the coast and during early to mid-May inland have effectively controlled the insect (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Agrilus arcuatus torquatus LeConte

[hickory spiral borer] (figure 93)

Hosts. Pecan, hickory. Hickories seem to be preferred, but pecan is readily attacked.

Range. Throughout the eastern half of the United States (Beal and Massey 1942, Brooks 1926).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately elongate beetle, rather robust, strongly shining, and moderately flattened (figure 93A) (Brooks 1926, Fisher 1928). Females uniformly brownish copper; males have reddish copper pronotum with greenish or bluish sides and black elytra with violet tinge. Males 8 mm long and females about 10 mm long. ***Egg.*** Flat and disklike, 0.8 to 1.1 mm in diameter, and glued firmly to smooth bark of twigs. Egg resembles shield of small scale insects. Initially, eggs smooth and pale yellowish green, but before hatching become slightly wrinkled and almost black. ***Larva.*** Slender, flat, and legless, with mature specimens reaching 15 to 20 mm long and 2 mm wide (figure 93B). Yellowish white except for dark brown or black mouth parts and anal forceps.

Biology. Adults emerge late April to late June, depending on location, and feed on foliage, chewing elongate notches and slits in the edges of the leaves (Beal and others 1952, Brooks 1926). Females begin oviposition 10 to 14 days after emergence. Eggs are deposited singly on the bark surface of terminals or lateral twigs, usually near the bases of small shoots of current season's growth and are covered with a transparent secretion that glues them to the bark. Females lay 2 to 55 eggs each over 6 to 8 weeks. Eggs hatch in 3 to 4 weeks, and the larvae chew through the bottoms of the chorions and directly into twigs, where they make elongate threadlike burrows under the bark. Late in autumn, they begin spiral burrows that sever the twigs by winter or

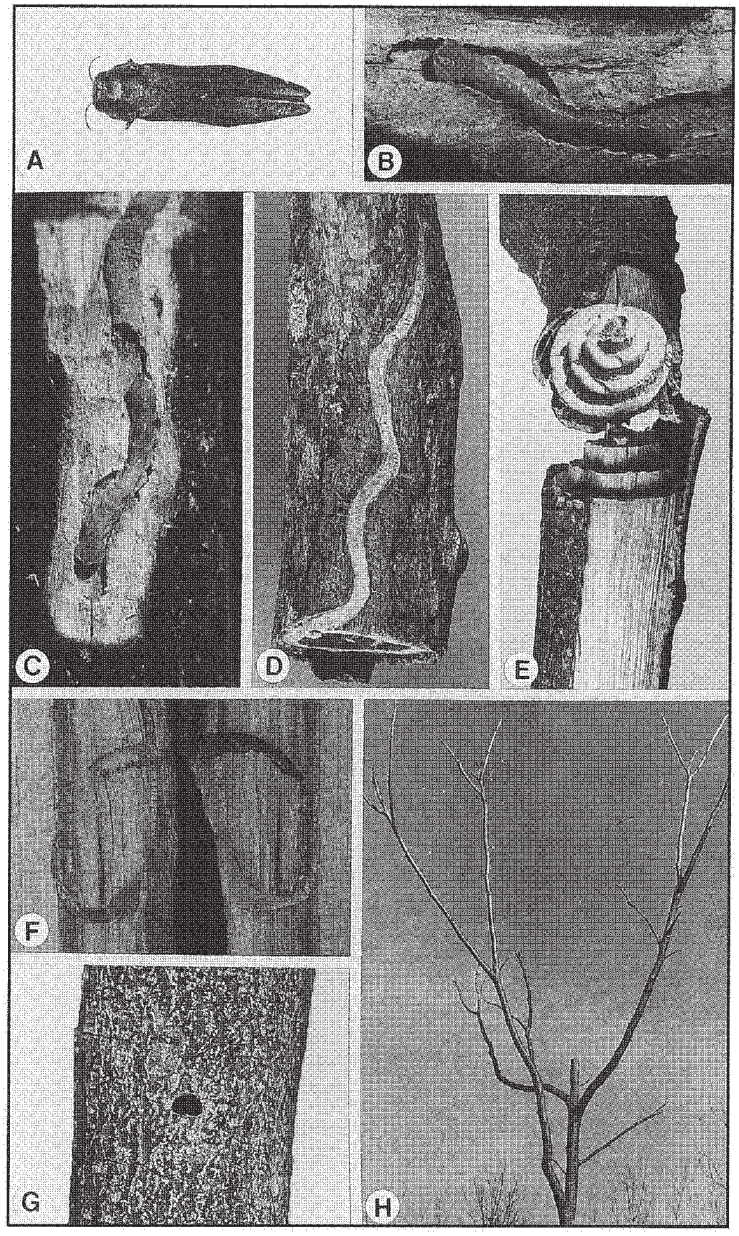


Figure 93—Agrilus arcuatus torquatus, *[hickory spiral borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, frass-packed gallery with larva; D, cambial gallery turned abruptly inward; E, spiral-girdled branch; F, pupation chamber in wood; G, D-shaped exit; H, terminal severed from young pecan.*

spring. Mining larvae pack their galleries behind with fine frass. During the second summer, they mine downward under the bark along the stem for 20 to 60 cm, leaving shallow (but relatively wide) burrows packed with brown frass. During late fall, they change course abruptly and cut thin, symmetrical rings around the stem. After the first circuit, they bore spirally inward in the same plane, encircling the stem until reaching its center. Larvae then turn and mine upward under the bark for 25 to 76 mm. Here, they form crescent-shaped pupal chambers, with ends that extend to the bark and whose bottoms curve toward the stem center. They plug both ends of pupal chambers with frass, then pupate during May and June for about 3 weeks. A generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Larvae sever branches and terminals during late winter and spring (Brooks 1926, USDA FS 1985). The portion above the girdle usually (but not always) dies in spring before foliage appears, the injury becoming apparent as the rest of the tree puts forth leaves. Most severed branches break and fall to the ground just before or soon after budbreak in spring. The borer severs stems 8 to 40 mm in diameter and 0.5 to 2.5 m long—many are larger than those girdled by *Oncideres* twig girdlers and *Anelaphus* twig pruners but slightly smaller than those pruned by *Psyrassa* branch pruners. Examination and removal of bark from infested branches will reveal the frass-packed galleries (figure 93C) and sometimes the long white larvae. The long winding gallery beneath the bark abruptly spirals inward to sever the branch (figure 93D). The spiral cut made by a larva is characteristic; it is a winding concentric cut from the inner bark to the heart of the branch or stem. The coils of the thin burrow join and completely sever the wood, except for the bark and sometimes a few slender fibers at the center (figure 93E). Later examination will reveal curved pupal cells in the wood (figure 93F) and D-shaped emergence holes in the bark (figure 93G). A major portion of the terminals of young trees is sometimes severed (figure 93H). Serious damage to large trees results in reduced nut production, ragged appearance, and asymmetry. Repeated attacks on young trees may cause stunted, misshapen, crooked, and forked stems. In one study in North Carolina, 7% of 500 young hickories examined had part or all of their main stems killed by this borer (Beal and Massey 1942). Although individual trees may be seriously damaged, entire stands, groves, nurseries, and other plantings are seldom badly harmed. Serious damage is most likely to occur in plantings adjacent to or close to forested tracts containing many heavily infested hickories.

Control. Five insect parasites—*Labena apicalis* Cresson, *L. grallator* (Say), *Monogonogastra agrili* (Ashmead), *Tetrastichus rugglesi* Rohwer, and *Zatropis* sp. near *nigroaeneus* (Ashmead)—help reduce populations (Brooks 1926, Burks 1979, Carlson 1979). To collect and destroy the larvae, young trees in heavily infested nurseries and orchards should be pruned to remove dead branches and terminals as soon as leaves develop in spring (Beal and

Massey 1942, Brooks 1926). Special care should be taken to cut off the small dead twigs that have been severed by the first winter larvae. To be sure of getting the tunneling borers, such twigs should be clipped several centimeters below the dead part. Also, all fallen severed branches and terminals should be picked up and destroyed before adults begin to emerge. It has been suggested that old hickories growing near nurseries should be removed (Beal and Massey 1942).

Agrilus otiosus Say

[hickory agrilus] (figure 94)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan. Water hickory and pecan are commonly infested, but other hickory species undoubtedly are infested (Fisher 1928, Wellso and others 1976). Persimmon, dogwood, maple, redbud, black walnut, butternut, hazel, oak, and black locust mentioned as hosts in the early literature (Chittenden 1900b, Leonard 1928, Mutchler and Weiss 1922), but these observers probably mistook other *Agrilus* species for *A. otiosus* (Fisher 1928).

Range. An eastern species commonly reported from Massachusetts and New York west to Minnesota and Kansas and south to Georgia and Mississippi (Fisher 1928, Franklin and Lund 1956).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, slender, nearly linear, and moderately shining beetle 4 to 5.8 mm long and about 1.3 mm wide (Fisher 1928, Knull 1925). Head and antennae greenish blue, pronotum dark bronzy green with sides more bluish, and elytra black with strong greenish or bronze tinge. Beneath, beetles dark bronzy green and more shining than above. Pronotum slightly wider than long and elytra slightly wider than pronotum.

Biology. Adults begin emerging in May and June throughout the range of the species and have been collected as late as August in its northern distribution (Fisher 1928, Leonard 1928). Larvae hatch from eggs laid on the bark and burrow into the phloem. Larval burrows generally are in the inner phloem-cambium, but sometimes portions of burrows occur entirely in the phloem. The larvae tunnel downward in spirals or zigzags for long distances, making galleries that measure up to 1.8 m long. In trunks 6 to 16 cm in diameter, early tunneling is characterized by a spiral pattern, but older larvae more commonly make zigzags. Larvae may circle small stems as many as six times in their travel down the trunk. The insect's life history is little known, but based on gallery lengths and characteristics, the life cycle appears to be more than 1 year.

Injury and damage. Active infestations are difficult to detect. After the borers complete development and exit, spiral and zigzag swellings appear in the bark on trunks of young trees (figure 94A). Removing the bark from the swollen areas reveals larval burrows (figure 94B). Years later, multiple spiral and zigzag grooves are prominent on the bark of large trees (figure 94C). Bolts taken from infested trees and sliced, split, or sawn open will reveal the small, oval (in cross section), frass-filled larval burrows in the phloem (figure 94D). In sawn lumber, small, dark brown spots,

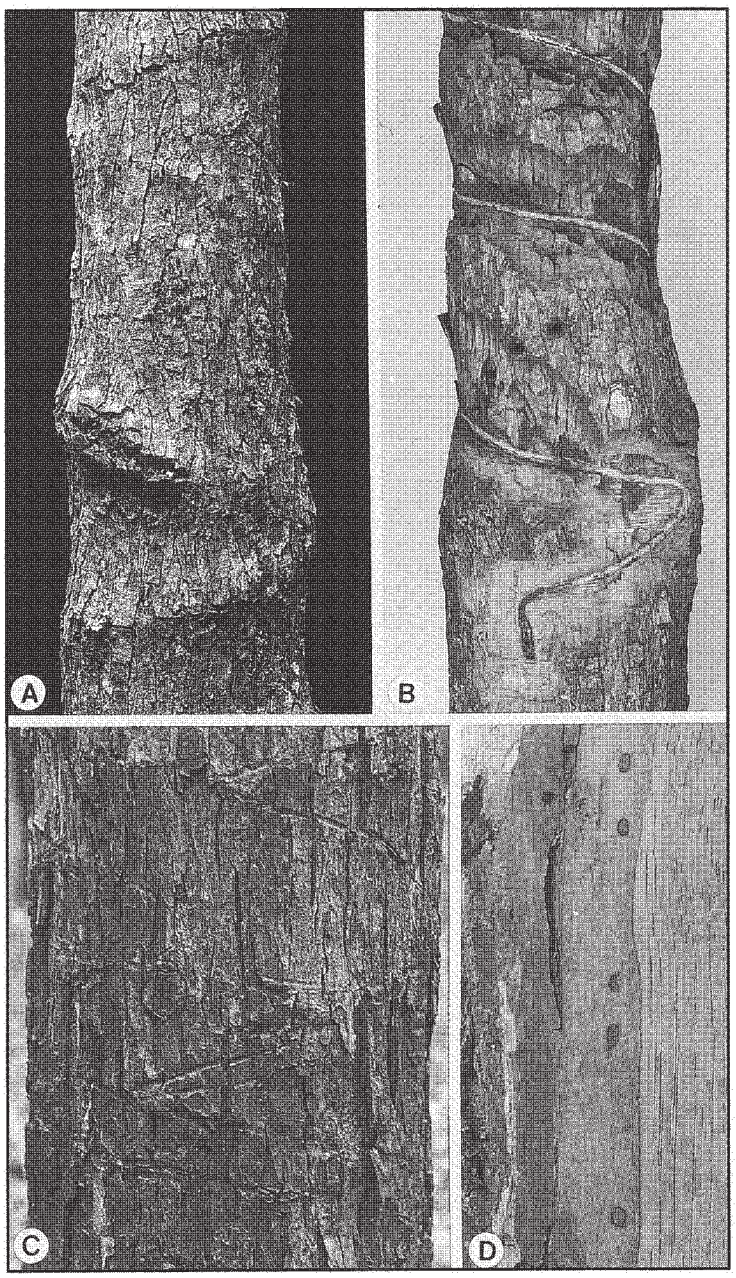


Figure 94—Agrilus otiosus, *[hickory agrilus]: A, young sinuate swellings on bark; B, bark removed to show spiral and sinuate gallery; C, sinuate grooves in outer bark of older hickory; D, pecan log split to show small frass-filled galleries in inner phloem.*

sometimes with bits of frass and ingrown bark, appear as defects similar to bird pecks. Small D-shaped exit holes can sometimes be found in the bark of young trees. This stem-boring beetle produces minor defects in the wood but does not cause mortality. In the Deep South, water hickory on wet sites in the bottomlands of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi seems particularly susceptible, and young pecan plantings have been heavily infested.

Control. One hymenopterous parasite—*Bephratoides agrili* (Ashmead)—has been reported, but nothing is known of its effectiveness (Burks 1979). Open-grown planted trees appear most susceptible.

Agrilus juglandis Knull

[butternut agrilus]

Hosts. Butternut. Butternut is the only recorded host (Fisher 1928, Knull 1920), but other *Juglans* species possibly serve as hosts.

Range. Occurs in the eastern United States from New York south to Virginia, west to Illinois and Michigan, and in Quebec (Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, somewhat linear beetle about 5.5 mm long and 1.4 mm wide (Fisher 1928, Knull 1920). Head and antennae green with back of head light coppery. Pronotum bronzy brown with sides more greenish. Elytra blackish with slightly brassy green tinge. Beetles black beneath and less shiny than above.

Biology. Adults emerge in May and June (Fisher 1928, Knull 1920). Larvae mine and burrow in the outer bark, where they feed and develop. They often feed together with larvae of other species of flatheaded borers.

Injury and damage. Initial infestations may be difficult to detect, but as attacks progress and are repeated, the bark may crack open to expose mines in the outer bark. The beetle causes little damage itself, but its injury apparently makes trees more susceptible to more serious borers such as the flatheaded appletree borer (Knull 1920).

Control. Controls have not been reported for this species.

Agrilus cephalicus LeConte

[dogwood agrilus] (figure 95)

Hosts. Dogwood. Dogwood is the only well-documented larval host (Fisher 1928); hazel has been mentioned as a host (Chamberlin 1926), but this seems questionable.

Range. Distributed throughout the eastern United States west to the Great Plains and across southern Canada (Fisher 1928, Herrick 1935).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small slender beetle that varies from uniformly dark, coppery brown to nearly black with pronotum of various shades of bronzy green (figure 95A) (Fisher 1928). Beetles elongate, moderately flattened dorsally and about 5.8 mm long and 1.5 mm wide. Pronotum wider than long and broadly rounded laterally. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at their base; feebly constricted before middle, then narrow obliquely toward tips. Tips of elytra separated, broadly rounded, and finely serrated; sutural margins elevated posteriorly. Antennae serrate from segment 4 to tips and

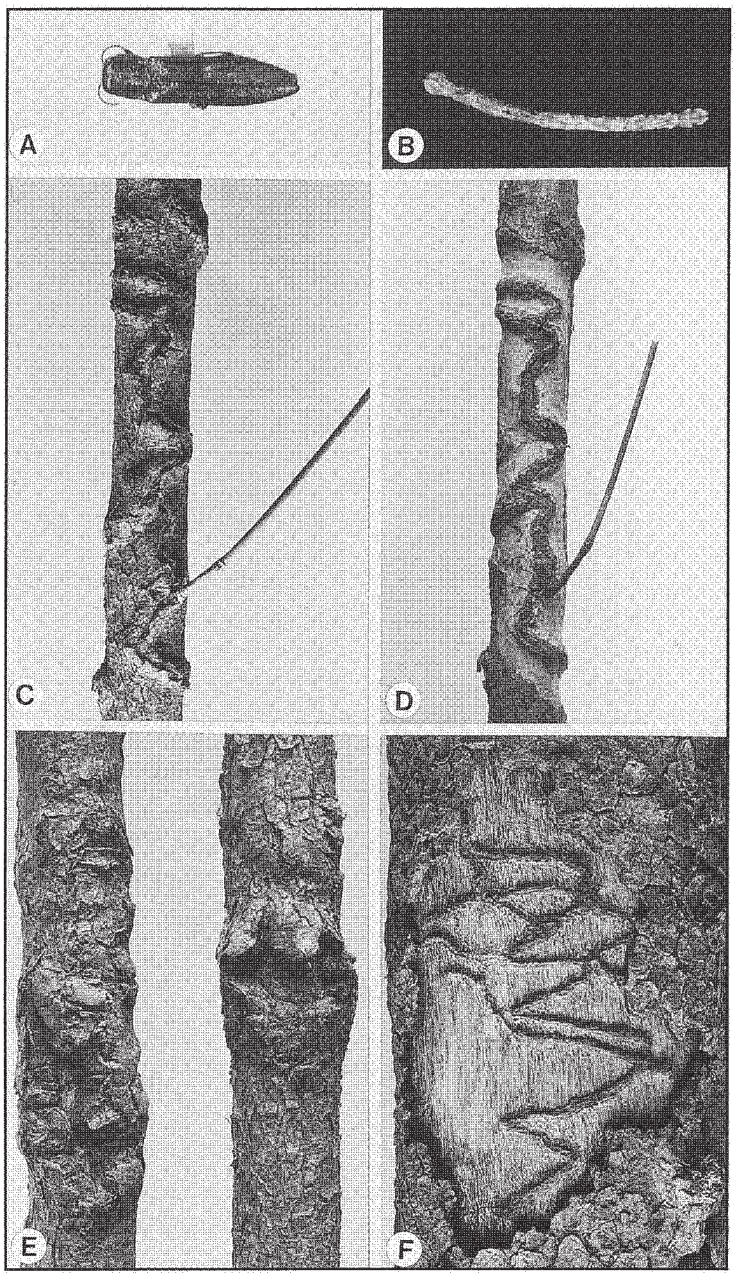


Figure 95—Agrilus cephalicus, *[dogwood agrilus]: A, adult; B, larva; C, bulging bark over gallery in small stem; D, bark removed to expose gallery; E, cankerlike scars left on bark from old attacks; F, sinuate galleries beneath bark on large stem.*

extend to about middle of pronotum (Fisher 1928, Wellso and others 1976). ***Larva.*** Whitish, elongate, and slightly flattened (figure 95B) (Weigel and Baumhofer 1948). First thoracic segment noticeably widened with horny, platelike surface and median bisecting line (Weigel and Baumhofer 1948). Larvae legless with pair of forcep-like spines at posterior end of abdomen.

Biology. Adults emerge from May to July and feed on host leaves before depositing eggs in bark crevices (Herrick 1935). Larvae bore directly from eggs through the bark to the surface of the sapwood, where they make irregular, meandering galleries filled with frass. They pupate below the surface of the wood, and new adults emerge in spring. The life cycle appears to require 1 year.

Injury and damage. Initially, infested trees are easily detected by wet spots on the bark surface made by small feeding larvae. The sap dries, but the bark remains dark stained with small intermingled bleached areas. Larval galleries filled with fine frass meander over the surface of sapwood. When borer wounds on small stems heal, wound tissue bulges along the meandering galleries (figure 95C and D). Sometimes, small localized areas of bark are killed, causing cankerlike openings and scars on the bark (figure 95E). On large trees, galleries often zigzag and may crisscross other galleries (figure 95F). Small weakened trees are sometimes girdled and killed by the tunneling larvae. D-shaped holes through the bark indicate the emergence of adults. This beetle typically attacks weakened trees and occasionally causes considerable damage to ornamentals around homes, along streets, and in recreation areas (Herrick 1935, Weigel and Baumhofer 1948). Trees recently transplanted and those suffering from defoliation, scale insects, disease, or mechanical injuries are particularly susceptible. The considerable decline and mortality of dogwood in the southeastern United States in recent years are partly attributable to this borer.

Control. One hymenopterous parasite—*Doryctes rufipes* (Provancher)—has been reported (Marsh 1979). The best insurance against infestation is to keep trees vigorous. Young transplanted trees should be wrapped with burlap or heavy crepe paper to prevent egg deposition; wraps should be applied before early May and should extend from groundline to the first branches, or higher if the branches are low. Several insecticides protected trees from attack by other *Agrilus* borers in Ohio when stems and foliage were sprayed three times at 2-week intervals beginning in mid-June (Nielsen and Dunlap 1982). Similar treatments should be effective against this species.

Agrilus difficilis Gory

[honeylocust agrilus] (figure 96)

Hosts. Honeylocust. Honeylocust is the only well-documented host (Fisher 1928, Schuder 1958). Willow has been mentioned as a host (Fisher 1928), but this seems doubtful.

Range. New Jersey and Michigan south to Georgia and west to Texas and Colorado (Fisher 1928, Franklin and Lund 1956).

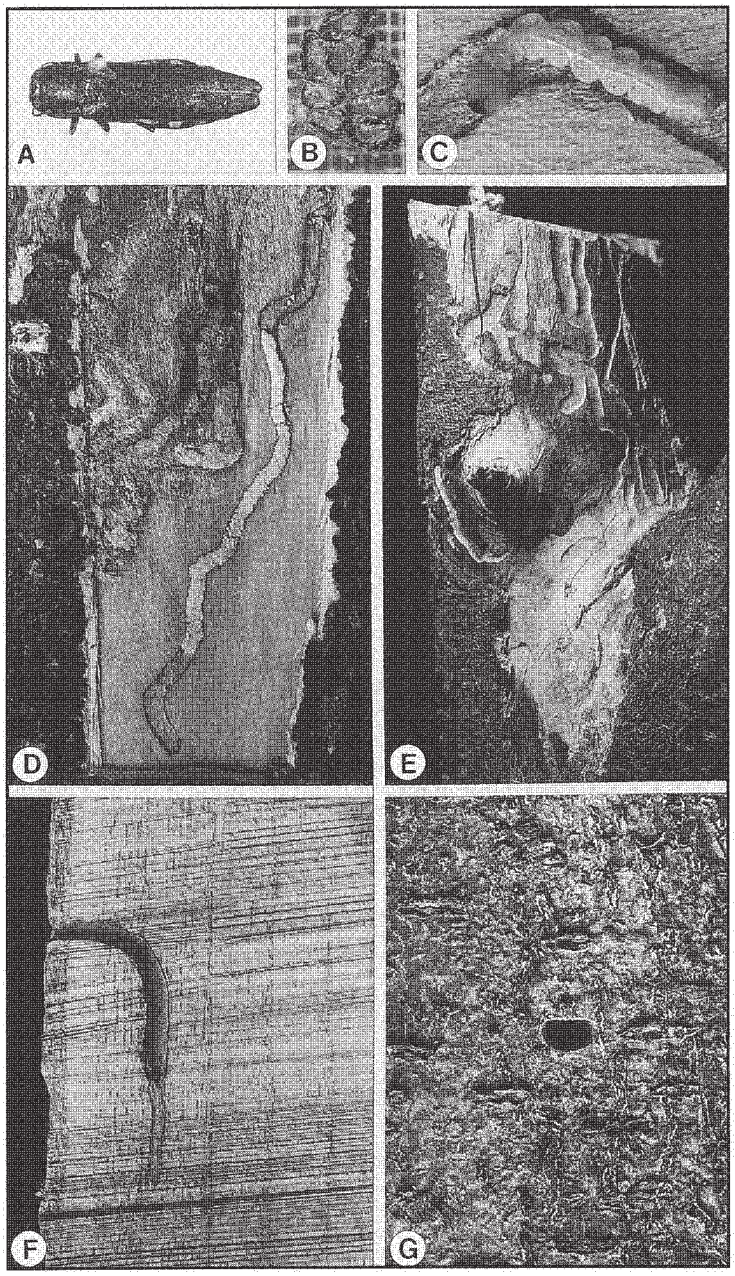


Figure 96—Agrilus difficilis, *[honeylocust agrilus]: A, adult; B, eggs; C, larva; D, frass-filled galleries on surface of sapwood; E, multiple galleries at pruning wound; F, pupal chamber in wood; G, D-shaped exit hole (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Nielsen).*

Range closely approximates the natural distribution of honeylocust (Little 1971).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slightly flattened beetle 7 to 13 mm long and 1.4 to 3.5 mm wide (figure 96A) (Fisher 1928). Lustrous black with green and purple reflections and coppery ventrally. Broad, flat head in front and large eyes. Antennae extend slightly beyond middle of pronotum and serrate from fourth segment to apex. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at their base and beyond middle taper toward tips. Sides of abdomen broadly exposed dorsally for nearly their entire length. Two rows of yellow pubescent spots above and below lateral abdominal suture, partially visible from above. Tips of elytra rounded and finely serrate. ***Egg.*** Oval, flattened, and sometimes in clusters (figure 96B). ***Larva.*** Long, flattened, narrow, obviously segmented, and white except for brown mandibles and anal forceps (figure 96C).

Biology. Adults begin emerging in April and May (Fisher 1928). In Ohio, emergence peaks in June and ends in late July (Akers and others 1986), but in Colorado, beetles have been collected as late as September 12 (Fisher 1928). Beetles commonly are found basking in sunlight on the bark of open-grown host trees (Champlain and Knull 1925). After feeding 2 to 3 weeks, females begin ovipositing on the bark of stressed trees (Akers and others 1986, Herms and others 1987). Oviposition studies in Ohio revealed that females average 1 egg per day over about 5 weeks, but clusters of up to 8 eggs have been found elsewhere. Eggs hatch in about 15 days. Young larvae bore through the chorions directly through bark to the cambium, where they feed and develop. Galleries are long, flattened, etched in the surface of the sapwood, and packed with fine frass (figure 96D and 96E). Mature larvae tunnel into the xylem, form pupation cells, and eventually pupate (figure 96F). New adults cut D-shaped holes (figure 96G) in the bark to exit. This borer has one generation per year (Schuder 1958).

Injury and damage. First signs of attack are wet areas on the bark. Exudation of large quantities of gum is common around infested nodes soon after larvae begin feeding (Schuder 1958). The sapstain on bark around infested sites is dark initially but later may lighten. Attacks are most common near bark scars, branch crotches, and around recent mechanical injuries. Borer attacks may occur in stems of all sizes greater than 1.5 cm in diameter (Akers and others 1986) but are most common in large branches and trunks (Herms and others 1987). Removing bark reveals long, flattened galleries packed with fine frass etched in the surface of sapwood. Galleries may extend 25 cm or more in one direction (figure 96D) or may meander and criss-cross in a small area of the stem (figure 96E). In Mississippi, light infestations have occurred beneath bark that surrounds recent mechanical injuries on living host trees. This species may be involved in honeylocust decline (Akers and others 1986), because susceptible trees may be girdled and killed (Schuder 1958).

Control. One hymenopterous parasite—*Leluthia astigma* (Ashmead)—has

been recorded (Marsh 1979). Drought-weakened trees and those suffering from other stresses are most susceptible (Akers and others 1986, Herms and others 1987). Thus, cultural practices that maintain tree vigor will help to minimize damage. Insecticides should help prevent new attacks but have not controlled established infestations (Schuder 1958).

Agrilus champlaini Frost

[hophornbeam borer] (figure 97)

Hosts. Hophornbeam, hornbeam. Eastern hophornbeam, commonly known as ironwood, and American hornbeam, best known as blue beech, are the only known hosts (Frost and Weiss 1920, Knull 1947).

Range. A northeastern species recorded from Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia west to Michigan (Fisher 1928, Wellso and others 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, rather robust beetle slightly flattened and 7 to 8 mm long (figure 97A) (Fisher 1928). Beetles uniformly black with feeble purple tinge and nearly opaque. Beneath slightly shinier than above and with vague brassy reflection. Antennae extend to middle of pronotum and serrate from fourth joint, with outer segments as wide as long. Large eyes strongly elongate and about equally rounded above and below. Sides of abdomen narrowly exposed above. ***Larva.*** Long, narrow, and flattened, with prothorax slightly wider than rest of body; brown mouth parts and anal forceps (figure 97B).

Biology. Adults emerge during May and June (Britton 1912b, Fisher 1928). Females oviposit on small stems often high above the ground. Larvae mine within a small area of the twig, causing it to swell as it grows and later becomes gall-like. Larval mines in the gall are irregular but generally spiral and usually packed with fine frass. Mature larvae pupate head downward in the center of the gall, and the new adults emerge from the lower portion of the swellings through small exit holes (Knull 1922).

Injury and damage. Conspicuous swellings and galls (figure 97C, D, and E) on the twigs, small branches, and terminals indicate infestation (Borror and others 1981, Britton 1912b). Multiple galls may occur on small stems (figure 97C). Stem galls cut open contain frass-filled galleries (figure 97E) and tunneling larvae. Emerging beetles leave D-shaped exit holes in the bark (figure 97D and E). Infested stems may be partly girdled and nearly severed, resulting in breakage or dieback.

Control. Four species of insect parasites—*Atanycolus hicoriae* Shenefelt, *Tetrastichus nordi* Burks, *T. rugglesi* Rohwer, and *Xylophrurus nubilipennis luctuosus* (Provancher)—have been reported (Burks 1979, Carlson 1979, Marsh 1979). Branches with galls on ornamental trees can be clipped and burned to destroy the beetles before they emerge in May.

Agrilus sayi Saunders

[bayberry agrilus]

Hosts. Bayberry, sweetfern. Bayberry is the major larval host (Bright 1981, Fisher 1922, Knull 1922). Adults have been taken

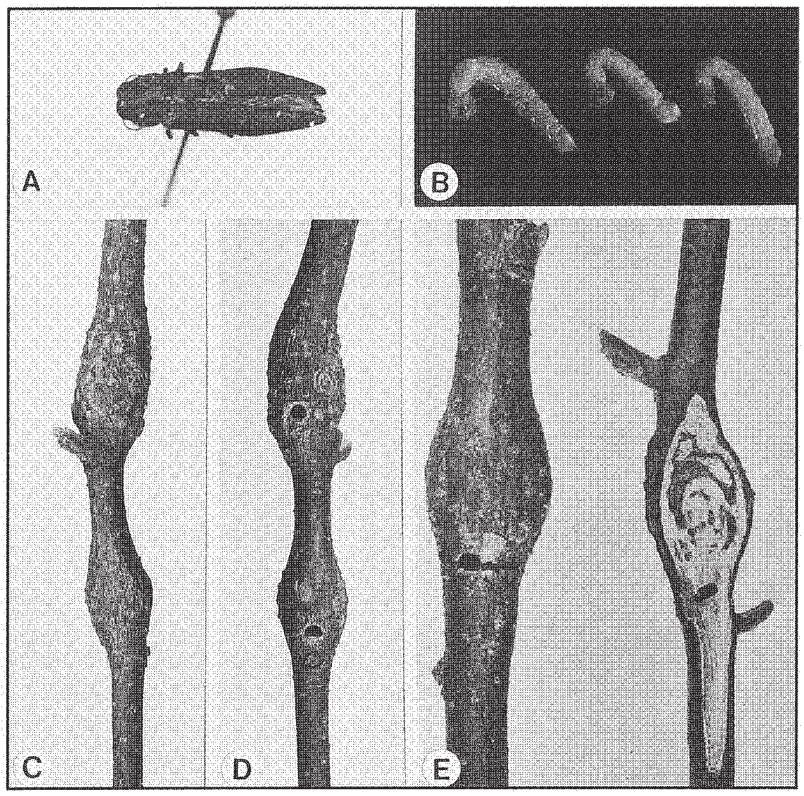


Figure 97—Agrilus champlaini, *[hophornbeam borer]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, twig with two galls; D, D-shaped emergence holes in galls; E, gall with exit hole and larval mines (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C & D, specimens courtesy S. Wellso; E, reproduced from Knull [1925]).*

on apple, oak, and poplar, but these probably are not larval hosts.

Range. An eastern species occurring primarily in the coastal states from Florida north to Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario (Bright 1987, Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928). Most references to this species before 1981 call it either *A. lateralis* (Say) or *A. browni* Carlson and Knight (Bright 1981).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate beetle, somewhat flattened above, and wing covers taper obliquely from middle toward rear (Fisher 1928). Wide, flat head between large pair of compound eyes. Antennae barely reach middle of pronotum and serrate beyond fourth segment. Pronotum about as wide at anterior margin as at posterior margin and broadly rounded laterally. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at their base and nearly parallel for basal half, then narrow obliquely to separated broadly rounded tips. Strongly shining body, and head and pronotum brassy copper; elytra black; undersides brassy with strong coppery reflections. ***Egg.*** Oval, somewhat flattened, and white when first deposited but turns to gray similar to bark of bayberry, and finally to black just before eclosion (Fisher 1922). ***Larva.*** Greatly elongate, narrow, somewhat flattened, and white except for brown mouthparts and anal forceps.

Biology. Adults begin emerging in late April in Florida (Fisher 1928), but in the northern range, most emerge during June and July (Chamberlin 1926). Adults often are observed on host foliage in full sunlight, especially on foliage of lower branches protected from wind. When disturbed, adults fly to another leaf but make no effort to hide. After feeding on foliage, females deposit eggs singly on the bark around the base of host plants. New larvae bore directly through the bottom of the eggs into the bark, filling the empty chorions with frass (Carlson and Knight 1969). Larvae burrow in the outermost layers of sapwood and down into the roots, where they spend a first winter. In spring, larvae burrow spirally upward in the stems and branches, often considerable distances. When mature, they bore deeply into the wood, where they pass a second winter. They pupate in the outer sapwood during the second spring. A 2-year life cycle is required (Fisher 1922).

Injury and damage. Unless trees die, diagnosis often is difficult. Initially, one may observe raggedly chewed edges on leaves of hosts, particularly on the lower limbs in sun (Fisher 1922). Closer inspection may reveal slight swellings on limbs that suggest partially healed larval galleries may be under the bark. Galleries made during their first year of development by larvae in bayberry are covered by new wood and may appear as spiral ridges on the surface. Galleries made during the second year are covered by a thin layer of wood through which the dark, frass-filled tunnels can sometimes be observed. Dissection of infested plants will reveal galleries in the main stems, branches, and roots. Larvae tunnel in both above- and belowground parts of sweetfern (Carlson and Knight 1969, Knull 1922). Although lightly infested healthy plants usually recover with only

minor scarring, heavily infested plants often succumb. Great numbers of bayberry shrubs reportedly were killed by this beetle during 1918 near Lyme, Connecticut (Fisher 1922).

Control. Vigorous plants are least likely to be attacked; those attacked frequently heal with little noticeable injury (Fisher 1922).

Agrilus masculinus Horn

[maple agrilus] (figure 98)

Hosts. Maple, hophornbeam, honeylocust. Red maple, sugar maple, boxelder, and hophornbeam listed as hosts (Fisher 1928, Wellso and others 1976). A single specimen has been reared from honeylocust (Hespenheide 1969). Adults have been collected from the foliage of buckeye and oak, but it is doubtful that they reproduce in these trees (Blatchley 1910, Chamberlin 1926).

Range. Occurs from Quebec southward to South Carolina and west to Texas and South Dakota (Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, slender beetle, 4 to 7 mm long and 0.85 to 1.5 mm wide (figure 98A) (Blatchley 1910, Fisher 1928). Bronzy green head on male, coppery on female. Antennae extend to about middle of pronotum and serrated from fourth segment. Pronotum bronzy green with brownish tinge, and prosternum of male densely pubescent. Elytra black with bronze reflections. ***Larva.*** White, long, narrow, and slightly flattened with prothorax slightly wider than other segments (figure 98B).

Biology. Adults emerge from April to July and often rest on the foliage of host trees (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928). Eggs are deposited on branches and trunks of susceptible trees. Sampling maple branches from 2 to 64 mm in diameter revealed highest infestation rates in those 16 to 32 mm in diameter (Hespenheide 1969). Mature larvae enter sapwood to pupate. Although duration of the life cycle is unknown, based on times of adult emergence and gallery lengths and shapes, a generation appears to require 2 years.

Injury and damage. Outward evidence of early attacks is usually lacking, so weakened hosts and those with wounds must be checked closely for infestation. Slight swellings on young, thin-barked trees and D-shaped emergence holes (figure 98C) are the only visible bark indicators. Removing pieces of bark from infested trees will reveal larval galleries in the cambium area. Galleries made by young larvae are very narrow, mostly vertical elongate, and interrupted with many short stairsteps (figure 98D). Those of older larvae meander but frequently zigzag (figure 98E). Galleries that heal over in surviving trees become ridgelike on the surface of the sapwood (figure 98F). This beetle attacks weakened, wounded, dying, and recently dead trees (Fisher 1928, Hespenheide 1969). Although infestations sometimes hasten mortality of weakened trees, populations are widely scattered, and overall damage is negligible (Beal and others 1952).

Control. No natural controls have been observed, and direct controls have not been needed.

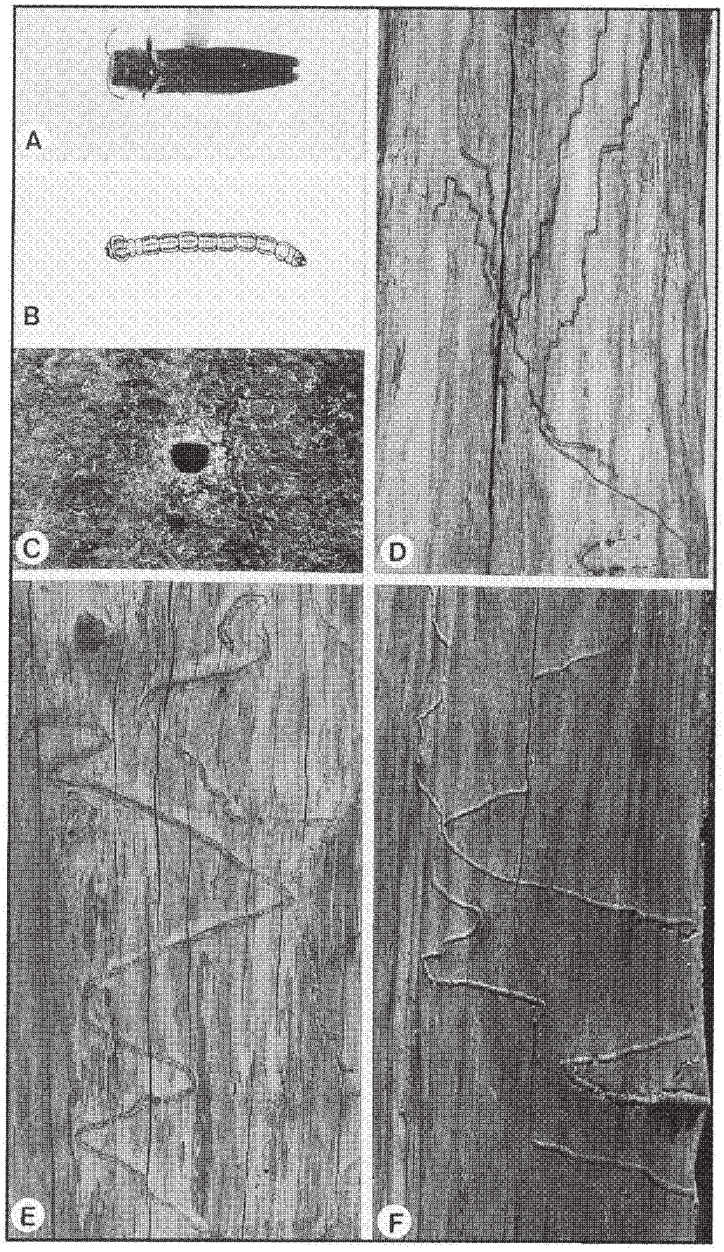


Figure 98—Agrilus masculinus, *[maple agrilus]: A, adult; B, larva; C, D-shaped emergence hole in bark; D, narrow stair-step galleries of young larvae; E, zigzag galleries of large larvae; F, ridgelike overgrown galleries in surviving maple (A, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

Agrilus vittaticollis Randall

[hawthorn root borer] (figure 99)

Hosts. Apple, pear, crabapple, serviceberry, hawthorn. Pear and crabapple only occasionally attacked (Brooks 1914). Adults have been collected feeding on chokecherry.

Range. Most common in the eastern United States but distributed throughout most of North America from Florida north to Maine and west to California and across southern Canada from Quebec to British Columbia (Bright 1987, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, slightly flattened beetle averaging 10.5 mm long and 2.5 mm wide (figure 99A) (Brooks 1914). Elytra black with tinge of purple; head and thorax iridescent purple or coppery in sunlight. Dense bronze pubescence along sides of thorax and as wide stripe, dorsally extending to front of head. Lines of bronze pubescence extend along sides of abdomen visible dorsally beyond inflected edges of elytra. Elytra somewhat broaden behind middle, tips being separately rounded and finely serrulate. ***Egg.*** Flattened, oblong, disk-like, 1.9 by 1.3 mm. Chorion surface irregularly corrugated, ridges and depressions being more distinct near margin. When first laid, creamy white but in few days change to grayish brown, resembling bark. ***Larva.*** White except for brown mouthparts and anal forceps; 30 to 36 mm long and 3 to 4 mm wide (figure 99B). Long, slender, flattened, distinctly segmented, and nearly uniform in width throughout, except for first thoracic segment slightly wider. ***Pupa.*** Broad, flattened dorsally, and about 12 mm long (figure 99C).

Biology. In West Virginia, adults emerge in May and live about 2 weeks (Brooks 1914). In other parts of the country, adults have been collected from mid-April to late July (Fisher 1928). Eggs typically are laid on the bark a few centimeters above ground, mostly during May and June. Most eggs are glued firmly on smooth bark surfaces, but a few are inserted into cracks or under bark scales. When hatching, larvae bore directly into the bark through the undersides of eggs; as larvae burrow, they push frass back into the vacated egg chorions. Larvae typically tunnel downward in the cambium for 15 to 30 cm to a root, where they burrow spirally around the root once or twice. Here, they bore into the wood of the root and extend their galleries outward 0.9 to 1.2 m toward the root tips. They spend the first winter in root galleries. In the spring, larvae reverse direction and burrow back toward the trunk. They reach the root collar by midsummer, then tunnel upward in the trunk, usually within 2.5 cm of the bark. During fall, mature larvae construct vertical pupal chambers that curve to within 2 mm of the bark. In trees smaller than 15 cm in diameter at their base, pupation occurs within 13 to 25 cm of the ground. On larger trees, it is not unusual for larvae to burrow up to 60 to 90 cm above ground to pupate. A generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. The only outward evidence of attack is small adult exit holes. No frass or wood fiber is cast to the outside as it is with roundheaded borers.

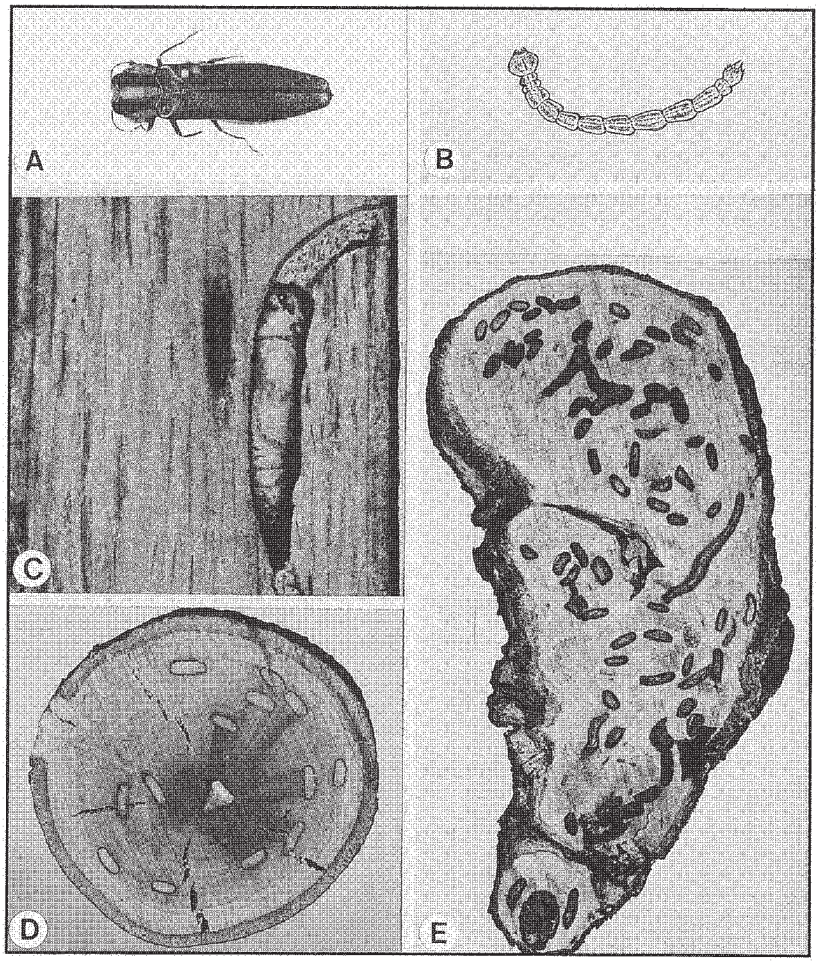


Figure 99—Agrilus vittaticollis, *[hawthorn root borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa in pupal chamber in wood; D, trunk cross section showing galleries; E, root cross section showing many galleries (A, B, & D, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C & E, reproduced from Brooks [1914]).*

Larval galleries often extend through trunks (figure 99D) and roots (figure 99E) for up to 1.8 m (Brooks 1914). Throughout its length, the gallery is packed with dustlike wood. Galleries in cross section are flattened, oval, and about 1 by 3 mm in diameter for mature larvae (figure 99D and E). In heavily infested trees, borers kill roots and weaken the entire tree. Besides injury resulting from the damaged roots, moisture can enter the tree through the exit holes, frequently inducing decay of the heartwood. Trees attacked repeatedly are sometimes killed. Considerable damage to young trees was recorded in the Appalachian fruit-growing region in the early 1900's. In one West Virginia survey, 82% of 125 apple trees under 13 cm in diameter were infested with these borers (Brooks 1914).

Control. The most effective natural enemy is the hymenopterous parasite *Xylophrurus agrili* (Viereck), which destroys from 25 to 40% of the full-grown larvae and pupae (Brooks 1914). The most effective artificial control is prevention of oviposition with a mechanical or insecticidal barrier. This can be done by wrapping the basal 1 m of the tree with a heavy cloth or waterproof paper in early spring. Applying a residual insecticide at least twice, 2 weeks apart, starting at blossom time should also prevent oviposition. Where the borer is troublesome, it is advisable to eliminate any wild host trees near new plantings. Doing so reduces the source of infestation and populations.

Agrilus sinuatus (Olivier)

sinuate peartree borer (figure 100)

Hosts. Pear, hawthorn, quince, cotoneaster, and serviceberry. Pear is the preferred host; other hosts are considered secondary (Glasgow 1934).

Range. A European insect, discovered in New Jersey in 1894, now occurring in the United States principally in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut (Britton 1921, Metcalf and others 1962). It was probably introduced from France on pear nursery stock.

Description. ***Adult.*** Shiny purplish bronze to brilliant, iridescent, coppery red beetle with body surface finely granulate and covered with small punctures (figure 100A) (Britton 1921, Glasgow 1934). Elongate body (8.5 mm long) somewhat flattened and boat-shaped outline (Metcalf and others 1962). ***Egg.*** Oval, flattened, scalelike and usually found cemented to bark in depressions. ***Larva.*** About 38 mm long, white to yellowish, and flattened throughout (figure 100B). Pair of brown, inwardly curving forceps on anal segment (Smith 1895). ***Pupa.*** Generally has same form and size as adult and initially white but gradually darkens (figure 100C).

Biology. Adults emerge from late May and June and are commonly found on bark and leaves on the sunny side of trees (Britton 1921, Glasgow 1934). Females deposit eggs by cementing them to the bark, in crevices or slight depressions. Hatching larvae bore directly through the bottoms of eggs into the bark and soon into outer sapwood. Young larvae make brown threadlike galleries that

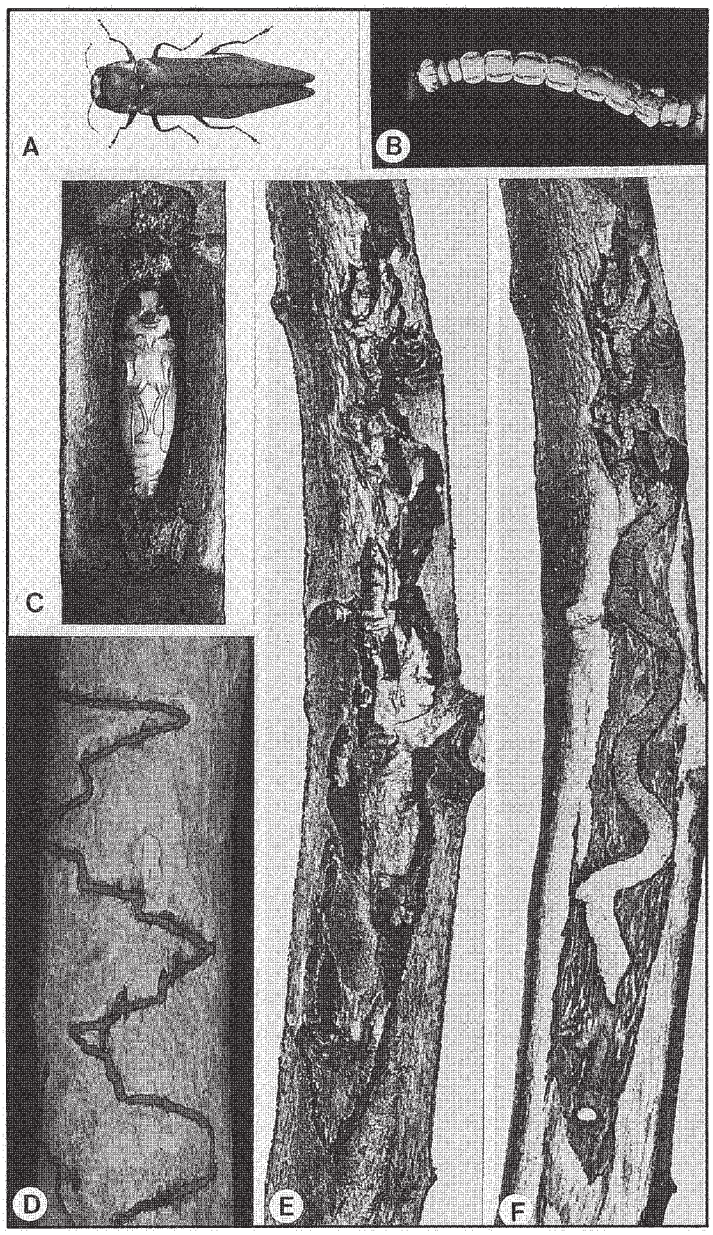


Figure 100—Agrilus sinuatus, *sinuate peartree borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa in pupal chamber; D, narrow sinuate galleries of young larva; E, bark split and loosening over gallery; F, bark removed to expose gallery of large larva (A-C, E & F, reproduced from Glasgow [1934]; D, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

are sinuate or irregularly bent and eventually become zigzag, depending on the size of the branch or trunk, but always toward the base of trees. In spring, larvae make larger, more serpentine galleries readily visible in the bark. In small nursery trees, galleries often extend down to the root collar or slightly below (Smith 1895). By September of the second year, larvae burrow about 6 to 8 mm deep into the wood and construct pupation chambers. Here, the larvae overwinter and pupation begins the next April. A generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Large trees attacked by the borer display gradual dieback of branches and poor vigor and may eventually succumb; young trees may die quickly (Glasgow 1934, Metcalf and others 1962). The most obvious signs of injury are the narrow galleries following a sinuous, serpentine, or zigzag course beneath the bark and outer sapwood (figure 100D). Galleries generally start in a branch and always extend downward to the trunk, often to the base of the tree. On young trees, the bark splits (figure 100E) or swells, forming a continuous raised streak or welt parallel to the zigzag course of the larval gallery (Parrott and Glasgow 1915). Galleries of second-year larvae are larger (figure 100F), and the splits, ridges, and welts are more easily seen on the bark surface. The locations of pupal chambers are usually visible on the bark of small stems and branches as somewhat sunken, blackened, and cankerlike; the black discoloration extends into the wood. New adults emerge from D-shaped holes on trunks and branches. No reports on this introduced species have been published in recent years, and so its current status as a pest is not known.

Control. Several practices can help to minimize damage and loss (Glasgow 1934, Metcalf and others 1962, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). To avoid new infestations, nursery stock should be inspected before it is planted. Infested branches and trees should be cut and burned to destroy developing broods. Wild host trees close to valuable plantings should be eliminated to reduce the reservoir of infestation. The trunks and major branches of young trees in high-risk areas can be wrapped with crepe paper. Only one hymenopterous parasite—*Tetrastichus agrili* Crawford—has been recorded (Burks 1979). Insecticides used against other pests in orchards in recent years apparently have minimized infestations by this insect.

Agrilus crataegi Frost

[hawthorn agrilus] (figure 101)

Hosts. Hawthorn. Several unidentified species of hawthorn are attacked (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928).

Range. Reported from Pennsylvania south to Alabama, west to Iowa and from Alberta and Quebec (Fisher 1928, Nelson and others 1981).

Description. ***Adult.*** Rather slender, elongate, very slightly flattened beetle from 6 to 8 mm long (figure 101A) (Fisher 1928). Greenish to brownish copper head. Pronotum and elytra olive bronze, suffused with copper colors, becoming distinctly reddish copper on apical third of elytra and moderately shiny. Antennae serrate

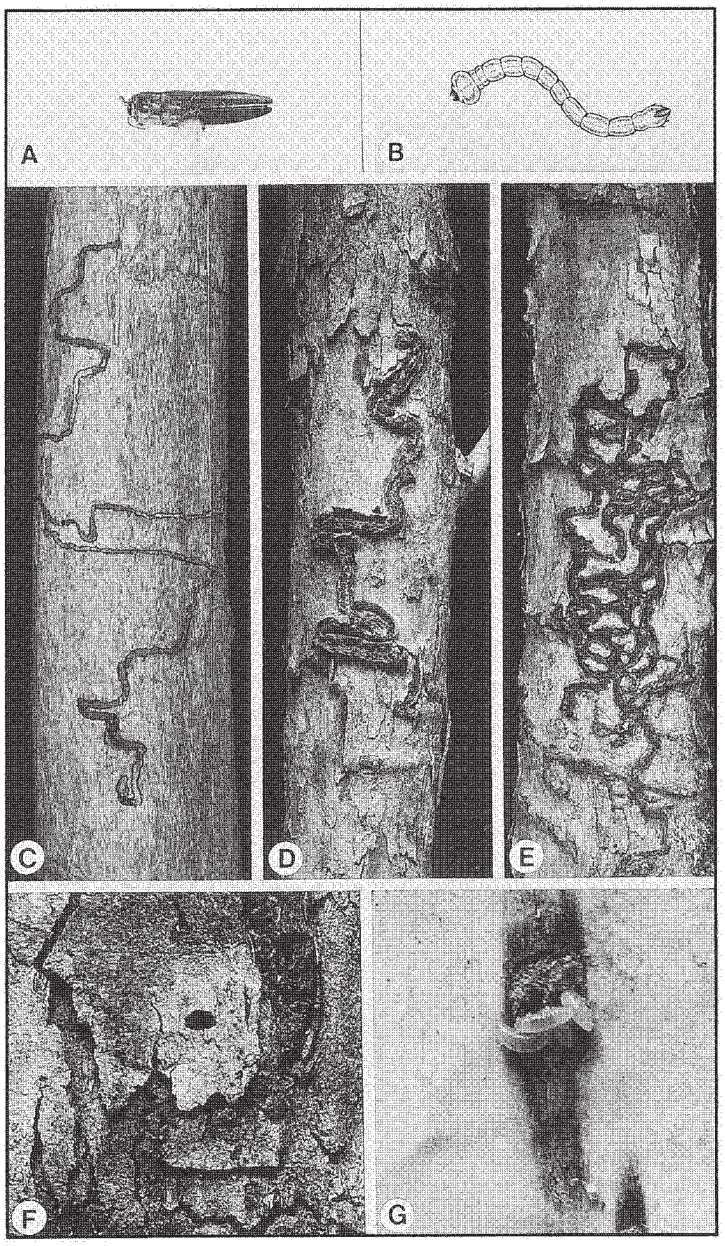


Figure 101—Agrilus crataegi, *[hawthorn agrilus]: A, adult; B, larva; C, bark removed to expose current gallery; D, bulging bark over single gallery; E, bulging bark scar over multiple galleries; F, D-shaped exit hole; G, parasite larvae exiting from pupal cell (A, specimen courtesy S. Wellso).*

from fourth joint; pronotum wider than long; and elytra slightly wider than pronotum at base. ***Larva.*** White, elongate, moderately flattened, and 12 to 15 mm long (figure 101B).

Biology. Adults emerge during June and July (Fisher 1928, Knull 1925). Young larvae bore into the cambium, where they feed and develop. Larvae make meandering galleries, packed tightly with frass, that initially extend downward, but many reverse directions one or more times, usually for short distances. Completed galleries measure up to 2 mm wide and sometimes reach 20 to 30 cm long. When mature, larvae burrow 2 to 5 mm deep in the wood and form pupation chambers. New adults cut holes through the wood and bark to emerge.

Injury and damage. Removing bark reveals larval galleries in the cambium (figure 101C). Bark immediately over the healed larval burrows swells, splits, and puckers, making prominent bark scars. Although the bark scars meander or zigzag crookedly over bark surface, they generally extend longitudinally (figure 101D). Bark scars over multiple or repeated attacks may crisscross many times and become very noticeable on the stems (figure 101E). Small D-shaped exit holes can be found in the bark (figure 101F). Heavy infestations can sometimes girdle and kill small plants. Some mortality in hawthorn thickets in Mississippi has been attributed to this borer.

Control. Parasite larvae have been found in pupal chambers (figure 101G), but no adults have been reared for identification. Direct controls have not been needed.

Agrilus fuscipennis Gory

[persimmon agrilus] (figure 102)

Hosts. Persimmon. Persimmon is the only confirmed larval host, but adults have been collected on sourwood (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928).

Range. A southeastern species, recorded mostly from North Carolina west to Texas but reportedly occurring as far north as Ohio (Chamberlin 1926, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, elongate, robust, and slightly flattened beetle, 12 to 14 mm long and 3.3 to 4 mm wide (figure 102A) (Fisher 1928). Head and pronotum dark copper with strong reddish purple tinge and black elytra. Beetles more shiny below than above, and bronzy black with anterior parts blending to blackish olive. Pronotum three-fourths wider than long and widest at middle. Sides of abdomen narrowly exposed and visible from above. ***Larva.*** Long, very slender, and white except for dark brown mouthparts and anal forceps (figure 102B). Prothorax slightly wider and mesothorax and metathorax slightly narrower than abdominal segments.

Biology. Adults begin emerging in spring and have been collected from March to July (Fisher 1928). Females apparently oviposit on the lower trunk. Larvae burrow into the wood and make long galleries in both the lower trunk and roots. Dissections reveal that galleries are most prevalent around the root collar and commonly occur 1.2 m up into trunks and 0.5 m down into roots. However, a few galleries have been found in trunks to 2 m and in roots to 1 m. Pupation occurs in

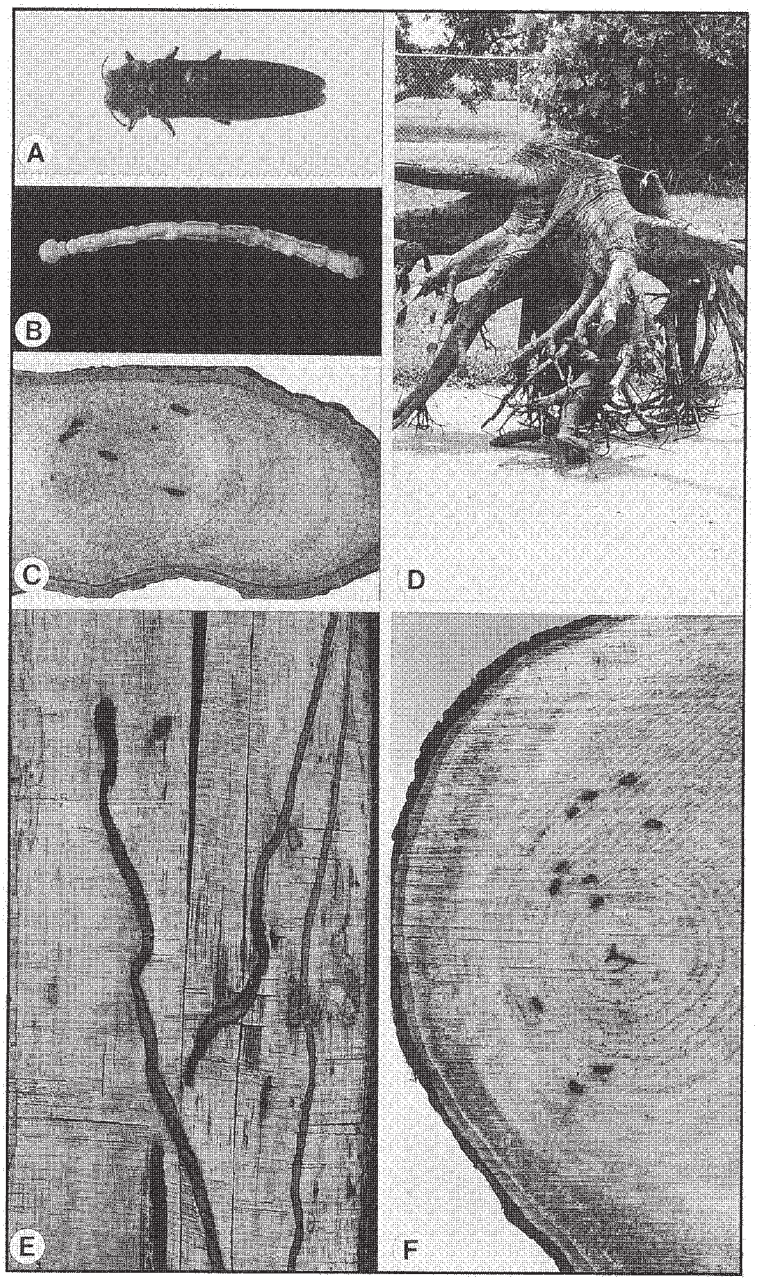


Figure 102—Agrilus fuscipennis, *[persimmon agrilus]: A, adult; B, larva; C, root cross section showing flattened oval galleries; D, large upper roots contain most galleries; E, galleries in wood of trunk; F, trunk cross section showing multiple galleries.*

chambers in the lower trunk. The life cycle is little known, but based on gallery lengths and sizes, it is likely that development takes more than 1 year.

Injury and damage. Infestations are difficult to detect in living trees. Although removing bark sometimes reveals burrows, cutting into the trunk and excavated roots is usually required to expose galleries (figure 102C and D). Long, narrow galleries within wood in the lower trunk and roots extend longitudinally and generally straight courses with only slight bends (figure 102E). Galleries are flattened ovals in cross section and measure 1.0 to 3.5 mm by 0.5 to 1.0 mm (figure 102F). Galleries are tightly packed with fine frass that is slightly lighter to slightly darker than surrounding wood (figure 102C, E, and F). A thin layer of wood (0.5 to 2.0 mm) immediately surrounding the galleries in both trunk and roots is typically stained black. Up to 15 galleries per tree have been observed in cross sections from the lower trunk. This borer apparently causes little or no mortality. However, its tunnels in the wood are considered defects that interfere with the manufacture of specialty wood products and result in degraded logs of less value.

Control. Nothing is known of natural controls, and direct controls have not been needed.

Agrilus ruficollis (Fabricius)

rednecked cane borer (figure 103)

Hosts. Raspberry, blackberry, dewberry. Shows a decided preference for blackberry (Hutchings 1923) but attacks all varieties of raspberry and dewberry—wild and cultivated (Fisher 1928).

Range. Distributed from eastern Canada and New England westward to Minnesota and Kansas and southward to Texas, covering nearly the entire eastern half of the United States (Chittenden 1922, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Narrowly elongate and cylindrical beetle (figure 103A) (Chittenden 1922, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Elytra vary from beautiful velvety black to blue black with bluish reflection. Thorax usually coppery red but sometimes golden, brassy, or blue. Readily distinguishable from other *Agrilus* spp. by its red pronotum (neck) from which it gets its name. Head small, dark, bronze, and deeply grooved. Antennae and legs very short relative to rest of body. Beetles 6 to 8 mm long and about a fourth as wide. ***Egg.*** Irregularly oval and flattened, dirty white with brownish edges, from 1.0 to 1.5 mm across (Hutchings 1923). ***Larva.*** Greatly elongated and flattened (figure 103B) (Chittenden 1922, Lugger 1899, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). First thoracic segment prominent, being moderately flattened and widened at sides. Last segment of abdomen ends in pair of slender, forcep-like horns with three blunt teeth on inner edge of each. Larvae white to pale yellowish with brown head, measure 16 to 19 mm long (Chittenden 1922, Lugger 1899).

Biology. Around Washington, DC, adults appear as early as the first week in May. In more northern regions, they emerge from

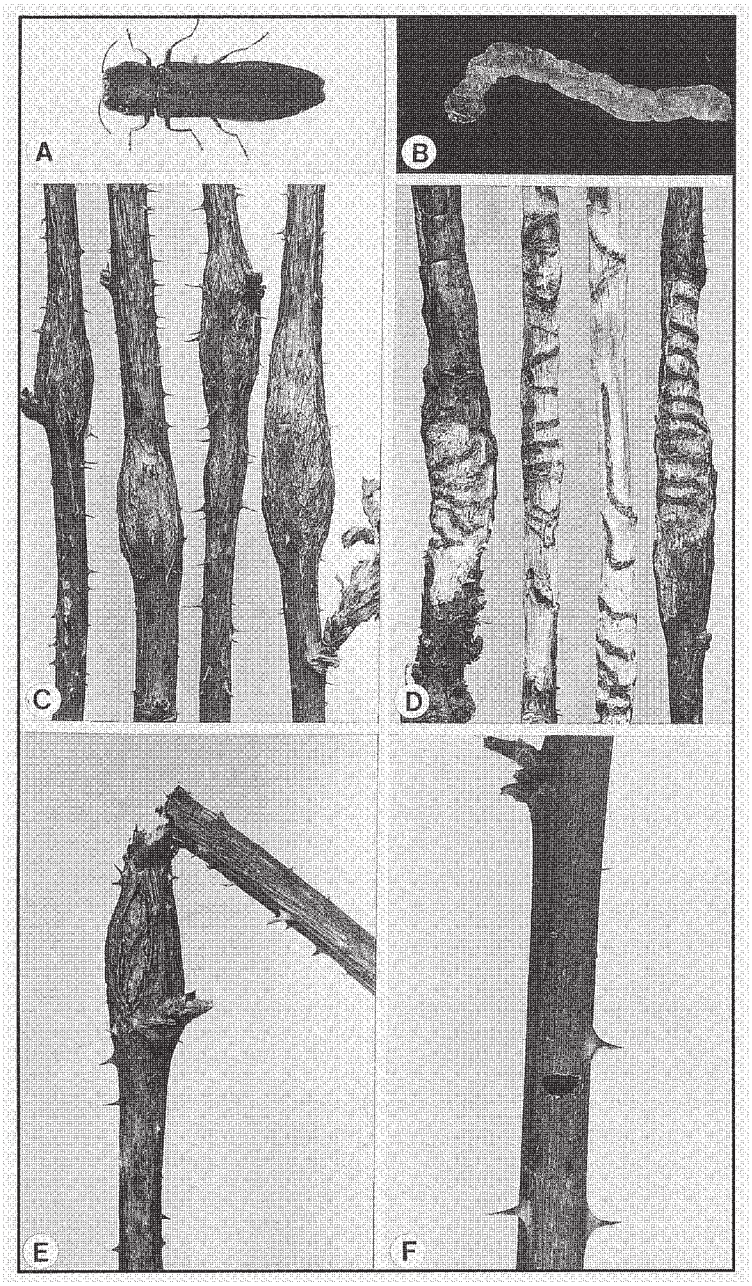


Figure 103—Agrilus ruficollis, *rednecked cane borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, swellings on raspberry canes; D, bark removed to expose spiral galleries; E, cane broken at girdled site; F, D-shaped exit hole.*

June until August (Chittenden 1922). Females oviposit from June to August on young cane growth, first near the root collar and later at points on the main stem and branches. Eggs are inserted in the bark near leaf bases and hatch in about 3 weeks (Hutchings 1923). The minute larvae feed beneath the bark and proceed spirally upward or downward in the wood parts causing the stems to swell and become gall-like (figure 103C) (Chittenden 1922). They typically tunnel spirally around the cane two to six or more times, often girdling it (figure 103D) (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Later, larvae bore into the pith and continue upward or downward for 10 to 20 cm or more, sometimes causing stems to break (figure 103E). Mature larvae form oval pupal cells in the pith where they overwinter. Pupal cells typically are only a short distance above the ground and a few centimeters below the first gall. Pupation occurs during April and May and lasts 7 to 10 days. Adults exit through D-shaped emergence holes (figure 103F). This cane borer has one generation annually.

Injury and damage. Larval tunneling causes irregular swellings or galls 2.5 to 10.2 cm long (figure 103C). Swellings initially are elongate or spindlelike but gradually enlarge and often exhibit multiple splits and become greatly roughened in appearance. The swellings sometimes form goutylike galls—hence, one of the earlier common names, the "gouty-gall beetle." Spiral burrows around the stem in these gall-like swellings are common, especially in raspberry canes (figure 103D); spindle-shaped swellings with splitting are more typical in blackberry and dewberry canes. Swellings and galls may occur at any point on the main stem and branches, but more commonly in the lower 0.3 to 0.9 m. Infested plants appear weakened and unthrifty, and fruits develop poorly. Cane breakage is common (figure 103E). The borer has been particularly destructive in cultivated plantings; heavy damage to blackberries in New Jersey has resulted in crop losses.

Control. Three species of insect parasites—*Bracon* sp., *Microbracon xanthostigmus* (Cresson), and *Ptinobius magnificus* (Ashmead)—have been reared (Chittenden 1922, Hopkins 1891). In one study, 18% of the larvae were destroyed by parasites (Hopkins 1891). Culturally, infested canes should be cut and burned during fall, winter, and early spring to destroy larvae (Chittenden 1922, Lugger 1899). Also, wild host plants in nearby fencerows and ditchbanks should be destroyed to reduce the source of outside infestation. Insecticides directed toward the adults and applied just before the plants flower effectively reduce populations (Johnson and Mayes 1989, Metcalf and others 1962).

Agrilus aurichalceus Redtenbacher

rose stem girdler

Hosts. Rose, raspberry. Cultivated and wild varieties are attacked; the cultivated varieties seem to be preferred (Davis and Raghuvir 1964, Fisher 1928).

Range. Species apparently introduced from Holland in the early 1920's (Mutchler and Weiss 1922) and now recorded from

Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Utah (Davis and Raghuvir 1964, Fisher 1928).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, slender beetle, flattened above, and measuring 4.0 to 6.2 mm long and 1.0 to 1.7 mm wide (Fisher 1928). Pronotum and elytra greenish bronze with decidedly coppery tinge. Antennae serrate from fourth segment outward and extend to middle of pronotum in males but barely to pronotum in females. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at their base and narrow obliquely beyond middle. Tips of elytra separated, rounded, and minutely serrulate. ***Egg.*** Lemon colored, brittle, and flattened oval (scalelike), measuring 1.50 by 0.75 mm (Davis and Raghuvir 1964). ***Larva.*** Long, narrow, and flattened with slightly enlarged prothorax; white except for dark brown mouthparts and anal forceps; and 12 to 15 mm long (Davis and Raghuvir 1964).

Biology. Adults emerge from May to July and deposit eggs singly on the bark of canes usually near the ground. Young larvae make a series of two to five spiral galleries close together beneath bark; swellings or galls form over such galleries. Eventually, larger larvae construct zigzag galleries beneath the bark or in the pith. Larvae overwinter in canes and pupate within their burrows in spring. A generation is completed in 1 year in Utah but may require 2 years in the northeastern United States (Davis and Raghuvir 1964, Herrick 1935).

Injury and damage. First-year canes typically wilt, turn yellow, and break or die back when attacked (Davis and Raghuvir 1964, Mutchler and Weiss 1922). Gall-like stem swellings vary from barely noticeable to twice the stem diameter. The bark surface of galls often splits longitudinally (Herrick 1935). Dissection can reveal the larval galleries beneath the bark, which spiral downward 60 to 100 mm then turn upward in a zigzag, either in the pith or just under the bark, for 130 to 150 mm. Weakened stems frequently break. The borer causes considerable damage to roses and raspberries, killing them above the sites of larval feeding. It damages nursery roses extensively in New Jersey (Weiss 1914) and makes raspberry production in Utah impractical (Davis and Raghuvir 1964).

Control. Infested canes should be pruned and those broken and lying on the ground collected during winter and early spring (before May) and destroyed (Herrick 1935, Mutchler and Weiss 1922). Insecticides may be needed to protect commercial and ornamental plantings.

Eupristocerus cogitans Weber

[alder gall buprestid] (figure 104)

Hosts. Alder, birch. Speckled alder is the only living host known, but the species has been recorded from dead river birch (Knull 1920, 1930).

Range. A little-known species recorded in the eastern United States from Vermont and New Hampshire south to Florida, west to Mississippi and Michigan, and in Ontario and New Brunswick (Bright 1987, Capelouto 1949, Nelson and others 1981, Wellso and others 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, oval, cop-

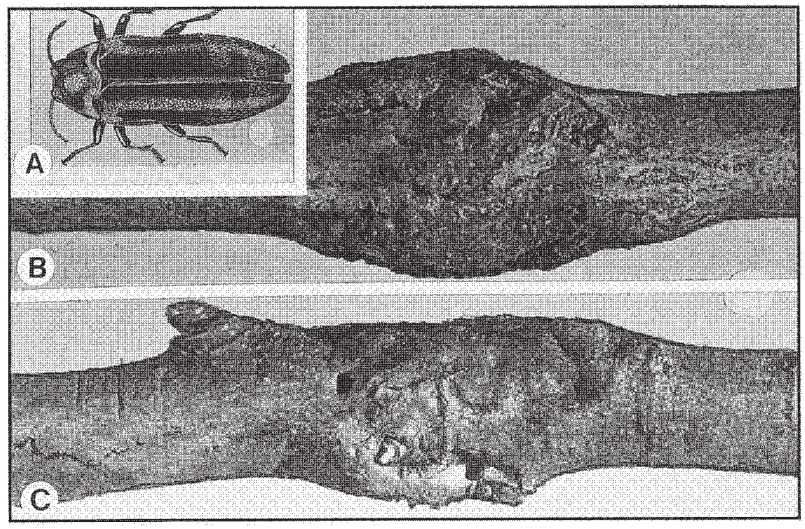


Figure 104—Eupristocerus cogitans, *[alder gall buprestid]: A, adult; B, gall-like swelling on alder; C, D-shaped emergence hole on side of swelling (reproduced from Knull [1925]).*

pery black beetle, measuring 8 to 9 mm long (figure 104A) (Franklin and Lund 1956, Knull 1925). Head and thorax cupreous, and the thorax twice as wide as long. Elytra black, rounded from middle to apices, with two transverse apical pubescent spots united along the lateral margins.

Biology. Adults oviposit at rough spots on the bark or near a node on the plant (Knull 1920). Eggs hatch, and the young larvae bore beneath the bark, where they move down the stem for a short distance. They encircle the stem, which causes swollen areas or galls to develop. Mature larvae prepare pupal cells at the top of the galls. Development requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Galls on small stems of hosts are evidence of infestation (figure 104B) (Knull 1925). Dissection of the galls and surrounding bark reveals the burrows and larvae. Emerging adults leave small D-shaped holes in the bark at the uppermost part of the galls (figure 104C). The species apparently is of little importance.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Chrysobothris femorata (Olivier)

flatheaded appletree borer (figure 105)

Hosts. Pecan, hickory, apple, pear, peach, apricot, plum, cherry, quince, currant, walnut, poplar, willow, beech, chestnut, oak, elm, hackberry, sycamore, mountain-ash, serviceberry, hawthorn, redbud, maple, horsechestnut, linden, persimmon, boxelder. Maple, apple, and poplar are preferred hosts, but many other trees are also readily attacked.

Range. A pest of many deciduous trees from Mexico throughout the United States into Canada (Brooks 1919a, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Broad, oval, flattened beetle about 7 to 16 mm long (figure 105A) (Brooks 1919a, Moznette and others 1931). Metallic hued and indistinctly marked with dull gray spots and irregular bands. Underside coppery bronze and beneath the wings metallic greenish blue. ***Egg.*** Pale yellow, flattened, disk-like, wrinkled, and about 1.5 mm in diameter. Firmly attached to bark by their flat surfaces. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white, legless, and about 25 mm long fully grown (figure 105B). Three thoracic segments much broadened and compressed, giving larva appearance of having large flattened head, which accounts for its name. Within galleries, larvae nearly always assume shape of horseshoe. ***Pupa.*** Somewhat yellower than larva; resembles adult; 7 to 19 mm long.

Biology. Adults appear from March to November but are most abundant during May (Fenton 1942, Moznette and others 1931). Beetles, most active in full sunlight, run rapidly and take flight quickly when disturbed. On hot, clear days, beetles are found on the sunny sides of trunks and larger branches. Females spend much time running over the surface, probing the bark with their ovipositors for oviposition sites. Females mate and begin ovipositing in 4 to 8 days and live about a month. Females lay about 100 eggs each, depositing them singly in cracks or crevices of the bark, under bark scales, and at bark injuries. Eggs hatch in 8 to 16 days. Newly hatched larvae chew through the bark and feed in the phloem and surface

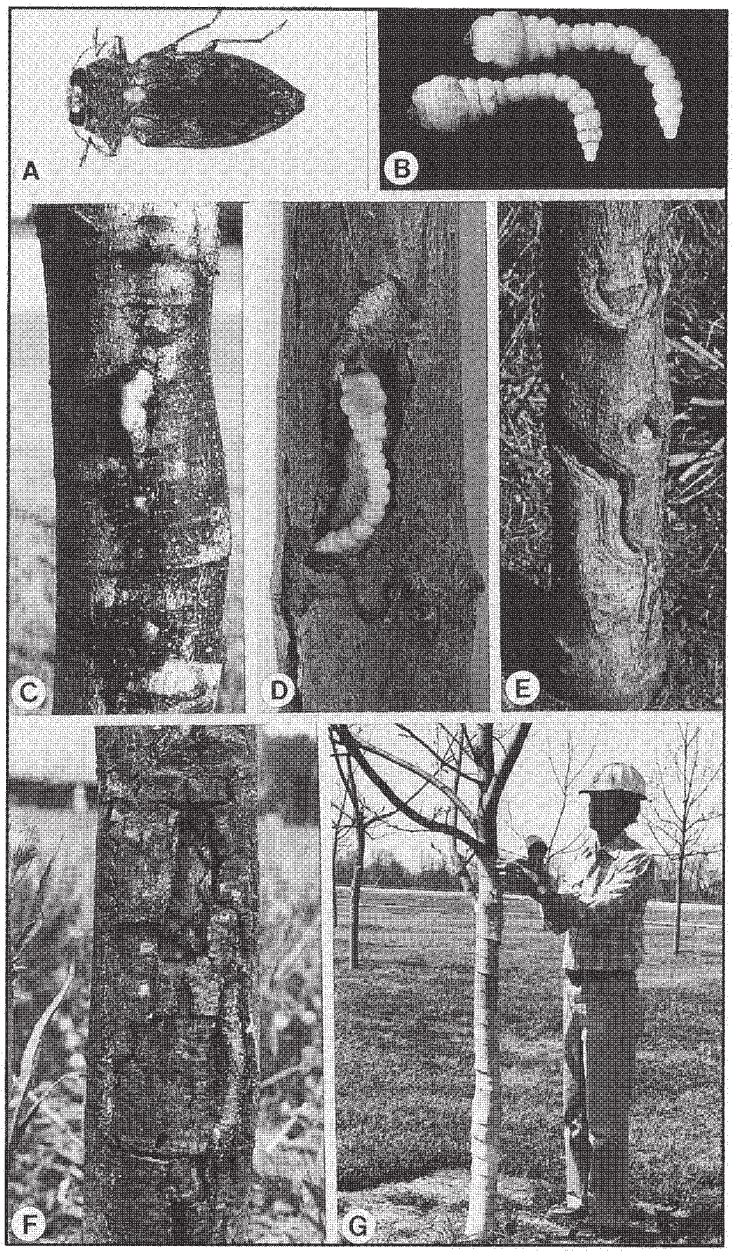


Figure 105—Chrysobothris femorata, *flatheaded appletree borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, sap spot at borer attack site; D, bark removed to expose larval mine and larva; E, spiral gallery; F, sunken area of bark over mined area; G, wrapping trunk to protect from borer attack (E, courtesy D. Potter).*

of the sapwood. In sufficiently weak trees, larvae produce long torturous burrows and develop rapidly. In more vigorous trees, larvae develop slowly, and many die. As soon as larvae are fully developed, they tunnel from the cambium radially into the sapwood. Here, they prepare pupal chambers by plugging the burrows tightly with frass and pass the winter still as larvae within the pupal chambers. Larvae pupate for 8 to 14 days in spring or early summer. Adults emerge by cutting oval emergence holes through the bark (figure 105F). In most areas, one generation is produced per year, but in some areas, the species requires 2 to 3 years.

Injury and damage. Points of infestation can usually be detected by white, frothy sap oozing from cracks in the bark (figure 105C) (Brooks 1919a, Fenton 1942, Moznette and others 1931). Bark gradually becomes darkened, wet, and greasy in appearance. Little or no frass is ejected except at cracks in the bark. Attacks occur on both trunks and branches and are most common on the sunny aspect of trees. Burrows under the bark are broad and irregular and packed tightly with fine, sawdustlike frass (figure 105D). In young trees with thin bark, tunnels are usually long and winding, sometimes encircling the tree (figure 105E). Injured areas usually become depressed, and later the bark may split at injured sites (figure 105F). In older trees with thick bark, burrows are confined to a circular area within the bark. Wounds may be enlarged by succeeding generations. This borer generally attacks trees that have recently been transplanted, stressed, or whose bark has been damaged by tools, disease, rodents, sunscald, or other insects. Leaning and drought-stressed trees are especially attractive to beetles. Injury results from larvae tunneling in the bark and cambium. Trees 5 cm or less in diameter may be girdled and killed, and larger trees may be severely weakened and scarred. Because wooded tracts often harbor large populations, damage is usually most prevalent when plantings are close to woodlands or old declining orchards.

Control. Twelve species of hymenopterous parasites help to reduce infestations (Krombein and others 1979). Predators include the insects *Andrenosoma fulvicauda* Say, *Chariessa pilosa* Forester, and *C. pilosa onusta* Say and woodpeckers. Because flatheaded borers rarely injure healthy trees, it is most important to practice cultural methods that will keep trees vigorous (Brooks 1919a, Fenton 1942, Moznette and others 1931, USDA FS 1985). Because young transplanted trees are stressed and particularly susceptible, additional measures may be warranted such as wrapping the trunks (figure 105G) or shading them from sunlight. Painting trunks white to reduce sunscald may also help. Borers can be physically removed from individual trees, but unnecessary cutting and damage should be avoided. Dead and dying trees and pruned branches should be removed from ornamental and orchard plantings to reduce breeding sites for the beetles. Chemical control may occasionally be required.

Chrysobothris mali Horn

Pacific flatheaded borer (figure 106)

Hosts. Alder, birch, ash, ceanothus, oak, boxelder, mahogany, maple, poplar, sycamore, willow, apple, pear, beech, elm, cotoneaster, peach, plum, avocado, loquat, cherry, currant, fig, apricot. At least 70 species belonging to 40 genera in 21 plant families have been reported as hosts (Burke and Boving 1929). Sycamore, mahogany, ceanothus, and fruit and nut trees seem particularly susceptible (Davis and others 1968, Essig 1929).

Range. Widely distributed throughout western North America west of the Rocky Mountains from California to British Columbia and Manitoba (Burke and Boving 1929, Fisher 1942). Its economic effects are particularly felt in California.

Description. ***Adult.*** Dark bronze to reddish copper beetle with distinct copper spots on the elytra; 6 to 11 mm long (figure 106A). ***Egg.*** About 1 mm in diameter, subcircular or disk-like, and yellowish white (Brown and Eads 1965a). Form of egg varies with the crevice or depression in which they are laid (Burke and Boving 1929). ***Larva.*** Varies from yellowish white to yellow and 15 to 18 mm long when mature (figure 106B). Thoracic segments—not head, as name implies—greatly enlarged and flattened. Abdomen bent back, making larva look like hook when exposed in feeding burrow. ***Pupa.*** Translucent white when first formed, dark bronze near adult emergence, and 6 to 11 mm long (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Biology. Adults emerge from April through August but mostly in June and July. Soon after emergence, mating and egg-laying begin (Brown and Eads 1965a). Eggs are deposited singly but may be laid close enough together to form clusters. The eggs are usually deposited in bark crevices or depressions (Burke and Boving 1929). During eclosion, larvae bore through the bottoms of their egg shells directly into the bark. Most larvae reach maturity by September or October, construct pupal chambers in the heartwood, and then molt into the last larval instar. Borers overwinter as prepupae. Pupation occurs mid-March into June, with most larvae pupating between mid-April and mid-May. Adults emerge in the pupal cells and chew their way to the outside. Usually, there is one generation per year, but the life cycle may be longer at higher elevations and in its northern range (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Injury and damage. The first evidence of feeding is usually dark wet spots on the bark, which may later crack slightly and expose borings (Burke and Boving 1929). Some tree species, especially those in the genus *Prunus*, show a slight flow of gum from the affected area. Little (sometimes no) frass is ejected to the outside, but as they burrow, larvae pack it behind them within mines. The area around and over the wound often becomes roughened (figure 106C). Feeding burrows are winding, shallow mines in the inner bark and outer wood of the tree (figure 106D). Mines, oval in cross section, sometimes spiral and girdle branches or the trunks of small trees (figure 106E). Mines end in the outer wood

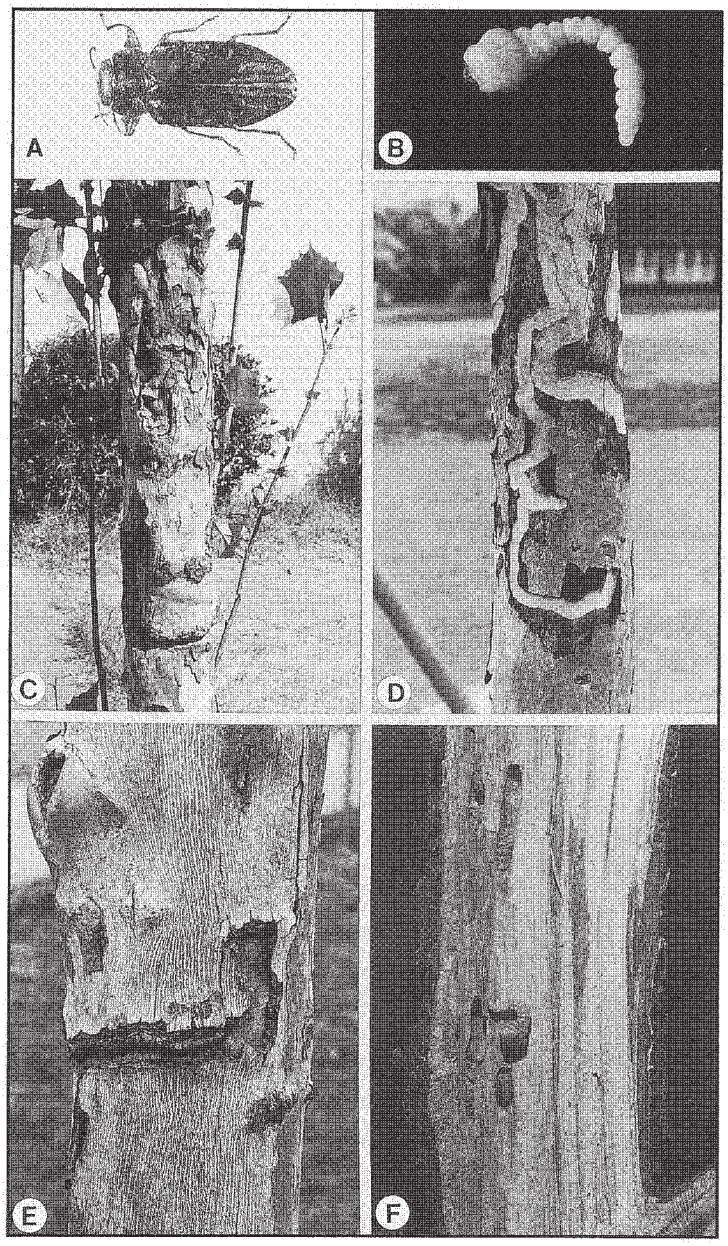


Figure 106—Chrysobothris mali, *Pacific flatheaded borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, roughened bark over previous attacks on sycamore; D, wide, winding galleries on surface of sapwood; E, bark scar; F, galleries extending into wood (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

(figure 106F) in pupal cells that open to the surface through oval exit holes. Usually, bark over the tunnel cracks and peels, but thick bark may not crack. Either a ridge or a depression may occur in the bark over a tunnel. After larvae mine extensively, the bark often loosens and drops away, leaving ugly cankerlike spots. Larval feeding may occur in any part of the bark from the roots to the tree top; however, feeding typically occurs in the main trunk, especially in smaller trees. The extent of damage to the tree is related to the location in the tree of feeding sites and often to whether or not the borers encircle and girdle the branch or trunk. This borer is considered one of the most damaging pests of newly planted deciduous trees. It is an important pest in nurseries, where trees may be killed or so severely injured that their value is diminished. Also, shade, fruit, and nut trees may be killed or disfigured. In native forests, branch mortality is common, but the insect rarely kills an entire tree (Burke and Boving 1929).

Control. Five species of larval parasites have been found—two braconids, one chalcid, one ichneumonid, and one tetrastichid (Burke and Boving 1929). The chalcid *Trigonura californica* Rohwer is the most important parasite, being found in 29 of 151 infestations studied. A chalcid egg parasite has also been found, but little is known of its effectiveness. A mite—*Pediculoides ventricosus* Newport—the most important predator, was reported to destroy a high proportion of the developing brood in heavily infested plants in California. Field observations suggest that birds remove immature stages of the borer from infested trees. Control can be enhanced by cultural practices that encourage vigorous, healthy plants. Young transplanted trees can be protected by mechanical covers over the trunks. Mechanically removing larvae is an effective control for valuable trees. Sanitation practices include removing weakened, injured, dying, and dead trees from the area. Chemical controls are sometimes needed to protect valuable plantings (Davis and others 1968).

Chrysobothris bacchari Van Dyke

[coyote brush buprestid]

Hosts. Baccharis. Coyote brush seems to be the principal host, but other *Baccharis* spp. reportedly have been attacked (Benoit 1966, Chamberlin 1926, Essig 1929).

Range. A western species with very limited distribution, being reported only from California (Benoit 1966, Fisher 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Broadly elongate beetle strongly depressed or flattened and bronzy brown (Fisher 1942). Head coppery and slightly greenish along anterior margin of clypeus. Beneath, brownish copper and much shinier than above. Elytra slightly wider at base than pronotum and nearly twice as long as wide. From 8.5 to 11.0 mm long and about 3.8 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Whitish and about 9 to 17 mm long (Benoit 1966). Thoracic segments greatly broadened and compressed, giving appearance of large flattened head. Separated from related species by thoracic spiracles in longitudinal rows and toothless prothoracic asperities.

Biology. Adult beetles emerge and are present from April through July (Fisher 1942). Females deposit eggs on the bark of host plants. The larvae bore into the cambium where they feed and develop.

Injury and damage. Larvae bore in healthy, injured, and dead hosts (Essig 1929). Weakened and dying plants within the borer's range suggest infestation. Removal of the bark reveals the frass-packed mines and the flatheaded larvae within them. Because host plants are used only occasionally as food by wildlife and because of the insect's limited range, its economic significance is limited.

Control. Controls are not needed.

Chrysobothris gemmata LeConte

[purple mesquite buprestid]

Hosts. Mesquite. Only known host is mesquite (Essig 1929, Fisher 1942).

Range. A southwestern species of limited distribution, reported only from Arizona, New Mexico, and Mexico (Fisher 1942, Horn 1886).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately elongate, robust beetle about 19 to 22 mm long (Essig 1929, Fisher 1942, Horn 1886). Purple to violet with greenish reflections above and bright green with purplish reflections below and on sides. Antennae purplish black except for three basal segments bronzy green. Elytra slightly wider at base than pronotum and about twice as long as wide.

Biology. Adults are present in August (Fisher 1942). Females deposit eggs on the bark. Larvae mine and feed in the bark, sapwood, and heartwood, sometimes girdling the tree (Burke 1918, Essig 1929, Fisher 1942). Wood may be severely damaged.

Injury and damage. This buprestid attacks living, dying, and dead trunks and limbs of hosts and often kills parts or even the entire tree (Burke 1918, Essig 1929). Dying and recently killed plants are signs of infestation. Removing bark reveals frass-filled burrows in the bark and wood and often larvae within mines.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Chrysobothris merkelii Horn

[merkel buprestid]

Hosts. Acacia, mesquite, ebony, guajillo. Has been reared from catclaw, honey mesquite, ebony, and Gulf Coast guajillo (Essig 1929, Fisher 1942, Vogt 1949a).

Range. A southwestern species occurring in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California (Essig 1929, Fisher 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Broadly elongate and rather robust beetle (Fisher 1942, Horn 1886). Blackish with faint purplish or bronzy reflection and strongly shiny. Antennae brownish copper to bronze in female and reddish copper in male. Beneath, copper with greenish tinge. Beetles range from 15.0 to 19.5 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge from April to August (Fisher 1942). Females deposit eggs on the bark of weakened host plants. Larvae tunnel the bark, sapwood, and heartwood of susceptible hosts (Burke 1918, Fisher 1942).

Injury and damage. Weakened, dying, and recently killed plants within the insect's range provide evidence of infestation; often

kills weakened trees (Burke 1918). Frass-filled mines and larvae within the burrows can be found in infested plants. Except where host plants provide food and protection for wildlife, the pest is of negligible importance.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Descarpentriesina cyanipes (Say)

[eastern poplar buprestid] (figure 107)

Hosts. Poplar, willow. Has been reared from eastern cottonwood, black cottonwood, quaking aspen, bigtooth aspen, and willow (Chamberlin 1926, Evans 1957, Wellso and others 1976). Beetles have been collected from ash, sycamore, and pine, but it is unlikely that these serve as larval hosts.

Range. The most common and widely distributed member of *Descarpentriesina* in North America. Recorded from southern Arizona northward along the Rocky Mountains to the Yukon, eastward to New Brunswick, and southward to the Gulf Coast; it does not occur along the Pacific Coast (Chamberlin 1926, Evans 1957).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate to moderately slender, somewhat oval, dark bronze beetle (figure 107A) (Chamberlin 1922, Evans 1957). Head sparsely covered with fine pubescence and slightly flattened along with pronotum. Elytra with dark bluish bronze, abbreviated, elevated, irregular lines tinged with coppery bronze. Females slightly broader and darker than males. Beetles 9.3 to 18.0 mm long and 3.25 to 7.00 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Clublike or pestlelike in shape with thoracic segments and head moderately flattened (figure 107B) (Burke 1917a). Thoracic plates smooth and marked dorsally with inverted V, and ventrally with one groove (USDA FS 1985). Larvae yellowish white with dark brown heads, measuring 17.8 to 25.4 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge late April through June in its southern range but have been taken in flight as late as August and September in its northern range (Essig 1929). On sunny days, adults are frequently found resting, crawling, and ovipositing on host trees. Females prefer weakened stems for oviposition. It has also been reared from galls of *Saperda concolor* LeConte in aspen and from galls of *Agrilus criddlei* in willows (Chamberlin 1922, Wellso and others 1976). Larvae initially excavate small cavities just under the bark, then extend their galleries into the wood usually to the pith of stems up to 25 mm in diameter. In large stems, most larvae burrow to about 12 mm then continue longitudinally. Larvae overwinter within their galleries. Mature larvae prepare chambers typically at one end of the galleries and pupate. New adults gnaw exit holes directly through the bark to emerge. A generation is completed in 1 to 2 years (USDA FS 1985).

Injury and damage. This beetle commonly attacks stems 12 to 32 mm in diameter, but it is occasionally found in stems up to 75 mm in diameter. The earliest evidence of injury is small wet or stained spots on the bark. Little or no frass is ejected from the sites. The bark sometimes cracks open (figure 107C), exposing a frass-packed cavity just beneath. Galleries are oval to irregular in cross section and 6.4 mm in

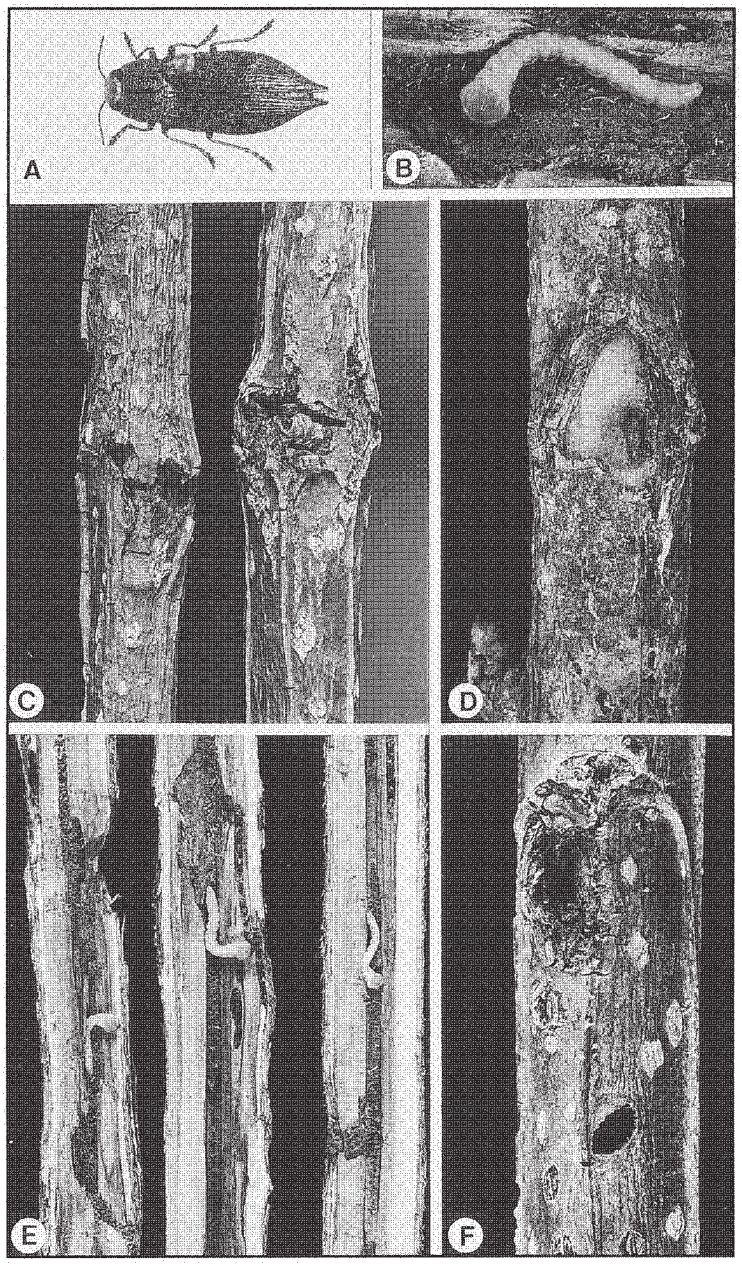


Figure 107—Descarpentriesina cyanipes, *[eastern poplar buprestid]: A, adult; B, larva; C, bark cracked and loosened at points of attack; D, cambial cavity and oval entrance into wood; E, stems split exposing galleries and larvae; F, oval exit hole in bark.*

diameter, extend 6.4 to 12.7 mm into the wood (figure 107D), and run 5 to 30 cm longitudinally within the stem (figure 107E). Galleries are almost entirely filled and packed tightly with a frass mixture of fine particles and short fibers. Oval-elongate exit holes (figure 107F) 2.3 to 4.8 mm across can be found in the bark after beetles emerge. Healed wounds leave irregularly shaped scars over the entrances and small oval to round scars over the exit sites. Beetles usually attack wild and ornamental trees that are weakened, injured, or decadent. In its southern range, this buprestid prefers the lower branches of cottonwoods that are weakened, dying, or being shaded out and self-pruned (Solomon and Wellso 1983). This borer rarely attacks boles of healthy trees and is found largely in weakened branches, so it might even be considered beneficial in helping the tree to self-prune its lower branches, thereby improving the quality of the wood.

Control. Light incidence of woodpecker predation has been observed, but no parasites have been found. Maintenance of high vigor in ornamental and other high-value trees can prevent infestation. Direct controls have not been needed.

Descarpentriesina californica Chamberlin

[western poplar buprestid]

Hosts. Poplar. Quaking aspen and cottonwood recorded as hosts (Barr 1971, Evans 1957). Other *Populus* species probably serve also.

Range. A western species from Oregon and California, east into the Rocky Mountains of Idaho, Nevada, and Utah (Chamberlin 1922, Doane and others 1936, Evans 1957).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately broad, robust beetle of medium size, 9 to 18 mm long and 3.9 to 7.8 mm wide (Barr 1971, Chamberlin 1922, Evans 1957). Vary from gray brown to dark bronze to almost black. Coppery green head and antennae dark coppery blue green. Elytra usually coppery bronze with elongate raised greenish areas. Females typically slightly larger, more robust, and darker than males.

Biology. Adults emerge during June and July (Chamberlin 1922). Larvae mine under the bark and into sapwood and heartwood, extending galleries much more horizontally than vertically, sometimes to the center of the tree. In most cases, infested trees remain thrifty despite the burrowing.

Injury and damage. Burrows typically cause small patches of bark to turn black, split, and peel away (Chamberlin 1922). Swellings sometimes develop on the trunk over tunnels. Oval exit holes are left in the bark by emerging beetles. The insect is much more likely to attack small trees than old large trees. Occasionally, small trees may be girdled and killed. This borer prefers trees growing at relatively high altitudes. Overall, it causes some damage to individual trees, but entire stands suffer little.

Control. Two unidentified hymenopterous parasites have been reared (Chamberlin 1922). Direct controls have not been needed.

Descarpentriesina thureura (Say)

[eastern willow buprestid]

Hosts. Willow. Black willow is a specific host, but other willow species probably also serve as hosts (Evans 1957).

Range. Widely distributed from the Atlantic Coast west to eastern Arizona and north to Manitoba (Evans 1957).

Description. ***Adult.*** Stout, oblong-oval, slightly flattened beetle (Casey 1909, Chamberlin 1922, Evans 1957). Color varies from dark metallic blue green to coppery brown, brassy green, or bronzy copper. Elytra with numerous small shiny greenish spaces that coalesce in some areas, forming irregular patches and giving mottled appearance. Elytral apices short compared to most members of genus. Range from 12.0 to 18.8 mm long and 4.9 to 7.8 mm wide.

Biology. Adults begin emerging in May and are present until August (Chamberlin 1926, Knull 1922). Females oviposit on the trunks of hosts (Knull 1922). Larvae burrow between the inner bark and outer sapwood but do not travel through the wood as do some related species. Instead, they remain near where the eggs were laid, because the callus of the tree provides sufficient nourishment. At maturity, the larvae form pupal cells surrounded by frass. A generation requires at least 2 years.

Injury and damage. Rough bark scars and oval emergence holes in the bark are evidence of infestation. Bark removal and dissection will reveal that burrows remain local and are not extensive as in other species of this genus (Evans 1957, Knull 1922). Pupal cells surrounded by frass can be found between the bark and sapwood. This borer appears to cause little economic loss.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Dicerca lepida LeConte

[embossed hawthorn buprestid] (figure 108)

Hosts. Hawthorn, hophornbeam. Hawthorn is the favored larval host (Knull 1922, Nelson 1975). Adults collected on oak and elm, but these species probably do not serve as larval hosts (Nelson 1975).

Range. New York and Pennsylvania south to Georgia and Alabama and west to Kansas, Texas, and New Mexico (Franklin and Lund 1956, Nelson 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slightly elongate, moderately convex beetle, lustrous, brassy to coppery above and below, with conspicuous smooth black areas (figure 108A) (Nelson 1975). Head flattened, slightly impressed, and short antennae, with apical triangular joints that do not reach middle of pronotum. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum at base, widest at middle, then tapered to weakly prolonged bidentate apices. Adults 13.5 to 17.5 mm long and 4.5 to 4.8 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Elongate, clublike, and white except for dark brown mouthparts and light amber thoracic plate; measures 20 to 25 mm long (figure 108B). Thorax, especially prothorax, noticeably widened and moderately flattened.

Biology. Adults are in flight from March 27 to August 15 (Knull 1922, Nelson 1975). Females oviposit at dead branch stubs and partially healed wound sites. Larvae burrow downward at an angle and extend their

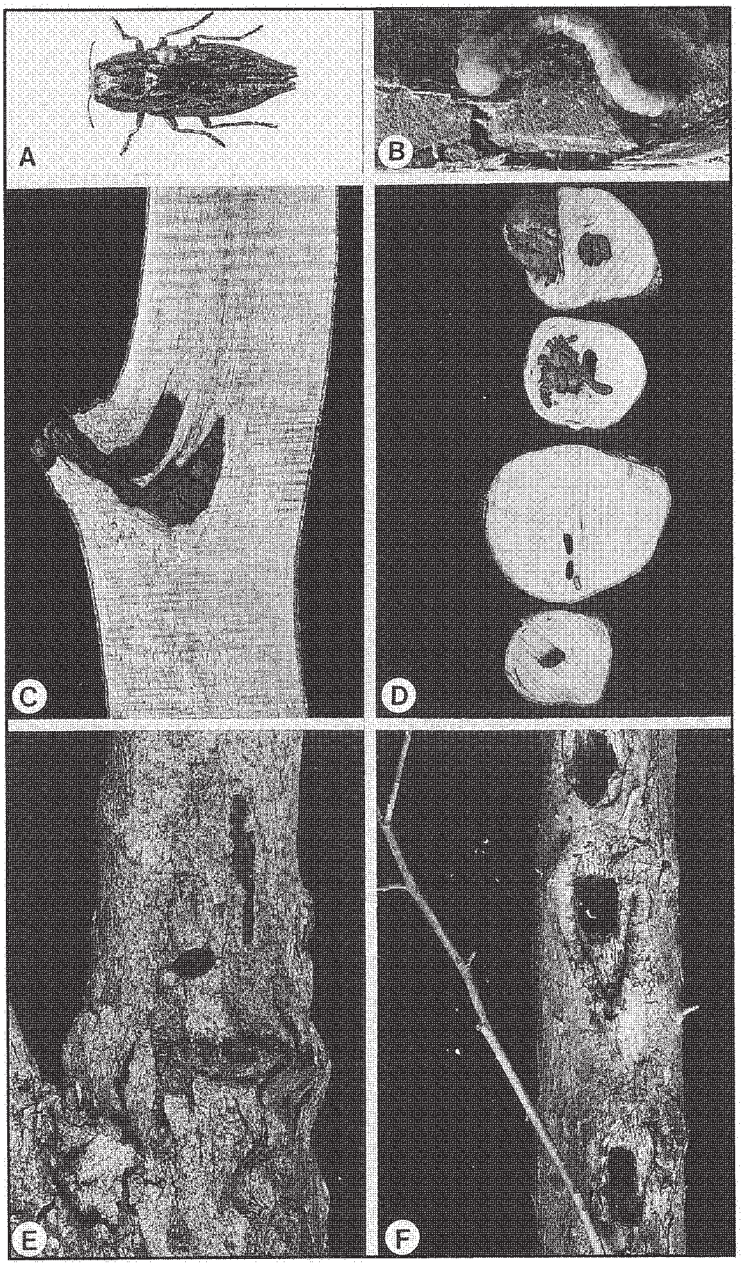


Figure 108—Dicerca lepida, *[embossed hawthorn buprestid]: A, adult; B, larva; C, gallery entrance at branch stub in hawthorn; D, cross section of frass-packed galleries; E, adult emergence hole; F, signs of woodpecker predation of larvae.*

galleries into the living wood. After burrowing 1 to 3 cm, many larvae turn upward for another 1 to 3 cm. Some burrows are cave-like with two or more short extensions. Pupation occurs near the ends of the burrows. New adults cut exit holes to the outside, usually within 1 to 4 cm of the entrance sites. Adults reportedly have been found hibernating around the bases of hawthorn trees (Knull 1922).

Injury and damage. This buprestid attacks trunks and branches 2 to 12 cm in diameter and nearly always in stems with surface defects. Infested trees exhibit little outward evidence, making active attacks difficult to diagnose. Most attacks are found in wood beneath dead branch stubs, but some occur in stems that have mechanical wounds and other bark injuries. Gallery patterns vary in shape but usually extend in and downward, then turn upward with the wood grain (figure 108C). In cross section, the galleries are mostly flattened and oval (figure 108D). Portions of galleries are packed tightly with fine reddish brown frass. Oval emergence holes 5 by 3 mm in the bark mark the infested sites (figure 108E). This species is recorded mostly from dead trees (Franklin and Lund 1956, Knull 1922); however, it is found commonly in living hawthorn in Mississippi. Attacks in living trees usually are associated with defects on the trunk. Damage is not serious.

Control. Woodpeckers have been observed preying on the larvae in hawthorn in Mississippi (figure 108F). One hymenopterous parasite—*Sclerodermus carolinensis* (Ashmead)—has been recorded (Carlson 1979).

Dicerca pugionata (Germar)

[witch-hazel borer]

Hosts. Witch-hazel, ninebark. Witch-hazel seems to be the favored host (Knull 1920, Nelson 1975). Adults have been collected on speckled alder, which may serve as a larval host. Oak and maple have been mentioned as hosts, but are unconfirmed (Leonard 1928).

Range. Ranges from Massachusetts and New York south to Georgia and west to Indiana, Michigan, and Ontario (Blatchley 1910, Nelson 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, elongate beetle 11 to 15 mm long and 3.9 to 5.3 mm wide (Blatchley 1910, Nelson 1975). Strongly convex with flattened heads and vary from copper, to bronzed copper, to almost black in few specimens. Elytral apices elongate and pointed, bidentate, and more coppery (Crotch 1873). Antennae short, not reaching middle of pronotum.

Biology. Adults present and active from January to October (Franklin and Lund 1956, Leonard 1928, Nelson 1975). Females deposit eggs on the bark, and the larvae bore through the bark, where they mine, feed, and develop.

Injury and damage. Unlike other members of this genus, this beetle reportedly prefers to attack perfectly healthy plants (Knull 1920, Nelson 1975). Plants deteriorating in health or suddenly dying may be infested and should be examined for borers. Removing bark will reveal the granular, frass-packed galleries and the larvae. Witch-hazel is sometimes girdled and killed by the tunneling.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Dicerca tenebrica (Kirby)

[poplar dicerca]

Hosts. Poplar. Poplars appear to be the only hosts; recorded from black cottonwood, narrowleaf cottonwood, quaking aspen, and bigtooth aspen (Graham and Harrison 1954, Nelson 1975). Willow listed as a host and boxelder mentioned, but these are doubtful (Stein and Kennedy 1972).

Range. Widely distributed throughout most of the United States, except possibly the Deep South, and throughout Canada, except Newfoundland (Nelson 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, sculptured, metallic, elongate, moderately convex, brassy to black beetle of medium size, measuring 14.5 to 26.0 mm long and 4.5 to 9.0 mm wide (Furniss and Carolin 1977, Nelson 1975). Sometimes with bluish tint and appears coppery beneath. Elytra with small, inconspicuous, black raised areas and prolonged and narrow tips.

Biology. Adults are present from March to November (Nelson 1975). Females lay eggs mostly during July and August on rough bark around branches and branch stubs (Graham and Harrison 1954). Adults are sunloving and prefer to oviposit on open-grown trees with the trunks exposed to sunlight. Larvae bore down through the bark to the sapwood and, unlike the *Agrilus* species, make rather large openings in the bark. Burrows are elliptical in cross section and packed with granular frass (Stein and Kennedy 1972).

Injury and damage. Larvae bore under the bark and into the wood of trunks and branches (Furniss and Carolin 1977, Graham and Harrison 1954). Wounded, sickly, dying, and recently dead trees are apt to be attacked. Adults make rather large oval openings in the bark for emergence. This borer has been directly associated with hypoxylon canker and decadence of poplars in the North (Graham and Harrison 1954). In fact, many of the cankers on quaking aspen and bigtooth aspen in low-quality stands have been attributed to this borer.

Control. Cultural practices that help to keep trees vigorous and healthy help to minimize infestation and losses.

Texania campestris (Say)

[hardwood heartwood buprestid]
(figure 109)

Hosts. Sycamore, beech, willow, maple, yellow-poplar, basswood, oak. Sycamore and beech seem to be principal hosts; other species are attacked to a lesser extent (Burke 1909, Champlain and Knull 1925, Knull 1920, USDA FS 1985).

Range. Found throughout the eastern and southern United States (Blatchley 1910, Burke 1909). Previous references to this species are found under the genus name *Chalcophorella*.

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, oval-shaped beetle, 18 to 33 mm long and 6 to 9 mm wide (figure 109A) (Blatchley 1910, Burke 1909). Grayish bronze with greenish cast above and polished copper or bronze beneath. Antennae reach to posterior margin of pronotum. Thorax with median groove and elytra with fine raised lines. Elytra strongly serrate near tips. ***Larva.*** Slender; thoracic segments enlarged; and

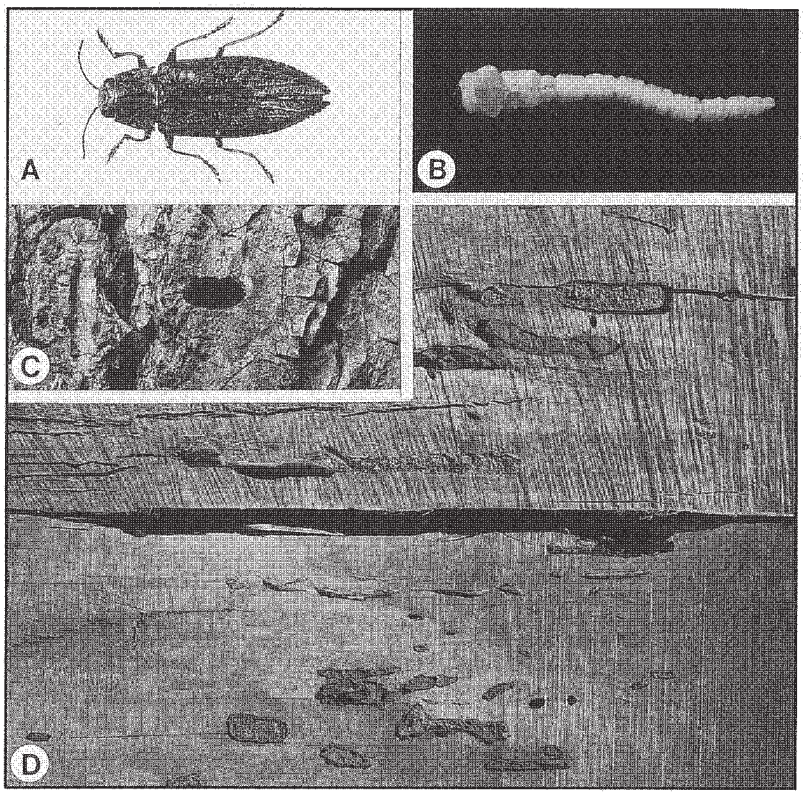


Figure 109—Texania campestris, *[hardwood heartwood buprestid]: A, adult; B, larva; C, large oval adult emergence hole; D, large frass-packed galleries in wood.*

measures about 62 mm long and 9 mm wide (figure 109B). Black mouthparts, brownish elevations on thoracic plates, and V-shaped mark on dorsal plate.

Biology. Adults emerge from April to July (Blatchley 1910). Larvae bore through the bark and make winding galleries into sapwood and heartwood (Burke 1909). Mines are broad, flattened, slightly oval, up to 9 mm wide, and packed with frass. Galleries terminate in large, open pupal cells, usually near the surface of the wood. Pupal and adult stages apparently transform in late fall and winter, and new adults emerge during spring and summer.

Injury and damage. Oval emergence holes in the bark, particularly around wounds, are evidence of infestation (figure 109C) (Burke 1909). Cross sections reveal extensive flattened-oval galleries packed tightly with fine frass in both the sapwood and heartwood. (figure 109D). Infestations often begin around wounds and sometimes riddle the wood beneath (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Cultural practices that prevent bark wounds and promote tree vigor help to minimize infestations (Burke 1909).

Ptosima gibbicollis Say

[flatheaded redbud borer] (figure 110)

Hosts. Redbud. Eastern redbud is the only known larval host; however, adults have been taken on sassafras and black cherry (Knull 1920, Nelson 1978).

Range. Occurs from Pennsylvania south to Georgia and west to Kansas and Texas (Knull 1920, Nelson 1978).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, oval, subcylindrical, moderately robust, slightly flattened beetle, dark blue maculated with yellow (figure 110A) (Knull 1925, Nelson 1978). Prothorax pubescent and wider than long with elevated ridge on each side. Each elytron with large, oblong, yellow spot on side reaching from base to beyond middle and smaller transverse spot on apical third. Beetles small, ranging from 6 to 8 mm long.

Biology. Adults overwinter in pupal chambers, emerge the following spring, and are in flight from March to July (Knull 1920, Nelson 1978). Larvae hatch from eggs deposited on the bark and bore into the bark and wood. They feed, tunnel, and develop mainly in the heartwood. Pupation occurs in fall in shallow chambers in the sapwood (figure 110B).

Injury and damage. This insect bores into the stems of healthy, stressed, weakened, dying, and recently cut trees. Infestations are difficult to detect from bark surface examination. Cutting into bark and wood exposes small flattened-oval galleries packed tightly with frass meandering through the wood. In cross section, the galleries with light-colored frass in the heartwood are readily visible (figure 110B). Oval holes may be found in the bark after development is complete and the adults exit. It reportedly hastens the death of living trees and promotes the decay of cut stems (Knull 1920).

Control. Evidence of woodpecker predation has been observed. Direct controls have not been needed.

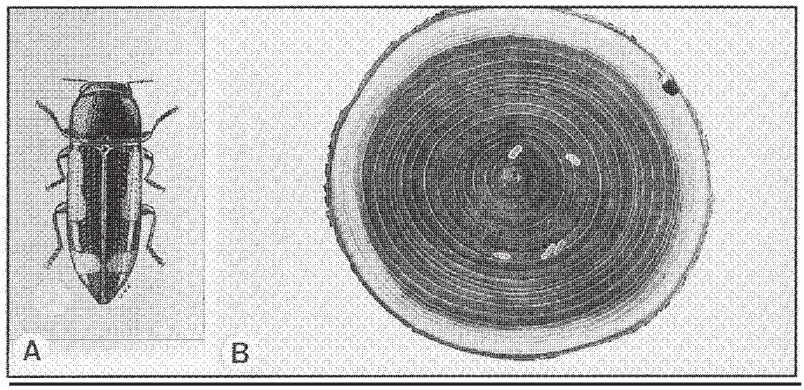


Figure 110—Ptosima gibbicollis, *[flatheaded redbud borer]: A, adult; B, cross section of redbud showing small oval frass-packed galleries in heartwood and pupal cell in outer sapwood at upper right (A, reproduced from Knull [1925]).*

Family Bostrichidae—False Powderpost Beetles

The bostrichids are best known for their damage to felled timber and unseasoned roundwood with the bark on; however, a few attack and oviposit in weakened living trees (Fisher 1950, USDA FS 1985). Some species have the damaging habit of tunneling into green shoots and branches for food or hibernation. Three species with these habits are covered here. Adults are elongate, cylindrical, and the head is not easily seen from above. They resemble the scolytids but can be distinguished by their rasp-like pronotum, straight instead of elbowed antennae with a three- or four-segmented club, and five-segmented tarsi. The larvae are white to yellow and curved with globular head and three pairs of five-jointed legs.

Genus and Species

Amphicerus
bicaudatus (Say) *284*
Xylobiops
basilaris (Say) *286*
Melalgus
confertus (LeConte) *288*

Amphicerus bicaudatus (Say)

apple twig borer (figure 111)

Hosts. Apple, peach, plum, cherry, pear, apricot, Osage-orange, ash, butternut, pecan, hickory, maple, grape. Apple and grape appear to be favored hosts, but many other trees, especially fruit- and nut-producing trees, are readily attacked (Banks 1902, Fisher 1950, Munro and Riddle 1930).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States west to the Rocky Mountains in Colorado and New Mexico and also in southern Canada (Essig 1929, Fisher 1950).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, cylindrical beetle, about 6 to 13 mm long and 1.2 to 3.5 mm wide (figure 111A) (Dean 1920, Fisher 1950). Color uniform for individuals but varies among beetles from reddish brown, dark chestnut brown, brownish black, to almost black (Fisher 1950, Gossard 1913, Lugger 1889). Dorsal surface of body with sparse, short, recumbent, yellowish hair. Males with two small hornlike tubercles projecting forward on thorax and a smaller tubercle on rear of each elytron. ***Larva.*** White with brown head and mandibles, curved body, three pairs of thoracic legs, thoracic segments enlarged; mature larva about 10.2 mm long (figure 111B) (Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Biology. Adults emerge in early spring and deposit eggs from April to June in the bark of twigs and small branches (Munro and Riddle 1930, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Young larvae burrow into the twig, usually to the pith, and tunnel along the stem, packing the frass behind themselves through the summer. Larvae mature and pupate in fall and early winter. Many pupae transform to adults in fall. Adults usually hibernate head downward in the larval galleries through winter. Some adults emerge in fall and move to new, living twigs where they burrow in and overwinter. This twig borer has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. The insect breeds in injured, diseased, dying, and recently

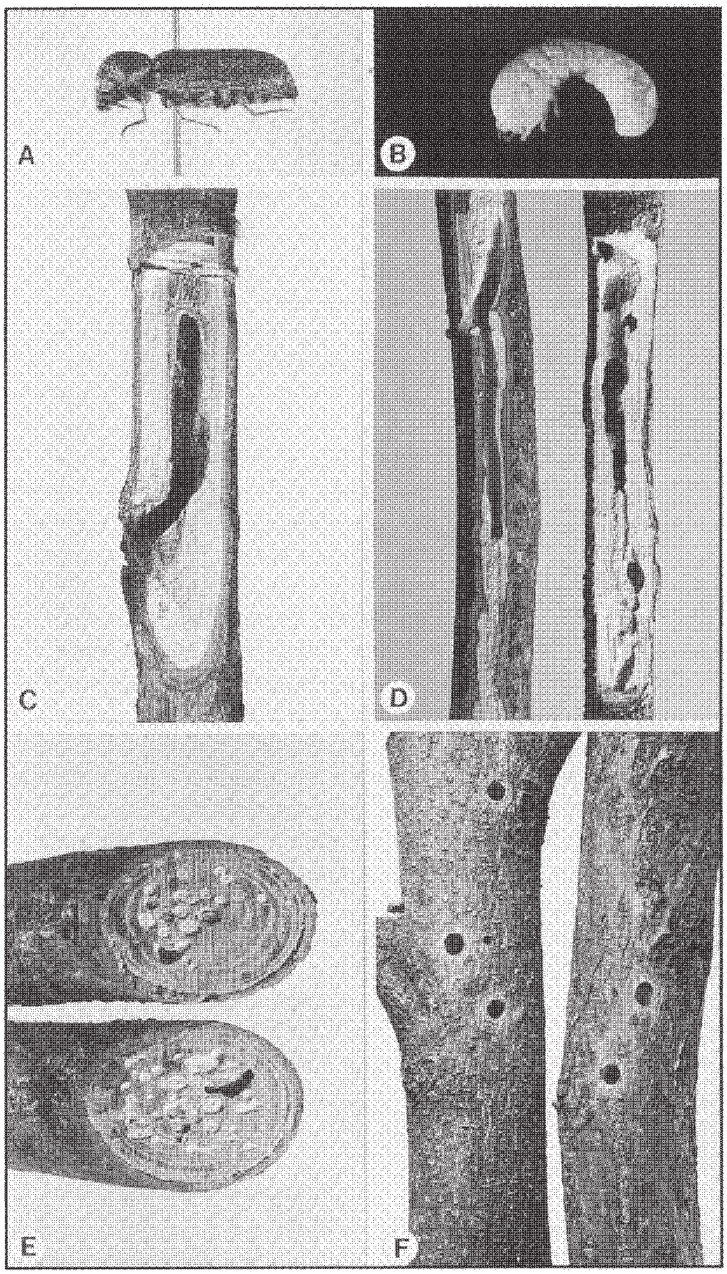


Figure 111—Amphicerus bicaudatus, *apple twig borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, hibernation tunnel made by adult beetle in pecan branch; D, longitudinal view of larval galleries; E, cross section of larval galleries packed with frass; F, adult exit holes.*

dead trees (Munro and Riddle 1930, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). However, adult beetles bore into living healthy branches to feed and shelter, usually killing them. Twigs and branches of living hosts may wilt, droop, and die back. Examination of twigs reveals single round entrance holes 3.5 mm in diameter immediately above buds. Dissecting the stem reveals tunnels 5 to 8 cm long, usually extending downward, but sometimes extending up or down or both from entrance holes (figure 111C). A beetle may be found in the tunnel from late fall through winter and spring and sometimes until early summer (Dean 1920, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Dissection of diseased, dying, and dead infested material reveals larval burrows (figure 111D) 8 to 10 cm long, packed with powderlike frass (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Heavily infested twigs and branches are sometimes converted to powdered frass (figure 111E). Round exit holes 3.5 mm in diameter are left in the bark by emerging beetles (figure 111F). Occasionally, fruit and ornamental trees, shrubs, and vines have suffered noticeable dieback of small branches.

Control. Infested branches, broken limbs, and prunings should routinely be collected and destroyed (Dean 1920, Munro and Riddle 1930). Any wilted and dying branches with hibernating beetles should also be pruned and destroyed. In problem areas, favored wild hosts such as wild grape should be cut and destroyed. Chemical sprays occasionally may be needed to protect plantings. Two species of hymenopterous parasites—*Eusandalum amphi-cerovorum* (Ashmead) and *Ptinobius magnificus* (Ashmead)—have been reported (Burks 1979).

Xylobiops basilaris (Say)

[red-shouldered bostrichid] (figure 112)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan, persimmon, black locust, oak, redbud, mulberry, elm, Osage-orange, apple, ash, peach, honeylocust, pear, poison sumac, poison ivy, eucalyptus. Hickory, pecan, and persimmon are favored hosts, but the range is diverse, occasionally including conifers and some vines (Beal and others 1952, Fisher 1950).

Range. Eastern half of the United States from Florida north to New York, west to Texas and Kansas and in southeastern Canada (Fisher 1950).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brownish black to dark reddish brown beetle with basal half of elytra reddish to brownish yellow, 3.3 to 7.0 mm long and 1.5 to 2.5 mm wide (figure 112A) (Beal and others 1952, Fisher 1950, Gill 1924). Wing covers taper to oblique angle at posterior end, edges armed with three conspicuous teeth on each side. Antennae, palpi, and tarsi brownish yellow. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white, wrinkled, C-shaped, 5 to 6 mm long (figure 112B). Small globular head with mouthparts extending forward. Thorax, and especially prothorax, greatly enlarged with three pairs of conspicuous legs. ***Pupa.*** Pale yellow (Lugger 1899).

Biology. Adults emerge during summer and fly in search of suitable host trees, where they bore through the bark and into the sapwood (Gill 1924, Lugger 1899).

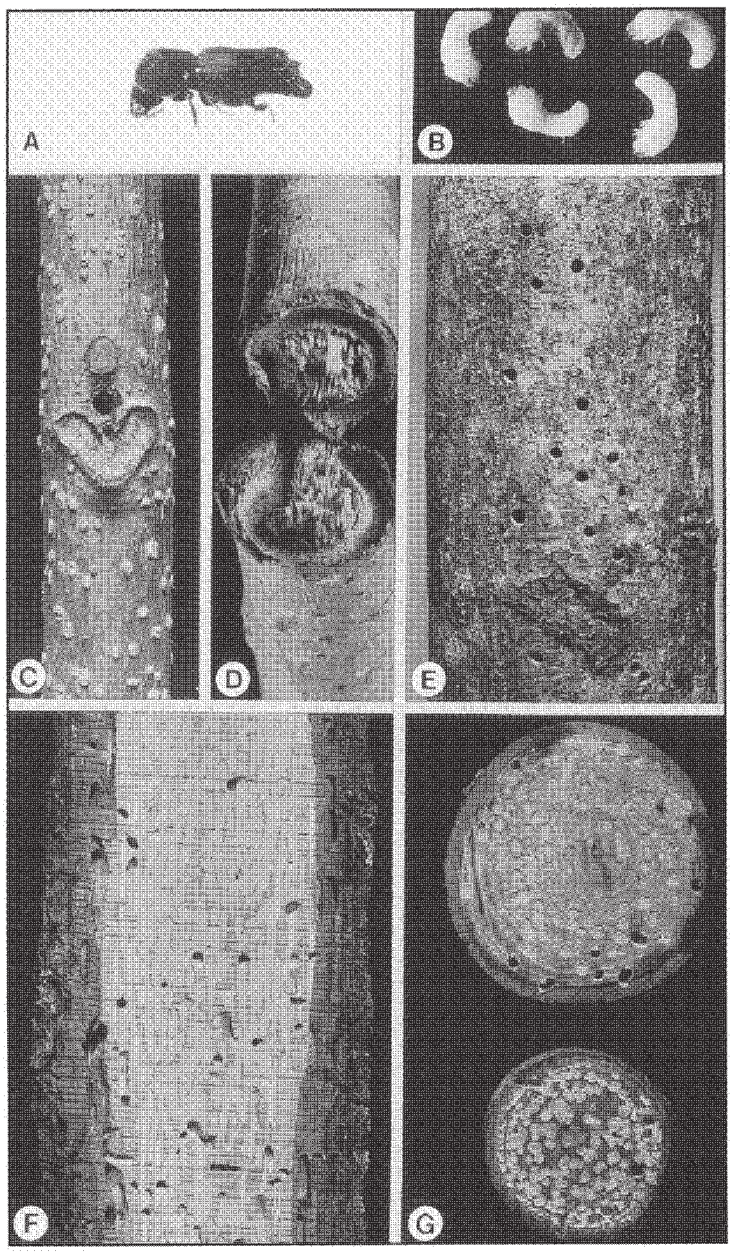


Figure 112—Xylobiops basilaris, *[red-shouldered bostrichid]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, adult entrance hole just above leaf scar on pecan branch; D, branch girdle made by adult; E, adult exit holes; F, longitudinal view of frass-packed galleries; G, cross section of many round frass-packed galleries.*

Adult tunnels are constructed across the grain just under the bark surface in sapwood. Tunnels may girdle limbs and trunks of small diameter. Eggs are deposited at intervals along the sides of tunnels. Larvae feed mostly in sapwood and to some extent in heartwood, tunneling parallel to the grain. They spend winter in galleries, mostly as mature larvae, but sometimes as pupae or adults. Adults often bore into healthy twigs for food and shelter and commonly spend the fall, winter, and spring in galleries within twigs and branches. A generation can develop in 1 year under optimum conditions, but longer periods are sometimes required.

Injury and damage. Stressed, dying, and recently dead trees are most susceptible to attack (Beal and others 1952, Gill 1924, Moznette and others 1931). Branches that fail to bud in spring and flagged branches having withered and brown leaves, along with girdled and fallen branches, are good indicators of infestation. Inspection of such branches reveals one round entrance hole 2 to 3 mm in diameter adjacent to one or more buds or leaf scars (figure 112C). Branches are easily broken at these sites because they have been partially to completely girdled beneath the bark (figure 112D). Emerging beetles leave many 2- to 3-mm round exit holes that give the appearance of shotholes (figure 112E) (Gill 1924). Dissection of infested branches reveals numerous parallel galleries filled with very fine, powderlike frass (figure 112F). The round frass-packed galleries are most characteristic when viewed in cross section (figure 112G). Infested trees cut for use as wood products can be quickly destroyed if not processed promptly. These insects may cause some twig dieback and possibly hasten the death of trees already stressed or dying from other causes, but the threat to healthy trees is minimal.

Control. Natural control includes four species of hymenopterous parasites—*Bephratoides* n. sp., *Ecphylus flavus* Marsh, *Glyptodoryctes caryae* (Ashmead), *Wroughtonia ferruginea* (Brues), and an unidentified dipteron (Beal and others 1952, Burks 1979, Marsh 1979). Because borers present little threat to healthy well-kept trees, good cultural practices should be followed to maintain tree vigor (Moznette and others 1931). Sources of infestation can be eliminated by promptly removing and destroying all dead and dying twigs, branches, and prunings. Any dying or dead trees to be used for wood products should be processed promptly with assurance that boards do not contain wane edges with bark that encourage beetle attack.

Melalgus confertus (LeConte)

[olive twig borer]

Hosts. Almond, apple, apricot, avocado, cherry, currant, fig, elm, peach, pear, quince, olive, orange, grape, maple, oak, acacia, manzanita, laurel, madrone, birch. Fruit, nut, and ornamentals are favored (Essig 1958, Fisher 1950).

Range. Pacific Coast species, occurring primarily in California and Oregon, but reported north to British Columbia (Fisher 1950, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate (7 to

15 mm long, 1.7 to 3.7 mm wide), cylindrical, and uniformly reddish brown to black beetle with brown elytra, (Essig 1958, Fisher 1950). Antennae, palpi, and tarsi pale brown and thorax and elytra densely clothed with short yellowish pubescence. ***Egg.*** Elongate, smooth, white, slightly pointed at one end. ***Larva.*** Robust, curved, white, largest anteriorly, clothed with fine hair.

Biology. Adults emerge during early summer and burrow in living twigs and branches to feed (Herbert 1920). Females move to recently broken or pruned branches and deposit their eggs in cracks and crevices (Essig 1958, Fisher 1950, Herbert 1920). Larvae mine extensively in the sapwood and heartwood for a year or more before maturing. Eggs are occasionally laid in branch stubs of pruned trees. Here, the larvae burrow down the stub to living tissue where they may delay the healing process. Adults bore into twigs and branches, either killing them or sometimes causing severe pruning, especially among young trees (Essig 1958, Herbert 1920). Reproduction occurs in dead wood; thus, the larvae are of minor importance.

Injury and damage. Young trees suffer most. Broken twigs and branches 3 to 12 mm in diameter often signal attacks by the adults. Breakage occurs at sites where beetles burrow into twigs. Close examination reveals 2- to 4-mm diameter round holes at forks, branch crotches, and bud axils. Whitish frass, ejected by the beetles, may be present at entrances and on the bark surface. Dissection reveals burrows and sometimes the adults (Essig 1958, Fisher 1950, Herbert 1920). Orchards occasionally suffer light damage.

Control. Good sanitation helps to minimize damage (Essig 1958, Herbert 1920). All prunings, broken branches, and debris in and around orchards should be collected before spring and burned to destroy breeding places. Chemical sprays are rarely needed.

Family Lymexylidae—Timber Beetles

Members of this family attack severely weakened, dying, and recently dead timber, and areas around cankers and dead areas on living trees. The adults are elongate, slender, and subcylindrical; the head is deflexed and narrowed behind the eyes to form a neck; and the antennae are short and serrate (Arnett 1968, Craighead 1950). Larvae are elongate and cylindrical with globular heads; segments have minute asperites; and the abdomen is armed with teethlike or taillike structures. These insects bore deeply into both the sapwood and heartwood.

Genus and Species

Melittomma
sericeum (Harris) *290*
Hylecoetus
lugubris Say *292*

Melittomma sericeum (Harris)

chestnut timberworm (figure 113)

Hosts. Chestnut, oak. American chestnut, before its demise, was the preferred host (Hopkins 1894); now found chiefly in white oak (USDA FS 1985).

Range. An eastern species, range corresponds closely with that of American chestnut in the eastern United States (Snyder 1927).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate, chestnut brown beetle with deflexed head, clothed with fine, silky hair, 11 to 15 mm long (figure 113A) (Herrick 1935, USDA FS 1985). ***Larva.*** White to yellowish brown, smooth, elongate, and cylindrical with a large, yellow, rounded head partially covered by enlarged hood-shaped tergum of prothorax (figure 113B) (Peterson 1960). Ninth abdominal segment enlarged and conspicuously armed with dark brown scooplike structure bearing many toothlike spines. Full-grown larvae 15 to 18 mm long.

Biology. Adults deposit eggs in cracks and crevices on the surface of wood, often at wounded sites (Hopkins 1894, USDA FS 1985). Young larvae bore directly into wood, forming tiny holes that are scarcely visible. As larvae grow, galleries are enlarged and extended for many centimeters through the sapwood and heartwood. Pupation occurs in cells constructed near the surface. New adults chew circular exit holes. The life cycle has not been established, but a generation probably requires several years.

Injury and damage. Fine powdery frass may be found at tiny holes that initially are barely visible. Attack sites are found in both sapwood and heartwood and most often are associated with wounds (figure 113C and D) and broken or decayed branches (Herrick 1935, Hopkins 1894); dying trees, stumps, and fresh-cut logs are also attacked (figure 113E). Holes in lumber are generally unstained or only slightly stained, round, and vary from 0.3 to 6.4 mm in diameter (figure 113F) (Snyder 1927). Most American chestnut was killed by the mid-1900's by chestnut blight, a disease introduced from the Orient in the early 1900's (Clapper and Gravatt 1943). Diseased and dying trees were riddled by

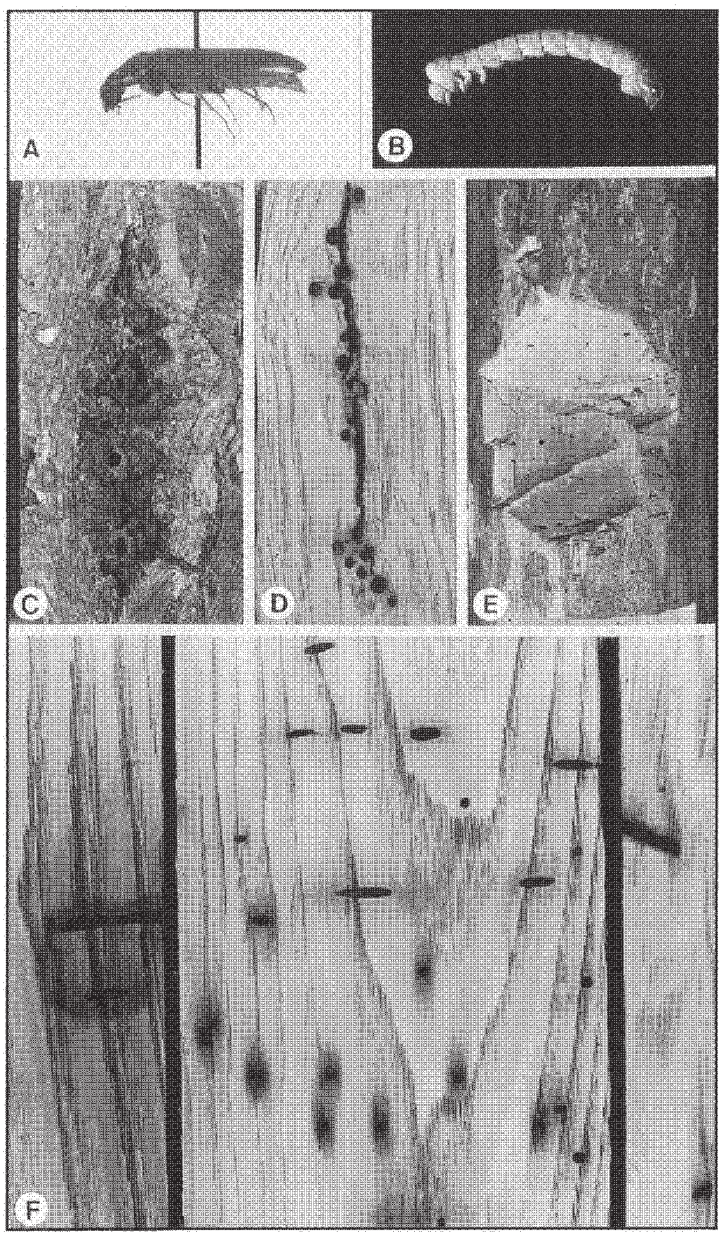


Figure 113—Melittomma sericeum, *chestnut timberworm: A, adult; B, larva; C, adult exit holes in bark at old wound site; D, exit holes in sapwood along old wound seam; E, chip removed from chestnut log to show galleries in wood; F, wormy chestnut lumber (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

chestnut timberworms. Nearly every tree of merchantable size contained some injury. Lumber from such trees was downgraded to "sound wormy," resulting in sizeable losses. Today, affected lumber is considered character marked and sold as "wormy chestnut" for decorative purposes at handsome prices.

Control. Minimizing wounds from harvesting equipment, stand improvement work, wildfire, and other insect borers can help to reduce infestations and losses (Craighead 1950).

Hylecoetus lugubris Say

sapwood timberworm (figure 114)

Hosts. Poplar, birch, yellow-poplar, basswood, buckeye, black walnut, chestnut. Poplar has been mentioned as major host (Peterson 1960, Snyder 1927).

Range. Eastern United States (Arnett 1968).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate, brown beetle with short antennae; long, slender legs; 9.5 to 15.0 mm long (figure 114A) (Anderson 1960, USDA FS 1985). Pronotum with raised edges. ***Larva.*** Yellow with light brown head partially covered with enlarged hood-shaped tergum of prothorax (figure 114B). Ninth abdominal segment terminates in elongate, tail-like projection with toothlike spines along margin.

Biology. Adults emerge from April to July and deposit eggs in bark crevices mainly on dying trees and green logs (Snyder 1927, USDA FS 1985). Larvae tunnel and feed under the bark and across and into the sapwood. The life cycle has not been studied.

Injury and damage. Weakened and dying trees and green sawlogs may become infested (Peterson 1960, Snyder 1927). Many galleries 0.3 to 5.0 mm in diameter extend throughout sapwood (Snyder 1927, USDA FS 1985). Removing the bark reveals many laterally oriented galleries across the surface of the sapwood (figure 114C). When development is complete, a series of round, vertical holes is found on the sapwood surface (figure 114D). Pinhole or wormhole defects in products sawn from infested trees result in losses of 5 to 10%.

Control. Susceptible trees and logs should be promptly removed from the forest to avoid infestation during spring and summer. Direct controls have not been needed.

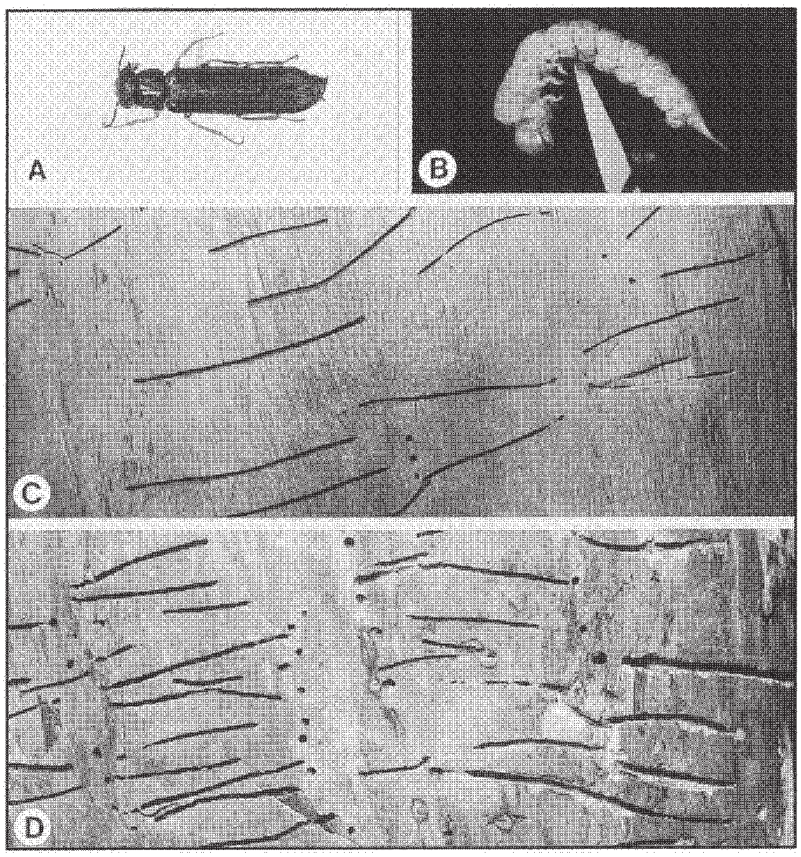


Figure 114—Hylecoetus lugubris, *sapwood timberworm: A, adult; B, larva; C, laterally oriented galleries across surface of sapwood; D, vertical series of round holes near ends of lateral galleries (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C & D, specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

Family Cerambycidae—Longhorn Beetles, Roundheaded Borers

This family is one of the largest and most important among woodboring insects. Adults are oblong to elongate, more or less cylindrical, vary greatly in size and color, and are long legged with 11-segmented antennae that are often longer than the entire body (Furniss and Carolin 1977, USDA FS 1985). The adults of most species are short lived, nocturnal, shy, and seldom seen. Larvae are fleshy, thin skinned, white to yellowish, sparsely covered with fine setae, and more or less cylindrical or depressed. In some species, the body tapers posteriorly, but the anterior segments are never conspicuously larger than the adjoining segments. Larvae may or may not have prolegs but have two circular bands of skin between segments that expand and contract, together with dorsal and ventral pads or ampullae that aid movement within the burrows. Most species are cambium feeders in that they first mine in the cambium and then extend their tunnels into the sapwood and sometimes into the heartwood. Trees from seedling to sawlog size may be attacked, and all parts of the tree—including terminal shoots, branches, trunks, and roots—are susceptible, but some borers are quite selective about size, portion, and condition of the tree. A few species are girdlers and pruners. Although some mine under the bark and girdle or deface ornamentals, the most harmful species bore into the wood and cause defects that seriously degrade lumber sawn from infested timber.

Genus and Species

Goes
- *tigrinus* (De Geer) *296*
- *tesselatus* (Haldeman) *299*
- *debilis* LeConte *302*
- *pulverulentus* (Haldeman) *304*
- *novus* Fall *307*
- *pulcher* (Haldeman) *308*

Plectrodera
- *scalator* (Fabricius) *311*

Neoptychodes
- *trilineatus* Linnaeus *314*

Synaphaeta
- *guexi* LeConte *316*

Dorcaschema
- *wildii* Uhler *318*
- *alternatum* (Say) *321*

Oncideres
- *cingulata cingulata* (Say) *323*
- *pustulatus* LeConte *326*
- *rhodosticta* Bates *329*
- *quercus* Skinner *331*

Aegomorphus
- *morrisi* (Uhler) *332*

Saperda
- *calcarata* Say *334*
- *concolor* LeConte *338*
- *inornata* Say *339*
- *populnea moesta* LeConte *342*
- *populnea tulari* Felt and Joutel *344*
- *candida* Fabricius *346*
- *cretata* Newman *349*
- *fayi* Bland *351*
- *vestita* Say *353*
- *tridentata* Olivier *356*
- *horni* (Joutel) *359*
- *obliqua* Say *359*
- *lateralis* (Fabricius) *363*

discoidea (Fabricius) *363*
puncticollis Say *365*
Oberea
schaumii LeConte *367*
quadricallosa LeConte *370*
delongi Knull *370*
tripunctata (Swederus) *374*
bimaculata (Olivier) *376*
ruficollis (Fabricius) *379*
gracilis (Fabricius) *381*
ocellata (Haldeman) *383*
Parandra
brunnea (Fabricius) *385*
Prionus
imbricornis (Linnaeus) *388*
laticollis (Drury) *390*
californicus Motschulsky *393*
Archodontes
melanopus melanopus (Linnaeus) *396*
melanopus serrulatus (LeConte) *398*
melanopus aridus (Casey) *398*
Stenodontes
dasytomus dasytomus (Say) *399*
dasytomus masticator (Thomson) *401*
lobigenis (Bates) *402*
Desmocerus
palliatus (Forester) *402*
californicus Horn *404*
auripennis Chevrolat *406*
Leptura
pacifica (Linsley) *408*
Strophiona
nitens (Forester) *410*
Styloxus
fulleri (Horn) *411*
Tylonotus
bimaculatus Haldeman *413*
Aneflus
prolixus insoletus Chemsak and Linsley *416*
protensus (LeConte) *416*
Psyrassa
unicolor (Randall) *417*
Aneflomorpha
subpubescens (LeConte) *419*
lineare (LeConte) *421*
Enaphalodes
rufulus (Haldeman) *422*
cortiphagus (Craighead) *426*
Anelaphus
parallelus (Newman) *429*
villosus (Fabricius) *431*
inflaticollis Chemsak *433*
Parelaphidion
incertum (Newman) *435*
Phoracantha
semipunctata (Fabricius) *436*
Dryobius
sexnotatus (Linsley) *438*
Physocnemum
brevilineum (Say) *441*
Xylocrius
agassizi (LeConte) *443*
Megacyllene
robiniae *445*
snowi snowi (Casey) *448*
robusta (Linsley and Chemsak) *450*
Glycobius
speciosus (Say) *451*
Megacheuma
brevipennis (LeConte) *453*
Xylotrechus
aceris Fisher *454*

insignis LeConte *457*
quadrimaculatus (Haldeman) *457*
obliteratus LeConte *461*
nauticus (Mannerheim) *463*
Neoclytus
acuminatus (Fabricius) *464*
tenuiscriptus Fall *466*
cordifer (Klug) *468*
Callona
rimosa (Buquet) *469*
Crioprosopus
magnificus (LeConte) *471*
Purpuricenus
dimidiatus LeConte *471*
axillaris Haldeman *473*
Amannus
pectoralis LeConte *474*

Goes tigrinus (De Geer)

white oak borer (figure 115)

Hosts. Oak. Decidedly prefers oak species. The major host in upland forests is white oak, whereas overcup oak is preferred in bottomland stands. Attacks post oak, swamp chestnut oak, and chestnut oak less frequently. Hickory and walnut are mentioned (Beal and others 1952), but it appears likely that these attacks were by another borer—*Goes pulcher* (Haldeman).

Range. Throughout the eastern and central United States east of the Great Plains, wherever its preferred hosts grow (Beal and others 1952, Solomon and Donley 1983).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, elongate, robust, and cylindrical longhorn beetle, 22 to 30 mm long, 6 to 8 mm wide, with antennae that extend beyond tips of elytra (figure 115A). Females slightly larger than males, with heavier abdomens but slightly shorter antennae. Body color dark brown with lighter mottled areas of dense white pubescence. Mottling on elytra form distinct dark bands at base and just beyond middle. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, translucent, parchmentlike, elongate, averages about 4 mm long and 1 mm wide (figure 115B and C). ***Larva.*** Somewhat robust, elongate, almost cylindrical, slightly flattened on dorsal and ventral surfaces, and somewhat broadened anteriorly (figure 115D) (Craighead 1923). Yellowish white with dark brown mandibles and light amber spiracles. Legless but able to propel themselves through their galleries by means of ampullae, or wartlike protuberances on abdominal segments. At maturity, 24 to 32 mm long. ***Pupa.*** Newly transformed pupa white with greenish tinge; mandibles, eyes, and appendages darken and become distinct before transformation.

Biology. In Mississippi, adult beetles emerge from late April to late May and are relatively long lived, having been trapped as late as July 10. In Ohio, adults emerge from mid-May to mid-July (Solomon and Donley 1983). Adults have been found in Michigan from late July to early August (Gosling and Gosling 1977). After emergence, adults feed for a week or two on twigs and leaf petioles, mate, and then females begin oviposition. Females deposit 9 to 15 eggs each. To oviposit, females chew oval niches 5 to 8 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 115B) and then, with the long ovipositor, force one egg per niche between the bark and wood (figure 115C). Up to 14 fresh egg niches have been found on a tree (Solomon and Donley

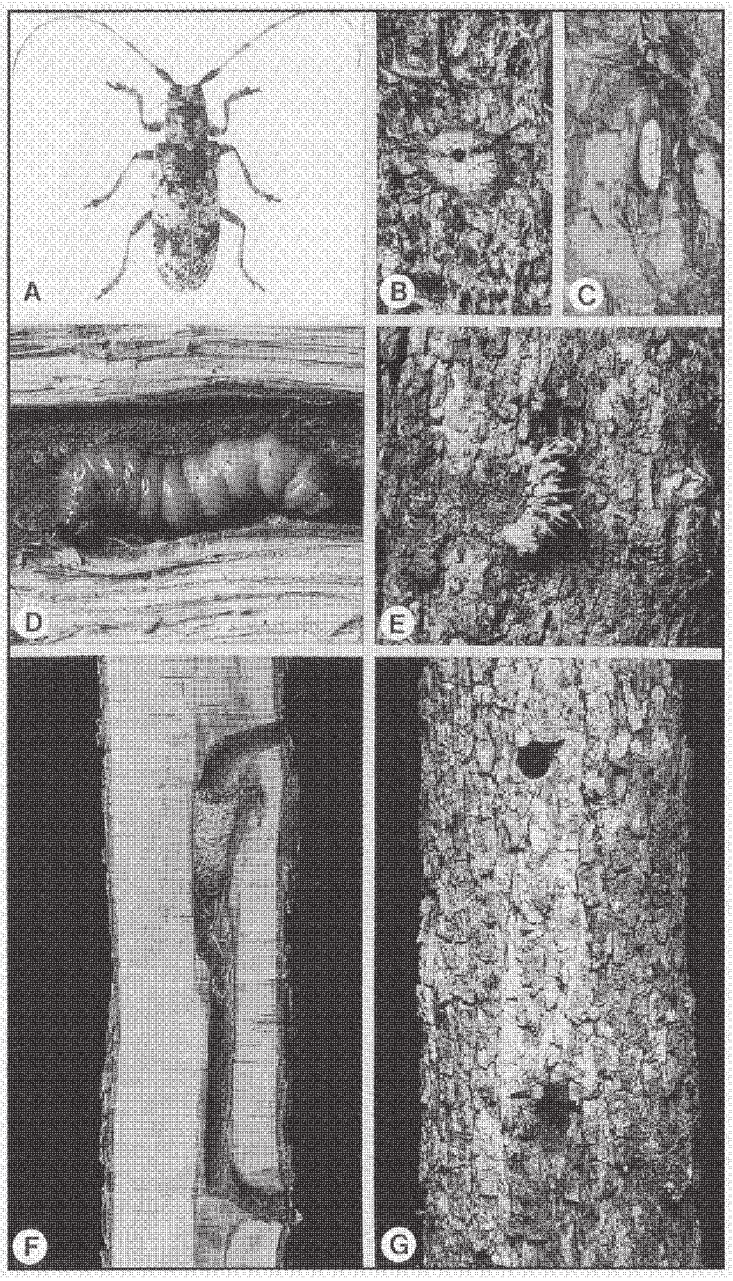


Figure 115—Goes tigrinus, *white oak borer: A, adult; B, egg niche; C, bark removed to expose egg; D, larva; E, fibrous frass extruded from entrance; F, gallery with entrance below and exit above; G, entrance hole below and exit hole above.*

1983). Newly hatched larvae do little or no mining in the inner bark but tunnel directly into the sapwood. Sap oozes from the point of entry and discolors the surrounding bark. Soon after eggs hatch, tiny strands of fine, moist, yellowish frass are extruded through the entrance holes. As the larvae grow, frass strands become larger and often assume the shape of yellow ribbonlike pieces from being forcefully extruded through the vertically elongate entrance holes (figure 115E). Short pieces of shredded wood appear in the frass during the second year. Excelsior-like wood fibers 12 to 18 mm long in the frass indicate approaching larval maturity. Yellow frass often accumulates in piles around the bases of heavily infested trees. Larval galleries extend horizontally or obliquely upward in the sapwood 2 to 6 cm, rise vertically another 8 to 17 cm, then turn horizontally back to the surface (figure 115F). Borers in large stems usually enter and exit on the same side of the tree, but on small stems, they sometimes exit on the opposite side. Galleries are relatively uniform in shape, but occasionally, short diverticula occur at the junctions of horizontal and vertical portions of the galleries. Completed galleries range from 11 to 23 cm long and 1.0 to 1.5 cm in diameter. One larva occupies each gallery, but galleries intersect occasionally in heavily infested hosts. Mature larvae prepare pupal chambers at the uppermost part of galleries by plugging them tightly with excelsior-like frass. Pupation in Mississippi occurs during April and early May and lasts 15 to 19 days. Newly formed beetles emerge by chewing circular exit holes. Three or 4 years are required to complete a generation.

Injury and damage. Infested trees are most easily recognized in late summer and fall when the frass ejected from vertically elongate larval entrance holes is yellowish, coarse, and fibrous (figure 115E), and often accumulates around the base of infested trees (Solomon and Donley 1983, Solomon and Morris 1965). Repeatedly reinfested trees have two types of holes on the trunk (figure 115F and G): elongate entrance holes (8 to 12 mm long) that larvae keep open throughout their development and through which frass is expelled and circular holes (7 to 9 mm in diameter) several centimeters above the entrance holes through which the adults exit. During the oviposition period, and for 1 or 2 months after, the characteristic shallow oval-shaped egg niches, 5 to 8 mm in diameter, are visible on the bark surface (figure 115B). As the entrance and exit holes close with wound tissue, they often appear as branch scars and may be surrounded with roughened, irregularly shaped bark scales. On poorly drained heavy clay sites in bottomlands and bayous of the Mississippi River drainage system, overcup oaks sustain more borer damage than those on more fertile, well-drained, silty sites along the edges of sloughs and bayous. In contrast, in Ohio, the fastest growing young white oaks are reportedly most susceptible to attack (Donley 1978a). This borer is one of the most serious pests of sapling and young pole-sized white oaks from 10 to 25 cm in diameter at breast height (dbh) and prefers to infest the basal 7.6 m of such trees. Conse-

quently, the most valuable butt-log portion of future crop trees often becomes riddled with galleries and either is rendered completely useless or severely degraded. The white oak borer reportedly is the insect most responsible for the rejection of defective staves by the cooperage industry in Ohio (Donley and others 1969). Moreover, white oak borers predispose infested trees to damage by carpenterworms, carpenter ants, wood stains, and decay fungi.

Control. During winter and early spring, woodpeckers destroy up to 30% of the larvae, particularly in trees 12 cm or less in diameter that have multiple borer attacks (Solomon and Donley 1983). Soon after the eggs hatch, many small larvae are killed by excessive sap flow at egg niche sites. No insect parasites of the white oak borer have been reported. Studies on the spatial, height, and density distribution of white oak borers indicate that populations occur in small trees 8 to 25 cm in dbh that exhibit evidence of previous attack (Donley 1978a, Solomon and Donley 1983). Analyses suggest that 50% of resident borer populations can be killed silviculturally by removing brood trees, which make up as little as 5% of a stand's basal area. Insecticidal control of white oak borers is probably not economically justified in forest stands.

Goes tesselatus (Haldeman)

oak sapling borer (figure 116)

Hosts. Oak. White oak, chestnut oak, and others in the white oak group are preferred. Chestnut, serviceberry, and elm mentioned as hosts (Brooks 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1984), but this is questionable.

Range. New York and Pennsylvania south to Georgia and Louisiana and to Indiana in the Midwest (Blatchley 1910, Linsley and Chemsak 1984, USDA FS 1985). Injuries to young trees typical of those of the oak sapling borer have been observed in Arkansas and Mississippi.

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, robust, cylindrical, grayish brown, longhorn beetle 20 to 27 mm long and 7 to 9 mm wide (figure 116A) (Brooks 1923). Body covered with short, prostrate, yellowish hairs. Yellowish spots formed by dense hairs on elytra. Antennae much longer than body in males and only slightly longer than body in females. Females larger and more robust than males. ***Egg.*** Elongate, yellowish white, wrinkled, parchmentlike, and averaging 2 by 6 mm. Eggs removed from their position in the tree have the impression of wood grain on chorion surface. ***Larva.*** Full-grown larva (figure 116B) 25 to 30 mm long, 4 to 6 mm wide, elongate, slightly robust, fleshy and yellowish, nearly cylindrical, slightly flattened dorsally and ventrally, and broader anteriorly (Brooks 1923). ***Pupa.*** Yellowish white and about 25 mm long. Yellowish brown hairs coarser and denser than those of other *Goes* species (Brooks 1923).

Biology. After transformation to the adult stage, new beetles remain in pupal chambers for 5 to 7 days. They exit the pupal chambers by gnawing round holes directly through the bark at the upper end of the chamber. Adults emerge in May and June, feed on the tender bark of young oak twigs, and live 3 to 5 weeks. Seven to

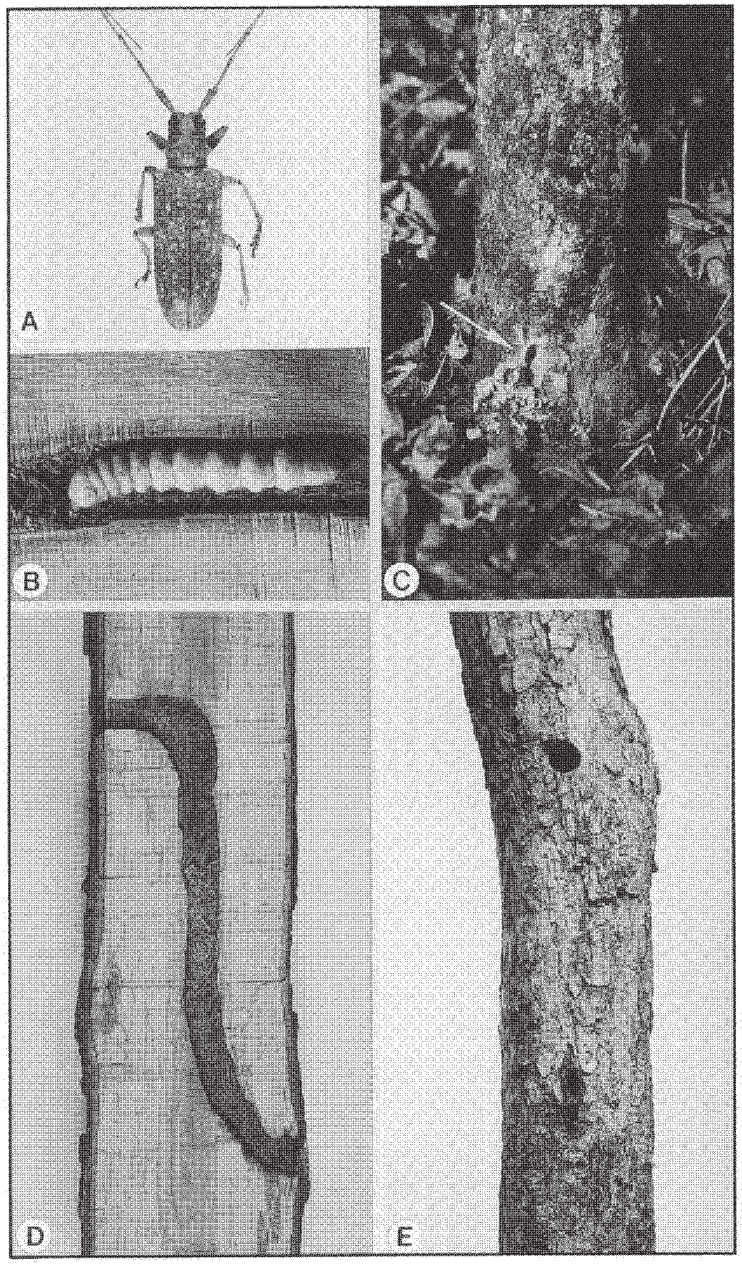


Figure 116—Goes tesselatus, *oak sapling borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, entrance hole and frass at base of sapling; D,gallery—entrance below and exit above; E, entrance hole below, exit above.*

10 days after emergence, females begin to oviposit. They gnaw small cavities or niches in the bark and place the eggs singly between the bark and wood. After hatching, young larvae begin to feed in the bark around the oviposition site but soon move deep into the wood. Larvae of various sizes may be seen in the trees at any season. With the onset of cold weather, larvae sometimes bore downward and overwinter near ground level. The larval period requires 3 to 5 years. During their last summer in the tree, larvae extend their tunnels several centimeters above the ground and enlarge the upper end to form pupal chambers. Mature larvae overwinter in these chambers and pupate in spring. Pupation takes place in April and lasts 5 to 6 weeks (Brooks 1923).

Injury and damage. Attack sites are found most often on the lower trunk, particularly around the base (figure 116C). Small trees 13 to 50 mm in diameter at stump height are most susceptible and suffer most. Summer examination reveals egg niches cut in the bark. Oozing sap at these sites soon stains the bark, making new attack sites more noticeable. Fine frass, sometimes extruded in small threads, appears at the egg sites. During the second and subsequent years, frass becomes coarser, including some fibrous or excelsior-like fibers. Moreover, the frass is typically extruded through the gallery opening in ribbonlike pieces that accumulate in piles on the ground at the base of the tree (figure 116C). Internal injury is characterized by wide irregular burrows that extend upward in the wood (figure 116D), but the galleries sometimes extend downward from the point of entrance. Galleries become more extensive each year of the life cycle and eventually affect considerable portions of small trunks. Each borer leaves two holes—an elongate entrance hole and a 7- to 9-mm round exit hole (figure 116E). Small bark scars usually are visible for several years after borers mature and leave the tree. Damage is restricted mostly to large seedlings, saplings, and sprouts. A single larva may sometimes completely hollow out the base of a small tree and kill it. Many young trees are structurally weakened by the galleries and typically break at exit holes. Trees that survive the feeding injuries frequently develop bulblike swellings around wounds near the groundline (USDA FS 1985). About 25% of the infested trees die from the direct effects of larval feeding or from breaking at exit holes made by larvae a few centimeters above the ground. The borer shows a tendency to colonize, attacking nearly every young tree in some stands while infesting few trees or none in other stands (Brooks 1923).

Control. No predaceous or parasitic insects have been reported (Brooks 1923), but because this borer occurs mostly in small stems, it is particularly susceptible to woodpecker predation. The hairy, downy, and pileated woodpeckers excavate and devour many larvae. Open-grown trees such as sprout growth in small, recently cutover areas and young trees planted as ornamentals or for nut production are most susceptible. Direct control measures occasionally may be needed to protect valuable trees.

Goes debilis LeConte

[oak branch borer] (figure 117)

Hosts. Oak. Members of the white oak group, especially white, overcup, and post oaks, are preferred hosts (Solomon 1977a). In the red oak group, black and northern red oaks have been listed as hosts. Hickory has been mentioned (Dillon and Dillon 1972), but the borer was probably mistaken for *Goes pulcher* (Haldeman), a borer common in hickory.

Range. Primarily an eastern species, reported in 18 states from New York south to Florida and west to Arizona (Dillon and Dillon 1941, Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Solomon 1977a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slightly robust longhorn beetle, ranging from 10 to 16 mm long and 3 to 5 mm wide (figure 117A). Antennae about as long as body in females and slightly longer in males. Elytra reddish brown and apical portions mottled with light brown pubescence; basal portions mottled with light gray and light brown pubescence. Distinct crossbands of darker brown mark elytra just before and behind middle. Two distinct longitudinal brown stripes on thorax with short, blunt spine on each side (Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946, Solomon 1977a). ***Egg.*** Elongate, creamy white, and averaging 3 mm long and 1 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Cylindrical, slightly robust, 14 to 18 mm long when fully grown and yellowish white with brown mandibles and amber spiracles (figure 117B). Slightly flattened head usually withdrawn into fleshy prothorax, with only mouthparts exposed. Larvae legless and restricted to movement within galleries. ***Pupa.*** White, gradually darkening, 7 to 15 mm long (figure 117C) (Solomon 1977a).

Biology. In Mississippi, the earliest that adults emerge is around May 7 and the latest about June 3; the greatest numbers emerge between May 20 and 30 (Solomon 1977a). Adults have been collected in July in Indiana (Blatchley 1910) and New York (Linell 1889). Females lay single eggs between the bark and sapwood in the center of 2 to 4 mm diameter oval niches chewed in the bark. The niche openings made by the female ovipositor are sealed by a secretion that hardens to protect the eggs from dessication. Egg niches are usually made singly or in groups of two or three. Terminal shoots and small branches preferred by ovipositing females are 9 to 38 mm in diameter, averaging 17 mm (Solomon 1977a). Newly hatched larvae tunnel directly into the wood with little or no mining in either the phloem or cambium. The size and shape of galleries vary much more than the relatively uniform tunnels of other *Goes* species. Generally, galleries extend radially inward from the entrance hole for 5 to 10 mm, then turn abruptly in either direction parallel to the wood grain for 20 to 60 mm, and finally turn back to the surface. Some galleries extend in both directions from the entrance, and the larvae make a few irregular cavities below the entrance before tunneling back to the surface on any side of the stem. Gallery entrances are almost always tightly plugged with yellow frass, and portions of the gallery are commonly filled with frass. One larva occupies

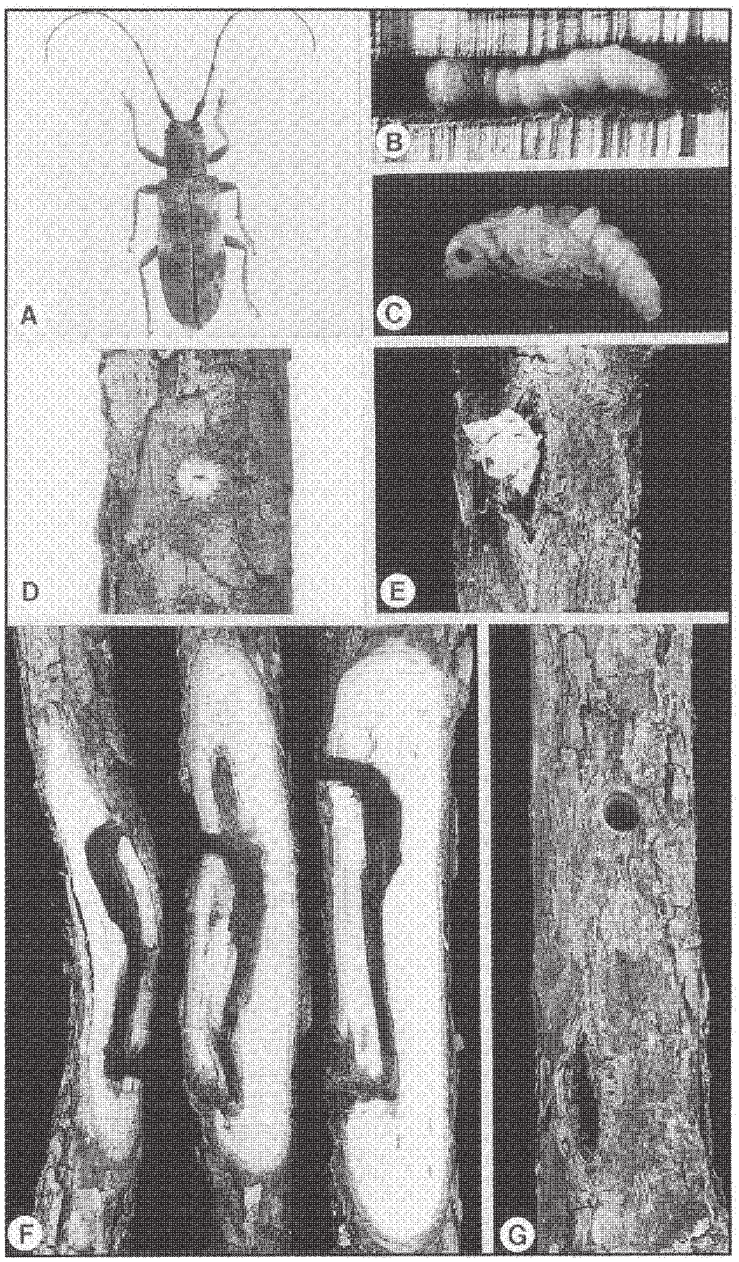


Figure 117—Goes debilis, *[oak branch borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, egg niche; E, yellow frass ribbon extruded from entrance; F, galleries; G, entrance hole below, exit hole above.*

each gallery, but other larvae occasionally intersect vacated galleries (Solomon 1977a). Pupal chambers are constructed at the innermost part of galleries and are closed off by tight plugs of short, fibrous, shredded wood. Pupation occurs in April and May and lasts 14 to 17 days. Each borer leaves two holes, an elongate entrance hole and a circular exit hole. The wounds heal eventually and appear as bark scars for several years (Solomon 1977a). In Mississippi, part of a brood develops in 3 years, and the remainder requires 4 years. It seems likely that development of more than 4 years is required farther north.

Injury and damage. The earliest indication of attack is tiny egg niches cut in the bark (figure 117D) (Solomon 1977a). The most obvious evidence is the yellowish frass extruded from small elongate entrance holes (figure 117E) and sapstained bark. Dissection reveals galleries 3 to 8 cm long and 4 to 6 mm in diameter (figure 117F). A year or more after becoming infested, many branches and terminals become swollen or gall-like. Sometimes cankerlike lesions develop, especially at infested sites pecked by woodpeckers. Broken branches and dieback are additional symptoms of infestation. Round exit holes 3 to 4 mm in diameter may be found in the bark (figure 117G). Because this borer, as its common name implies, primarily infests branches, it does not directly degrade logs. However, the borer sometimes attacks terminals, resulting in forks and crooks or poorly formed trunks that prevent development of long, straight sawlogs. Woodpecker excavations in infested terminals and branches sometimes result in breakage and dieback. Clumps of heavily infested trees occur in some locations, but in other areas, borer damage is negligible to rare.

Control. Woodpeckers are among the most important natural enemies of this borer. In one study of 200 attacks in Mississippi, 65% of the larvae were taken by woodpeckers (Solomon 1977a). Eggs and newly hatched larvae are subject to mortality in vigorous trees because of excessive sap-ooze at oviposition sites. No parasites have been recovered. Control by removing and destroying infested branches from valuable trees is effective, especially on a neighborhood basis.

Goes pulverulentus (Haldeman)

[beech borer] (figure 118)

Hosts. Nuttall, willow, black, cherrybark, and water oaks, beech, elm, and sycamore. The red oaks appear to be major hosts, followed by American beech (Solomon 1972). Attacks American elm less commonly, and sycamore rarely. White oak and wild cherry have been listed as hosts (Knull 1946), but these records are questionable.

Range. Reported mostly from the eastern United States, including 23 states from Florida west to Texas, north to Minnesota and Massachusetts, and in southern Canada (Dillon and Dillon 1941, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, elongate longhorn beetle, 18 to 25 mm long and 6 to 8 mm wide (figure 118A) (Dillon and

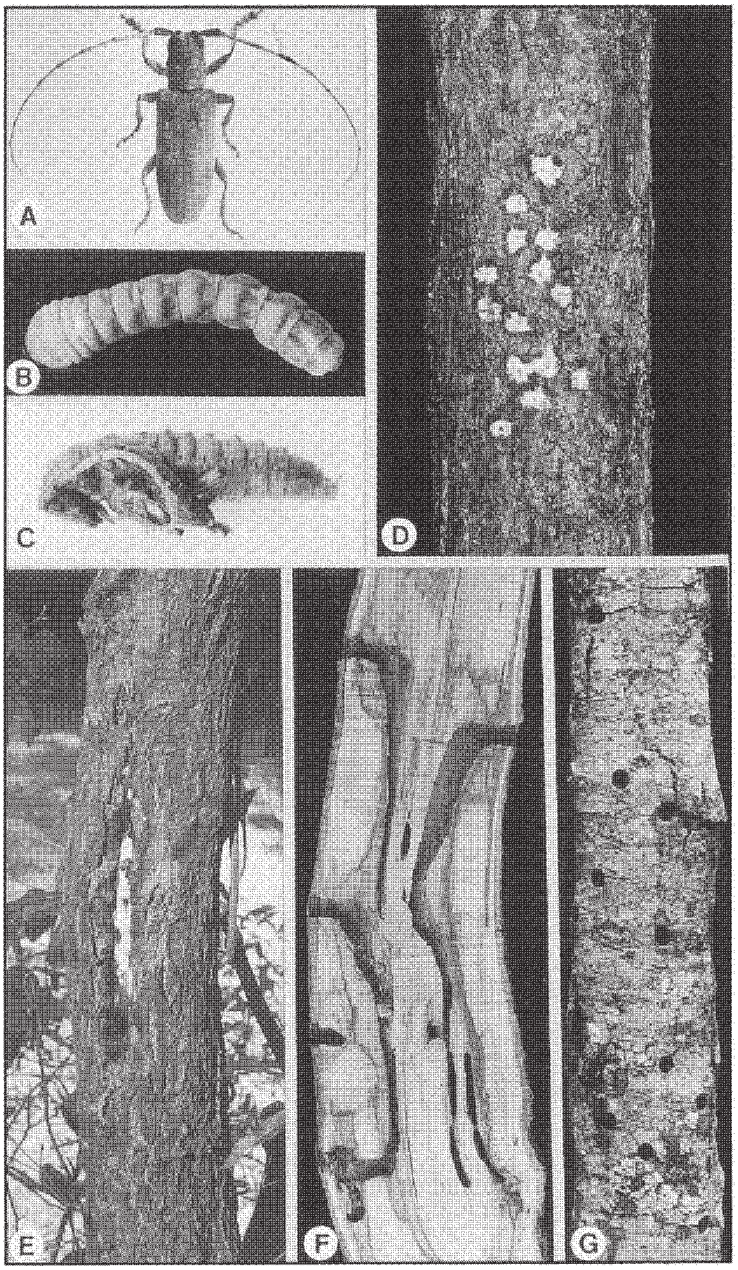


Figure 118—Goes pulverulentus, *[beech borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, cluster of egg niches; E, attacks at elongate scar on sapling; F, galleries; G, cluster of round exit holes.*

Dillon 1941, Knull 1946, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Female slightly larger than male, but with decidedly shorter antennae. Body covered with brownish gray pubescence; elytra with band of darker pubescence at base and just beyond middle. Small spine on each side of pronotum. ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, almost translucent, parchmentlike and elongate, averaging 4 mm long and 1 mm wide (Solomon 1972). ***Larva.*** Newly hatched larva about 4 mm long; 20 to 30 mm at maturity (figure 118B). Body somewhat robust, fleshy, and almost cylindrical, but slightly flattened dorsally and ventrally, and slightly broader anteriorly. White to cream colored, except for brownish mandibles; legless, but moves along gallery with the aid of roughened, fleshy ampullae on abdominal segments. ***Pupa.*** Newly formed pupa (figure 118C) white, resembling a mummy with antennae; legs held tightly against body; 18 to 23 mm long (Solomon 1972).

Biology. In Arkansas and northern Mississippi, adults emerge April 25 to June 24 and live for an average of 27 days (Solomon 1972). Adults feed on tender twigs and leaf midribs, occasionally killing the apex of small twigs. Caged females oviposit an average of 12 eggs on Nuttall and willow oaks from early May to late June. After chewing oval, 5- to 7-mm-diameter niches in the bark, females deposit single eggs between the bark and wood. Females typically deposit eggs in clusters of niches; 17 (range 2 to 60) niches per cluster is the average. Apparently, several females contribute to large clusters with numerous egg niches. Generally, one cluster is found on a tree, but as many as four have been observed. The frequent presence of fresh egg clusters adjacent to active larvae suggests that previously infested trees attract females. On one study tree, fresh niches were observed next to the previous year's attack sites for 4 years in succession. When eggs hatch, larvae feed for only a short time in the phloem and cambium before entering the wood. Tiny strands of fine moist frass are extruded through the elongate entrance holes, and as the larvae grow, strands become larger and contain numerous excelsior-like wood fibers. Adults emerge the year after the fibers reach 10 to 15 mm long (Hay 1968). The strands of frass are noticeably darker than the yellow frass produced by the closely related species *Goes tigrinus*. Galleries occasionally intersect, and when they do, cannibalism is common. During late fall of the last year of development, larvae prepare pupal chambers in the innermost part of galleries and remain there in a resting stage until early March. Mature larvae pupate for 13 to 16 days in April or May. Adults chew holes through the bark to emerge. In Mississippi, most individuals complete the life cycle in 3 years, but a few require 4 or 5 years.

Injury and damage. Clusters of egg niches on trunks of small trees are the earliest evidence of infestation (figure 118D). Sap leakage from the egg niches begins within a few days of oviposition and gradually discolors the bark around and below the site. The young larvae burrow into the wood and begin feeding. Bark

surrounding the clusters of attacks often dies, then after 1 or 2 years, the growth of bark around the infestation forms an oblong sunken area. Longitudinal bark scars up to 1 m long develop over these wounds and remain for several years. Dead bark over the scar often splits, curls outward, and breaks away (figure 118E). Dissection reveals clusters of larval galleries that extend obliquely upward for 3 to 6 cm, vertically for another 8 to 15 cm, then turn back to the surface (figure 118F). Completed galleries range from 11 to 17 cm long and 12 to 15 mm in diameter. Multiple, round exit holes about 8 mm in diameter are left in the bark by emerging adults (figure 118G). Exit holes heal in 1 or 2 years and leave circular bark scars, which resemble overgrown branch stubs. In the Deep South, vigorous trees are sometimes infested, but suppressed, intermediate, leaning, and partially vine-covered trees are most vulnerable (Solomon 1972). Tree stems 8 to 12 cm in diameter are most commonly attacked, but occasionally stems up to 20 cm in diameter are attacked. Attacks on the main stem are most prevalent at heights of 2 to 3 m, but occur anywhere from groundline to 9 m. Branches of larger trees may become infested (Solomon 1972). Larval tunnels in the wood provide entry for stains, decay fungi, and carpenter ants and predispose trees to attack by carpenterworms and other borers. Small trunks and large branches are often so weakened by the borer that they break in high winds (Solomon 1972). This borer generally is of minor importance because it tends to attack smaller suppressed trees in forest stands. However, in some young stands, many sapling and pole-sized trees are heavily attacked, ruining their potential as crop trees.

Control. In vigorous trees, copious sap flow from fresh oviposition sites results in considerable natural control of eggs and young larvae (Solomon 1972). Also, carpenter ants, attracted to fermenting sap, chew the bark around egg niches and destroy many eggs and young larvae. In one study of woodpecker predation, 75% of the infested trees had been worked and 39% of the larvae had been destroyed (Solomon and Morris 1971). Unless hardwood silviculture intensifies, direct control of this borer does not appear to be warranted. However, since infested trees are usually small in size and number, it may be feasible to remove them during stand-improvement cuts. Chemical controls may be needed occasionally to protect ornamentals and other valuable trees.

Goes novus Fall

[live oak goes]

Hosts. Oak. Live oak is the only known host (Hovore 1983).

Range. Recorded from several locations in Texas, mainly in the Davis Mountains in western Texas (Dillon and Dillon 1941, Hovore 1983). It has been mentioned as occurring in Illinois (Dillon and Dillon 1941), but this record is questionable.

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate ovate, rather robust longhorn beetle, subcylindrical and 19 to 24 mm long and 6 to 8 mm wide (Dillon and Dillon 1941). Head covered with dark gray pubescence with denser line outlining eyes. Pronotum entirely covered

with dark gray pubescence with two small brownish yellow spots on either side of median line. Elytra subconvex with brown and dark gray pubescence interspersed, giving irregular mottled appearance and forming faint bands at basal, middle, and apical quarters. Legs and antennae dark reddish brown to black and usually well covered with dark gray pubescence. Antennae with darker basal segments and about 1.5 times body length in males and about as long as body in females.

Biology. The habits appear similar to those of *Goes pulcher* (Haldeman) (Hovore 1983). On emergence, adults ascend to the foliage to feed and mate before oviposition. Adult beetles have been collected from healthy oak foliage both day and night. Beetles are attracted to light. Little else is known about the biology.

Injury and damage. Attacks are limited mostly to small trees and outer branches of large trees. Injuries are similar to those of *G. pulcher* in hickory (Hovore 1983). Entrance holes usually have frass plugging and protruding from the openings. Attacks are found in trunks and branches 15 to 85 mm in diameter; however, the stem bases of saplings 0.5 to 2.0 m tall are favorite sites for attack. Larvae, pupae, and adults have been taken from galleries and pupal cells from living oak stems. Damage has been of little consequence.

Control. Controls have not been needed.

Goes pulcher (Haldeman)

[hickory borer] (figure 119)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan. Commonly attacks water, mockernut, and bitternut hickories (Beal and others 1952, Solomon 1974). Other hickories are probably susceptible, and evidence of attack on black walnut has been observed. Occasionally infests grafted pecan. Oak species have been reported as hosts (Dillon and Dillon 1941), but this seems questionable.

Range. Occurs from southern Canada through the central and eastern United States (Solomon 1974). Common in the South, but populations vary greatly among localities.

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust longhorn beetle, ranging from 17 to 25 mm long and 5 to 8 mm wide with long antennae (figure 119A). Prominent spine midway along each side of pronotum. Body pale brown to grayish yellow ground color; elytra banded with darker brown across base and just beyond middle (Knull 1946, Dillon and Dillon 1941). ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, parchment-like, elongate, averages 4 mm long and 1 mm in diameter (figure 119D). ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 119B) slightly robust, fleshy, generally cylindrical, legless, and 18 to 28 mm long. White to yellowish except for prominent dark brown mandibles and amber spiracles. ***Pupa.*** White to greenish initially but becomes yellowish at maturity, with eyes, mandibles, and appendages darkening considerably before adult emergence (Solomon 1974).

Biology. Adults emerge in west-central Mississippi from early May to early June (Solomon 1974); in Ohio, adults have been observed on foliage in June and July (Knull 1946). After they feed on tender twigs, leaf petioles, and leaf midribs, adults begin

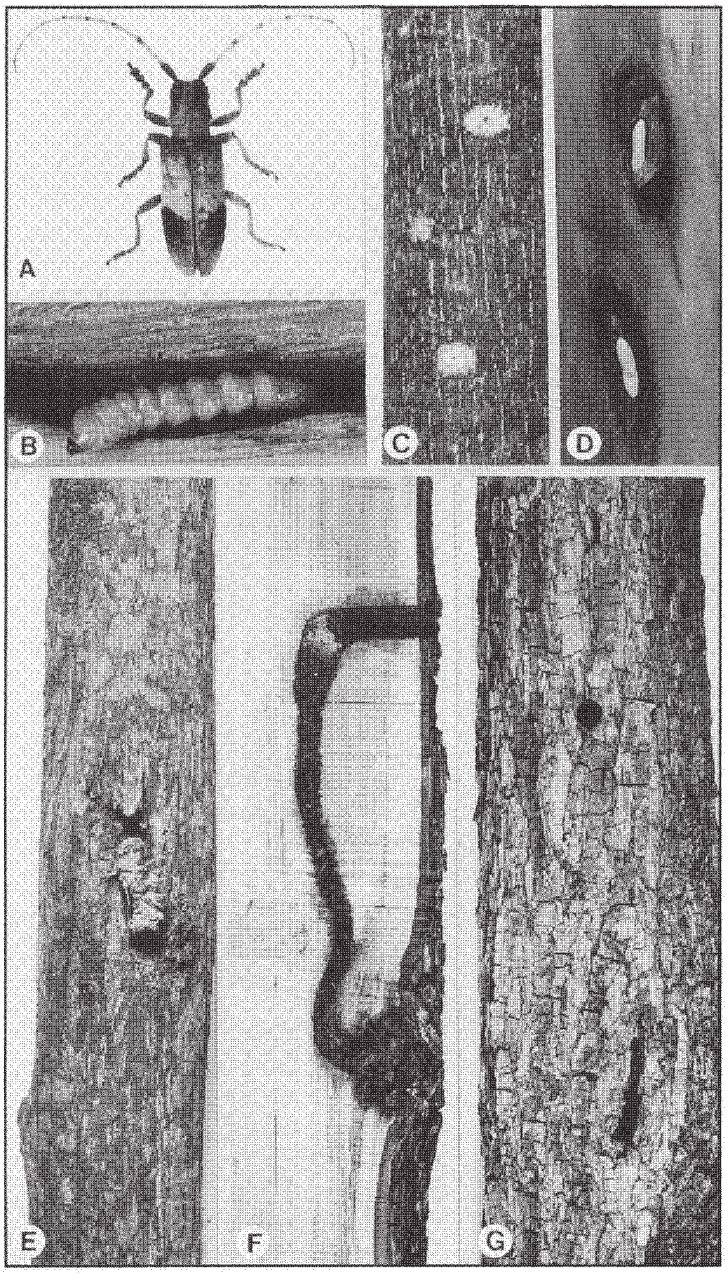


Figure 119—Goes pulcher, *[hickory borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, egg niches; D, eggs beneath bark; E, frass extruded from elongate entrance; F, gallery—entrance below, exit above; G, entrance hole below, exit hole above.*

mating and egg laying. To oviposit, females chew oval niches in the bark, then force the ovipositor through the opening, downward between the bark and sapwood to deposit 1 egg per niche. Females are known to deposit up to 14 eggs each, but probably deposit many more. Eggs are usually deposited singly, but clusters of two to three niches may be found. Adults live 11 to 32 days. Newly hatched larvae produce small irregularly shaped mines of 1 to 2 cm in diameter under the bark before tunneling into the sapwood. This behavior differs from that of the closely related species *Goes tigrinus* and *G. pulverulentus*, whose larvae bore directly into the sapwood after eclosion. During late fall and early spring of the final year of development, mature larvae construct pupal chambers by closing the uppermost portion of galleries with plugs of long excelsior-like fibers. Pupation lasts 15 days during mid-April to early May. The new adults chew circular emergence holes through the bark. The life cycle is completed in 3 to 5 years.

Injury and damage. Earliest indications of attack are egg niches 4 to 8 mm in diameter (figure 119C) made by egg-laying females (Solomon 1974). Egg niches are most common on the sunny aspect of the trunk; they frequently occur in branch crotches (Craighead 1923). As young larvae begin to reach the outer sapwood, oozing sap from the point of attack darkens the bark. In succeeding years, the stain becomes slightly bleached or yellowish brown. Frass extrudes from the entrance hole (figure 119E) and falls to the ground. As larvae reach maturity, the frass changes to excelsior-like wood fibers 8 to 12 mm long. Larval galleries (figure 119F) extend horizontally or obliquely upward 2 to 5 cm from the point of entry into the wood, rise vertically another 6 to 12 cm, then turn horizontally back to the surface. Active galleries often are partially filled with frass, particularly along the innermost wall. Small diverticula tightly packed with frass sometimes occur at the junction of the horizontal and vertical tunnels of the gallery. Completed galleries are 9 to 16 cm long and 1.0 to 1.3 cm in diameter. Each borer leaves two holes, an elongate entrance hole and a 7-mm-diameter round exit hole (figure 119G). As these wounds heal, bark scars at entrance sites appear as slightly sunken slits, with a small bulge around the periphery. The exit holes heal to form circular scars resembling overgrown branch stubs and are visible for several years. Borer attacks are most common on main stems 7 to 11 cm in diameter. Trunk diameters at point of attack average less for pecan and water hickory than for mockernut and bitternut hickories. Tree trunks are most commonly attacked between 1.5 and 2.3 m above groundline, but occasionally attacks may occur from the tree base to heights of 4.8 m. Attacks on large trees are restricted usually to the upper trunk and branches. On trees of poor vigor, whose borer injuries are slow to heal, galleries serve as nesting sites for ants and also permit stain and decay fungi to be established. Trunks weakened by borer galleries and woodpecker excavations may be broken by wind. Borer holes, stain, and decay degrade the wood for handlestock, furniture, and other commer-

cial uses (Solomon 1974).

Control. Heavy sap-ooze at oviposition sites kills many eggs and early instar larvae (Solomon 1974). Woodpeckers are major predators of borers that survive beyond the first year; up to a third of the larvae have been destroyed by woodpeckers in some localities. No parasites have been reported. In forest stands and woodlots, the removal of brood trees during stand improvement operations is silviculturally plausible. In shade trees and other valuable trees, this pest can be controlled mechanically with knife and wire or by injecting commercial fumigants into galleries. Attacks can be prevented with trunk sprays of an insecticide during the oviposition period.

Plectrodera scalator (Fabricius)

cottonwood borer (figure 120)

Hosts. Poplar, willow. Eastern cottonwood is preferred host, followed by the other poplars; willows are only occasionally attacked (Solomon 1980).

Range. New York south to Georgia and west to Texas, New Mexico, and Montana (Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Solomon 1980). Most common through the Great Plains from Texas north to South Dakota and in the Mississippi River Valley from Mississippi north to Michigan.

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, somewhat cylindrical, very robust longhorn beetle (figure 120A) (Blatchley 1910, Milliken 1916). Measures 25 to 40 mm long and about 12 mm wide. One of largest and most strikingly colored longhorn beetles in North America. Ground color of body and appendages shiny black. White pubescence covers front of head and surrounds eyes. White pubescence on thorax arranged to form longitudinal, dorsal, bare black patch and similar black areas at base of large spines on sides of thorax. Each elytron with two irregular rows of rectangular, shiny black patches running longitudinally that are separated by irregular longitudinal and transverse bands of white pubescence, giving elytra checkered appearance. Long antennae black with first two segments rusty to gray. ***Egg.*** White to yellowish and elliptical; chorion tough and leathery; measures 3 to 4 mm long (figure 120B) (Milliken 1916, Solomon 1980). ***Larva.*** Mature larva robust and cylindrical in form, and about 55 mm long and 12 mm wide (figure 120C) (Milliken 1916). Integument very thin, shiny, and densely covered with short, golden brown hairs. Prothorax in front bears a continuous transverse row of short golden brown hairs; rear portion covered with velvety pubescence. ***Pupa.*** Similar in form to adult and averages about 35 mm long (figure 120D) (Milliken 1916).

Biology. Adults emerge late May to late June in Mississippi (Solomon 1980) and late June to mid-August in Kansas (Milliken 1916). Adults live about a month after emerging. After feeding on leaf petioles, new twig growth, and tender bark, females dig shallow pits 6 to 19 mm deep in the soil at the root collar, then shred the bark with their jaws to make oviposition sites. After depositing a single egg at each site, females partially fill the soil pits. Eggs hatch after incubating 13 to 18 days, and young larvae mine down-

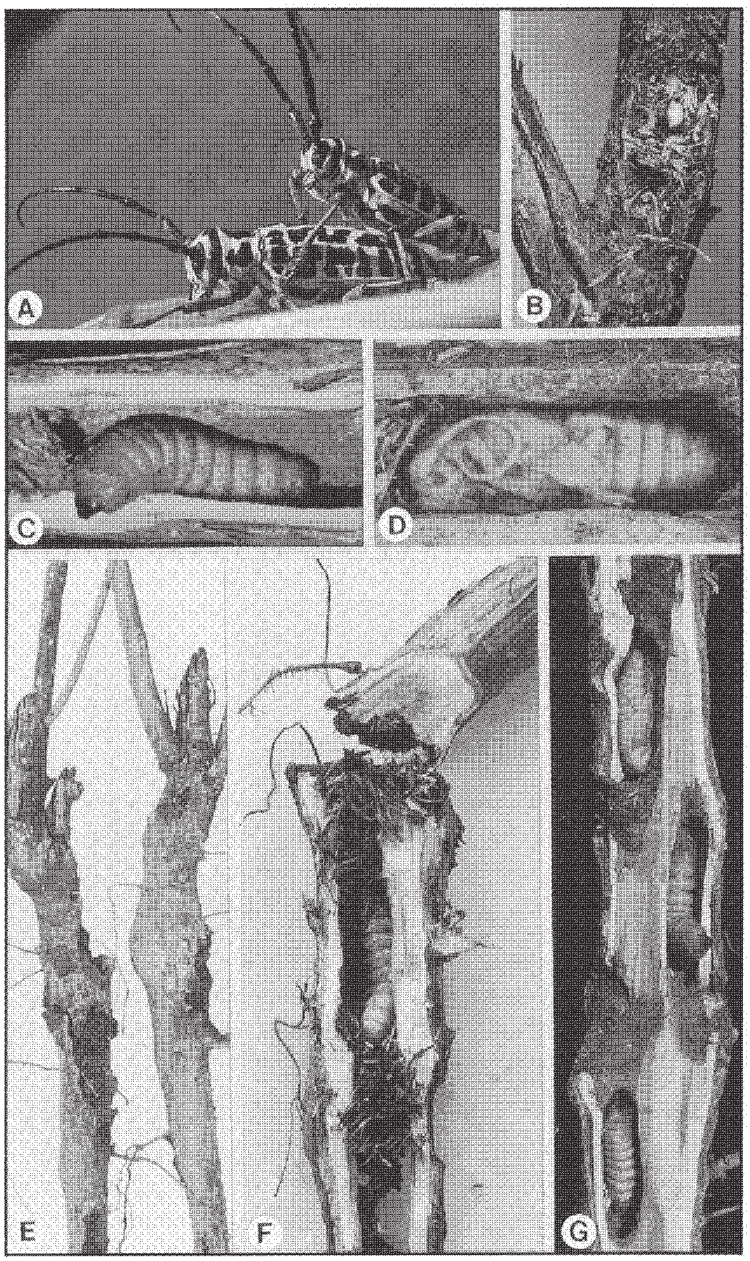


Figure 120—Plectrodera scalator, *cottonwood borer: A, adults mating; B, egg; C, larva; D, pupa; E, infested roots with swellings, openings, and frass; F, infested plant broken at root collar; G, multiple infested root.*

ward in the inner bark and soon begin to etch the wood. Galleries extend downward into the taproot of 1- and 2-year-old seedlings; however, galleries may extend slightly upward above ground when multiple larvae are present. In larger trees, larvae usually do not penetrate the wood deeper than 25 mm and often hollow out roughly oval areas 51 to 76 mm in diameter, a habit particularly common where larvae tunnel in large roots. Galleries in small lateral roots are narrow and range from 10 to 20 cm long. Portions of the galleries are typically packed with excelsior-like shredded wood, which is also used to plug any openings in the bark. One or two winters are spent in the larval stage. From late April to early July, mature larvae construct pupal cells by plugging the galleries with fibrous frass. New adults emerge by cutting exit holes 10 to 13 mm in diameter directly through the bark and to the soil surface; such holes are sometimes visible in the soil and on the bark near groundline. A 2-year life cycle has been reported (Milliken 1916) for cottonwood borers in large trees; however, in 1- and 2-year-old trees in Mississippi, most of a brood develops in 1 year, and the remainder develops in 2 years (Solomon 1980).

Injury and damage. Symptoms of cottonwood borer infestation in 1-year-old plants in nurseries are shriveled and dry terminals, twigs, and bark, and broken stems (Morris 1963, Solomon 1980). When plants are lifted for planting, infested roots appear swollen, or galled, and openings in the bark expose larval galleries packed with excelsior-like frass (figure 120E). Hollowed and weakened young plants often break at the root collar (figure 120F). Heavily infested plants may harbor three or more larvae in the main root (figure 120G). Similar injury occurs in 2-year-old plants. In addition, adults may partially or completely girdle the bark on twigs, causing them to break off or die; sever leaf petioles, resulting in a ragged defoliated appearance; and make numerous, deep, shredded, oviposition niches that can result in broken stems. Fibrous, reddish brown frass is sometimes ejected at the root collar, but because most attacks occur at groundline and larvae burrow downward, infestation often goes unnoticed unless breakage occurs. Injury to large trees is more difficult to detect unless the soil is removed to expose the root collar and upper roots. As high as 27% of 1- and 2-year-old stools were infested in one Mississippi nursery (Solomon 1980). Occasionally, adults become numerous in nurseries, causing bark wounds, broken terminals, breakage of stems near the ground, and partial defoliation when leaf petioles are severed. Extensive bark injury and broken terminals cause excessive branch forking and crooked sprouts, which reduce the quality of sprouts for vegetative cuttings. In plantations, the bases of young trees are sometimes riddled by the larvae, but trees seldom die from such injury. Natural and planted cottonwood stands on poor sites, such as sand flats and heavy clays, are more heavily infested than stands on good sites. Also, shelterbelt plantings on the Great Plains have been severely damaged by the cottonwood borer.

Control. The cottonwood borer has few parasites and predators because most of its life cycle is spent in the tree below ground level; however, in Kansas, beetles have been heavily parasitized by the fly *Sarcophaga vericanda* Coquillett (Hungerford 1915). Woodpeckers, raccoons, and skunks occasionally feed on larvae when they occur in stems and exposed roots (Solomon 1980). Extended flooding in lowlands sometimes kills many larvae. Cultural practices can help to minimize losses. New nursery sites should be selected that are isolated from infested natural or planted stands. Nurseries with a history of heavy damage should rogue, pile, and burn old stools to destroy the reservoir of infestation at 3-year intervals.

Neoptychodes trilineatus Linnaeus

[fig tree borer] (figure 121)

Hosts. Fig, alder, mulberry, willow, netleaf hackberry. Fig is the preferred host (Cope 1984, Craighead 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Range. Throughout the southern United States from South Carolina to Florida along the Gulf Coast into Texas and west to Arizona and south to South America (Horton 1917, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Also prevalent throughout Central America and occurs in some parts of South America.

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust and elongate longhorn beetle; female 21 to 35 mm long and male 19 to 31 mm long (figure 121A) (Horton 1917, LeBeau 1938, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Average body width about 5 mm. Long antennae of males average 63 mm, or nearly 2.5 times body length; antennae of females markedly shorter. Head with deep narrow groove at middle and eyes nearly divided by bases of antennae. Legs slender with fore pair longest. Body broadest across base of elytra, which taper toward tips and end in short spine near dividing line between elytra. Two broad brown stripes, accented with minute orange tufts in longitudinal rows, extend from bases of antennae to tips of elytra. Medial white to yellow stripe with scalloped edges runs full length of abdomen and thorax, and two similar lateral stripes extend from near tips of elytra along margins to base of antennae. ***Egg.*** Elongate, nearly cylindrical, white to pale yellow or green, and averages 3.5 mm long and 0.9 mm wide. ***Larva.*** White to cream-colored, legless grub, varying in length from 3 mm just after hatching to 43 mm when fully grown (figure 121B) (Craighead 1923, LeBeau 1938). Larval body broadest across prothorax, gradually tapering toward tip of abdomen. Anterior borders and mandibles of head dark brown to black and posterior portion clear light amber. ***Pupa.*** Creamy white and averages 24 mm long and 5 mm wide across thorax.

Biology. Along the Gulf Coast, emergence of adults begins in March, accelerates in May, continues through summer, and reaches a peak in September. The last adults emerge as late as November or early December (Horton 1917). Adults feed on small succulent twigs, foliage, and immature or ripe figs. Females live 3 to 8 months and deposit from 130 to 260 eggs each. Females start ovipositing 8 to 16 days after they emerge and continue for 66 to 179 days, the

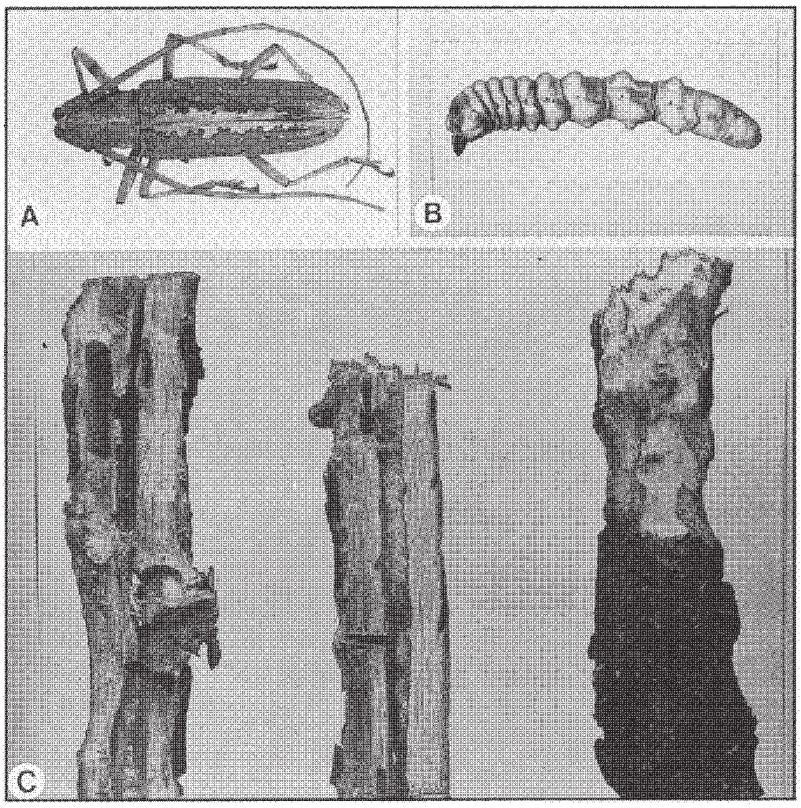


Figure 121—Neoptychodes trilineatus, *[fig tree borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, infested stems with mines, galleries, and frass (A, specimen courtesy R. Hodges; B & C, reproduced from Horton [1917]).*

longer oviposition periods occurring during cooler months. Females chew two parallel transverse slits in the bark of trunks and branches with their mandibles and deposit eggs in them. Egg incubation averages 6.5 days in Louisiana. Newly hatched larvae feed in the inner bark or surface of the sapwood for 1 to 3 weeks, then gradually penetrate deep into the wood, packing galleries with sawdustlike frass. About two-thirds of the larvae complete development in an average of 3 months and emerge as adults in the same year that the eggs were laid; the remaining larvae generally require 9 to 11 months and emerge as adults the year after oviposition (Horton 1917, LeBeau 1938). Mature larvae pupate in their galleries in cells of tightly packed sawdustlike frass. Pupation varies greatly from 5 to 73 days and averages 24 days but is shorter during summer. Newly transformed adults chew circular holes through the bark to emerge.

Injury and damage. Dead or dying branches and a general decline in tree vigor may be the first noticeable indications of infestation (Horton 1917). Close inspection reveals the characteristic transverse, parallel oviposition slits in the bark made by the female. Very little frass is ejected to the outside except at cracks, crevices, and other broken places in the bark. Splitting infested stems reveals the white larvae and long frass-packed galleries (figure 121C). Feeding injury by the adults on the bark of tender twigs, leaves, and fruit is further evidence of infestation. This borer is very destructive where figs are grown commercially, damaging trees that are diseased and mechanically injured. After initial attacks, trees often are infested repeatedly in succeeding years until killed. Once infested, trees usually succumb within 2 to 3 years. Up to 1,700 borers have been found in one large fig tree in Louisiana. Trees in good health are seldom attacked.

Control. Natural enemies have not been reported in the literature. Preventive measures are far better than remedial ones. The insect rarely oviposits in vigorous hosts; therefore, the best control measure is keeping trees healthy (Gould 1935, Horton 1917, LeBeau 1938). Care should be taken to avoid bruising the bark or breaking limbs during cultivation and fruit harvest. Trees should be shaped through pruning for maximum strength against breaking and splitting by high winds. Infested branches should be pruned out immediately. Pruning wounds and mechanical injuries should be carefully cleaned, wound edges smoothed and painted with wound dressing. All prunings and infested branches should be promptly destroyed. Repeated insecticide applications may be needed to protect valuable trees in high-risk areas.

Synaphaeta guexi LeConte

[spotted tree borer] (figure 122)

Hosts. Willow, poplar, maple, California buckeye, California laurel, fig, walnut, chestnut, cherry, apple, pear, elm, oak. Although the insect has a wide host range, it seems to prefer willow and maple (Craighead 1923, Essig 1958, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Range. A Pacific Coast species ranging from southern California north to British

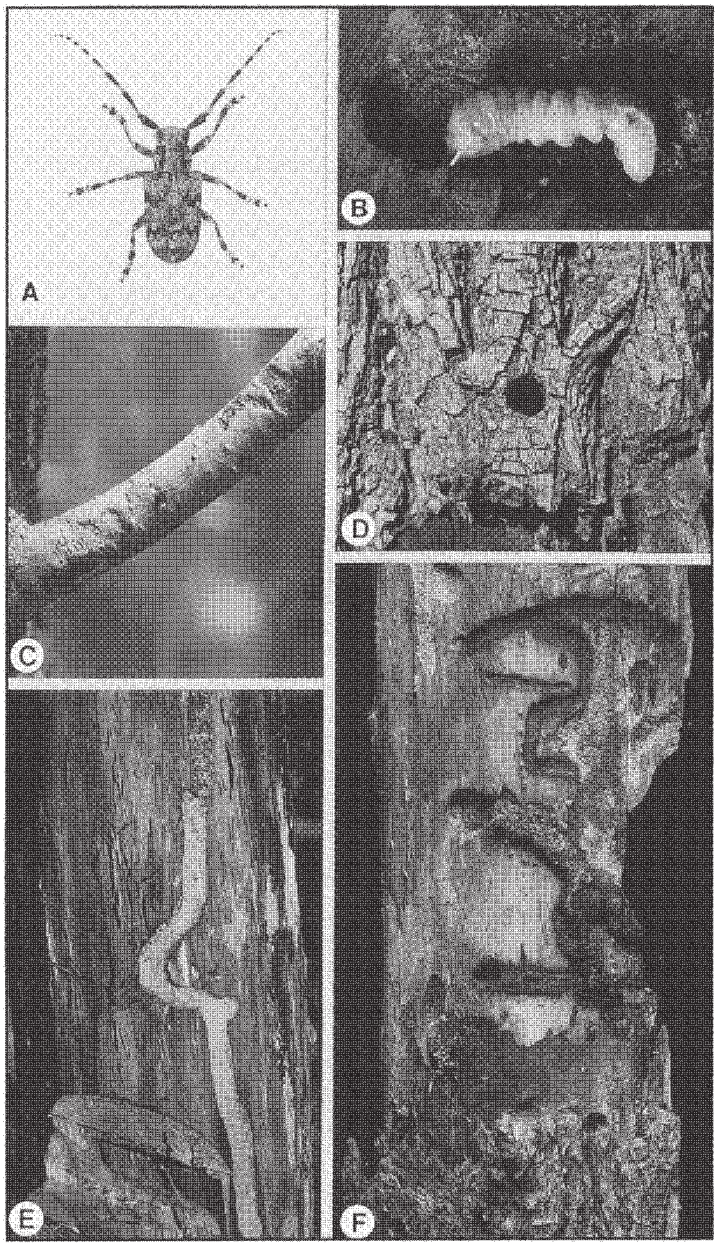


Figure 122—Synaphaeta guexi, *[spotted tree borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, adult chew marks on green willow twigs; D, round emergence hole; E, early larval, frass-packed gallery on surface of sapwood; F, late larval galleries penetrating wood (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

Columbia (Craighead 1923, Essig 1958, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Description. ***Adult.*** Rather short, broad, very robust longhorn beetle, rough, noticeably flattened across dorsum and from 12 to 23 mm long (figure 122A) (Essig 1958, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Antennae slightly longer than body and joints tipped with bluish gray. Base of elytra markedly wider than pronotum, giving square-shouldered appearance. Beetles bluish gray, minutely punctured, mottled with white, black, and orange with two zigzag black stripes across elytra (Furniss and Carolin 1977). ***Larva.*** Robust, slightly depressed, white except for dark-brown head and mandibles, shiny, sparsely clothed with long, slender, golden hairs, 16 to 28 mm long (figure 122B) (Craighead 1923, Michelbacher and Ortega 1958).

Biology. Adults may be present year round, but most emergence occurs from April to July (Linsley and Chemsak 1984). New adults feed on the succulent bark of young twigs and branches before ovipositing. Females select trees that are weakened, injured, or recently dead, preferring to oviposit in wounds or injuries (Essig 1958, Michelbacher and Ortega 1958). Females cut niches in the bark to receive the eggs. Larval galleries often begin in small branches and extend through large branches and even the trunks. Larvae make extensive galleries and pack the frass within the burrows. Pupation occurs within a chamber in thick bark, just beneath the bark, or in the wood, and usually perpendicular to the surface. The duration of the life cycle is unknown.

Injury and damage. Chew marks made by feeding adults in the tender bark of young branches are evidence of the beetles (figure 122C). Examining the bark on trunks and large branches reveals egg niches in it. The emerging adults leave round holes 6 to 8 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 122D). Larval burrows are large, wide, somewhat flattened, and filled with frass. Galleries made during early development are long and meander mostly on the surface of the sapwood (figure 122E). Those made by older larvae extend through both the sapwood and heartwood, and the frass is coarse and fibrous (figure 122F).

Control. Natural controls have not been studied. Good maintenance that keeps orchard and ornamental trees in good health is the best protection.

Dorcaschema wildii Uhler

[mulberry borer] (figure 123)

Hosts. Mulberry, Osage-orange. Where the two hosts occur together, mulberry (especially red mulberry) is usually attacked and suffers larger infestations (Solomon 1968).

Range. Reported from Ohio (Knull 1946) south to Mississippi and west to Texas and Nebraska (Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Solomon 1968), but it probably occurs throughout the natural ranges of its two known hosts in the central and eastern United States.

Description. ***Adult.*** Typical longhorn beetle with antennae up to 50 mm long in male and 30 mm long in female; elongate and moderately robust and ranges from

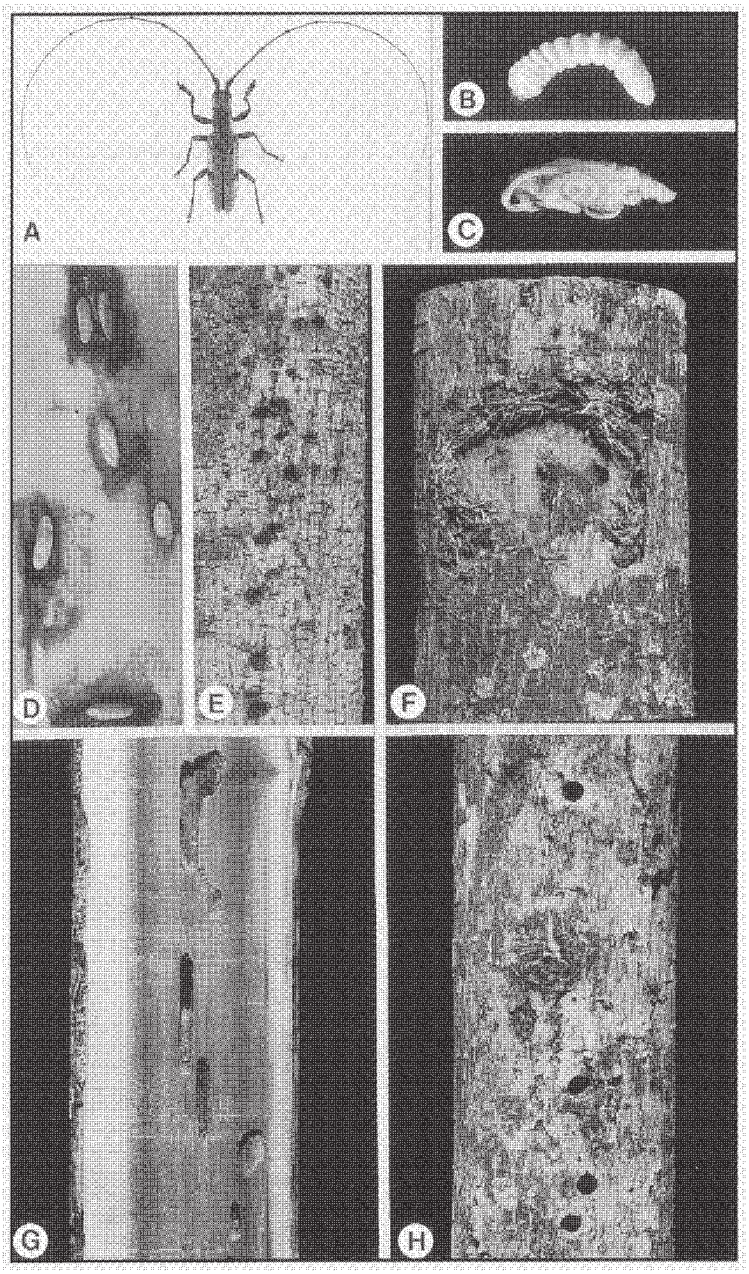


Figure 123—Dorcaschema wildii, *[mulberry borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, eggs beneath bark; E, cluster of egg niches in bark; F, larval cavity partially filled with fibrous frass beneath the bark; G, galleries extending into wood; H, emergence holes.*

16 to 22 mm long and 3 to 5 mm wide (figure 123A) (Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946). Body dark brown with surface clothed in fine gray and light brown hairs. Elytra with numerous small round bare spots that make surface appear pitted, and a light brown stripe along outer margins. Pronotum noticeably elongate and cylindrical. ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, elongate, about 3 mm long and 1 mm wide (figure 123D). ***Larva.*** Shiny, legless, cylindrical, and white to cream colored, except for amber head with dark brown mandibles and 20 to 26 mm long at maturity (figure 123B). ***Pupa.*** Entirely white when first formed, 15 to 20 mm long (figure 123C).

Biology. Adults emerge from about mid-May to mid-June (Solomon 1968) and live for several weeks. They have been taken in light traps as late as July 18. New adults feed on the foliage for a few days before mating and laying eggs. Ovipositing females chew niches in the bark, deposit 1 to 2 eggs between the bark and wood, and seal the openings with a secretion that hardens as it dries. Females caged on mulberry trunks laid 5 to 21 eggs, but those in the wild probably lay many more. Oviposition occurs late May to early July. Sometimes 50 or more egg niches have been observed on a tree (Solomon 1968). Early-stage larvae feed between the inner bark and wood and mine irregular patches of inner bark 2.5 to 7.6 cm in diameter. When larvae are 1 to 3 months old, they begin constructing galleries in the wood. The oblong to oval galleries curve horizontally inward for about 2.5 cm, turn upward for another 2.5 cm, then curve back toward the surface. Diameters of completed galleries range from 3.2 to 6.3 mm. Only one grub occupies each gallery, but larvae feed so close together that their cavities often overlap. Larvae overwinter in their galleries, which they partially plug with loose fibrous frass in late fall. During spring, the larvae enclose themselves with excelsior-like wood fibers in pupal chambers at the innermost portion of the galleries. Pupation occurs from about mid-April to late May and lasts 19 to 22 days. Newly formed adults chew round exit holes through the wood and bark to emerge. The life cycle varies from 1 to 2 years, but most of a brood matures in 1 year (Solomon 1968).

Injury and damage. Egg niches (figure 123E) 2 to 3 mm in diameter cut in the bark are the first signs of attack (Solomon 1968). From 8 to 30 egg niches are commonly clustered on one or more areas of the trunk or branches. On vigorous trees, sap soon begins to ooze from the niches and runs down the trunk. After the eggs hatch and the larvae begin to feed, fine frass is ejected from the egg niches. As the larvae grow, the frass becomes coarse and fibrous. Frass protruding from numerous openings in the bark is a clear sign of an established infestation. Trees under 10 cm in diameter at breast height are most commonly attacked, but larger trees may be infested. On large trees, it usually first attacks branches and the upper trunk and may also attack large exposed roots. Dying branches and parts of the crown indicate attack. Repeated attacks during later years occur

lower on the trunk, often until the entire tree succumbs. Several months to a year later, the bark near a cluster of attacks loosens and breaks away, exposing larval mines etched in the wood surface (figure 123F). Dissection reveals the galleries extending through the wood (figure 123G). Round exit holes 4 to 5 mm in diameter are left in the bark by the emerging beetles (figure 123H). Trees that suffer from suppression, drought, or fire damage apparently are most attractive. Adults feed on mulberry foliage, devouring long narrow strips of leaf tissue along the midribs and major veins. Beetles rest on or under the leaves during daylight and can be easily beaten and dislodged from the foliage. Damage to mulberry trunks and branches is prevalent in the mid-South, where infestations are frequently so heavy that individual branches and even entire trees are girdled and killed. Trees are often attacked repeatedly in successive years until they succumb; lightly attacked trees that recover usually have large scars on their trunks (Solomon 1968). In the late 1800's, the borer was a destructive pest of Osage-orange hedgerows in the Philadelphia area (Laurent 1898).

Control. Woodpeckers are among the most important natural enemies of the mulberry borer. In one study area, woodpeckers worked 90% of trees infested (Solomon 1968). A braconid parasite—*Cencoelius* sp.—has been reared from infested bolts. One or two monthly applications of insecticide applied during the oviposition period may be needed to protect valuable trees.

Dorcaschema alternatum (Say)

[small mulberry borer] (figure 124)

Hosts. Mulberry, Osage-orange. In the South, red mulberry is more heavily infested than white mulberry or Osage-orange (Craighead 1923, Knull 1946, Gosling and Gosling 1977, Laurent 1898).

Range. New York south to Georgia and Alabama and west to South Dakota and Texas (Fattig 1947, Gosling and Gosling 1977, Leng and Hamilton 1896, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Description. ***Adult.*** Longhorn beetle with elongate, slender, cylindrical body, brown to dark brown, sparsely clothed with light gray to light brown pubescence and ranges from 7 to 16 mm long (figure 124A) (Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Thorax with four narrow stripes of clay-yellow pubescence. Elytra, with subparallel sides, covered with rows of irregular spots of dull yellowish to light brown pubescence. Antennae about three times body length in males and two times body length in females. ***Egg.*** Elongate, creamy white, and about 2 mm long (figure 124C). ***Larva.*** Shiny, legless, cylindrical, 16 to 20 mm long at maturity (figure 124B). Larva yellowish white except for amber spiracles and head with blackish mandibles. ***Pupa.*** Adultlike, remarkably smooth, and darkens with age (Craighead 1923).

Biology. In Mississippi, adults emerge and are present from May to July, but have been collected in other areas as late as September (Fattig 1947). Adults feed extensively on foliage of hosts and usually rest, feed, and mate on the undersides of

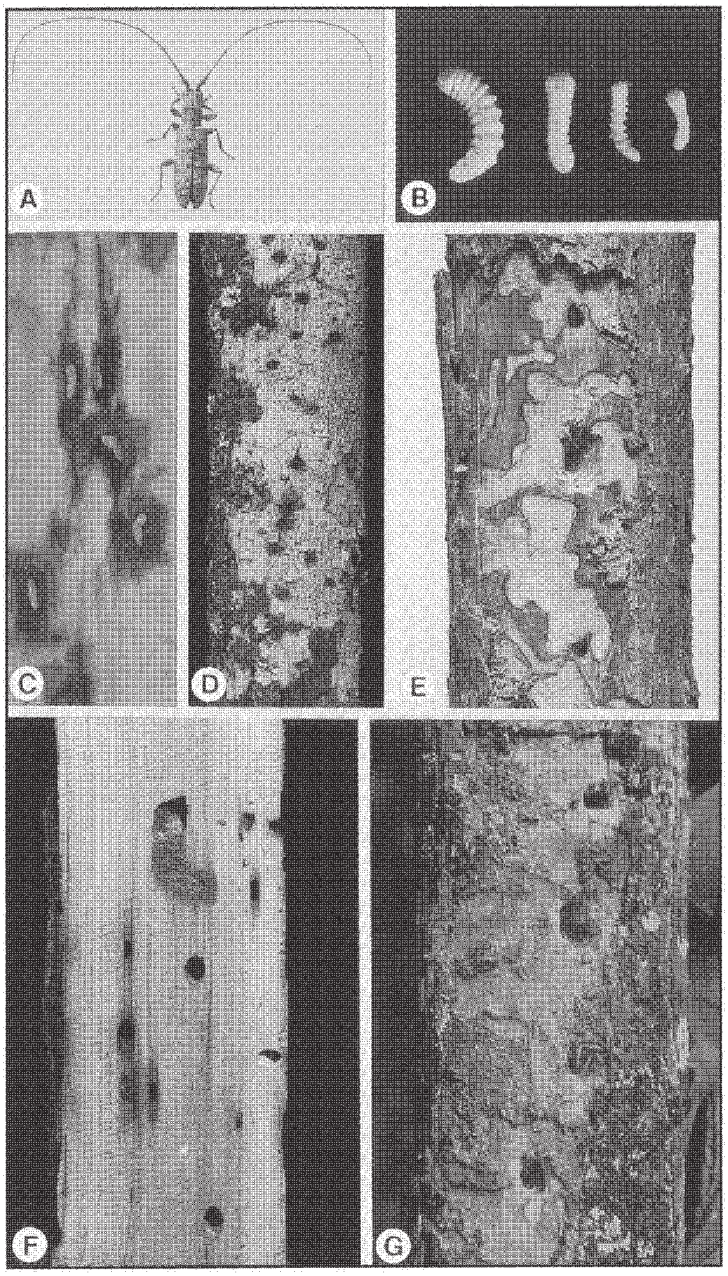


Figure 124—Dorcaschema alternatum, *[small mulberry borer]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, eggs under bark; D, cluster of egg niches in bark; E, larval mines beneath bark; F, galleries in the wood; G, pecked holes indicating woodpecker predation.*

leaves during the day. Females prefer weakened trees for oviposition—usually those stressed by drought, fire, or previous infestation by either *D. wildii* or this species. This borer may infest branches, trunks, and exposed roots (Riley 1880). Females deposit eggs in groups on portions of the tree but often adjacent to bark killed by previous broods. Larvae mine the cambium area extensively. The mines of several larvae often intersect and girdle the branch or trunk. The larvae later construct galleries that curve horizontally into the wood, then turn upward and outward. Larvae overwinter in their galleries and pupate in spring in pupal chambers formed by plugging the galleries with excelsior-like wood fibers. Pupation lasts about 3 weeks. New adults emerge by chewing round exit holes 2 to 3 mm in diameter through the wood and bark. A life cycle requires 1 to 2 years.

Injury and damage. Trees suffering top dieback should be inspected. Clusters of small egg niches cut in the bark usually occur on one side of the trunk (figure 124D). The bark of infested trees may crack and split and will have numerous tiny openings. Larvae eject yellow, short, fibrous frass in abundance during the fall; this frass may be present on the bark and around the base of the tree. Lifting the bark reveals extensive mines that etch the sapwood quite deeply in places (figure 124E) and numerous white larvae. Portions of the mines are tightly packed with both fine and fibrous frass. Galleries extend into the wood (figure 124F), frequently beside those of *D. wildii*, and are difficult to distinguish except that they are smaller than those of *D. wildii*. This borer attacks both vigorous and dying trees. In the mid-South, infestations often become heavy enough to girdle and kill trees in one season. Once infested, trees usually are attacked repeatedly until they succumb.

Control. Woodpeckers capture large numbers of larvae during winter and spring (figure 124G). A hymenopterous parasite—*Eurytoma dorcaschemae* Ashmead—has been recorded (Linsley and Chemsak 1984). An unidentified fungus disease has also been found, but incidence has been light. Insecticides may be needed to protect ornamentals.

Oncideres cingulata cingulata (Say)

twig girdler (figure 125)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan, persimmon, elm, sourwood, basswood, honeylocust, dogwood, eucalyptus, oak, hackberry, maple, fruit trees. Prefers the hickories, pecan, persimmon, elms, and hackberry, but attacks many species when its populations are high. Oaks (including water oak, post oak, live oak, and Nuttall oak) and fruit trees (including apple, pear, peach, plum, and citrus species) are attacked only occasionally (Bilsing 1916, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Mesquite, acacia, and blackbead serve as hosts to the subspecies *O. c. texana* Horn (Hovore and others 1987, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Range. Most common in the South but known as far north as New England and westward to Kansas and Texas (Beal and

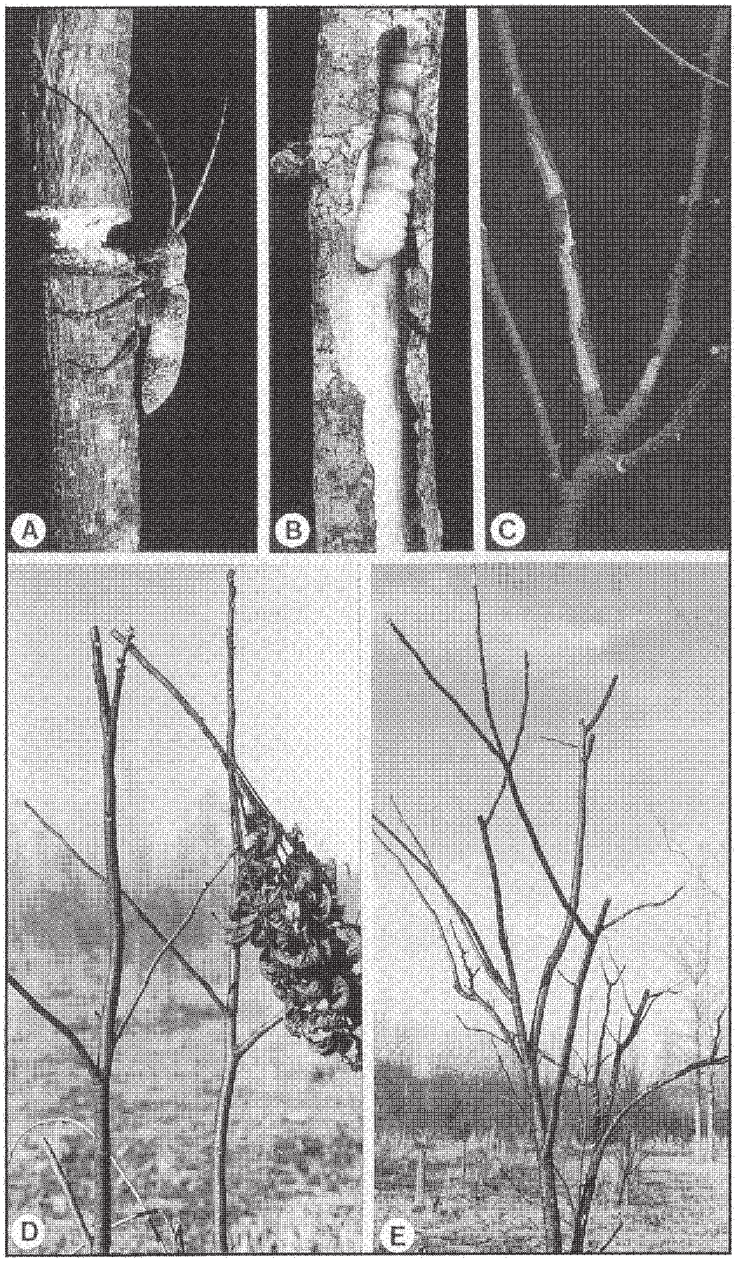


Figure 125—Oncideres cingulata cingulata, *twig girdler: A, adult girdling stem; B, larva in gallery; C, adult-feeding injury to bark; D, pecan terminal girdled; E, 4-year-old pecan with every major branch girdled.*

Massey 1942, Gill 1924, Herrick 1904). The subspecies *O. c. texana* has a range limited to south Texas and northeastern Mexico (Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Description. ***Adult.*** Typical longhorn beetle from 11 to 20 mm long (figure 125A) (Bilsing 1916, Gill 1924, Herrick 1904). Body cylindrical and generally grayish brown with broad ash gray band across middle of elytra. ***Egg.*** White, elongate to oval, and about 2.5 mm long. ***Larva.*** Whitish, cylindrical, legless grub that reaches 16 to 25 mm at maturity (figure 125B). ***Pupa.*** White with short, dark spines on dorsal sides of segments.

Biology. Adults emerge late August to early October (Bilsing 1916, Gill 1924, Herrick 1904). They feed on tender bark near branch ends of host trees and mate before ovipositing and girdling twigs. Females girdle branches apparently to provide a suitable medium with a concentrated food resource (particularly nitrogen) to enhance larval survival (Forcella 1982). They lay eggs during or after girdling but never before making part of the cut. Females insert eggs singly beneath the bark, or slightly into the wood, usually near bud scars or adjacent to sideshoots. The number of eggs per twig usually varies from 3 to 8 but may range up to 40. Adults live 6 to 10 weeks, and females deposit 50 to 200 eggs each. Eggs hatch in about 3 weeks. Larvae grow very little in fall and winter but grow rapidly during spring. They usually tunnel toward the severed end of the twig, feeding only on the woody part and leaving the bark intact. Feeding larvae make a few small circular holes in the bark to eject pellets of frass. Mature larvae close off the galleries with shredded fibers to form pupation chambers and pupate in August and September for 12 to 14 days. Adults chew circular holes in the bark to emerge. This girdler has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Feeding adults sometimes remove large patches of bark from twigs and small branches (figure 125C). Severed twigs on the ground, hanging, loosely attached (figure 125D) or lodged in the canopy during late summer and fall are good evidence of infestation (Gill 1924, Herrick 1904). Most girdled twigs are from 6 to 12 mm in diameter, occasionally up to 18 mm in diameter, and 30 to 60 cm long. The girdle distinguishes injury by the twig girdler from that of branch pruners. The cut is made from the outside by the adult beetle and has been described as a uniform V-shape encircling the twig (figure 125A). The cut is seldom complete, having a small center with a jagged surface caused by the break. Close inspection of severed twigs reveals tiny egg niches and many mandible marks or grooves made in the bark by the female beetles. Because twigs are girdled while leaves are present, the severed twigs retain their brown leaves for some time. Severed twigs lodged in the canopy or on the ground often retain their leaves even after the tree sheds its leaves at frost. Trees in young pecan plantations close to wooded tracts occasionally suffer heavy damage; the terminal and all major laterals may be girdled (figure 125E) (Kennedy and others 1981).

Severed twigs commonly cover the ground under infested trees. Fruiting of heavily infested pecan trees is often greatly reduced, resulting in low nut yields the following year and sometimes longer. This injury causes the development of many sideshoots that adversely affect tree symmetry. Nurseries producing pecan and other susceptible hosts near heavily infested woodlots occasionally suffer loss of many girdled seedlings. Repeated girdles of terminals in young timber plantations and in natural reproduction causes forks, crooks, and other stem deformities (Kennedy and others 1981).

Control. Natural controls are important in keeping twig girdler populations low. Desiccation of the eggs is the greatest decimating factor. Hymenopterous parasites—including *Eurytoma magdalidis* Ashmead, *Heterospilus* sp., *Horismenus* sp., *Iphiaulax* sp. and *I. agrili* (Ashmead)—help to reduce populations (Beal and Massey 1942). A predator—*Cymatodera undulata* Say—has also been reared. In orchards, nurseries, and ornamental plantings, severed twigs on the ground and those lodged in the trees should be gathered and burned during fall, winter, and spring to destroy the eggs and grubs (Gill 1924, Moznette and others 1931). The same practice should be followed in woodlots when plantings in the vicinity have a history of serious damage. Insecticides may be necessary to prevent damage from heavy infestations.

Oncideres pustulatus LeConte

[huisache girdler] (figure 126)

Hosts. Huisache, guajilla, honey mesquite, western honey mesquite, Jerusalemthorn, lindheimer mimosa, ebony blackbead, great leucaena (Craighead 1923, Duffy 1960, Hovore and Penrose 1982). Prefers huisache and great leucaena, but most leguminous trees within the range seem to be susceptible (Rice 1989).

Range. Temperate south central Texas to tropical southern Tamaulipas in Mexico (Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Rice 1986).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, longhorn beetle varying from 17 to 27 mm in length (figure 126A) (High 1915). Antennae extend slightly beyond ends of elytra, with distal joint of male antennae about twice as long as that of female. Beetles covered with heavy vestiture of brownish gray hair but become darker to nearly black as gray hairs rub off. Basal third of elytra lighter gray than remainder, creating banded appearance. Pronotum with pair of lateral and three median dorsal calluses. ***Egg.*** Elliptical to oval, measuring 2.5 to 3.0 mm long and about 1 mm wide; one end slightly more pointed than other. Eggs white when deposited but become yellowish before eclosion. ***Larva.*** Newly hatched larva about 2.8 mm long with pale white body, light brown head, and dark mandibles. Mature larvae (figure 126B) whitish, cylindrical, legless, 22 to 30 mm. ***Pupa.*** Pronounced dark brown spines on dorsum of each abdominal segment, 18 to 22 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge from July to late November (High 1915). They mate within several days after emergence; it is not unusual to observe congregations upward of 24 females in a tree crown visited by one or

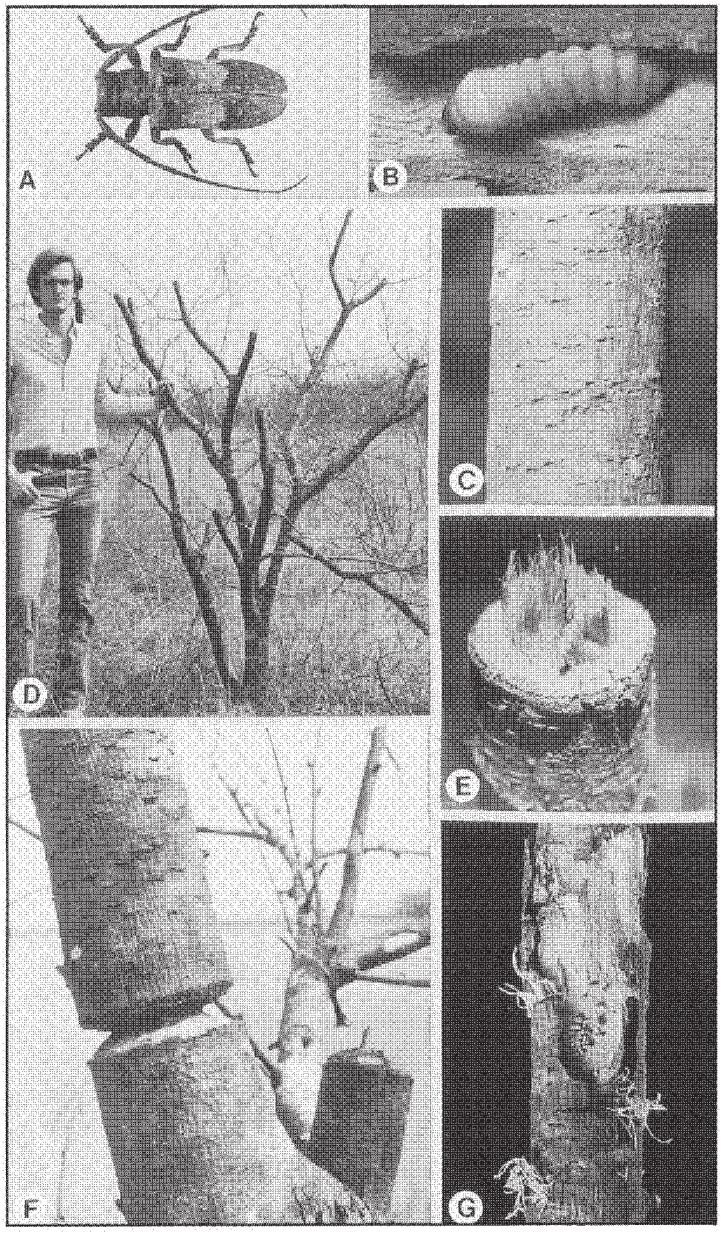


Figure 126—Oncideres pustulatus, *[huisache girdler]: A, adult; B, larva; C, mandible marks and egg niches; D, huisache plant with major branches girdled; E, end of girdled stem; F, branch girdled but not yet broken; G, burrow beneath bark with fibrous frass (specimens and/or photographs courtesy M. Rice).*

two males. Before oviposition, females chew tiny niches in the bark (figure 126C) with their powerful jaws, then deposit single eggs into the cavities and cover them slightly with gluelike secretions. Females may deposit eggs anywhere along the branch to be girdled, not necessarily near the bases of buds and smaller twigs as do some *Oncideres* species (High 1915). After oviposition, females girdle the branches, usually near their bases. After eggs hatch, larvae tunnel in the pith and xylem, packing the frass tightly behind in the galleries. Larvae require 40 to 42 weeks to mature depending on moisture. Before pupation, larvae construct slightly enlarged cells at the ends of the galleries, cut holes through the bark to facilitate adult emergence, then plug themselves off in frass-lined cells. The pupal stage lasts about 4 weeks. The insect generally has a 1-year life cycle (High 1915), but a 2-year cycle has been reported in the lower Rio Grande Valley of Texas (Vogt 1949b). Nineteen species of cerambycid beetles and 14 species of other insects coinhabit the girdled branches of great leucaena in Texas (Hovore and Penrose 1982, Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Injury and damage. The first evidence of infestation is wilting and dead foliage on branches scattered throughout the crowns of affected trees (High 1915). Girdled branches readily break off (figure 126D) in high winds and litter the ground under the trees. Closer inspection reveals that the branches were cleanly and deeply grooved (girdled) (figure 126E and F) around their circumference. Removing the bark from girdled branches will reveal extensive galleries and fibrous frass (figure 126G). Branches of huisache 13 to 55 mm in diameter—occasionally up to 65 mm in diameter in great leucaena (Vogt 1949b)—and 1.8 to 4.0 m long may be girdled (Rice 1989). No other North American species of *Oncideres* is known to girdle such large branches. Girdling typically occurs a few centimeters from the base of a larger branch or just above where the branch joins the main stem. This insect so severely prunes the branches, particularly on young trees, that they become badly deformed; injury to older trees hinders seed production. Trunks of younger trees may be girdled near the ground, resulting in the death of the entire aboveground portion. This beetle has been so destructive to the valuable shade and ornamental huisache in the arid Southwest that some fear the extinction of the tree (High 1915).

Control. Natural enemies include the hymenopterous parasites *Caenophanes* sp., *Chryseida inopinota* Brues, *Eurytoma* sp., and *Meteorus* sp. (High 1915). The downy woodpecker, Texas woodpecker, and ants are important predators. Dessication or excessive moisture during larval development causes high mortality, and winter temperatures of −5 to −7 °C have caused mortality rates exceeding 90% (Rice 1986). Since girdlers spend at least 10 months in the girdled branches on the ground, collecting and burning them between January 1 and August 1 reduces populations (High 1915).

Oncideres rhodosticta Bates

[mesquite girdler] (figure 127)

Hosts. Mesquite, acacia, mimosa, parkinsonia, ebony blackbead. Honey mesquite appears to be the major host; other species are attacked to a lesser degree (Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Ueckert and others 1971).

Range. The southwestern United States and northern Mexico (Linsley 1940). Particularly prevalent in southwestern Texas.

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust longhorn beetle with cylindrical body with noticeably long antennae; 12 to 19 mm long (figure 127A) (Essig 1958, Polk and Ueckert 1973). Beetles brownish black with gray pubescence on pronotum and across middle and tips of elytra (Essig 1958, Linsley 1940). Surface of each elytron dotted with about 35 to 40 small, yellowish to rusty orange patches of pubescence (Polk and Ueckert 1973). Transverse row of three small swollen spots on pronotum helps to distinguish this species (Linsley 1940). ***Egg.*** Elliptically ovate, creamy white, and slightly pointed at one end, averaging 4.3 mm long and 1.1 mm in diameter (Polk and Ueckert 1973). ***Larva.*** Newly hatched larva yellowish white with light brown head and black mandibles and about 3.2 mm long. Mature larvae (figure 127B) about 25 mm long. ***Pupa.*** About 20 mm long, white when first formed but gradually becoming dark brown (Polk and Ueckert 1973).

Biology. Adults emerge late August to late November from branches girdled the previous year. Adults feed on tender bark around buds, thorns, and small limbs for several days before ovipositing. Females chew deep circumferential grooves that cut through the bark and cambium, and sufficiently deep into the xylem to prevent upward movement of water and nutrients (figure 127C and D). Girdling takes about 2 days; girdled branches are from 5 to 20 mm in diameter (Linsley and others 1961). It is not unusual for a pair to mate while the female girdles a branch (figure 127E). Females oviposit on the branch distal to the point of girdling. To oviposit, the females cut incisions through the bark with their mandibles while facing toward the base of the tree, reverse their position, and insert an egg into each slit with their ovipositors and finally seal the openings with amber secretions (Polk and Ueckert 1973). Up to 10 eggs are deposited on a branch, but the number varies with branch size (Linsley and others 1961). Girdled branches usually break soon after oviposition (figure 127F). Newly hatched larvae feed just under the bark, weakening the branch, which may enhance breakage. Larvae gradually enlarge the oviposition slits and eject frass from their galleries through these openings (Polk and Ueckert 1973). Branches may be partially to completely hollowed by the developing larvae (figure 127G and H). Pupation occurs within the galleries in late August and early September the year after oviposition; thus, this girdler has a 1-year life cycle.

Injury and damage. The first sign of attack is dead and dying branches throughout the crowns of mesquite. The branches die beyond the point of girdling and readily break off in the wind. From August through

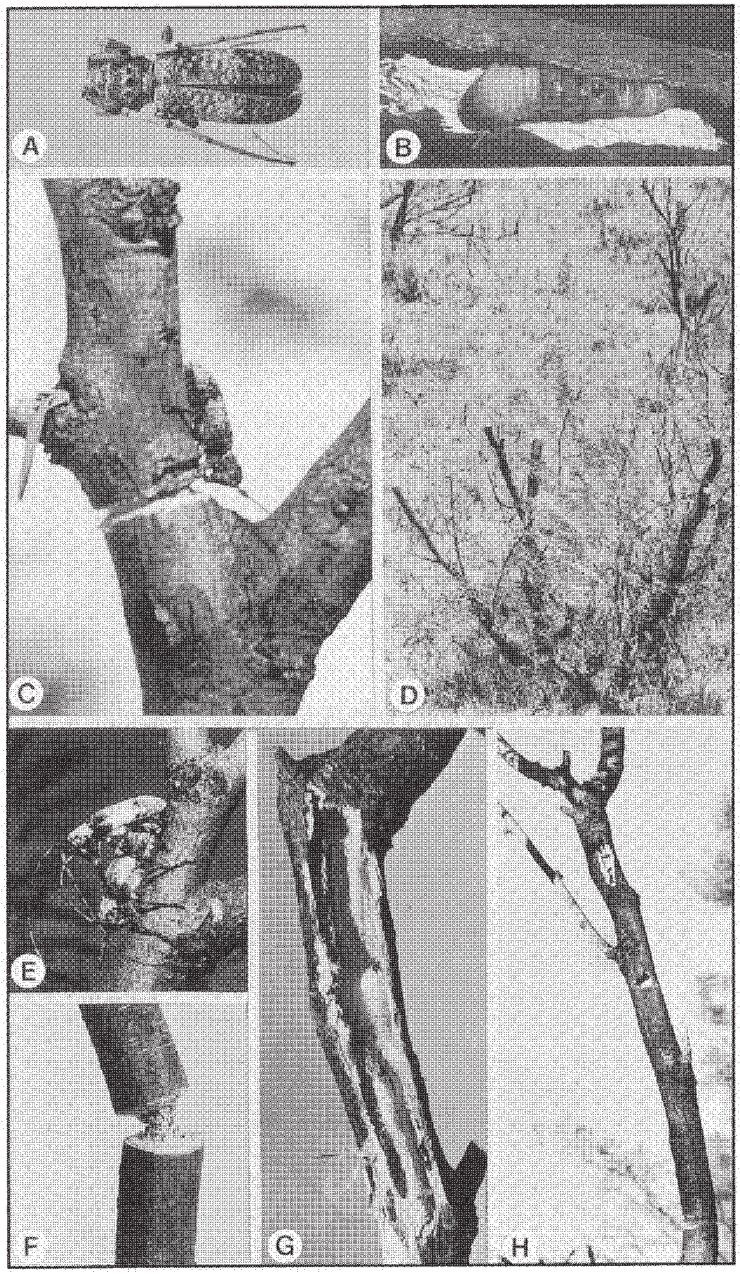


Figure 127—Oncideres rhodosticta, *[mesquite girdler]: A, adult; B, larva; C, adult girdling stem; D, severe pruning of mesquite; E, mating adults; F, completed girdle; G, gallery; H, exit holes chewed in girdled stem (courtesy D. Ueckert).*

November, the beetles mate, feed on tender twigs, girdle, and oviposit. When disturbed, they drop to the ground and play dead (Polk and Ueckert 1973). Foliage may remain on girdled branches for long periods. In a southwestern Texas survey, 90% of the honey mesquite trees had been attacked, and about 40% of all susceptible branches had been girdled (Ueckert and others 1971). From these preliminary observations, those authors suggested that the girdler might be used for the biological control of mesquite, which is considered a noxious plant on the range lands of the Southwest. In controlled tests with girdlers caged on mesquite in Texas, up to 75% of the crown volume has been destroyed (Polk and Ueckert 1973). However, study results from New Mexico showed that even though 45% of the mesquite trees had two to six branches girdled, the percentage of the total stems killed was negligible (Whitford and others 1978).

Control. Larval mortality from parasites, predators, and unknown causes ranges from 22 to 76% (Polk and Ueckert 1973). Ten species of hymenopterous parasites and one clerid predator have been found in galleries in Texas. Brood mortality is higher in branches that fall to the ground than in those that hang on the tree, probably because of high soil temperatures. Many other phytophagus insects co-inhabit girdled branches and compete for food and living space.

Oncideres quercus Skinner

[Arizona oak girdler]

Hosts. Oak. Oak generally (and not specifically) has been listed as the host (Linsley and Chemsak 1984).

Range. A southwestern species known only from southern Arizona and northern Mexico (Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Particularly common in mountains at elevations of 1,500 to 1,800 m.

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately slender, cylindrical, elongate, convex longhorn beetle measuring 11 to 16 mm long and 3.4 to 4.2 mm wide (Casey 1913, Essig 1958). Elytra densely clothed with light gray pubescence becoming abruptly bright, rusty red brown with patches of dark yellowish brown hairs toward base (Casey 1913, Linsley and Chemsak 1984). Beetles sometimes with indistinct markings of red, brown, or yellow (Essig 1958). Head and legs densely covered with brownish yellow pubescence.

Biology. Adults emerge and are present from July through September (Beyer 1908). They feed on the bark at tips of shoots and particularly around leaf buds (Brisley and Channel 1914, Essig 1958, Linsley and others 1961). After feeding and mating, females begin girdling terminal shoots and twigs of host trees (Beyer 1908). Before the twigs fall to the ground, females begin ovipositing by cutting niches through the bark and depositing single eggs between the bark and wood. Secretions by females at egg sites cause the bark to form small blisters that protect the eggs as the bark and twig dry. Females make six or more egg niches 32 to 76 mm apart on each girdled twig, but only about half of the egg niches contain eggs. Larvae develop within the girdled twigs

where they feed on woody tissue, leaving the bark intact. Pupation occurs in cells within twig galleries. Although the insect reportedly requires 2 years for development (Beyer 1908), a 1-year life cycle seems more likely.

Injury and damage. Girdled twigs on the ground and partially girdled branches hanging loosely in the crown during late summer and fall are good evidence of infestation (Essig 1958, Linsley and Chemsak 1984, Linsley and others 1961). Girdled branches average about 13 mm in diameter and range from 30 to 90 cm long (Brisley and Channel 1914). Examination of girdled twigs can help distinguish this species from other pruning insects. The girdling cut is made from the outside of the twig inward toward the twig center and resembles a V-shaped cut around the circumference of the stem. The cut is seldom complete, leaving a jagged center caused by the break (Beyer 1908). Examination of girdled twigs reveals numerous mandible marks and tiny egg niches along the bark surface. Bare areas with bark chewed away near the tips of tender terminals and branch ends of both girdled and nongirdled stems are further evidence of infestation by this borer. Seedlings to mature trees may be injured. In heavily infested areas, trees may be so badly pruned that shape and symmetry are ruined. Cleanup under ornamentals becomes necessary, and the fruiting area can be so reduced that mast crops for wildlife are seriously diminished.

Control. The insect spends most of its 2-year life cycle in the larval stage in girdled twigs, offering an extended opportunity to collect and burn fallen twigs before adults emerge. This type of cultural control can be effective with ornamentals, especially when practiced on a neighborhood basis.

Aegomorphus morrisi (Uhler)

[tupelo borer] (figure 128)

Hosts. Tupelo. Has been found in water tupelo and blackgum (Craighead 1923, Lugger 1884). Yellow-poplar has been mentioned as a host, but this report seems questionable (Beutenmuller 1896).

Range. Reported only from a few widely scattered areas in eastern North America including South Carolina, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Canada (Blatchley 1910, Craighead 1923). More recently, it has been observed in the Ozark Mountains of Arkansas, loessal bluffs of Mississippi, and river bottomlands of Florida.

Description. ***Adult.*** Rather robust, somewhat flattened longhorn beetle of medium size, measuring 20 to 26 mm long (figure 128A) (Blatchley 1910). Antennae about body length to slightly longer. Thorax tuberculate above and on sides. Femora swollen apically. Each elytron with indistinct M-shaped black mark behind middle. ***Larva.*** Robust and white with short dark mandibles (figure 128B) (Craighead 1923). Ampullar tubercles very large, spiracles large and strongly chitinized, and body sparsely covered with coarse to velvety pubescence.

Biology. Adults emerge in June (Craighead 1923). Females deposit eggs on the lower trunks of small living host trees,

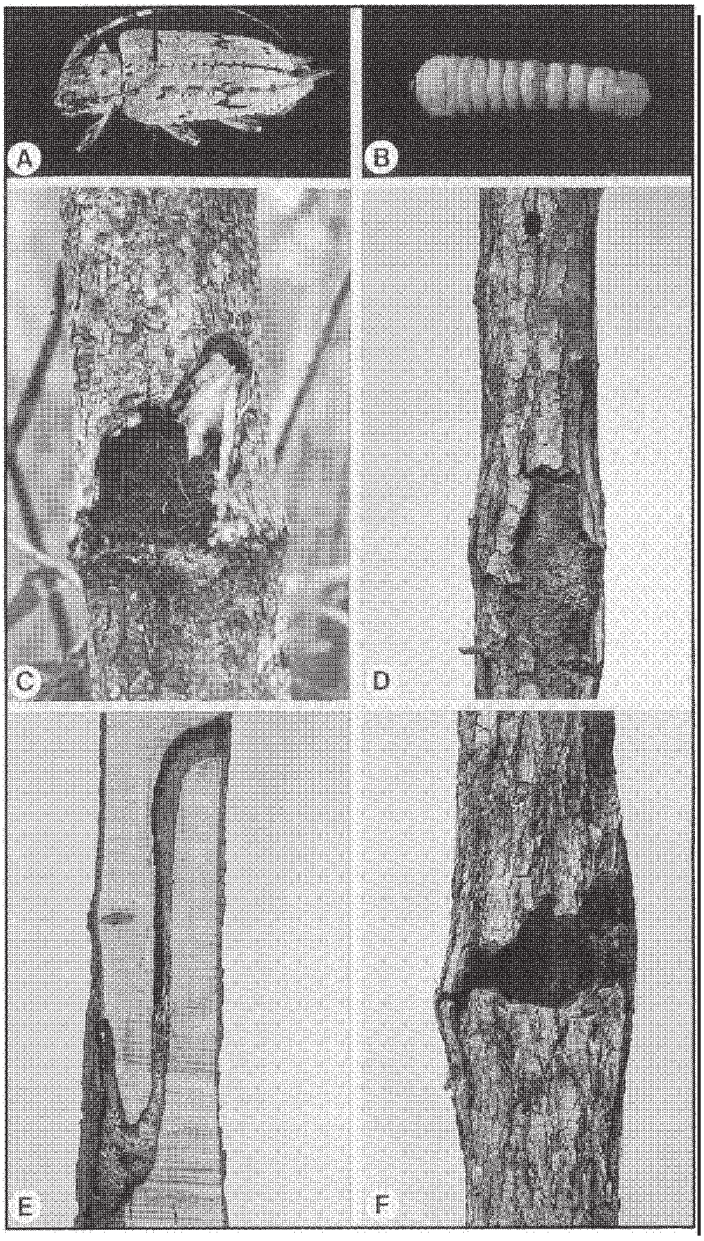


Figure 128.—Aegomorphus morrisi, *[tupelo borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, bark removed to expose cavity and fibrous frass; D, old attack showing frass-packed mine below and round exit hole above; E, gallery entrance below, exit above; F, patch-type scar in bark (A, specimen courtesy J. Chemsak).*

especially saplings. Larval habits are somewhat similar to those of the *Goes* borers. The larvae feed in the phloem and cambium, hollowing out cavelike cavities, then construct galleries into the sapwood and heartwood. Galleries extend 26 to 64 mm inward, 8 to 13 cm upward, then turn back to the bark surface. The new adults emerge through round exit holes. Thus, each insect leaves two holes—a large entrance and a small exit. The life cycle likely requires 2 years or longer.

Injury and damage. Small to large areas of loosened bark, sometimes with coarse frass protruding from bark openings provide good evidence of infestation (figure 128C and D). Removing the bark reveals a large irregular cavity 5 to 8 cm in diameter packed with fibrous frass. Splitting an infested stem reveals the entrance and cavity under the bark, gallery, and exit (figure 128E). Bark scars resulting from previously healed attacks consist of rather large patchy scars with small round scars directly above (figure 128F). Attacks have been found on saplings from about 5 to 12 cm in diameter and at heights from slightly above ground to about 1.8 m. Populations are small and widely scattered; thus, overall damage has been minor.

Control. Woodpeckers sometimes capture the larvae. Direct control with chemicals applied as a spray or injected into galleries should be effective on high-value trees.

Saperda calcarata Say

poplar borer (figures 129 and 130)

Hosts. Poplars. Quaking aspen is favored in the northern range (Peterson 1947), whereas eastern cottonwood is the major host in its southern range (Morris 1963). Balsam poplar is moderately attacked (Drouin and Wong 1975). Other poplar species and cultivars are attacked to varying degrees (Peterson 1947).

Range. A serious pest of poplars throughout most of the United States and Canada; restricted in distribution and abundance in its western range (Morris and others 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, elongate, longhorn beetle ranging from 20 to 30 mm long (figure 129A) (Morris and others 1975). Females slightly more robust and stouter than males. Body color grayish blue and heavily striped with fine brown dots that overlay a faint yellow pattern. Antennae about as long as body. ***Egg.*** Slender, creamy white, and about 3 to 4 mm long (figure 129B) (Peterson 1947). ***Larva.*** Legless, elongate, cylindrical, yellowish white, and 30 to 38 mm long (figure 129C). ***Pupa.*** Yellow white; 20 to 35 mm long (figure 129D).

Biology. Adults emerge from infested trees in May and June in the South and as late as July and August in the North (Hofer 1920, Morris and others 1975) and feed on foliage and bark of tender shoots of host trees. About a week after emergence, mating begins. Oviposition starts a few days later with single eggs (occasionally two or three) being deposited in niches cut into the bark of the trunk. After the eggs have incubated about 2 weeks, the eggs hatch, and larvae begin feeding on the bark tissue and later

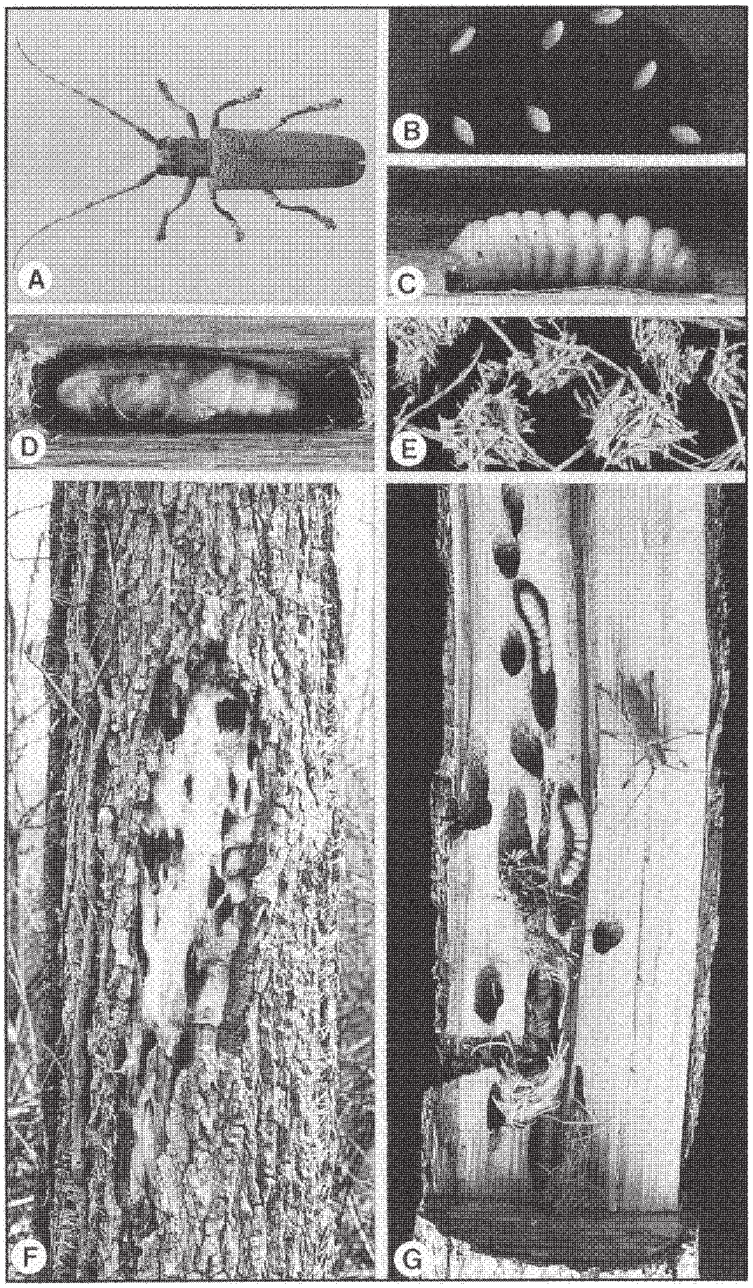


Figure 129—Saperda calcarata, *poplar borer: A, adult; B, eggs; C, larva; D, pupa; E, coarse, fibrous frass; F, active cluster of attacks; G, multiple galleries and insect stages.*

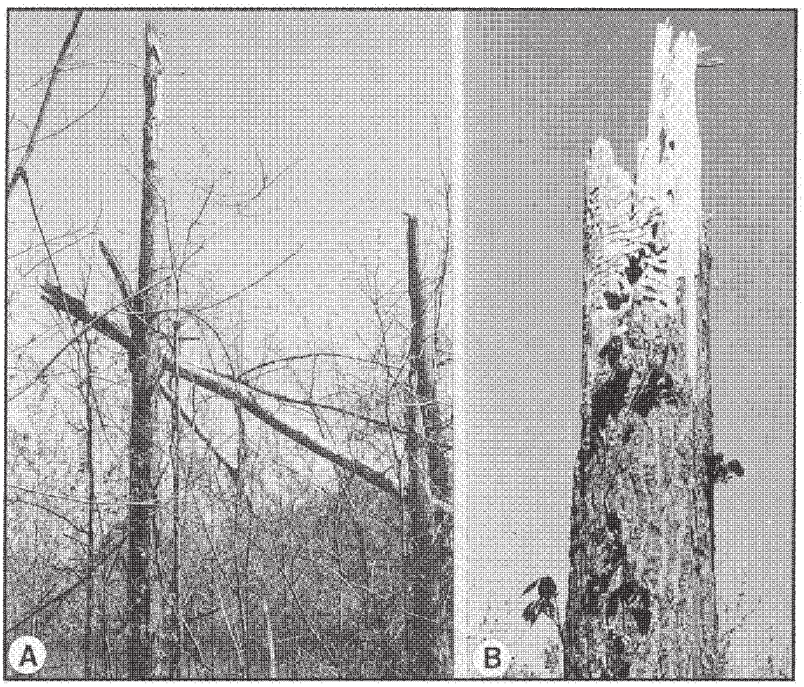


Figure 130—Saperda calcarata, *poplar borer: A, trees in cottonwood plantation broken at borer-weakened sites; B, closeup showing cluster of larval tunnels at point of break.*

move into the sapwood. After overwintering behind frass plugs in the galleries, the larvae resume activity in spring, enlarging and extending their tunnels (Drouin and Wong 1975). The life cycle varies from 2 years in Mississippi (Morris and others 1975) to 3 to 5 years in the borer's northern range (Drouin and Wong 1975, Peterson 1947). Pupation occurs from April to July, depending on location, and lasts 2 to 3 weeks. The adults emerge from the entrance sites. Although trees as small as 4 cm in diameter may be attacked, most infestations occur in stems 8 cm in diameter and larger. Open-grown trees and those growing in sparse understocked stands with unshaded or partially shaded trunks are most attractive to females for oviposition (Graham and Mason 1958).

Injury and damage. Wet spots with oozing sap mixed with fine frass on the trunk are the earliest signs of the presence of poplar borers. Although attacks may occur singly, they are generally clustered, especially in the southern range. Frass becomes fibrous and excelsior-like as the larvae develop, and large amounts of coarse frass may by seen at tunnel entrances, in bark crevices, and in piles around the base of trees (figure 129E). Feeding by a cluster of larvae results in the bark splitting and breaking away irregularly (figure 129F). Completed galleries 10 to 20 mm in diameter typically extend obliquely upward into the sapwood for 5 to 8 cm, then straight upward for another 10 to 18 cm for a total length of 15 to 25 cm (figure 129G). However, galleries are often crooked because they intersect or avoid galleries of other larvae (Peterson 1947). Tree injury may be characterized by woodpecker excavations in the vicinity of larval feeding. Scar tissue may be evident for many years when injured areas are overgrown (Morris and others 1975). Small trees are occasionally killed by larvae girdling beneath their bark. Large trees are seldom killed outright, but clusters of larvae tunneling close together may riddle portions of trunks, seriously weakening them structurally. Woodpecker excavations and decay fungi further weaken trees so that serious wind breakage occurs (figure 130A and B). Surveys of quaking aspen showed that 64% of the trees in southern Michigan and 53% of the trees at five locations in British Columbia had been attacked by poplar borers (Cottrell 1962, Graham and Mason 1958). In a survey of 10 commercial cottonwood plantations in the lower Mississippi River Valley, infestation rates ranged from 2 to 45% and averaged 20% (Nebeker and others 1985). In timber stands, the value of infested trees sawn for lumber may be greatly reduced by defect and degrade (Morris and others 1975). Moreover, the egg niches provide favorable infection courts for the hypoxylon canker disease.

Control. Natural mortality of the poplar borer is frequently high. Two species of hymenopterous parasites—*Dolichomomitus irritator* (Fabricius) and *Habrolepoidea depressa* Girault—and one dipterous parasite *Ptilodexia canescens* (Walker) have been recorded (Arnaud 1978, Carlson 1979,

Gordh 1979). In Colorado, egg and larval parasites, predators, and fungus disease account for annual mortalities of 30 to 38% (Hofer 1920). In Mississippi, up to 65% of the larvae in young plantations are excavated by woodpeckers. Studies in Canada revealed that natural controls—including egg infertility, climate, excessive sap flow, and six species of parasites, predators, and disease—destroyed 81% of the population of this borer (Peterson 1947). Ten other species of parasites have been reported in western Canada (Drouin and Wong 1975). Cultural practices such as avoiding poor planting sites and maintaining healthy trees can markedly reduce incidence of the poplar borer. Borer infestations vary directly with stem diameter and inversely with stocking (Ewan 1960). But in aspen stands, periodic removal of infested trees proved worse than no cutting because the reduction in stand density resulted in higher infestations (Peterson 1947). In managing aspen, therefore, the recommended practice is to maintain well-stocked stands and clearcut at maturity (Ewan 1960). Insecticides may be necessary for protecting trees in parks and urban areas. Systemic insecticides have shown some promise for controlling damage when regenerating balsam poplar in Canada (Drouin and Wong 1975).

Saperda concolor LeConte

[willow gall saperda]

Hosts. Willow, poplar. Willows appear to be the major hosts, based on the meager literature available (Felt and Joutel 1904).

Range. The taxonomic position of this species is vague and it has been confused with *S. inornata* Say and *S. populnea tulari* Felt and Joutel in much of the literature (Felt and Joutel 1904, Nord and Knight 1971). *Saperda concolor* is a southwestern species reported from New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas (Felt and Joutel 1904, LeConte 1852).

Description. ***Adult.*** Black, finely punctate longhorn beetle, entirely covered by dense gray or yellowish gray pubescence, which is less dense at top of thorax, thus giving a darker appearance and increasing effect of a lateral band. Beetles with median line on thorax, black antennae, annulated with gray and measuring about 12 mm long (Felt and Joutel 1904, LeConte 1852). ***Larva.*** White, slender, elongate, and about 14 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge in May and June (Felt and Joutel 1904). Females gnaw egg niches in the bark and deposit one or two eggs per niche. The young larvae mine under the bark and later into the wood. Galleries may extend in either direction along the stem, but in larger stems, the larvae take a transverse direction, sometimes girdling stems. Some larvae feed mainly around the stem, especially in the callus tissue of the gall, which causes the rough annular swelling to develop and enlarge. The larvae maintain openings in the gall toward which they push small amounts of frass. A generation requires 1 to 2 years.

Injury and damage. Egg niches cut in the bark soon begin oozing sap, providing the earliest evidence of infestation (Felt and Joutel 1904). Warty, gnarly, gall-like swellings typically form at sites of infestations. Galls may be twice the size of infested stems.

Small branches 6 to 18 mm in diameter are most likely to be attacked, but saplings and sprouts up to 50 mm in diameter may be infested. Infested trees are often girdled and killed or may break at the galled sites.

Control. Infested branches should be pruned during winter. Nothing is known of natural controls and direct controls have not been needed.

Saperda inornata Say

[poplar-gall saperda] (figure 131)

Hosts. Poplars and willows. Quaking aspen, bigtooth aspen, balsam poplar, meadow willow, and sandbar willow have been recorded as hosts (Nord and others 1972b). Although the willows are reportedly preferred in Canada (McLeod and Wong 1967), quaking aspen appears to be a favored host in the north central United States (Nord and others 1972b).

Range. North America from northern Minnesota, southeastern Ontario, and southern Quebec to southern Illinois east to Pennsylvania and in the West from northern Manitoba and Saskatchewan to southern Colorado (Wilson and Ostry 1980).

Description. ***Adult.*** Uniformly dark gray, pubescent longhorn beetle that ranges from 8 to 13 mm long (figure 131A) (Nord and Knight 1971, Wilson and Ostry 1980). Body black, but short erect cinereous hairs give gray appearance. Antennae slightly shorter than body and annulated with cinereous and black hairs. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, elongate, sometimes flattened on one end averaging about 2.5 mm long (Grimble and others 1969). ***Larva.*** Mature larva legless, slender, elongate, white, smooth, shiny, sparsely covered with fine whitish hair, and about 10 to 16 mm long (figure 131B). ***Pupa.*** Adultlike in form, white, and 8 to 13 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge mid-May to late June; feed on the edges of leaves, along the midribs, and on the outer tissues of new shoots and older twigs; and may live for 2 months or more (Nord and others 1972b). Oviposition begins soon after emergence and continues until August. Eggs hatch in 12 to 15 days. Young larvae feed in the xylem adjacent to the necrotic tissue around the eggs. Subsequently, the larvae feed just under the bark, tunneling in one direction perpendicular to the stem axis and around the periphery of the stem. The peripheral tunnels may extend halfway around large stems, further in small ones. A central tunnel up to 25 mm long is extended either upward or downward parallel to the stem axis. Before pupation, larvae usually pack the peripheral tunnels and a third of the central tunnels with frass. Pupation then takes place in the central tunnels just above the packed frass. Adults emerge through 3- to 4-mm diameter round holes gnawed in one side of the galls (Nord and others 1972b). The duration of the life cycle is related to the time of oviposition and summer temperatures. Larvae from eggs laid early in the oviposition period appear to complete development the first summer and pupate the next spring. Larvae that develop from eggs laid late in the oviposition period overwinter, resume feeding the following spring, and complete development the

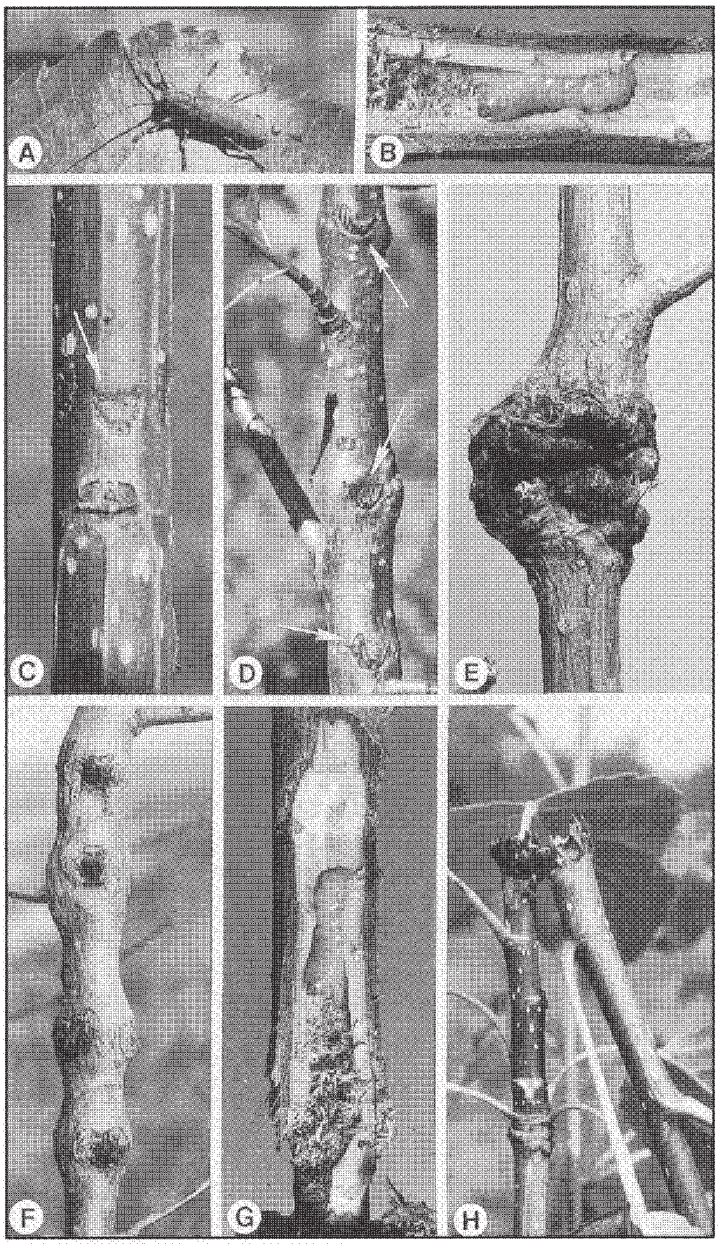


Figure 131—Saperda inornata, *[poplar-gall saperda]: A, adult; B, larva; C, fresh egg niche; D, U-shaped egg niches beginning to heal; E, gall-like swelling; F, multiple gall-like swellings; G, gallery with larva and frass; H, stem broken at galled site (courtesy M. Ostry).*

second summer after hatching (Nord and others 1972b). In its northern range, the pest's life cycle is generally 2 years, but 3 years may sometimes be necessary (McLeod and Wong 1967).

Injury and damage. Evidence of early injury is one or more brownish, horseshoe- or shield-shaped egg niches (figure 131C), often in a ring around the stem, that later become scars on the outer bark (figure 131D) (Grimble and others 1969). Stems 3 to 15 mm in diameter are most generally attacked. Larval feeding results in callus tissue accumulating around the area injured by the feeding and causes a thickening in the stem. A swollen area or globose gall is formed a few weeks after the eggs are laid (figure 131E). The degree of swelling and the shape of galls depend on the activity of the larvae, but galls may be twice the size of the stem. Callus tissue may form only around egg niches when eggs do not hatch or when larvae are short lived. The outer bark over the egg niches usually sloughs off and exposes the rough black scars at swollen sites (figure 131F). Larvae cut holes in the oviposition scars to eject frass. Near the end of the feeding period, larvae tunnel toward the center of the gall and upward or downward parallel to the stem axis for 20 to 40 mm (figure 131G) (Nord and others 1972b). Stems often break at the galls (figure 131H). When the main stem is girdled and growth stops or when the stem breaks, growth is lost, and crooks, forks, and abnormal branching develop. Injuries are generally most prevalent in small stands of suckers in old fields, along roadsides, and along the edges of larger stands (Nord and others 1972b). Damage to young trees in well-stocked natural stands seldom reduces natural reproduction below tolerable levels. The potential for economic loss is greatest in new outplantings. Young plantations of aspen or hybrid poplars in the Great Lakes region have suffered, especially when the young trees are stressed on poor sites, or from dry weather and competing vegetation. Outplantings of clonal or progeny tests in some localities must be protected to keep stunting, abnormal branching, and mortality from confounding the genetic effects. Although 60% of the whips in a new commercial hybrid poplar plantation in Michigan were attacked and significantly reduced in height growth, the trees grew rapidly and recovered most of the loss by the fourth year, and only 4% of the trees were killed (Moore and Wilson 1986). *Saperda* wounds provide entryways for *Hypoxylon* and *Cytospora* canker fungi that can increase economic losses (Anderson and others 1976, Nord and Knight 1972).

Control. Natural controls include the failure of eggs to hatch, desiccation of eggs and larvae, disease, parasitism, and predation. Estimates of eggs that fail to hatch range from 17 to 45% (Grimble and others 1969, McLeod and Wong 1967). Desiccation of eggs and larvae results from the death of part or all of the host tree because of disease, wind breakage, or injuries caused by other insects and rodents (Grimble and Knight 1970). In Canada, disease caused larval mortality of 13 to 17% (McLeod and Wong 1967), but in Michigan,

such mortality was estimated at less than 5% (Grimble and Knight 1970). Ten species of hymenopterous parasites and three species of dipterous parasites play major roles in population regulation, killing an estimated 14 to 22% of the population (Grimble and Knight 1970, McLeod and Wong 1967). Predation by birds, particularly woodpeckers, has varied greatly among areas from 3 to 74% and has been restricted mostly to 2-year-old galls (McLeod and Wong 1967, Grimble and Knight 1970). Cultural controls include planting only on good sites away from naturally infested trees and removing and destroying infested branches (Wilson and Ostry 1980). Chemical controls, found to be effective in test plantings in Wisconsin, may be needed to protect young plantations (Nord and others 1972b).

Saperda populnea moesta LeConte

[eastern gall saperda] (figure 132)

Hosts. Poplar, willow. Balsam poplar is the major host; quaking aspen and other poplars and willows are attacked to varying degrees (MacAloney and Ewan 1964, Wong and McLeod 1965).

Range. Across southern Canada and the northern tier of the United States from the Atlantic Coast to the Rocky Mountains (Chemsak and Linsley 1982, Felt and Joutel 1904).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate longhorn beetle measuring about 9.5 mm long and 2.7 mm wide (figure 132A) (Knull 1946). Background color of body black but clothed with uniform gray pubescence concentrated mostly in gray patches on each side of pronotum. Antennae of males extend beyond tips of elytra; in females, they do not reach ends of elytra. Head, pronotum, and elytra densely and coarsely punctured. Elytra taper slightly caudally and apices rounded. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 132B) measuring 11 to 14 mm long, legless, cylindrical in cross section, and body tapers slightly toward rear (Saunders 1874). Head small, reddish brown in front and pale behind, with pale streak along middorsal line. Integument smooth, yellow, shiny, and sparsely clothed with fine, long, whitish hairs. Pronotum about as wide as long, slightly thicker, and more hardened than other body segments. ***Pupa.*** About 12.5 mm long and pale yellow with few short spines on dorsum of abdomen (figure 132C).

Biology. Adults emerge in June and July in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977). Females deposit eggs singly in slits cut in the bark. Larvae mine under the bark around the twig when they are young; later, they bore into the wood, forming short galleries parallel to the twig axis (MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Living tissues at the larval feeding sites swell into ovoid galls that are relatively smooth in appearance, about 30 mm long, and up to 19 mm wide (Wong and McLeod 1965). Larvae pupate in their galleries during May of the year following oviposition. The insect has a 1-year life cycle.

Injury and damage. Infestations are readily detected by ovoid swellings, or galls, on living twigs (figure 132D) (Felt and Joutel 1904, MacAloney and Ewan 1964,

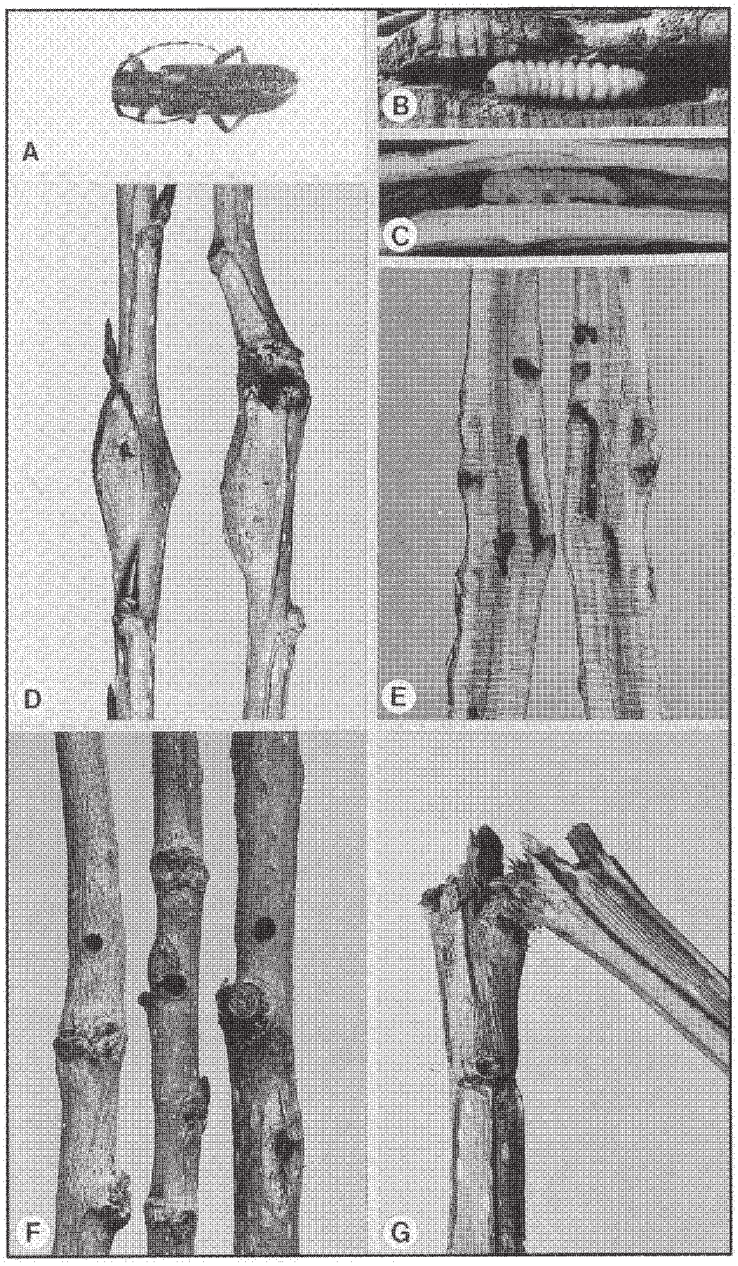


Figure 132—Saperda populnea moesta, *[eastern gall saperda]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, swollen, infested stems; E, galleries; F, emergence holes; G, stem broken at infested site (specimens courtesy C. Palm).*

Wong and McLeod 1965). Galls occur on trees of all ages and on stems of suckers and seedlings but mostly on twigs, branches, and main stems 3 years old or younger. Characteristic U-shaped oviposition scars or callus tissue is found on or near the galls where females have oviposited. *Hypoxylon* sp. often infects the infested twigs. Dissecting infested branches reveals galleries up to 25 mm long and mostly filled with yellowish orange frass (figure 132E). Emerging adults leave round exit holes about 3 mm in diameter (figure 132F). Stems weakened at galled sites often break (figure 132G); the ground under infested trees may be strewn with galled twigs broken off by the wind. The insect has been reported killing aspen seedlings and suckers (MacAloney and Ewan 1964) but generally is mostly a nuisance, producing numerous galls on twigs, often causing twig growth to stop and making twigs susceptible to wind breakage. It has damaged some hybrid poplars in the Great Lakes region.

Control. Only one hymenopterous parasite—*Xylophrurus bicolor* Townes—has been reared in the United States (Carlson and Knight 1969). In Europe, as much as 100% of eggs and young larvae of *S. populnea* have died in vigorous trees (Anonymous 1979). Cultural control includes planting on good sites and proper tree maintenance. Galled twigs should be removed and destroyed during winter. Chemical control can be obtained with two or three well-timed applications of insecticide at 15- to 20-day intervals.

Saperda populnea tulari Felt and Joutel

[western gall saperda] (figure 133)

Hosts. Poplar. Black cottonwood has been mentioned specifically, but other poplars are undoubtedly attacked as well (Craighead 1923).

Range. Along the Pacific Coast from California north through Washington and into British Columbia and east to Arizona and Nevada (Chemsak and Lindsey 1982, Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Resembles *S. p. moesta*; slender, elongate longhorn beetle about 9.5 mm long (figure 133A) (Felt and Joutel 1904). Beetle black but densely covered with grayish red or fulvous hair. Thorax with stripe on each side and median band on top. Head, pronotum, and elytra densely and coarsely punctured. Distinguished from *S. p. moesta* by its larger and deeper punctures, which are more scattered and less numerous. ***Larva.*** Narrow, cylindrical, white except for dark brown mouthparts and reaches about 12.5 mm when mature (figure 133B).

Biology. Adults emerge from spring to early summer and deposit eggs in small niches cut in the bark of young stems. Larvae burrow mostly in the swollen portion of the stems, but some make short tunnels beyond the galls. The life cycle requires 1 or 2 years (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Injury and damage. Irregular to globose stem swellings that become gall-like are evidence of infestation (figure 133C).

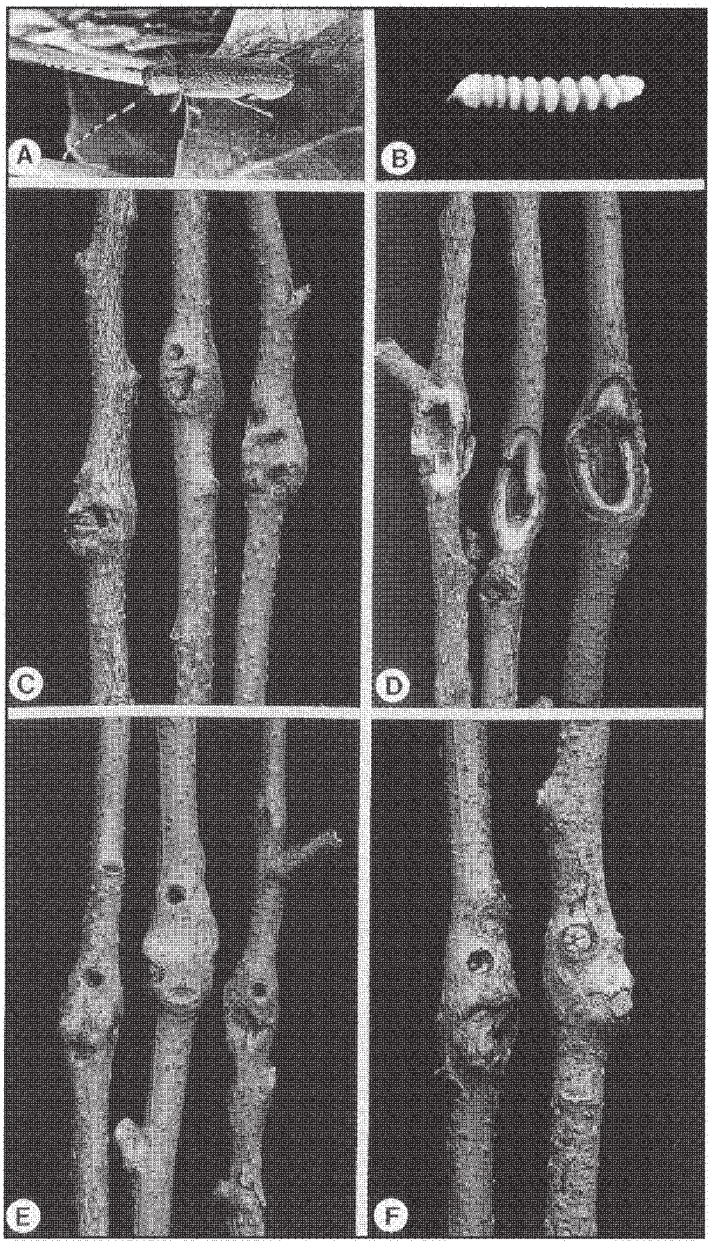


Figure 133—Saperda populnea tulari, *[western gall saperda]: A, adult; B, larva; C, gall-like swellings on small stems; D, burrows in swollen stems; E, round emergence holes; F, healed emergence hole scars on swollen stems (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

Branches and terminals of 6 to 12 mm in diameter on trees of all sizes may be attacked. Dissecting the swollen stems reveals the larval burrows partially filled with fibrous frass (figure 133D). Emerging adults leave round holes about 3 mm in diameter in the swollen stem (figure 133E). These openings heal to form round puckered scars (figure 133F) that resemble healed branch stubs. It is recorded as attacking and killing young black cottonwood (Craighead 1923).

Control. Woodpeckers prey upon the larvae. Unidentified parasites have been reared (Craighead 1923).

Saperda candida Fabricius

roundheaded appletree borer (figure 134)

Hosts. Quince, apple, pear, crabapple, serviceberry, hawthorn, mountain-ash, chokecherry, cotoneaster. Hosts are limited almost entirely to the family Rosaceae (Brooks 1919b, Haseman 1936, Johnson and Lyon 1988). Quince, apple, and pear, preferred in this order, are the most important cultivated hosts. Serviceberry and hawthorn are the most important native wild hosts. A few other species—including peach, cherry, and plum—have been casually mentioned as hosts.

Range. Found generally throughout the eastern United States and southeastern Canada. The westward limits are the Dakotas and Texas (Brooks 1919b, Hess 1940).

Description. ***Adult.*** Longhorn beetle, varies in length from 13 to 25 mm with prominent antennae about as long as body (figure 134A) (Haseman 1936). Beetles light brown on upper surface with two white longitudinal dorsal stripes extending full length of body and joined at head (Brooks 1919b). Lower surface of body and front of head white (USDA ARS 1965). Legs and antennae grayish. ***Egg.*** Pale, rust brown, elongate, slightly flattened, and about 8 mm long (Felt and Joutel 1904). ***Larva.*** White to yellowish white, legless with brown head and black jaws; reaches length of about 38 mm (figure 134B).

Biology. Adults emerge as early as April in the South and as late as June in the North; specimens have been collected as late as August (Felt and Joutel 1904, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Most beetles in an area emerge within 2 to 3 weeks. After about 10 days of feeding and mating, females deposit 15 to 30 eggs and may live up to 75 days. Eggs are inserted singly into slits in the bark within 25 cm of ground level (USDA ARS 1965, Felt and Joutel 1904). One to several eggs may be laid on the same tree. Incubation takes 15 to 20 days (Brooks 1919b). During their first feeding season, larvae grow to about 13 mm and burrow in the bark and surface sapwood. They winter in the surface sapwood, at or slightly below ground level. During the second and/or subsequent summers, the larvae enlarge their burrows and extend narrow elongate galleries into the wood. Pupation occurs at the upper ends of the tunnels in chambers that curve out to the inner bark. The pupal stage requires about 3 weeks; beetles remain in the pupal chambers about 2 weeks before gnawing through the bark (Brooks 1919b). The insect usually completes a

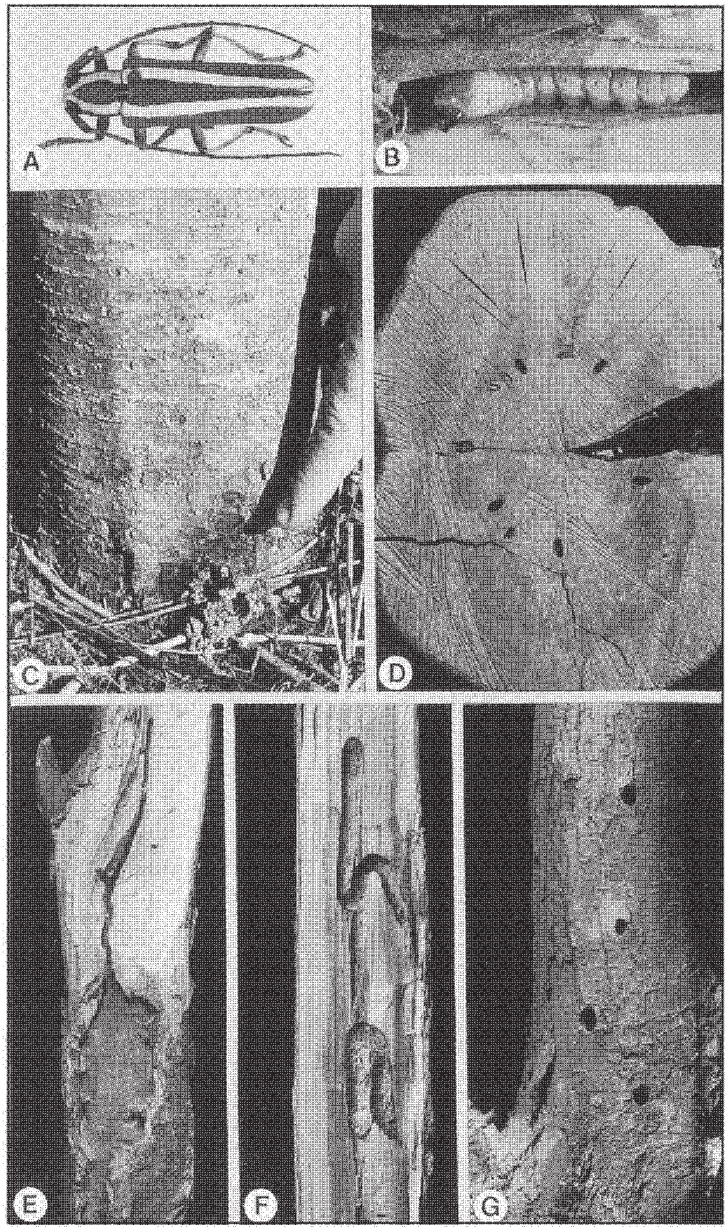


Figure 134—Saperda candida, *roundheaded appletree borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, frass at base of young apple tree; D, cross section with oval galleries; E, cavity under bark with long narrow gallery; F, galleries in small stems; G, round exit holes near base of tree (D-G, specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

generation in 2 years in the South but requires 3 to 4 years in the North (USDA ARS 1965).

Injury and damage. Close inspection reveals one or more curved to longitudinal oviposition slits in the bark around the base of trees (Brooks 1919b, Haseman 1936). Brown to dark brown sap stains appear, and soon afterward, fine frass is extruded through openings in the bark. In a few weeks, small piles of reddish, fibrous frass appear around the base of the tree (figure 134C). Narrow galleries in the wood are oval in cross section (figure 134D), may extend in either direction, and sometimes reverse directions. Removing the bark reveals broad, irregular burrows in the outer sapwood, often extending as narrow galleries deeper into the wood (figure 134E and F). Burrows in the bark and surface sapwood vary from 2 to 5 cm across, and narrow galleries within the wood range from 6 to 15 mm long. Galleries may extend both above and below ground level and sometimes into the roots. Portions of burrows may be packed with frass. Bark over the burrowed sites may become noticeably depressed, especially on young, smooth-barked trees. Round holes 5 to 6 mm in diameter are left in the bark by emerging beetles (figure 134G). Adults can sometimes be found feeding on the bark of twigs, midribs of leaves, and even on fruits (Brooks 1919b). Trees that break at the groundline should be examined for evidence of borer tunnels, frass, and larvae. This insect is the most destructive borer attacking apple trees. Trees of all ages are susceptible to attack, but those 3 to 10 years old are most affected (USDA ARS 1965). A young tree may be killed as the result of the feeding of only one or two larvae, and trees under 10 years of age may suddenly break near the ground from earlier borer injury (Haseman 1936). Without protection, young orchards can be ruined in a few years when borers are abundant (Brooks 1919b). Older trees may be attacked throughout their growth, but infestations are most destructive during drought, disease, and poor maintenance. Ornamentals are seriously damaged in some localities.

Control. The hairy, downy, and golden woodpeckers and the northern flicker are the most important natural controls (Felt and Joutel 1904, Hess 1940). Woodpeckers prey upon all stages, preferring the mature larvae and pupae; from 50 to 90% of the borers have been captured in some orchards. Other predators include spiders, carpenter ants, click beetles, and carabid beetles. Five species of hymenopterous parasites—*Cenocoelius saperdae* (Ashmead), *Echthrus niger* Cresson, *Microbracon* sp., *Monogonogastra agrili* (Ashmead), and *Xylophrurus nubilipennis luctuosus* (Provancher)—and one dipterous parasite (*Sarcophaga* sp.) have been reported (Hess 1940, Carlson 1979, Marsh 1979). Cultural practices designed to keep trees healthy and vigorous help to reduce borer damage (USDA ARS 1965). Infestations can be reduced by locating and destroying undesirable wild hosts in nearby woodlots, roadsides, and ditchbanks. Current pest management programs, including the use of pesticides to

control other insect pests, help to reduce losses caused by this borer. Chemical controls properly timed and directed can help in minimizing losses.

Saperda cretata Newman

[spotted appletree borer] (figure 135)

Hosts. Apple, crabapple, hawthorn, serviceberry. Apple is the preferred host, but crabapple is commonly attacked. Hawthorn and serviceberry have been mentioned occasionally as wild hosts (Felt and Joutel 1904).

Range. Ontario and throughout the northeastern United States west to Iowa, Wisconsin, and Texas (Chittenden 1898, Felt and Joutel 1904).

Description. ***Adult.*** Typical longhorn beetle, cinnamon brown with white markings, and ranging in length from 10 to 20 mm (figure 135A) (Felt and Joutel 1904, Milne and Milne 1980). Antennae extend nearly to tips of elytra. Pronotum narrower than elytra with white band along sides; sometimes with minute white spot at middle base of pronotum. Oblong white spot, twice as long as wide, at middle of each elytron and another small white spot near tip. Elytra rounded at tips. Sides of abdomen white and underside brown. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 135B) fleshy, legless, white, cylindrical in cross section and about 28 mm long. Head brown, oblong, rectangular, usually partly concealed by prothorax, which is slightly wider than head. Each successive thoracic and abdominal segment behind prothorax gradually narrows in width toward last abdominal segment. Intersegmental areas of abdomen deeply creased, or folded inward, giving an annular or ringed appearance.

Biology. Adults emerge late May to mid-August in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977). Before mating and ovipositing, adults feed on the foliage and bark of new twigs (Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Females lay eggs singly in the bark in paired slits about 12 mm apart (Felt and Joutel 1904). Young larvae that hatch from each pair of eggs burrow in opposite directions under the bark of large limbs and sometimes into the trunk (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). During the first year of development, larvae make tortuous galleries beneath the bark, then gradually bore deep into the wood. Galleries of large larvae generally follow the grain of the wood (Mutchler and Weiss 1923). To pupate, larvae enclose themselves within cells of excelsior-like wood fibers; pupation lasts 4 to 6 weeks. Completed larval burrows may reach 20 cm or more with pupal cells near the ends of galleries and usually close to the bark (Mutchler and Weiss 1923). New adults chew circular holes directly to the surface to emerge. Two or more years are required for the life cycle.

Injury and damage. This borer confines attacks to the upper trunk and large limbs (McDaniel 1936, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Foliage of infested limbs eventually wilts and dies from the extensive burrowing of the larvae in the bark and wood. Entrance openings in the bark, often with yellowish to reddish frass protruding, can be found along both the trunk and large

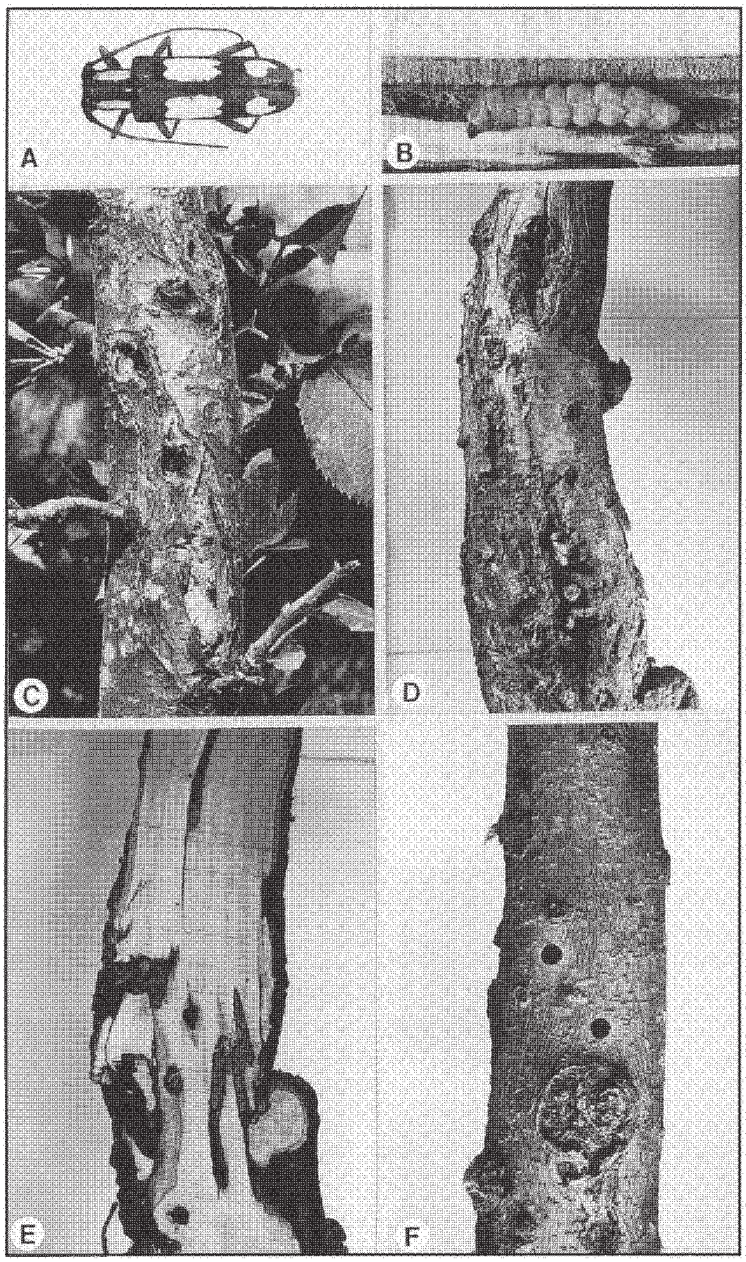


Figure 135—Saperda cretata, *[spotted appletree borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, attack sites on apple branch; D, trunk scarred from repeated attacks; E, galleries; F, emergence holes in apple branch (A, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

branches (figure 135C). Stems attacked repeatedly become heavily scarred with openings, depressions, and gall-like swellings on the bark (figure 135D). Dissection of dead and dying stems reveals larval burrows and galleries and sometimes the larvae in the bark and wood (figure 135E). Pupation chambers constructed of compacted, shredded, excelsior-like fibers may be exposed in the burrows. Emerging beetles leave round exit holes 4 to 6 mm in diameter in the bark on infested stems (figure 135F) (Knull 1946). This borer has been most damaging to apple trees in the Lake States, especially Michigan (Doane and others 1936, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Although this borer is not as destructive as *S. candida*, it may tunnel the upper trunk and destroy many of the branches, eventually weakening or killing the tree. Both orchard and ornamental trees may be damaged, but economic infestations occur on a local basis.

Control. Woodpeckers destroy many larvae, but no other predators or parasites have been reported. Maintaining tree vigor helps to minimize infestation. Also, removing and destroying heavily infested limbs and trees will help to prevent population buildup. Removing wild hosts in the immediate vicinity of orchards helps to prevent infestation. Chemical controls developed for the roundheaded appletree borer may be needed occasionally to control this borer.

Saperda fayi Bland

[thorn limb borer] (figure 136)

Hosts. Hawthorn. Cockspur hawthorn and pear hawthorn have been mentioned specifically as hosts, but other species of hawthorn are probably susceptible (Felt and Joutel 1904, Zimmerman 1878).

Range. Most prevalent in New York and Pennsylvania but may be found throughout the northeastern United States west to Michigan and south to Illinois and Iowa and in Ontario (Felt and Joutel 1904, Gosling and Gosling 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Longhorn beetle with short, slender body about 12.5 mm long and 3.4 mm wide (figure 136A) (Knull 1946). Antennae extend beyond ends of elytra in male but do not reach apex in female. Body clothed with chocolate brown pubescence. White stripe of pubescence on sides of prothorax from head to base of elytra. Each elytron with elongate white patch in middle and smaller patch on apical quarter along line separating elytra. Two smaller white spots near elytral apices barely visible in males (Felt and Joutel 1904). Sides of elytra subparallel basally and taper gradually toward rounded apices. Head and elytra densely and coarsely pitted. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 136B) about 20 mm long and body whitish, fleshy, legless, and more or less cylindrical. Prothorax slightly wider than head, which it partially conceals. Intersegmental folds deeply indented or creased, accordian-like, giving appearance of raised fleshy rings around body.

Biology. Adults emerge in late May and early June in Pennsylvania (Hamilton 1888). However, beetles are present from late May to mid-July in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977) and have been collected as late as

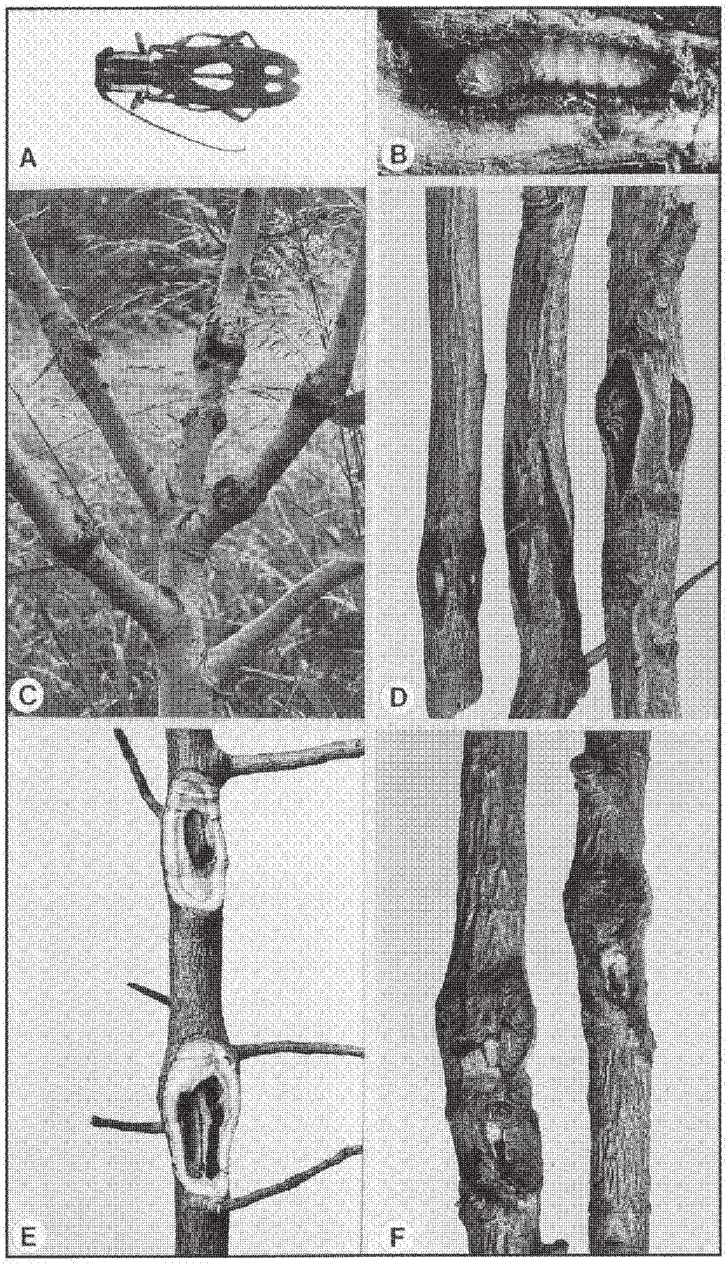


Figure 136—Saperda fayi, *[thorn limb borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, limbs with galls; D, entrance holes in small limbs; E, burrows; F, woodpecker excavations at infested sites (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; D-F, specimens courtesy J. Nord).*

August 15 in New York (Zimmerman 1878). Adults have not been observed to feed, and the life span is short, lasting about 2 weeks (Felt and Joutel 1904). Mating and oviposition occur soon after emergence. Small branches 6 to 37 mm in diameter are selected for oviposition. Females make longitudinal slits approximately 19 mm long in the bark with their jaws and deposit single eggs in each. The slits typically are parallel to each other and spaced about equally around the branch. During the first year, larvae construct galleries 1 to 5 cm long in the outer sapwood, returning periodically to feed in the bark near the entrance holes. In spring of the second year, some larvae continue to feed in the decaying wood near the entrance holes and by autumn are nearly fully grown. Other larvae, during their second year after hatching, construct parallel galleries up or down the branch for distances of 6 to 10 cm. Pupation is in cells prepared by plugging the galleries with excelsior-like wood fibers. Adults may either emerge from the original larval entrance holes or cut separate circular exit holes through the wood and bark to the surface. This borer requires 2 years to complete the life cycle.

Injury and damage. The insect limits its attacks almost entirely to small branches less than 37 mm in diameter (Zimmerman 1878). Trees with branches broken or dying back should be examined for infestation. Infested trees will have gall-like, gnarly swellings on the branches (figure 136C). Elongate entrance holes (figure 136D), often packed with frass, may be evident on the bark. Dissection of infested branches reveals mostly short irregular galleries (figure 136E) and sometimes white larvae. Although a branch may contain one larva, three to six in separate galleries within a branch are common (Hamilton 1888). Adults leave circular exit holes 4 to 5 mm in diameter on or near the galls. Badly tunneled branches are often broken by wind. Weakened branches gradually die back and detract from the appearance of the tree (Hamilton 1888). Serious damage is seldom widespread; most infestations are limited to small localities, sometimes to one tree or a few trees. The symmetry of ornamentals is occasionally ruined by weakened and killed branches.

Control. Woodpeckers are the only natural enemies reported (figure 136F) (Felt and Joutel 1904). Pruning and burning infested branches will destroy the larvae and reduce the infestation.

Saperda vestita Say

linden borer (figure 137)

Hosts. Basswood. European basswood (or linden) is particularly susceptible to attack, but American basswood is also commonly infested in some areas. Poplar, elm, and apple also listed as food plants (Felt and Joutel 1904), but these hosts seem questionable.

Range. Canada and throughout the eastern United States as far west as Missouri and Iowa, closely approximating the natural range of its host, basswood (Felt and Joutel 1904). Most common in the northeastern United States.

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, elongate longhorn beetle, ranging from 12 to

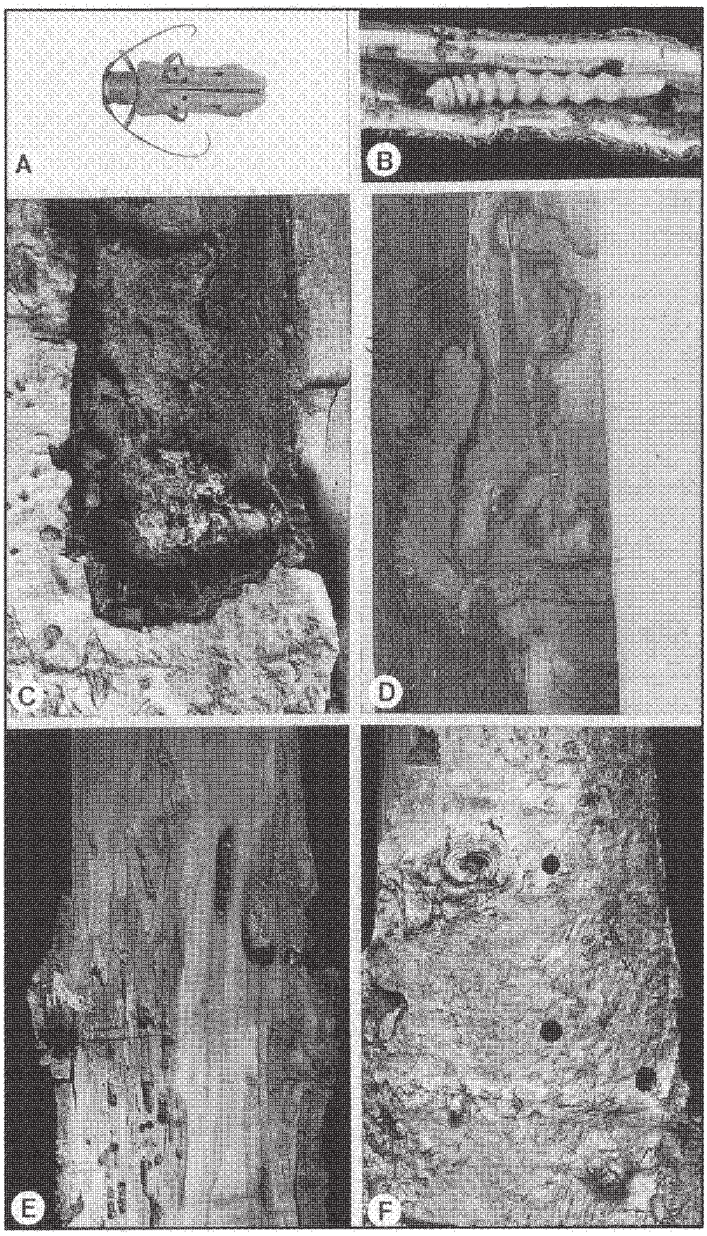


Figure 137—Saperda vestita, *linden borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, mines beneath bark partially packed with frass; D, mines etched in sapwood surface; E, galleries extending into wood; F, round emergence holes (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C-F, specimens courtesy W. Johnson).*

21 mm long and 4.5 to 5.5 mm wide (figure 137A) (Blatchley 1910, Knull 1946). Underlying body color dark reddish brown but largely hidden by dense covering of olive-yellow to gray prostrate pubescence. Three small, dark, denuded spots on each elytron; two situated obliquely before middle and one more distant behind middle. Antennae extend slightly beyond elytra in males but do not reach elytral apices in females. Pronotum broader than long, with wavy sides with coarsely and densely punctate surface. Tips of elytra rounded. ***Larva.*** Robust, fleshy, legless, somewhat cylindrical and from 22 to 25 mm long (figure 137B) (Craighead 1923, Peterson 1960). Head partly concealed by prothorax, oblong-rectangular with sides nearly parallel. Dorsum of prothorax consists of heavily chitinized, somewhat rectangular plate, with very roughened surface over three-fourths of length. Spiracles along sides of body narrowly oval and strongly chitinized.

Biology. Adults emerge and are present from early May to mid-September in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977). Prior to mating and ovipositing, adults feed on the bark of new shoots, leaf petioles, and leaf veins (Kotinsky 1921). Females deposit two or three eggs in niches that they cut into the bark. Females may deposit up to 90 eggs each (Felt and Joutel 1904). Newly hatched larvae burrow under the bark for 15 cm or more and then turn into the wood for about the same distance (Webster 1900b). Most eggs are near the base of the tree, mostly in the lower 30 cm of the trunk; less frequently, eggs are laid higher on the trunk and lower limbs. Many larvae eventually bore downward into the larger surface roots. In young trees, the larvae sometimes gouge two parallel rings that form annular swellings around the trunks. Most pupation occurs at about ground level. The linden borer appears to require 3 years to complete its life cycle (Harris 1844).

Injury and damage. Infested trees weaken; lower limbs begin dying back, and eventually, the entire tree may succumb. Most attacks occur in the lower limbs, lower trunk, and surface roots (Harris 1844). Bark over the attack site may swell or become depressed and often cracks and loosens. Removing the bark reveals large mines and cavities partially packed with frass (figure 137C). Broad irregular mines meander and etch the surface of the sapwood (figure 137D). Galleries penetrate the wood sometimes for 15 to 20 cm (figure 137E). Emerging adults leave round exit holes 5 to 6 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 137F). In late summer, because of feeding by the adults, shoots and leaves may die and drop prematurely, and trees are sometimes almost denuded (Kotinsky 1921). This borer was very destructive to European linden shade trees in the Boston and Philadelphia areas in the mid-1800's, attacking the bases of larger limbs and the lower trunks and surface roots of large trees and nursery stock (Webster 1900b). In nurseries in Connecticut, infestations in the bases of young trees have resulted in serious stem breakage during high winds (Britton and Zappe 1927). Newly emerged adults also feed on the bark and leaf petioles

on shoots, causing excessive green leaf drop, sometimes to the extent of nearly denuding the tops of trees (Webster 1900b).

Control. Little is known of natural controls of the linden borer; only one hymenopterous parasite—*Atanycolus charus* (Riley)—has been mentioned (Felt and Joutel 1904). Heavily infested trees should be cut and burned during winter to destroy the larvae (Kotinsky 1921). Chemical controls may be needed to protect valuable trees.

Saperda tridentata Olivier

elm borer (figure 138)

Hosts. Elm. American elm, slippery elm, and cedar elm are hosts, with American elm the favored species. The elm borer probably attacks other native elms, but has not attacked English elm, an introduced species (Felt and Joutel 1904).

Range. Southeastern Canada and generally throughout the eastern United States west to Texas (Felt and Joutel 1904, Pechuman 1940, USDA FS 1985). Particularly common in the northeastern United States, especially New York and Massachusetts.

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately elongate, slightly robust longhorn beetle, 9 to 17 mm long (figure 138A) (USDA FS 1985). Densely clothed with gray pubescence with three orangish red oblique crossbars on elytra and narrow stripe on ridges of pronotum and elytra. Two small black spots on each side of pronotum. Each elytron with two black spots near base and similar one near apex. Antennae nearly as long as body. ***Egg.*** White, elongate, 2.5 by 1 mm. ***Larva.*** Long, moderately slender, slightly flattened, and 12 to 25 mm long when mature (figure 139B) (MacAloney and Ewan 1964, USDA FS 1985). Legless larvae reddish white at first but later yellowish white with brown head. ***Pupa.*** Newly formed pupa yellowish and measures about 12 mm long.

Biology. Adults appear in spring with males emerging slightly before females (Pechuman 1940). Emergence occurs mostly in May and June but may continue into summer. Adults have been taken as early as April in Mississippi and as late as August 24 in New York. Most active at night; both sexes are often taken in light traps. The beetles mate soon after emerging and feed extensively on leaves, petioles, and young twigs; egg laying begins 3 or 4 days after emergence. Fresh sappy wood of trees weakened from drought, disease, or other causes is most attractive to ovipositing beetles. Females usually oviposit at night, laying single eggs in niches cut in bark crevices. They lay 50 to 60 eggs during their 1-month lifetimes. After hatching, larvae bore into the bark and feed initially on the outer corky layer. They later move to the inner bark, where they feed on the cambium and inner phloem (Haseman 1936). Young larvae tunnel transversely across the grain of the wood between the bark and wood. As larvae grow, they often meander in all directions, reducing the inner bark and sapwood surface to granular frass. They commonly girdle large branches in this manner (Pechuman 1940). In early August to mid-October, the larvae begin forming pupal cells about 4 to 8 mm deep in the sapwood,

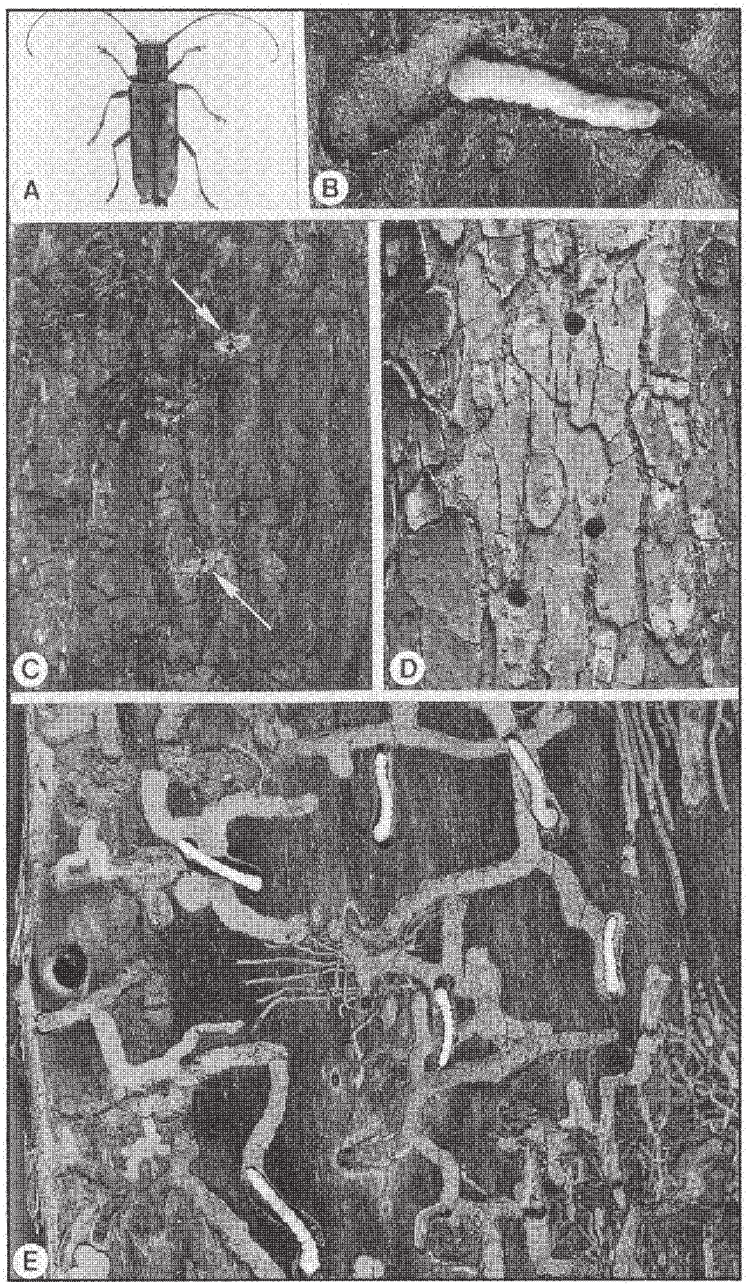


Figure 138—Saperda tridentata, *elm borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, egg niches; D, round emergence holes; E, frass-packed mines (with larvae) meandering beneath bark.*

where they overwinter. Pupation begins in March and April, lasting 22 to 33 days during early season but only 15 to 18 days late in the season. Adults chew round holes in the wood and bark to emerge. Under most conditions, one generation a year occurs, but when trees succumb quickly and the wood dries rapidly, 2 or even 3 years may be required to complete the life cycle (Pechuman 1940).

Injury and damage. During early stages of its attack, this borer is easily overlooked, but symptoms become more prominent as the larvae develop. Frequently, the first signs of attack consist of thin, light-colored foliage followed by scattered dying branches (Felt and Joutel 1904). Inspection of the trunk and branches reveals small egg niches in the bark (figure 138C), and within a few days, small pieces or ribbons of reddish frass are extruded from tiny openings in bark crevices. Under dry conditions, the frass may resemble dark sawdust in crotches and crevices. Much of the frass is packed in mines instead of being ejected to the outside. After the attack has progressed, patches of the bark may be easily pulled from the tree. After a brood completes development, numerous round holes 4 mm in diameter are present in the bark (figure 138D). Removing the bark reveals a mass of mines or burrows and numerous larvae in the inner bark and cambium (figure 138E). The mines are narrow initially but become wider as larvae develop. Larvae penetrate the wood only to pupate. The mines are generally packed with fibrous frass except near feeding larvae. When an attack is heavy, individual branches or even the entire tree may be girdled and killed. However, unless the tree is diseased, its death is generally slow. The insect is an important pest of park and shade elms, especially old and weak trees. Trees weakened by repeated defoliation or disease are particularly susceptible. Feeding by the adult beetles on leaves, leaf petioles, and young twigs may be extensive enough to affect the appearance of the foliage. Such feeding may also transmit the Dutch elm disease fungus, *Ceratocystis ulmi* (Buisman) C. Moreau. Trees gradually decline, and their value as park and shade trees is diminished. Over several generations, infested trees may be killed. Attacks on shade and ornamental trees are most important; infestations in forests are generally less damaging.

Control. Six species of hymenopterous parasites—*Atanycolus simplex* (Cresson), *A. ulmicola* (Viereck), *Cenocoelius saperdae* (Ashmead), *Heterospilus* sp., *Spathius benefactor* Matthews, and *Xorides albopictus* (Cresson)—help to reduce infestations but often do not prevent economic damage (Carlson 1979, Kaston 1937, Marsh 1979). Because trees weakened by drought, mechanical damage, air pollution, disease, and insect defoliators are especially susceptible to attack, practices should be followed to keep trees vigorous. In valuable trees, young larvae can be removed mechanically (Haseman 1936). Heavily infested trees, especially those dying from heavy broods, should be removed and destroyed to reduce the borer population (Felt 1905).

Saperda horni (Joutel)

[willow saperda] (figure 139)

Host. Willow. Host is restricted to willows, but species have not been recorded (Craighead 1923).

Range. A western species occurring along the Pacific Coast from Washington to California (Chemsak and Linsley 1982, Felt and Joutel 1904).

Description. ***Adult.*** Shiny black longhorn beetle, densely covered with gray pubescence in male, and light, yellowish gray pubescence in female; 16 to 20 mm long (figure 139A) (Essig 1929). In female, pubescence lighter on underside of body but occurs in dark yellow blotches and irregular streaks on dorsum. Dark yellow line along outer margins of elytra. Cylindrical thorax with longitudinal, dorsal, dark yellow stripe along each side and one on median line. Head covered with yellow hairs changing to gray around mouthparts. Elytra obliquely narrowed at apices (Joutel 1902). ***Larva.*** Smooth with shiny integument, thickly covered with fine white pubescence (figure 139B). Transverse, raised, fleshy ampullae on abdominal segments coarsely roughened (Craighead 1923).

Biology. Adults emerge and oviposit in June and July. During oviposition, females chew irregular holes through the bark and deposit three to four eggs in each at equal angles to each other. Cannibalism among the hatching larvae leaves only one or two to make long, slender galleries in the heartwood. Pupation occurs at the inner, uppermost portions of the larval galleries (Craighead 1923). Habits of this borer are similar to those of *S. calcarata* Say (Craighead 1923). It appears that 2 years are required to complete the life cycle.

Injury and damage. Attacked trees usually have numerous oviposition niches, entrance scars, and exit holes on the stems and larger branches (figure 139 C, D, and E). Galleries extend obliquely into the wood, then longitudinally (figure 139C and F), and are partially filled with fibrous frass. Emerging beetles leave round exit holes 3 to 4 mm in diameter (figure 139D). Trees stressed, weakened, and in poor vigor are most apt to be attacked. This borer infests suitable trees heavily and leaves the bark badly scarred. Young trees have been killed in California (Craighead 1923). Infested trees often die by fall the same year in which oviposition occurs (Craighead 1923).

Control. Woodpeckers capture many larvae in small diameter stems (figure 139G). Little else is known of controls.

Saperda obliqua Say

[alder borer] (figure 140)

Hosts. Alder, hazel, birch. Favored host is black alder (Felt and Joutel 1904, McDaniel 1936).

Range. Throughout the eastern half of the United States and Canada (McDaniel 1936).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, elongate, longhorn beetle measuring about 20 mm long and 5.4 mm wide (figure 140A) (Felt and Joutel 1904, Knull 1946). Body light reddish brown with dark brown markings. Pronotum narrowed in front with two sub-

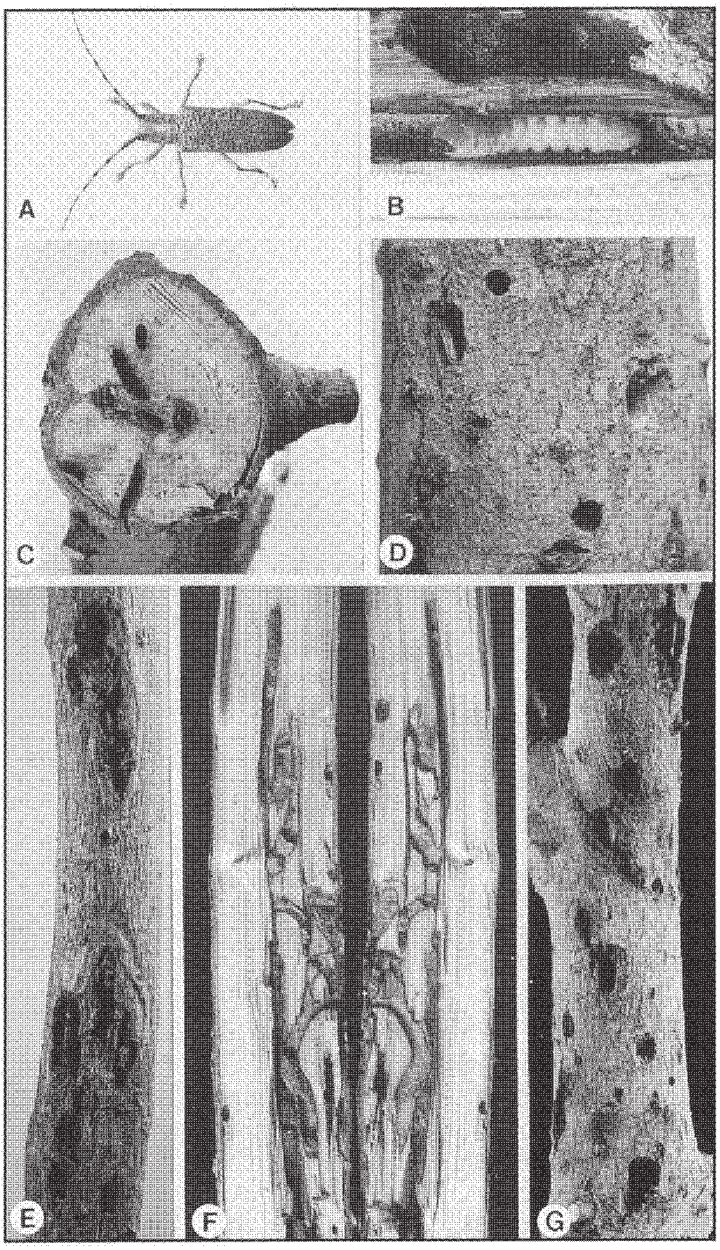


Figure 139—Saperda horni, *[willow saperda]: A, adult; B, larva; C, cross section of galleries; D, round exit holes; E, entrance holes and old scars; F, galleries partially packed with frass; G, numerous woodpecker excavations in stem (specimens courtesy F. Hovore).*

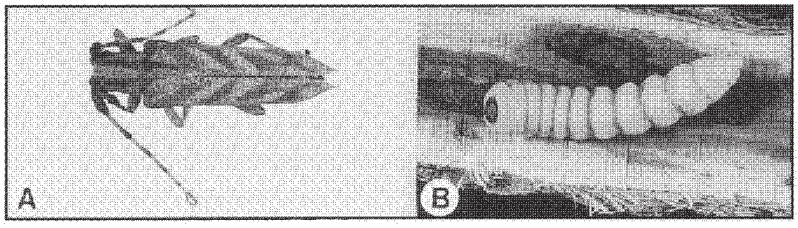


Figure 140—Saperda obliqua, *[alder borer]: A, adult; B, larva (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

dorsal stripes converging at scutellum. Dorsum of elytra with four dark oblique bands and surface unevenly, densely, and coarsely punctured. Sides of elytra gradually narrow toward tips, and each elytron ends with an acute spine. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 140B) robust, elongate, fleshy, legless, whitish, and about 20 mm long. Head partly concealed by prothorax, which is slightly wider than long and roughened over three-fourths of length (Craighead 1923). Integument very finely wrinkled and clothed with fine, whitish hairs.

Biology. Adults emerge and fly from late June to mid-August in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977), June and July in Ohio (Knull 1946), and in May and June in northern Georgia (Fattig 1947). Beetles can often be found on tips of alder branches, and their coloration gives them the appearance of withered leaves. Females deposit eggs in the bark around the base of trees and bushes. Initially, larvae work in and under the bark, causing mines and irregular gall-like swellings on the stems. As the larvae mature, they bore downward in the wood, sometimes into the roots, whereas other *Saperda* larvae burrow upwards (Felt and Joutel 1904). Mature larvae construct longitudinal burrows deep in the wood where they pupate (Beal and others 1952). Adult behavior differs from that of other *Saperda* species; instead of dropping to the ground and feigning death or hiding when disturbed, they remain motionless and cling tightly to the twig with their antennae directed forward. The life cycle is not known, but based on the insect's habits, is presumed to require 2 years.

Injury and damage. Attacks are most common on the lower trunk but occasionally occur in the lower branches (Beal and others 1952, Felt and Joutel 1904). The injury caused by this borer is readily recognized by the conspicuous, irregular, gall-like growths on the stems near the groundline. Cutting into the stem swellings reveals galleries in the bark and wood, more or less following the wood grain. Galleries sometimes extend 7 to 10 cm below ground level in the roots, particularly in the surface roots. Round exit holes 5 to 6 mm in diameter can be found, usually above swellings. The riddling of the bases of stems near groundline often causes them to break in the wind (McDaniel 1936). In heavily infested alder swamps, large numbers of prostrate stems in all stages of attack and decay have been observed (Felt and Joutel 1904). However, because neither alder nor hazel are important commercial timber species and the incidence in birch is low, the borer is of minor economic importance in forest settings.

Control. Woodpeckers are reportedly effective in reducing populations (Felt and Joutel 1904). An unidentified tachinid parasite was found destroying about 50% of the larvae in a Pennsylvania study (Craighead 1923). Also, a hymenopterous parasite—*Xylophrurus luctuosus* (Provancher)—has been recorded (Linsley 1961). Cutting and burning badly infested trees have been suggested to control infestations (McDaniel 1936). Chemicals may be required to protect ornamentals.

Saperda lateralis (Fabricius)

[red-edged saperda] (figure 141)

Hosts. Hickory, elm, basswood, ash, oak, maple, poison ivy, witch hazel. Hickory and elm seem to be favored (Craighead 1923, Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946). Virginia pine has been listed as a host (Stein and Tagestad 1976), but this seems questionable.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States and eastern Canada west to Nebraska (Craighead 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately short, rather robust, longhorn beetle measuring 9 to 15 mm long and about 4 mm wide (figure 141A) (Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946). Body lightly clothed with dark gray pubescence. Head and pronotum with orangish red stripe on each side, which is continuous with narrow, lateral, submarginal stripe of same color along each elytron. Antennae black, reaching elytral tips in females and extending slightly beyond elytral tips in males. ***Larva.*** Finely wrinkled integument clothed with fine, whitish, silky hairs, prominent fleshy ampullae on dorsal and ventral abdominal segments, and heavily chitinized spiracles (figure 141B) (Craighead 1923).

Biology. Adults emerge from mid-May through July and are attracted to light (Gosling and Gosling 1977). After emergence, adults feed on the tender bark and leaf petioles at the ends of current shoot growth (Felt and Joutel 1904). Females lay their eggs on stressed and dying trees and around dead and wounded areas on living trees. Very moist wood at the bases of trees is preferred for oviposition. One year is required to complete the life cycle (Craighead 1923).

Injury and damage. Attack sites are most common in moist wood at the bases of trees, near injuries just above the root-collar area, and at the bases of sprouts on recently cleared forest land (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904). Removing bark from old wounds with dead areas on living trees and from weakened and dying trees reveals galleries and white larvae. This borer is of little economic importance because it primarily attacks trees that are severely weakened and dying.

Control. Nothing is known of the natural enemies, and direct controls are not needed.

Saperda discoidea (Fabricius)

[hickory saperda] (figure 142)

Hosts. Hickory, butternut, walnut. Hickory is preferred host; found only occasionally in the other hosts (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904).

Range. Throughout the eastern half of Canada and the United States west to Nebraska (Craighead 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, moderately robust, cylindrical longhorn beetle; male 10 to 11 mm long and female 14 to 16 mm long (figure 142A) (Dillon and Dillon 1972, Knull 1946, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). In female, head, thorax, and scutellum densely clothed with yellow hairs; elytra reddish brown, each with small spot on basal third and somewhat broad, crescent-shaped, transverse band at middle composed of yellow hairs. Male uniformly brown or black partially covered with

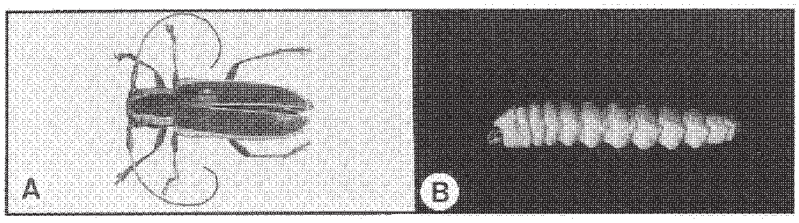


Figure 141—Saperda lateralis, *[red-edged saperda]: A, adult; B, larva.*

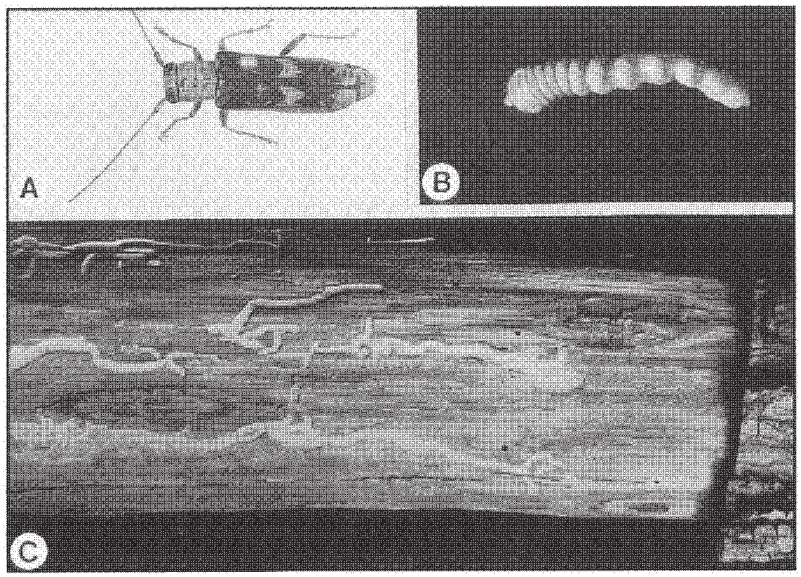


Figure 142—Saperda discoidea, *[hickory saperda]: A, adult; B, larva; C, galleries on surface of sapwood (C, specimen courtesy J. Simeone).*

sparse gray pubescence, which forms light gray lines on sides and disk of pronotum. ***Larva.*** Smooth, shiny integument clothed quite densely with fine, whitish, silky hairs; labrum more densely hairy in front (figure 142B) (Craighead 1923). ***Pupa.*** Slender, setaelike spines in V-shaped group on thorax and in transverse band on dorsum of abdominal segments.

Biology. Adults emerge and are in flight from April to September (Craighead 1923). Light attracts the adults, and they can readily be collected at night from the bark of dying and recently dead hickories. Females deposit eggs in bark crevices and in small holes made by hickory bark beetles (USDA FS 1985). Developing larvae feed gregariously, almost exclusively between the bark and wood, where they make extensive mines that etch the sapwood. Pupation occurs in cells either in the bark or surface sapwood (Felt and Joutel 1904). Adults cut circular holes 4 to 5 mm in diameter in the bark to emerge (Knull 1946). Most larvae complete development in 1 year, but overlapping broods may occur (USDA FS 1985).

Injury and damage. Injury is difficult to identify based on external symptoms because this borer commonly attacks severely stressed and dying trees, especially those weakened by the hickory bark beetle (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904). Peeling the bark reveals numerous, meandering, intertwined larval galleries, packed with fibrous frass (figure 142C). The larvae are gregarious; as many as a dozen have been found together in 15- by 15-cm areas under the bark.

Control. Six species of insect parasites have been recorded, but little is known of their effectiveness (Linsley 1961). Direct controls have not been needed.

Saperda puncticollis Say

[woodbine borer] (figure 143)

Hosts. Virginia creeper, poison ivy, poison oak. Virginia creeper (woodbine) appears to be favored (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904). Grape has been casually mentioned, but this observation needs to be confirmed (Gosling and Gosling 1977).

Range. Southern Canada and through the eastern United States south to Georgia and west to Louisiana and Michigan (Craighead 1923, Felt and Joutel 1904, Turnbow and Franklin 1980a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Short, slender longhorn beetle ranging in length from 9 to 11.5 mm (figure 143A) (Dillon and Dillon 1972). Body sparsely covered with black pubescence above and densely covered with gray hairs underneath. Head yellow with black spot on front and vertex and black antennae (Felt and Joutel 1904). Pronotum yellow with four round black dots on upper surface and lateral spot on each side (Knull 1946). Elytra have broad, yellow marginal and sutural bands (Felt and Joutel 1904). ***Larva.*** Slender, with integument finely wrinkled, white and covered densely with light, chestnut brown hairs (figure 143B) (Craighead 1923). Pronotum distinctly wider than long.

Biology. In Michigan, adults appear from late May to early July (Gosling and Gos-

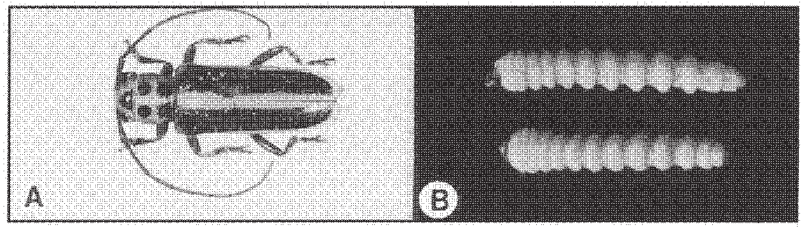


Figure 143—Saperda puncticollis, *[woodbine borer]: A, adult; B, larvae (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

ling 1977) and are commonly found on the foliage of hosts. Little is known about the biology of this borer other than that the larvae mine under the bark of vines and pupate in xylem cells closed off from the larval mines by plugs of frass (Craighead 1923). This borer presumably has a 1-year life cycle.

Injury and damage. Larvae tunnel in the host vines, often killing them. The larval galleries can be exposed by peeling the bark of dead or dying vines. This borer is currently of no economic importance but may offer potential for biocontrol of noxious host plants.

Control. Woodpeckers are important enemies of the larvae (Felt and Joutel 1904). A single hymenopterous parasite—*Labena grallator* (Say)—has been recorded (Carlson 1979).

Oberea schaumii LeConte

[poplar branch borer] (figure 144)

Host. Poplar. Quaking aspen, bigtooth aspen, Lombardy poplar, Carolina poplar, eastern cottonwood, and plains cottonwood have been listed (Nord and others 1972a). Eastern cottonwood is preferred in the South, and quaking aspen has been mentioned most often in the North.

Range. Southern Canada and southward throughout much of the United States south to Mississippi (Morris and others 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate longhorn beetle ranging in length from 12 to 16 mm (figure 144A). Coloration quite variable, ranging from mostly black to brownish yellow or yellowish orange, causing some authors to describe color forms and even subspecies (Allen and Knight 1976, Breuning 1960, Nord and others 1972a). Males mostly black; females generally lighter. ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, elongate, occasionally flattened on one end and about 2.5 mm long. ***Larva.*** Legless, narrow, very slender, yellowish white except for dark mandibles, develops to 12 to 25 mm long (figure 144B). ***Pupa.*** Yellowish white (Morris and others 1975).

Biology. Adults emerge April to June and are sometimes present until early August (Morris and others 1975, Nord and others 1972a). After a few days of feeding and mating, females begin laying eggs in niches gnawed in the bark (Grimble and others 1969). They select stems for ovipositing sites that are mostly 5 to 15 mm in diameter and 1 to 6 years old (Nord and others 1972a) but may be up to 38 mm in diameter (Morris and others 1975). Usually eggs are deposited singly between the wood and bark below the egg niches and hatch in about 2 weeks. Young larvae bore toward the center of the stem and then downward, ejecting frass the first summer through a split in the bark along one side of the egg niches and in subsequent years through circular holes cut to the outside from the central tunnel. The life cycle may be 1 to 2 years in the South (Cook and Solomon 1976) to 2 to 4 years in the North (Nord and others 1972a). Thus, the length of the central tunnel and the number of ejection ports will also vary, as activity is greater when the life cycle is longer. Near the end of the larval stage, larvae tunnel upward above their egg niches and outward to just under the outer layers of bark. Fully developed larvae

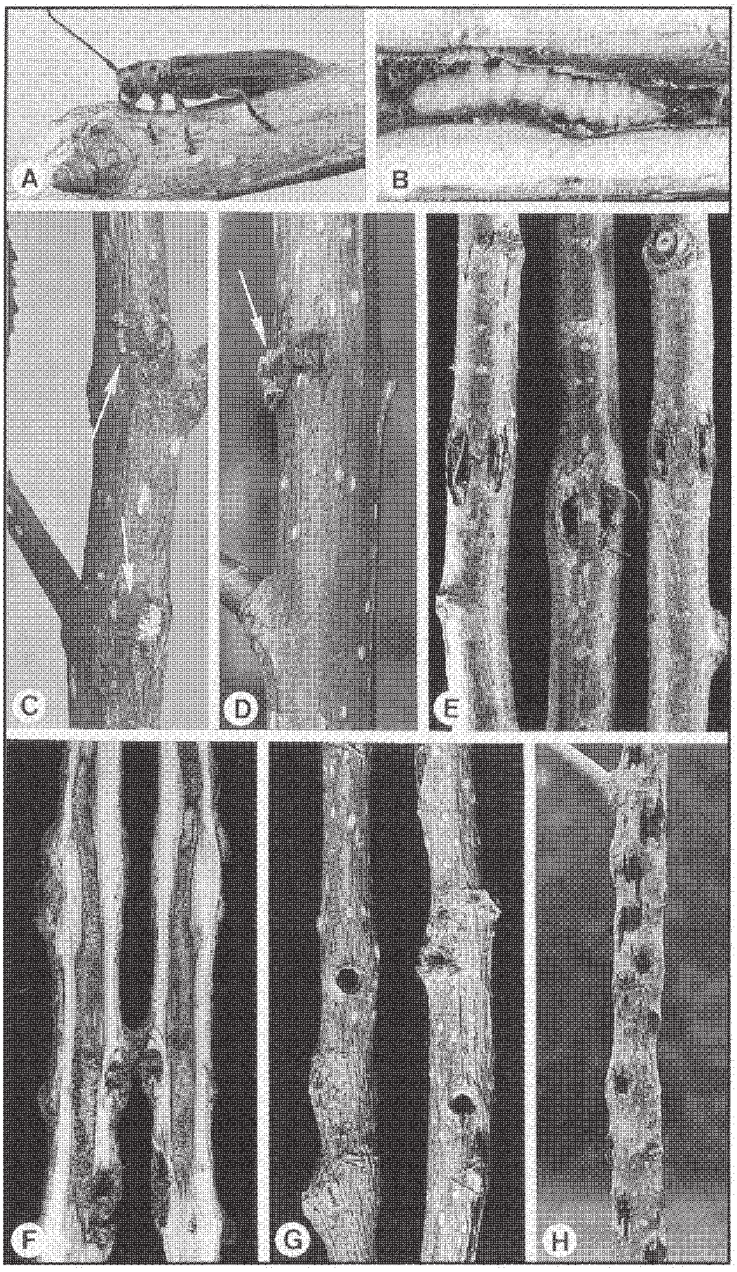


Figure 144—Oberea schaumii, *[poplar branch borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, egg niches chewed in bark; D, fine frass extruded from egg niche; E, egg niches—a few weeks old; F, gallery with packed frass; G, round emergence holes; H, woodpecker excavations.*

pack the lower end of the tunnels with granular frass and fashion loose plugs of long, fibrous frass in the upper part of their tunnels. Pupation occurs behind frass plugs in the upper portion of the tunnels. New adults chew through the bark covering the tunnels to exit. There is a positive relation between this borer and canker fungi. At least a third of the cankers in quaking aspen have occurred at borer-infested sites (Nord and Knight 1972).

Injury and damage. Egg niches gnawed in the bark are early signs of infestation. Egg niches (figure 144C) are elongate, rectangular, and 5 to 11 mm long, about 3 mm wide, and usually parallel to the stem axis. Feeding by newly hatched larvae begins beneath the cambium tissue and is evidenced by fine frass in and around splits in the bark at the site of the egg niche (figure 144D). After a few weeks of stem growth, the egg niches become more prominent, appearing as two parallel splits in the bark (figure 144E). After the young larvae bore into the stem, they tunnel downward parallel to the stem axis. During the first summer, the larvae make tunnels about 25 mm long. In subsequent years, they lengthen and widen the tunnels so that the final dimensions may be as much as 16 cm by 4 mm (figure 144F). Although a moderate amount of frass is packed within the gallery, they eject some through the oviposition slit during the first year and some through secondary and tertiary ports made along the stem. During development, some of the external openings may become closed by callus or scar tissue (Nord and others 1972a). Callus growth sometimes causes the affected area to appear swollen. Emerging adults leave round, 4-mm diameter exit holes in the branches (figure 144G). When adults emerge, they conspicuously feed on the midribs and branch veins of the leaves (Morris and others 1975). Terminal breakage may result in crooked trunks, forking, and heavy branching in individual trees (Cook and Solomon 1976). Breakage, however, is uncommon except when multiple infestation occurs within the stem. Economic loss in stands of large trees and in well-stocked sucker stands is usually light to negligible (Nord and others 1972a). Infestations in aspen sucker stands in Michigan have ranged to 17% without serious impact. However, infestations appear to be greater in planted or open-grown trees. Therefore, impact is apt to be greatest in young monoculture plantings under intensive management.

Control. Natural controls are very important, destroying up to 98% of some populations (Grimble and Knight 1971). Egg non-viability has been estimated at 21%. Dessication of young larvae accounts for some mortality. Five hymenopterous parasites—including *Cenocoelius sanquineiventris* (Ashmead), *Cremastus nordi* Townes, *Dolichomitus messor perlongus* (Cresson), *Iphiaula eurygaster* (Brulle), and *Xylophrurus bicolor* (Cushman)—and three dipterous parasites—*Lixophaga* n. sp., *Megaselia* n. sp., and *Odinia* sp. near *xanthocera* Collin—have been reared. Parasitism rates have ranged up to 63% for some collections. Predation by woodpeckers has ranged from 5 to 25% in Michigan and up to 40% in Mississippi (figure 144H). Unidentified diseases are also important natural controls. In Mississippi, woodpecker predation and disease appear to be the major

natural controls (Cook and Solomon 1976).

Oberea quadricallosa LeConte

[western poplar branch borer] (figure 145)

Hosts. Poplar, willow. Specimens have been reared from arroyo willow and Fremont cottonwood, and adults have been collected from the foliage of black cottonwood (Hicks 1962, Hovore 1988, Milne and Milne 1980).

Range. West of the Rocky Mountains, recorded specifically in California, Oregon, Washington, and British Columbia (Hicks 1962, Milne and Milne 1980, Mutchler and Weiss 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, cylindrical longhorn beetle ranges from 8 to 14 mm long (figure 145A) (Milne and Milne 1980, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Head, antennae, elytra, and undersurface of thorax typically black to grayish. Pronotum yellow to orange with four black spots. Adults separated from those of closely related *O. schaumii* LeConte by having fuscous elytra with only narrow, yellow, basal markings and by larger basal spots on sides of pronotum (Hicks 1962, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). ***Larva.*** Long, slender, nearly cylindrical, legless, yellowish and 10 to 20 mm long (figure 145B).

Biology. Adults emerge during May and June and probably later in its northern range (Milne and Milne 1980). Beetles are commonly found on willow foliage in California (Hovore 1988). Females oviposit mostly on branches 8 to 16 mm in diameter. Based on larval sizes and gallery lengths in limited samplings, the insect appears to have a 2-year generation.

Injury and damage. Egg niches in the bark provide earliest evidence of infestation. In a few weeks, as the branch stem expands, the egg scars become more noticeable as two, vertical bark splits side by side (figure 145C). Sometimes, only one bark split becomes noticeable (figure 145D). Splitting the infested stems reveals galleries up to 12 cm long and 4 mm in diameter (figure 145E). The emerging adults leave round to oval holes 3 to 4 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 145F). Terminals and branches are tunneled, sometimes resulting in dieback and breakage. Slow-growing trees in open settings on poor sites have suffered most.

Control. Woodpecker excavation sites have been found, but actual predation has not been observed. No other natural or direct controls have been reported.

Oberea delongi Knull

[poplar twig borer] (figure 146)

Hosts. Poplar. Eastern cottonwood is preferred (Hicks 1962, Morris and others 1975). The insect has been observed less frequently in swamp cottonwood and occasionally in hybrid poplars. It probably occurs in other poplar species.

Range. Eastern United States from Michigan and Massachusetts south to the Gulf Coast and west to Kansas, from Ontario and Quebec in southeastern Canada (Hicks 1962, Morris and others 1975).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate longhorn beetle measures 10 to 14 mm long and 2.5 mm wide (figure 146A) (Knull 1946). Antennae of male extend to apical fourth of elytra; female antennae slightly

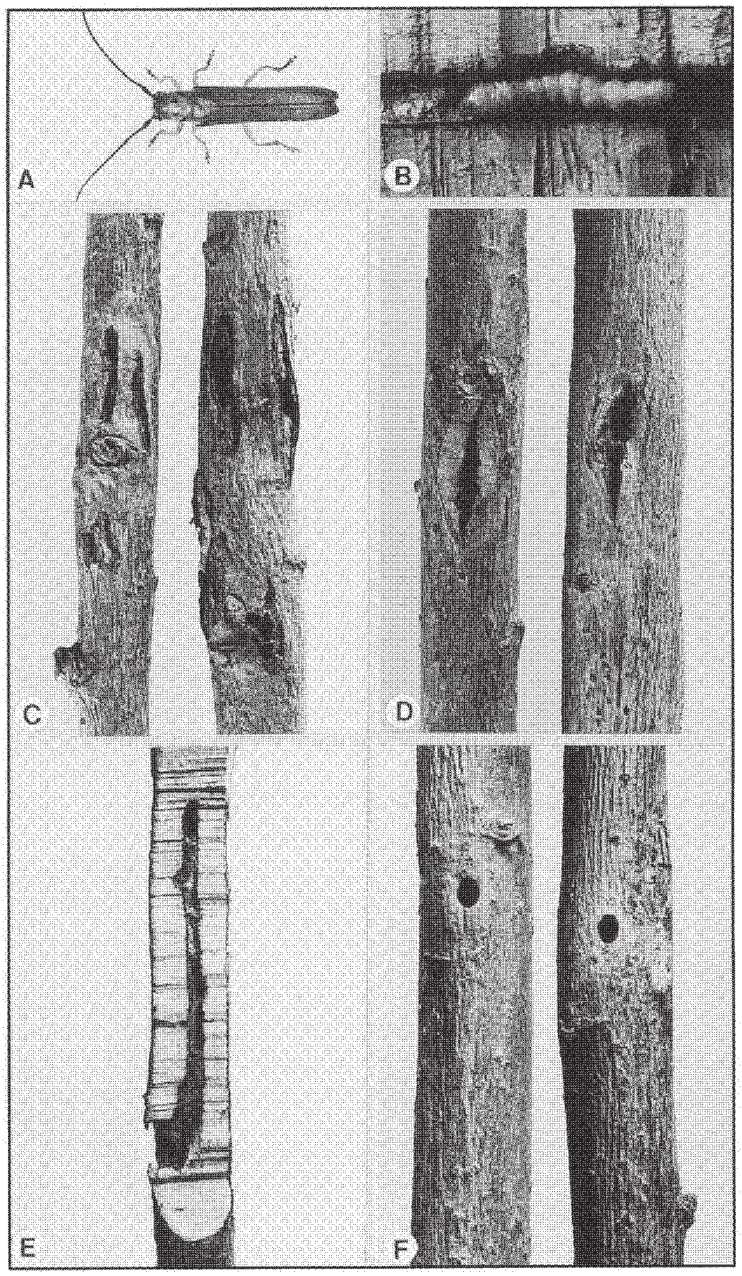


Figure 145—Oberea quadricallosa, *[western poplar branch borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, egg niche scars; D, larval entrances; E, larval gallery; F, oval emergence holes (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

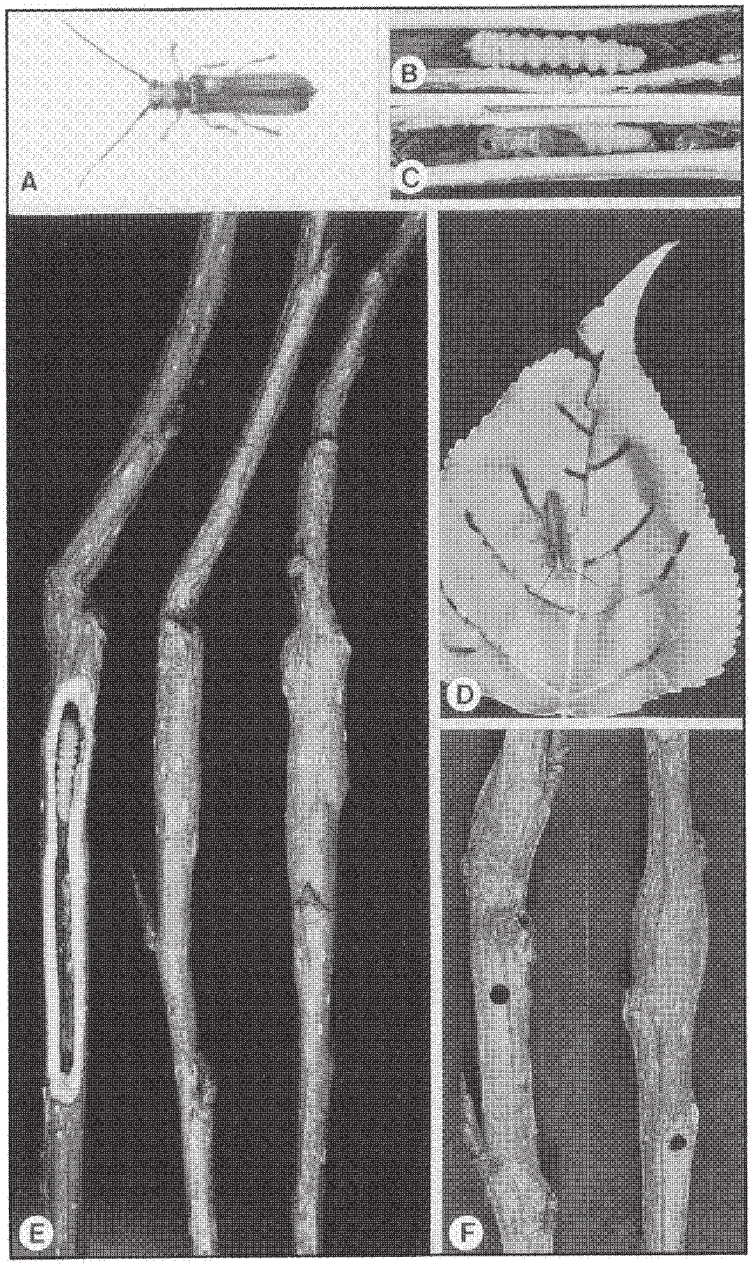


Figure 146—Oberea delongi, *[poplar twig borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, leaf vein-feeding injury by adults; E, twig swellings, slight crooks, and exposed gallery; F, round emergence holes in twigs.*

shorter. Coloration of head, prothorax, and ventral surfaces somewhat variable, ranging from yellow to black; legs yellow; and elytra usually black with outer margins yellow. Surfaces of elytra faintly ridged, with coarse punctures between ridges. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, cylindrical, about 3 mm long and 0.5 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** Greatly elongate, slender, and nearly cylindrical except body segments, which gradually decrease in width toward rear (figure 146B). Body smooth, shiny, and pale yellow except for brown head, dark brown mandibles, and light brown thoracic shield. Mature larvae about 19 mm long. ***Pupa.*** White and delicate and 8 to 12 mm long (figure 146C).

Biology. Adults emerge from April to June in the Deep South (Cook and Solomon 1976) and from mid-June through July in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977). Adults feed extensively on the leaf midribs and large lateral veins after they emerge and mate. Females deposit eggs singly in niches chewed in the bark with their mandibles, typically selecting green shoots 5 to 13 mm in diameter. The niches remain visible for weeks after oviposition has ended. Eggs hatch in about 2 weeks, and larvae tunnel down the center of the stem, expelling little or no frass from the entrance holes. Larvae continue to feed into fall and overwinter in the shoots, feed briefly the following spring, and pupate within shoot galleries in March. Completed galleries range from 63 to 76 mm long and 3 to 5 mm in diameter. This twig borer completes a life cycle in 1 year (Cook and Solomon 1976, Morris and others 1975).

Injury and damage. The beetles injure foliage by feeding on the leaf midribs and, primarily, lateral veins (figure 146D), indicating that females are ovipositing in nearby twigs (Morris and others 1975). Egg niches are most common on twigs 6 to 10 mm in diameter, but larvae may be found in stems up to 13 mm in diameter. Infested branches usually become enlarged and appear swollen or even gall-like and frequently become slightly crooked at the point of attack (figure 146E). Larvae of this borer do not make a series of holes at regular intervals through which to eject frass as do many other species of *Oberea*. Infested twigs and terminals may be stunted or die back and occasionally break, especially when worked by woodpeckers. Dissection of infested twigs reveals dark galleries, partially filled with frass and the yellowish, elongate larvae (figure 146E). Round, exit holes about 2.5 mm in diameter are left in the swollen portion of the stem, or slightly below, by the emerging beetles (figure 146F). Damage is most destructive when terminals are attacked, often producing crooked, deformed, or excessively branched trees. Infestations have been observed in nurseries, plantations, natural stands, and ornamentals, but damage has been greatest in young plantations, adversely affecting tree form in crop trees. Damage has been greatest in the lower Mississippi River Valley (Cook and Solomon 1976).

Control. Woodpeckers, especially the downy woodpecker, are among the most important natural controls (Cook and Solomon 1976). Local counts have estimated predation rates up to 60% during some

years. Unidentified diseases kill sizeable numbers of larvae, especially during wet springs. Direct controls have rarely been needed.

Oberea tripunctata (Swederus)

dogwood twig borer (figure 147)

Hosts. Dogwood, viburnum, elm, sourwood, blueberry, rhododendron, azalea, laurel, poplar, willow, mulberry. Dogwood is preferred, but elm is commonly attacked (Beal and others 1952, Dillon and Dillon 1972, Johnson and Lyon 1988). It occasionally infests fruit trees in the genera *Malus* and *Prunus* as well as many shrubs.

Range. Distribution corresponds closely with that of flowering dogwood in eastern and central North America; recorded from Maine south to Florida and west to Texas, Kansas, and North Dakota (Craighead 1923, Johnson and Lyon 1988).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slender longhorn beetle measuring about 14 mm long and 2.4 mm wide (figure 147A) (Knull 1946). Head black, but prothorax, greater part of underside of body, and legs yellow. Pronotum with two smooth, black dorsal bumps, and another black spot in front of scutellum. Pronotum broader than long and cylindrical, with convex upper surface. Elytra variable in color but generally yellowish tan with narrow, black line on inner margins and broader black line on lateral margins. ***Egg.*** Yellowish, cylindrical, and slightly curved; measures 3 to 4 mm long and about 0.5 mm in diameter (Driggers 1929). ***Larva.*** Mature larva pale yellow except for dark brown head; measures 19 to 25 mm long with head capsule width of 1.2 mm (figure 147B) (Craighead 1923, Ruggles 1915). Larvae smooth, shiny, legless, and cylindrical; body segments gradually decrease in width toward rear. ***Pupa.*** Yellowish white, measuring about 13 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge in April and May in north Georgia (Fattig 1947); common from May through July in Pennsylvania (Kirk and Knull 1926) and from late May to early August in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977). Peak oviposition on blueberries in New Jersey is late June and early July; oviposition apparently occurs at night (Driggers 1929). Before ovipositing, females make two rings of punctures, 13 to 25 mm apart, and from 7 to 15 cm from the tips of current shoots (figure 147C). They slit the bark between the girdling wounds lengthwise and insert eggs singly under one of the bark flaps (figure 147D). Newly hatched larvae bore into the stem between the two girdles, tunnel short distances toward the twig tip, then reverse direction and bore down the center of the stem. At regular intervals along the stem, larvae make small holes to the bark surface through which they expel frass. Larvae overwinter between two, fibrous frass plugs within the galleries. Galleries in elm twigs measure up to 15 cm long (Ruggles 1915). Mature larvae girdle the woody part of the stem, causing many stems to break. The larvae quickly plug the girdled openings. Pupation begins in April and May and occurs in small chambers behind fibrous frass plugs. The insect completes its life cycle in 1 year in the South and over much of its range (Forbes 1911, Johnson and Lyon 1988). However, it

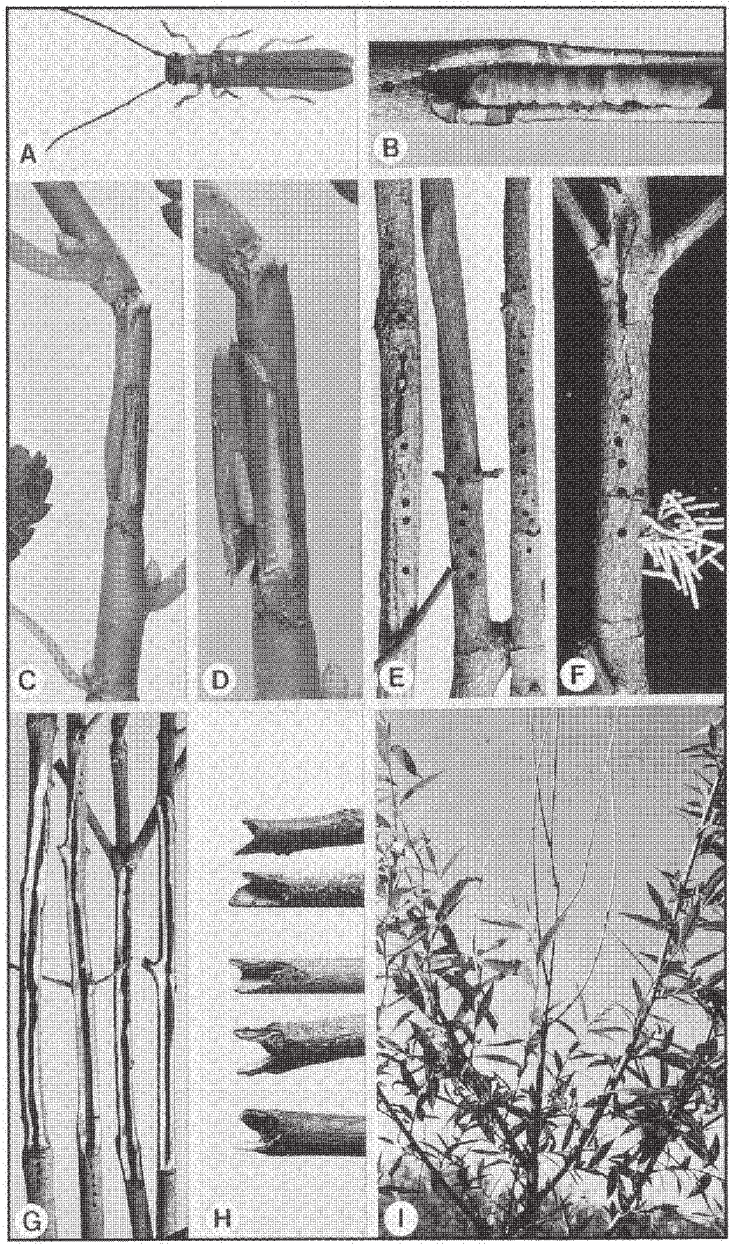


Figure 147—Oberea tripunctata, *dogwood twig borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, two oviposition girdles and egg site; D, bark flap pulled back to expose egg; E, linear rows of holes in twigs; F, pile of excrement pellet chains; G, long galleries; H, V-shaped stem girdles; I, willow terminal killed.*

requires a 2-year life cycle in Minnesota (Ruggles 1915) and a 3-year one is implied on blueberries in New Jersey (Driggers 1929).

Injury and damage. Wilting and dying of leaves on the tips of terminals and twigs during summer are usually the first signs of infestation (Driggers 1929, Forbes 1911, Johnson and Lyon 1988). Adults also feed on the leaves, making elongate elliptical holes along veins. As the season progresses, larvae bore down the centers of twigs toward the main stem, making rows of small holes at regular intervals in the bark along the twigs (figure 147E). Frass, in the form of excrement pellets adhering in long chains, is ejected from the small holes (figure 147F). Splitting the infested twigs reveals long narrow galleries in the stem centers (figure 147G). Stems are partially to completely girdled at one or more places by the larvae. Examining severed ends reveals characteristic V-shaped cuts (figure 147H). Terminals of young trees may be killed back for distances of several centimeters to 1 m (figure 147I). In seedlings, sprouts, and small shrublike plants (such as sourwood, blueberry, rhododendron, azalea, and laurel) larvae, in addition to killing the shoot tips, continue to burrow downward to the root crown or below until the entire aboveground plant is killed. Injury by this borer in the 1900's occasionally caused premature dropping of leaves and twigs of street elms in Minneapolis to such an extent that it appeared as if an early fall had arrived (Ruggles 1915). The insect has been very injurious to red-osier dogwood in Chicago parks (Forbes 1911). Cultivated blueberries in New Jersey are sometimes heavily damaged (Driggers 1929). Injury is much more important to ornamentals than in forests.

Control. Two species of hymenopterous parasites—*Bracon cerambycidiphagus* (Muesebeck) and *Cremastus orbus* (Davis)—have been reared (Carlson 1979, Marsh 1979). Rates of parasitism have varied from 50 to 80% (Driggers 1929, Ruggles 1915). Woodpeckers prey on the larvae. In ornamental plantings, the infested twigs should be pruned and destroyed before the adults begin emerging during spring. Ornamentals and nurseries can be protected with insecticides applied to the foliage and twigs during emergence and oviposition.

Oberea bimaculata (Olivier)

raspberry cane borer (figure 148)

Hosts. Raspberry, blackberry, poplar, persimmon, elm, dogwood, peach, plum, rose, apple, witch-hazel. Raspberry is preferred, but blackberry and other *Rubus* spp. are commonly attacked (Craighead 1923, Lintner 1889, Webster 1900b). Other species are attacked less often and more or less regionally.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States and southern Canada west to the Rocky Mountains (Chemsak and Linsley 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate, mostly black longhorn beetle about 13 mm long and 2.4 mm wide (figure 148A) (Knull 1946). Pronotum yellow with two smooth, black, raised bumps on middle upper surface and sometimes another black spot

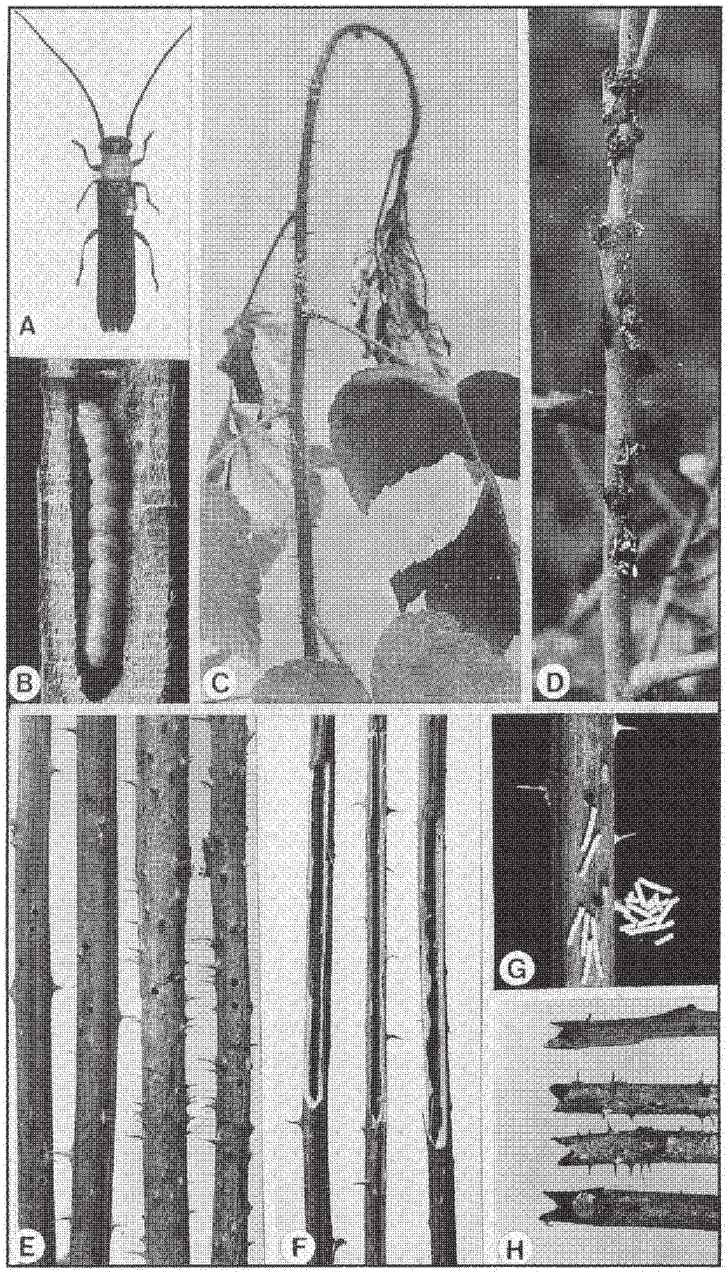


Figure 148—Oberea bimaculata, *raspberry cane borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, wilting, drooping raspberry cane; D, black exudate with frass on persimmon terminal; E, series of holes in canes; F, long galleries; G, excrement pellet chains; H, canes with V-shaped girdle.*

in front of base of elytra. Male antennae extend to apical fourth of elytra; female antennae somewhat shorter. Elytra elongate and truncate at apices; upper surfaces with longitudinal ridges and densely and coarsely punctured. ***Egg.*** Yellowish white, elongate, nearly cylindrical, slightly curved, rounded at both ends, and about 2.5 mm long (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 148B) 20 mm to 22 mm long, with elongate, slender, cylindrical, dull yellow body. Body clothed sparsely with yellowish, stiff, short hairs. Head much smaller than the first thoracic segment and dark brown; mandibles much darker than head (Lugger 1899, Webster 1904). Abdominal segments decrease in width posteriorly. ***Pupa.*** Uniformly light yellow and about 13 mm long (Webster 1904).

Biology. Adults emerge late May to early August in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977), late June to late July in South Dakota (Stein and Tagestad 1976), and somewhat earlier, during May and June, in warmer latitudes of Illinois southward (Webster 1904). Females make two rings of punctures about 13 mm apart, circling the stems 15 to 20 cm from the tips, and then insert single eggs through the bark between the two rings of punctures. Larvae tunnel downward in the pith 3 to 5 cm below the puncture wounds during the first summer, wintering in the shoots or canes (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). In the North, larvae continue to bore downward during the second year after eclosion, making numerous holes to the bark surface to expel frass; such injuries usually kill bearing canes before fruit matures. Larvae pass the second winter in their galleries at or near ground level. Pupation occurs in the tunnels during the second spring after oviposition; thus, the raspberry cane borer has a 2-year life cycle in its northern range. However, in its southern range north to the central United States, there is one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Wilting and drooping tender cane shoots (figure 148C) become noticeable soon after emerging adults make girdling punctures for oviposition. Later, injury becomes more conspicuous by the presence of dead leaves and tips of infested branches or canes in midsummer. Often, the dead tips break off in the wind (Lintner 1889), but those that do not break off remain attached to the canes long after the tops of the plants are dead, providing good evidence of infestation (McDaniel 1936). On persimmon, black gummy exudate mixed with frass can be found along infested stems (figure 148D). Larvae tunnel downward in the pith, periodically cutting small holes, often in straight rows to the surface of the bark to eject frass (figure 148E). Galleries and sometimes larvae can be found by slicing the stem longitudinally with a knife (figure 148F). Excrement pellets adhering end to end in long strands are ejected from the small holes (figure 148G). Larvae sometimes girdle the canes, with the severed ends exhibiting a V-shaped cut (figure 148H). Damage is worst where raspberry is produced commercially. Heavy borer populations may seriously prune growing shoots of both red and black raspberry plantings and in turn reduce fruit

production. Trees with branches killed repeatedly may gradually assume a scraggy, stunted, and misshapen appearance, with foliage growing in tufts.

Control. One dipterous parasite—*Lixophaga variabilis* (Coquillett)—has been reared (Arnaud 1978). Evidence of bird predation has been found on shoots and canes, but actual predation has not been observed. Wilting and drooping shoots should be pruned below the points of girdle as soon as observed (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Later, when entire canes die, they should be cut close to the ground and burned to destroy the developing larvae (McDaniel 1936). Chemical controls may be needed in commercial and ornamental plantings.

Oberea ruficollis (Fabricius)

[sassafras borer] (figure 149)

Hosts. Sassafras, spicebush. Sassafras is preferred (Champlain and others 1925). Adults have been collected on sumac, but this is not likely a larval host (Mutchler and Weiss 1923).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States, from Pennsylvania south to Georgia and west to Arkansas and Michigan, and in Ontario (Champlain and others 1925, Fattig 1947, Gosling and Gosling 1977, Hicks 1962).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, elongate, slender longhorn beetle measuring about 17 mm long and 3.8 mm wide (figure 149A) (Beal and others 1952, Knull 1946). Dark brown antennae extend beyond tips of elytra in males but do not reach tips in females. Head, prothorax, ventral surfaces, and legs brownish yellow (Knull 1946) to brick red (Beal and others 1952). Elytra covered with gray pubescence on black ground color. Pronotum broader than long, constricted in front and rear, with one median and two lateral callosites. Elytra elongate with tips truncated and surfaces faintly ridged longitudinally and densely and coarsely punctate. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 149B) very elongate, slender, cylindrical, smooth, shiny, and sparsely covered with short, yellowish brown hairs (Craighead 1923). Head brown and remainder of body pale yellow. Larvae legless, body segments gradually decrease in width from front to rear; 16 to 26 mm long. ***Pupa.*** Yellowish with darker eyes, mouthparts and wingpads; 15 to 18 mm long (figure 149C).

Biology. Adults emerge from late June to early August in Michigan (Gosling and Gosling 1977), during May and June in North Carolina (Beal and others 1952), from late April to early June in Mississippi. Females deposit eggs singly in niches chewed in the bark of terminals and near the tips of small branches. The egg niche is made between a double row of punctures chewed by the female, which ring the stem, girdling it and killing the shoot (figure 149D) (Beal and others 1952). Larvae feed downward, enter the main stem, and eventually bore into the base of the stem and the larger roots. Galleries are made in the wood (center of small stems) and may be 1 m or longer, but gallery lengths of 60 to 90 cm are most common. While tunneling in the stem, larvae periodically bore short galleries at right angles to the main gallery and through to the bark surface

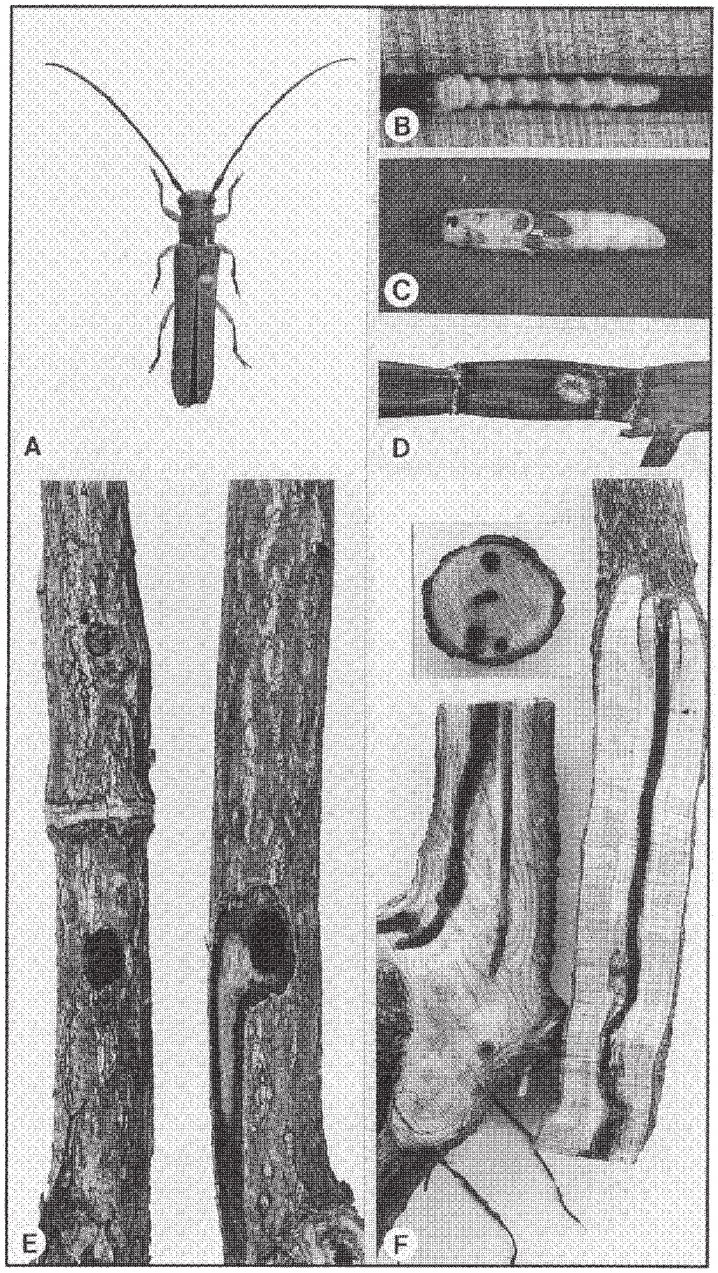


Figure 149—Oberea ruficollis, *[sassafras borer]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, pupa; D, egg site between girdles chewed in tender terminal; E, emergence holes; F, cross section and longitudinal section of galleries extending into root collar.*

to eject frass (Craighead 1923). They pupate in early to mid-April in the South in the gallery near ground level. Emerging adults chew exit holes directly through the bark (figure 149E). In the North, this borer requires 2 to 3 years to complete the life cycle (Craighead 1923). In the Piedmont of North Carolina, one generation per year has been reported (Beal and others 1952), whereas, in Mississippi, larvae of two sizes are commonly found, indicating a 2-year life cycle.

Injury and damage. The first evidence of infestation is wilting foliage on the terminal and branch tips (Craighead 1923, Beal and others 1952). Closer examination of the twig just below the wilt reveals a double ring of punctures around the stem with an egg niche between (figure 149D). As larval boring progresses toward and down the main stem, small holes may be present at regular intervals in the bark, through which frass is extruded. The frass consists mostly of short, cylindrical, excrement pellets, grayish yellow to light brown, and adhering end to end in strands up to 10 mm long. By the end of the second season of an attack, the entire young plant may be dead from extensive mining at the base of the main stem and in the larger roots (figure 149F). Young living sassafras trees from 6.3 to 51.0 mm in diameter are susceptible to attack. Adults leave irregular oval exit holes roughly 3 mm by 4 mm in the bark (figure 149E). Young plants, primarily large seedlings and young saplings, may be tunneled and frequently girdled and killed. Young growth in old fields and field borders has suffered most from infestation. This borer has commonly caused extensive mortality of young sassafras trees on the Piedmont of North Carolina and on similar sites in other states in the South (Beal and others 1952).

Control. Woodpeckers capture small numbers of larvae and pupae as indicated by excavation holes extending into the larval galleries. Direct controls are rarely needed except in ornamentals. Newly infested terminals and branches should be pruned just below the wilted and girdled sites and burned to destroy the young larvae.

Oberea gracilis (Fabricius)

[oak sprout oberea] (figure 150)

Host. Oak. White oak and southern red oak have been mentioned specifically (Turnbow and Hovore 1979), and the author has observed this pest in black oak. Other oak species probably serve as hosts also.

Range. Mainly in the Atlantic Coast region from Massachusetts and New York south to the southern Appalachians and Florida and west to Ohio (Hicks 1962, Knull 1946, Mutchler and Weiss 1923).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate longhorn beetle, 10 to 15 mm long (figure 150A) (Hicks 1962, Knull 1946, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Male antennae extend nearly to apices of elytra; those of female slightly shorter. Adults easily separated from those of closely related *Oberea* species by generally yellowish brown color and elytra with dark brown to black stripe along lateral margins (Turnbow and Hovore 1979). Tibiae, tarsi, and antennae dark brown to black. ***Larva.*** Very elongate, slender, cylindrical, and about 20 mm long at maturity (figure 150B). Larvae yellowish

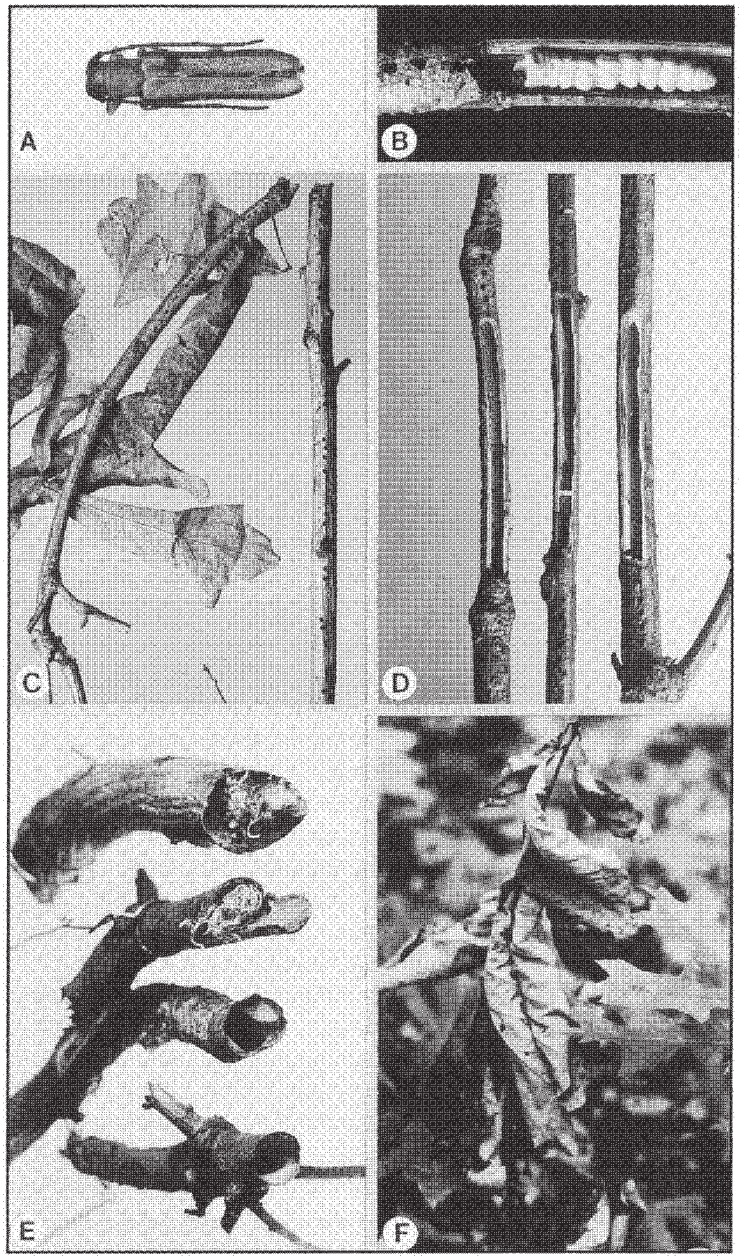


Figure 150—Oberea gracilis, *[oak sprout oberea]: A, adult; B, larva; C, severed oak sprout with linear series of holes; D, galleries in sprouts; E, oblique to V-shaped girdles and fibrous frass plugs; F, infested sprout dying with brown leaves.*

with dark mandibles, brownish yellow pronotum and small amber spiracles. Body shiny and covered with indistinct, fine, short yellowish setae. Larva legless, but abdominal segments with prominent ampullae.

Biology. Adults are present from April to August (Fattig 1947, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Females lay eggs on terminals of vigorous seedlings and sprouts. Larvae mine down one side of the stem and become inactive in their galleries during winter (Turnbow and Hovore 1979). In spring, they become active and mine farther down the stems. First-year larvae sometimes girdle stems, whereas second-year larvae nearly always girdle plants slightly above the soil surface. They tunnel into the root collar and roots and pupate. The next spring, adults apparently emerge through the frass plugs at the girdles. The life cycle requires 2 years in Georgia (Turnbow and Hovore 1979).

Injury and damage. Both seedlings and sprouts less than 0.5 m tall may be attacked, but sprouts seem preferred, probably because shoots and stems are thicker and more succulent. Larvae burrow into stems a few centimeters below the shoot apex and tunnel downward (Turnbow and Hovore 1979). The larvae expel frass through a linear series of small round holes along the stem (figure 150C). Dissection reveals hollowed-out stems (figure 150D). Infested stems typically are girdled from 10 to 15 cm above the soil surface. Severed ends of infested stems are usually cut off obliquely and less frequently as a V-shaped cut (figure 150E). Ends of stems containing the larvae are tightly plugged with fibrous frass. After girdling, infested plants die holding their dried brown leaves well into dormant season (figure 150F). Many girdled seedlings and sprouts break off during winter. Recently, this pest was troublesome in young plantations in north Georgia.

Control. Evidence of woodpecker predation exists, but no other natural enemies have been observed. Valuable plantings in heavily infested areas may require protection.

Oberea ocellata (Haldeman)

[sumac stem borer] (figure 151)

Hosts. Sumac, apple, peach, plum, pear, currant, blackberry. Prefers common sumac (Craighead 1950), but apple has been a favored host in some apple-growing areas of the East (Chittenden 1899, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Other fruit trees as well as blackberry and poison sumac are attacked occasionally (Mutchler and Weiss 1923).

Range. Widely distributed in the eastern and central United States from New York south to Florida and west to Kansas and Texas, and in Ontario (Chittenden 1899, Hicks 1962, Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Description. ***Adult.*** Slender, elongate, cylindrical longhorn beetle, 11 to 15 mm long, easily recognized by contrasting orange and black stripes (figure 151A) (Craighead 1950, Hicks 1962, Knull 1946, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Antennae and elytra dark brown to black with gray pubescence; legs bicolored, with reddish orange and black; pronotum reddish orange with two round black spots. Female antennae slightly shorter than male antennae. ***Larva.*** Legless, elongate, slender, cylindrical, and

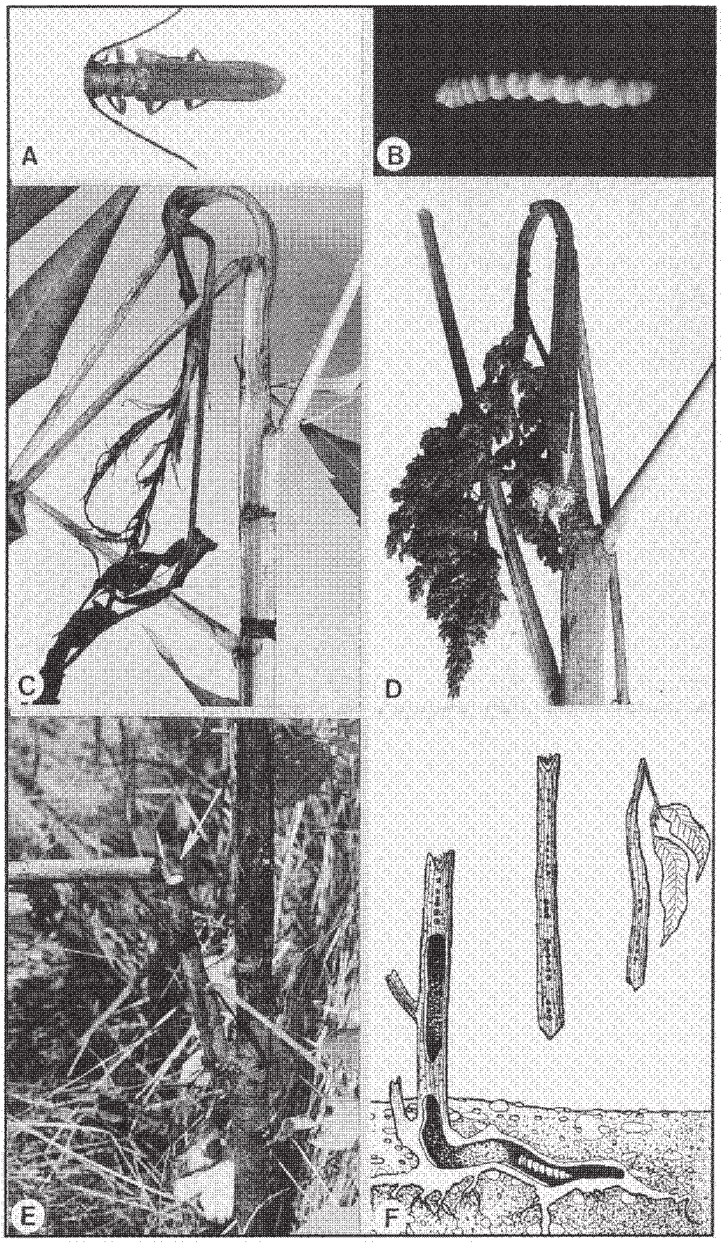


Figure 151—Oberea ocellata, *[sumac stem borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, drooping sumac terminal with two rings of girdles; D, dead sumac flower stem with fine frass ejected; E, sumac side shoot broken at girdle site; F, linear series of holes, V-shaped girdle, and gallery extending into roots.*

bright yellow with brownish, shield-shaped thoracic plate that is horny, roughened, and arises obliquely from head (figure 151B) (Craighead 1923, 1950; Mutchler and Weiss 1923). Mature larva about 13 mm long (Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Biology. Adults appear April to July, girdle new shoots, and lay eggs between the two girdles on the shoots (Craighead 1950). Larvae bore down the stems through the pith and wood well into the roots of small plants (Craighead 1950, Mutchler and Weiss 1923). They expel frass through small holes along the stems. Frass sometimes accumulates in small piles on the ground. During fall, larvae cut off the plants near the ground, plug the stub openings with wads of fibrous frass, and pupate a short distance below the plugs. Adults emerge the next spring (Craighead 1950, Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Injury and damage. Initial evidence of attack is wilting and dying shoots and twigs (Craighead 1950, Mutchler and Weiss 1923, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Inspection of wilting shoots reveals two rings of mandible girdles about 25 mm apart, 8 to 18 cm from the shoot tips (figure 151C). This pest sometimes girdles and kills shoots bearing flower heads (figure 151D). Succulent side shoots on woody stems also may be girdled and may break (figure 151E). Frass is ejected through pinlike holes cut at irregular intervals in the bark (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). In seedlings and sprouts, the larvae bore in the stems and roots and often cut off the plants by an oblique or V-shaped incision at one or more places, the last just above ground (figure 151F). Dissection reveals that the galleries extend from the stems several centimeters into the roots. In ornamentals and fruit orchards, the pest has been of considerable economic importance in the past. Heaviest infestations have been found in thick stands of small sumac growth on old-field sites bordering wooded areas.

Control. Control consists of pruning and burning all infested twigs and shoots of ornamental and orchard trees in spring before adults emerge (Mutchler and Weiss 1923, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Direct controls in orchards under recommended spray programs are not apt to be needed but may be needed occasionally for ornamentals.

Parandra brunnea (Fabricius)

[pole borer] (figure 152)

Hosts. Black walnut, hickory, willow, beech, chestnut, oak, elm, yellow-poplar, apple, pear, plum, cherry, locust, soft maple, basswood, black ash, poplar, sweetgum. The insect is a general feeder and probably attacks all hardwoods and some conifers (Brooks 1915, Snyder 1921).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States west to Colorado and southward to the upper Gulf of Mexico region (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Somewhat flat longhorn beetle that is shiny, mahogany brown, and 8 to 12 mm long (figure 152A) (USDA FS 1985). Varies in size, color, punctuation, and development of head parts (Linsley 1962a). Mandibles in males very prominent and elongate, with inner margins armed with three distinct teeth. Females more robust with shorter mandibles than males. ***Egg.*** Creamy white, oblong ovate

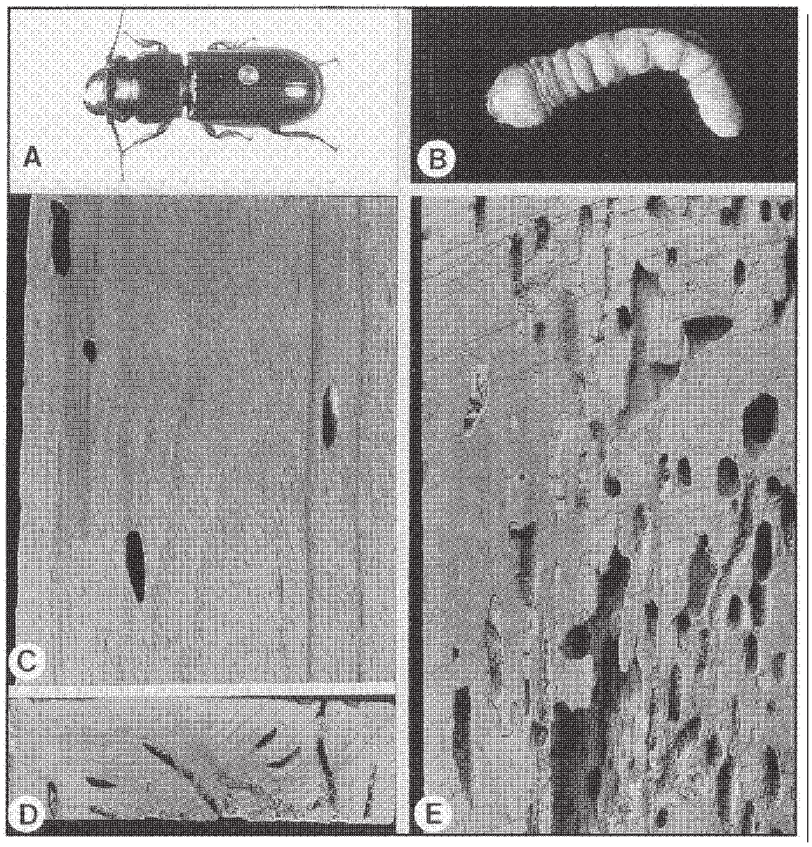


Figure 152—Parandra brunnea, *[pole borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, galleries in beech sapwood; D, cross section of galleries; E, ash honeycombed with galleries.*

with granular surface and about 1.5 mm by 0.5 mm. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white with black head and about 30 mm long at maturity (figure 152B) (Brooks 1915). Small thoracic legs present, and abdominal ampullae project abruptly (Craighead 1915).

Biology. Adults appear in midsummer, usually in July or August, but remain in the pupal chambers in decaying wood for several days before emerging (Brooks 1915). Many adults do not emerge but mate and lay eggs inside the cavities (Kotinsky 1921). Egg laying begins soon after beetles leave the pupal chambers. Females make small openings in the exposed wood and deposit 1 egg at each site but lay them in clusters of up to 12. In the initial attack on the tree, females insert eggs into the wood of dead areas from the exterior; however, in later generations, eggs are deposited in either the solid or decayed wood that forms the gallery walls or other openings in the tree where the beetles can enter (Brooks 1915). Newly hatched larvae feed away from the egg sites and through the wood in winding or zigzag courses. Galleries, packed throughout most of their length with larval frass, honeycomb the affected parts of trees. Single burrows may meander for 1 m or more. Larvae usually feed in sound wood, so each succeeding generation enlarges and extends the area of decay (Brooks 1915). Pupation occurs in cells at the ends of the larval tunnels. The pupal stage lasts 10 to 14 days (Brooks 1915). A generation may require 3 or 4 years (USDA FS 1985).

Injury and damage. The pole borer attacks living trees almost always near the base, usually where the sapwood is exposed, such as in wounds and scars caused by mechanical bruises, cavities from improper pruning, sunscald, winter injury, fire blight, collar rot, storm injury, and other borers (Brooks 1915, Craighead 1915, Kotinsky 1921). This borer rarely attacks trees that have healthy bark and are free of injuries. Burrows begin in exposed wood and usually proceed upward but may extend throughout the adjacent heartwood and occasionally into the surrounding live sapwood (figure 152C and D). Other boring insects and fungi soon appear and help to accelerate damage. Within a few years, the infested portion of a tree, including the heartwood and a part of the sapwood, may be completely honeycombed (figure 152E), leaving only a covering shell of sapwood intact. A tree so affected may continue to live but will be in danger of falling during even light windstorms. The habits of this borer of always entering the wood at dead spots and cavities and of ejecting little or no frass to the surface (frass is packed within the galleries) distinguish it from most other borers. Sometimes, wounds where larvae enter living trees heal so that injury is not visible (USDA FS 1985). Injury appears most prevalent in older trees in sunny, exposed positions; thus, the insect seems more common in shade and ornamental trees in towns and cities than in forests. It often seriously injures fruit trees in orchards and sometimes seriously damages wood products including logs, crossties, telephone and power line poles, and structural timbers in contact with the ground or in moist locations (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Enemies include two hymenopterous parasites—*Odontacolon mellipes* (Say) (Brooks 1915) and *Pimpla* sp. (Linsley 1962a)—as well as the olive-sided flycatcher (Brooks 1915). The most important feature of control is to prevent injury to trees by maintaining them in vigorous condition. Avoiding damage to the trunk and lower branches is basic to preventing attacks because damage often begins in exposed dead wood. To mechanically remove this borer from trees, it is necessary to cut out all of the wood through which the borer galleries extend, the borers usually being present in large numbers and scattered throughout the decayed and adjacent live wood. The excavation should be cleaned completely of infested decayed wood and filled with cement or other fill material. All cut and injured surfaces should receive regular treatment to protect them against attack from insects and microorganisms. Chemical treatment of injured and susceptible areas on valuable trees may be helpful in preventing infestation.

Prionus imbricornis (Linnaeus)

tilehorned prionus (figure 153)

Hosts. Oak, chestnut, pear, apple, grape, pecan. Oak, chestnut, and pecan preferred; fruit trees heavily infested in small localized areas (Linsley 1962a, Payne and others 1970, Summerland 1932). Hardwoods and some herbaceous plants mentioned.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States from southern New England to Florida and westward to Nebraska and Texas (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very large, robust longhorn beetle, shiny dark reddish brown (figure 153A) (Knull 1946, Linsley 1962a). Males average 31 mm long; females 42 mm. Antennae of males 18 to 20 joints and those of females 16 to 18 joints. Male antennae extend to middle of elytra; female antennae slenderer, barely reach basal third of elytra (Blatchley 1910). Head depressed between eyes and coarsely punctured. Pronotum convex, two or more times as wide as long, depressed along lateral margins; anterior and median lateral teeth prominent and blunt. ***Egg.*** Pale to bright yellow, slightly larger at one end, very finely punctured and from 3.6 to 4.2 mm long (Mullins 1975, Summerland 1932). ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 153B) creamy white to yellowish and up to 9 cm long (Payne and others 1976). Larvae have trapezoid heads that are widest behind. Integument tough and shiny (Craighead 1915). ***Pupa.*** Large, robust, and creamy white to yellowish with smooth shiny skin and abdominal segments prominently separated like accordian pleats.

Biology. Adults fly June to September (Linsley 1962a). They are nocturnal and hide during the day beneath debris or loose bark, usually at the bases of trees (Payne and others 1970). Females normally deposit 100 to 200 eggs in groups in the soil at bases of trees. As many as 254 eggs have been found in 1 female (Mullins 1975). Young larvae feed in the bark of roots before penetrating heartwood; later, larger roots may be completely hollowed out and smaller roots consumed. To pupate, larvae leave the roots, tunnel through the soil up to 1 m,

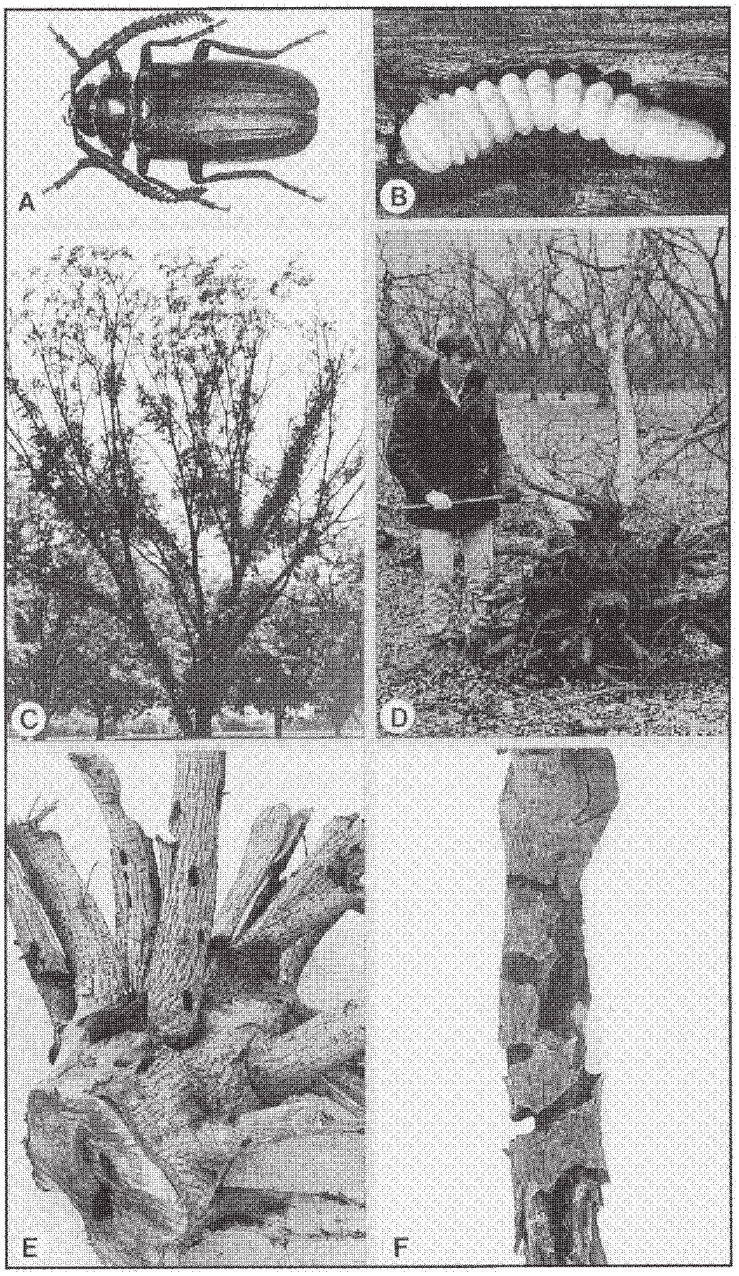


Figure 153—Prionus imbricornis, *tilehorned prionus: A, adult; B, larva; C, weakened infested pecan with thinning crown; D, borer study of excavated roots; E, holes and feeding injury in pecan roots; F, girdled and damaged pecan root (courtesy J. Payne).*

and construct pupal cells within 10 cm of the surface. The pupal cells are a mixture of organic and mineral soil held together by larval secretions. Cells are oval and measure about 7.0 by 4.5 cm (Craighead 1915). Developmental period lasts 3 to 5 years (Payne and others 1976).

Injury and damage. Exclusively a root feeder; the only aboveground symptoms of attack are gradual thinning and yellowing of foliage and limb-by-limb mortality (figure 153C). Young trees are sometimes chewed off just below the surface and the root systems devoured (Summerland 1932). Established trees frequently have one or two small roots left near the surface that keep them alive until the wind blows them over. Larvae may work on the surface of roots, sometimes girdling them; others burrow within roots, honeycombing them. Although small trees may be killed quickly, mortality in large trees is usually gradual. It is difficult to attribute the death of trees to the root borer because symptoms appear gradually (Payne and others 1970). To verify the presence of borers, one must excavate (figure 153D) or expose the larger roots from the root crown outward for a few meters. Excavated roots have burrows and large, oval holes in the root collar and roots (figure 153E). Large galleries, sometimes 5 cm in diameter, often packed with frass and soil can be seen on the surface of roots. Large yellowish white larvae are usually found in some galleries. Many roots will be girdled, completely honeycombed, or severed (figure 153F). Mature trees growing in open stands and in heavily used recreation areas are especially subject to attack. This borer has been a major cause of pecan tree decline and mortality throughout the pecan-growing region of Georgia, where 3 to 10% of the trees in many groves have been attacked (Payne and others 1976). A study in Georgia (Sparks and others 1974) found that declining trees infested by root borers produced significantly fewer nuts, and had shorter shoots and lower leaf weight than uninfested or lightly attacked trees. Apple orchards sometimes suffer high mortality rates. In 1 study plot, all apple trees were infested with up to 67 borers per tree (Summerland 1932).

Control. Little published information exists on natural enemies and other biotic factors that regulate populations. Several insecticides and soil fumigants tested in Georgia pecan groves showed that fumigants are the most effective chemicals for control of the borer when applied to the soil (Payne and others 1976). In tests, larval mortality was 100% when the fumigant was placed at depths of 30 cm. Disease, drought, mechanical injury, and poor soil conditions increase tree susceptibility. Cultural practices that keep trees thrifty and vigorous can help to minimize damage.

Prionus laticollis (Drury)

broadnecked root borer (figure 154)

Hosts. Oak, poplar, basswood, chestnut, apple, pecan, grape, pine, cherry, dogwood, maple, rhododendron. Favors oak, poplar, chestnut, and apple (Beal and others 1952, Farrar and Kerr 1968, Linsley 1962a, Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955).

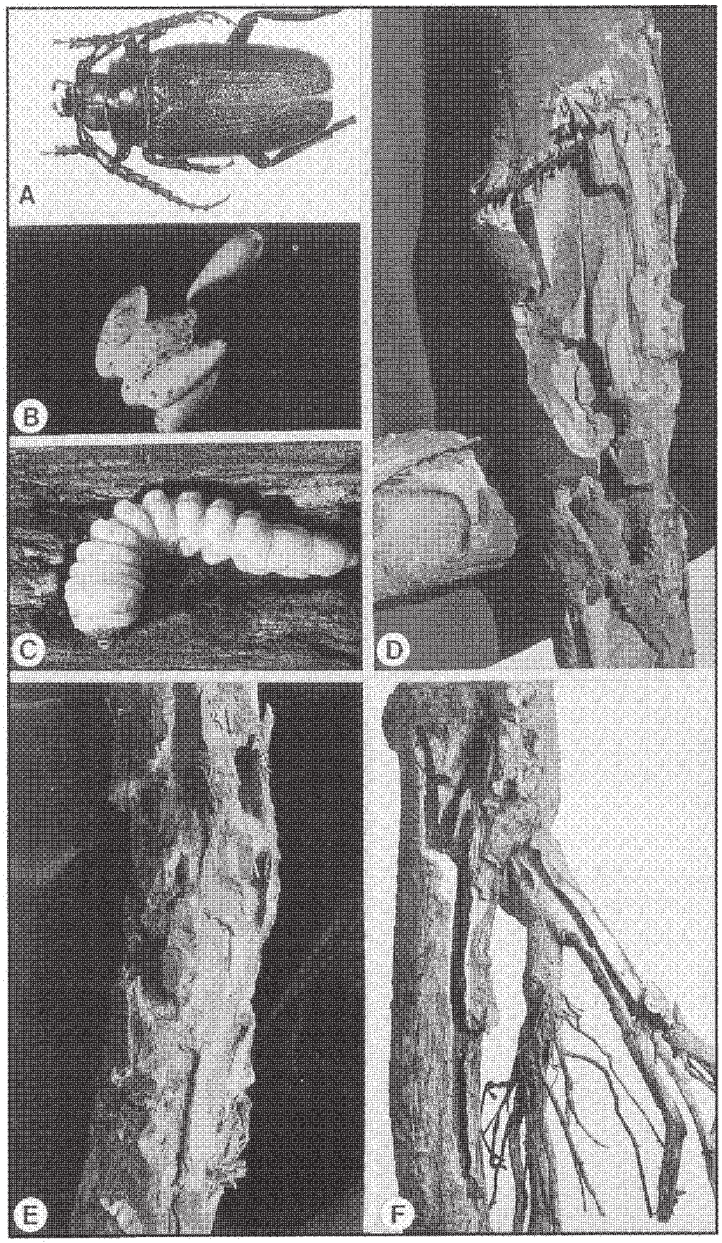


Figure 154—Prionus laticollis, *broadnecked root borer: A, adult; B, eggs; C, larva; D, root-surface feeding and girdling; E, galleries extending into and honeycombing root; F, longitudinal galleries in small roots (B, courtesy R. Farrar; specimens C-F, courtesy W. Johnson).*

Range. Southern Canada and throughout the eastern United States westward to Oklahoma (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, robust longhorn beetle from 22 to 32 mm long for males and 31 to 44 mm for females (figure 154A) (Knull 1946, Linsley 1962a). Body shiny, dark, brownish black. Head depressed between eyes; antennae have 12 segments. Antennae reach just beyond middle of elytra in males and just beyond base of elytra in females. Pronotum as wide as base of elytra, convex, depressed along margins, and each lateral margin bears three broad teeth. Each elytron has three slightly elevated ridges running lengthwise, and the surface is roughly, coarsely, and very irregularly punctured. ***Egg.*** Irregularly punctate and glossy yellow when deposited; darkens and loses glossiness after several days (figure 154B). Averages 1.4 mm wide and 3.5 mm long; both ends rounded with one end slightly larger (Farrar and Kerr 1968). ***Larva.*** About 9 cm long when mature, creamy white to yellowish with elongate, cylindrical, tapering body (figure 154C) (Craighead 1915, Payne and others 1970). Reddish hue visible beneath tough, shiny skin (Benham and Farrar 1976). Head dark brown to black, wider than long, and partly retracted into large fleshy prothorax. ***Pupa.*** Large and robust, white to cream colored when formed and gradually darkens with maturity; 21 to 57 mm long (Benham 1969).

Biology. Adults emerge and males fly June to August (Farrar and Kerr 1968, Linsley 1962a). Males fly readily and are difficult to collect except around lights; females have never been observed to fly (Benham and Farrar 1976). The digestive tracts of pupae atrophy as they become adults, which may explain why adults do not feed on foliage or roots (Benham and Farrar 1976). Studies in Rhode Island showed that 15 females contained an average of 643 eggs each and deposited an average of 388 eggs (Farrar and Kerr 1968). Eggs are deposited singly or in small clusters of 2 to 10 in the soil around tree bases at depths of 1.2 to 3.8 cm. Larvae molt seven times during their development. Larvae hatch by chewing jagged holes in the larger ends of the egg shells. Newly hatched larvae molt to the second instar after about 1 month. After hatching, the larvae move through the soil and feed on the bark of the roots. They move from root to root through the soil, feeding on smaller root surfaces, causing many wounds. They overwinter as second- or third-instar larvae, depending upon time of hatching (Benham and Farrar 1976). As larvae mature, they feed more intensively in the larger roots close to the root crown, where roots up to 8 cm in diameter may be severed, honeycombed, or completely hollowed. Larvae leave the roots and move to within about 10 cm of the soil surface to pupate. Most pupae are within 30 cm of the tree base. Larvae pupate in earthen cells slightly larger than the enclosed pupa; inner walls are smooth and contain a small amount of debris. Larger cells measure about 33 by 50 mm. The pupal stage lasts about 25 days (Benham 1969). One generation is completed in 3 to 4 years.

Injury and damage. Primary aboveground symptoms of attack are gradual thinning and yellowing of foliage throughout the crown and gradual limb-by-limb mortality, eventually ending in tree death (Payne and others 1970). Since these symptoms are characteristic of prolonged drought or other severe stress, correct diagnosis based on aboveground evidence is difficult. Symptoms often resemble nutrient deficiency in that the leaves may be sparse, small, and pale green to yellowish. Excavation may reveal that many of the smaller roots have been completely consumed. These insects commonly chew away large patches of bark, sometimes girdling the roots (figure 154D). Burrows often extend into and through large roots, frequently honeycombing the interior (figure 154E). In small roots, many of the galleries extend longitudinally just beneath the surface (figure 154F). Larvae cut off small trees at the root collar or just below the soil line. Serious damage and malformation of trees have been reported throughout the South (Beal and others 1952). In recent years, large numbers of bearing apple trees were abandoned in Rhode Island orchards due to damage from this borer (Benham and Farrar 1976). This borer and its close relative—*P. imbricornis*—annually kill significant numbers of trees and reduce crop yields in Georgia pecan groves (Payne and others 1970). Together these borers are capable of destroying from 75 to 90% of the roots of infested trees. They seldom cause substantial damage in natural forests. However, they can destroy open-grown trees in parks, pastures, orchards, and along streets.

Control. Natural controls include a tachnid fly parasite of prepupae, five species of pathogenic bacteria, cannibalism when larval galleries intersect, and subfreezing temperatures for those larvae that fail to move below the frost line in northern areas (Benham and Farrar 1976). Because attacks are most commonly associated with conditions that stress and weaken trees, cultural practices that keep trees healthy should be followed. New plantings should be made some distance away from heavily infested orchards and tracts of woodland. Soil-applied insecticides and fumigants have shown some promise for control (Payne and others 1976).

Prionus californicus Motschulsky

California prionus (figure 155)

Hosts. Oak, walnut, chestnut, poplar, willow, serviceberry, eucalyptus, madrone, apple, pear, almond, peach, cherry, plum, quince, alder, hop. Particularly prevalent in oak, madrone, poplar, and apple (Essig 1929, Linsley 1962a). Reportedly attacks some conifers, brambles, and certain shrubs.

Range. Alaska south through western Canada and the Pacific Coast region into Baja California in Mexico and east into the Rocky Mountains to Colorado and New Mexico (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, robust longhorn beetle with shiny reddish brown to black body (figure 155A) (Linsley 1962a). Males 24 to 45 mm long, females 38 to 55 mm. Male antennae robust and more than two-thirds as long as body; female antennae slender and only half as long as body.

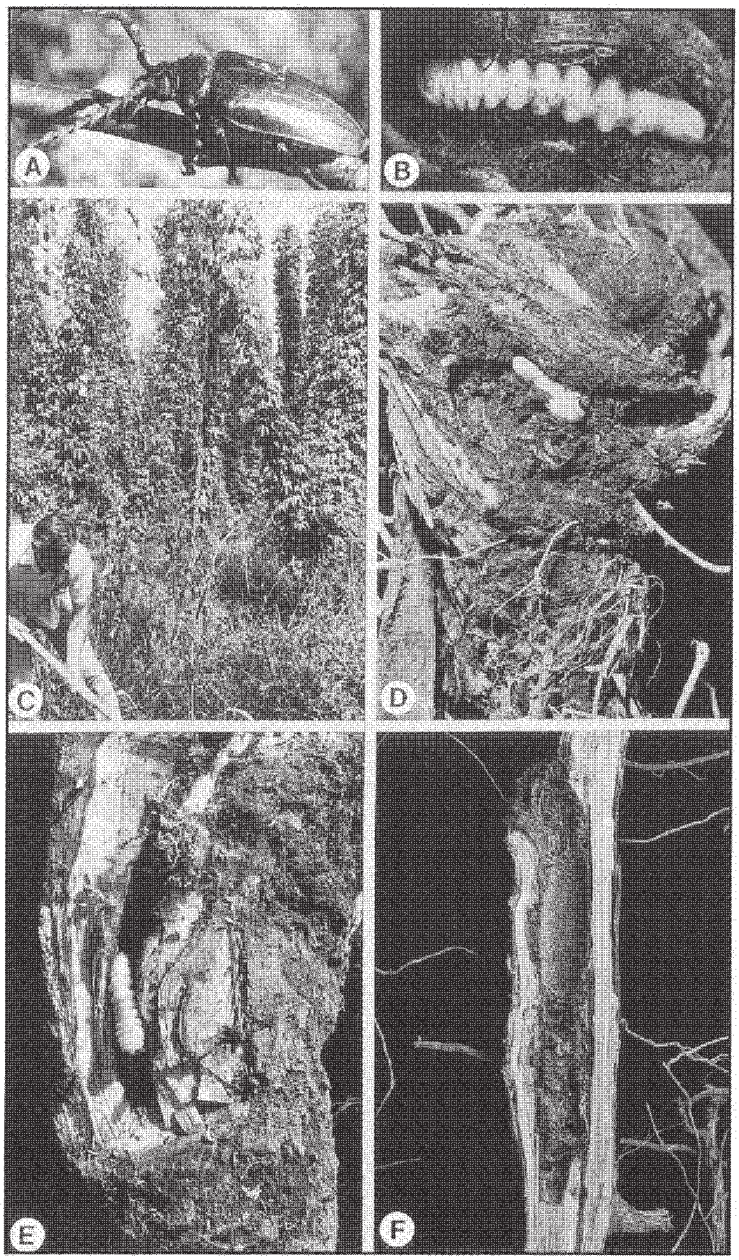


Figure 155—Prionus californicus, *California prionus: A, adult; B, larva; C, infested hop garden weakened by borers; D, crown of hop plant being destroyed by borers; E, large tree root with gallery; F, small root hollowed out (courtesy G. Bishop).*

Thorax narrower than base of elytra. Pronotum polished, sparsely punctate, with prominent, spinelike lateral teeth. Elytra less than twice as long as basal width, hairless, and with three ridges running lengthwise. ***Egg.*** About 4.8 mm long, about twice as long as wide, yellowish brown, with thick chitinous shell (Crawford and Eyer 1928, Eyer 1942). ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 155B) about 8 cm long, thick as a man's index finger, deep creamy yellow, and occasionally with reddish brown hue beneath skin. Mandibles large, black, powerful, and capable of inflicting severe wound. Body segments gradually taper toward rear, integument relatively smooth and shiny, and head usually partially retracted. ***Pupa.*** Yellowish white and measures about 38 mm long and 34 mm wide (Craighead 1915).

Biology. Adults fly from June to September (Linsley 1962a). They are nocturnal and often attracted to light (Essig 1929). Females lay eggs in the soil at tree base, singly or in small clusters as with other *Prionus* species (Eyer 1942). Young larvae bore into the bark at the base and when about 25 mm long begin penetrating roots. Larval mines are packed with sawdust and soil (Craighead 1915). Smaller roots may be severed, whereas larger roots and the root crown may be girdled or completely honeycombed with galleries up to 50 mm wide (Crawford and Eyer 1928). After the third or fourth year of development, larvae leave the roots in early spring and construct tunnels in the soil up to 0.9 m long and about 15 cm deep. Larvae line tunnels with frass or debris, then construct pupation chambers at one end. Pupation in southern New Mexico occurs in late May and early June, and adults emerge soon afterward. The life cycle requires 3 to 4 years (Bishop and others 1984, Crawford and Eyer 1928).

Injury and damage. First evidence of injury is dwarfing and yellowing of foliage (figure 155C) followed by defoliation and drying and cracking bark on larger branches; plants often die the following season (Crawford and Eyer 1928). Crowns of severely infested hop plants are sometimes reduced to masses of frass and rot (figure 155D) (Bishop and others 1984). Trees on sandy soils may be killed within a few years of initial attack; nearby plantings on heavy clay soils develop with little injury. Apple orchards on medium- to heavy-clay soils rarely show injury until they are 15 years old (Eyer 1942). Sometimes the boles of trees are severely girdled just below ground, and tunneling damage (figure 155E) to larger roots may be so extensive that trees are easily pushed or blown over (Linsley 1962a). Only the shells of smaller roots may be left after larval feeding (figure 155F). Exposing roots reveals both galleries and feeding larvae. This pest is a serious enemy of apple trees in the Mesilla and other fruit-growing sections of New Mexico (Crawford and Eyer 1928). As many as 22 borers have been found in the roots of trees 10 to 15 years old. Heavy infestations frequently girdle trees. Also, these borers cause death, stag top, stunting, and distorted growth of oaks and other hosts along the Pacific Coast. Hop yards in Idaho have been seriously damaged in recent years (Bishop and others 1984).

Control. Few natural enemies have been found. One parasitic fly—*Sarcophagarapax* Walker—was reared from an adult beetle (Leech 1947). Good cultural practices such as fertilization, irrigation, and weed control help to promote tree vigor and lessen susceptibility to attack. Light, sandy soils should be avoided as planting sites for new orchards in areas of repeated damage, as damage has been most severe on coarse textured soils (Eyer 1942). Soil-applied fumigants put out early in the season and directed at newly hatched larvae have given about 50% control (Crawford and Eyer 1928).

Archodontes melanopus melanopus (Linnaeus)

[live oak root borer] (figure 156)

Hosts. Oak, hackberry, sugarberry, boxelder, persimmon, pecan, apple. Oak, particularly live oak, appears to be major host (Beutenmuller 1896, Herrick 1904, Linsley 1962a, Packard 1890, Riley 1880). Also commonly infests turkey oak and water oak.

Range. Virginia to Florida and westward to Arkansas and east Texas (Linsley 1962a, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Broad, elongate, heavy, rather flattened, dark brown to black longhorn beetle with sides subparallel (figure 156A) (Herrick 1904, Linsley 1962a, USDA FS 1985). Pronotum narrower than base of elytra with sides converging anteriorly and usually serrate or dentate. Elytra about 2.5 times as long as wide. Antennae reach basal one-third of elytra in males and slightly shorter in females. One of the largest beetles in the United States, measuring 33 to 57 mm long and up to 16 mm wide. ***Larva.*** Robust, cylindrical, smooth texture, shiny, white, and sparsely hairy with three pairs of tiny thoracic legs (figure 156B) (Craighead 1915). Larvae vary from 76 to 90 mm long and about as thick as a forefinger (Herrick 1904). Resembles larvae of *Orthosoma brunneum* (Forster) but much heavier and thicker (Packard 1890).

Biology. Adults begin emerging in May and June and are present until September (Linsley 1962a). Females prefer small saplings for oviposition and deposit eggs at the base of the tree, typically at the root collar and just below groundline. The newly hatched larvae burrow into the root collar and down into the roots, where they make large, flattened, oval galleries that become surrounded with gall-like growth, well out of proportion to aboveground growth. The gall-like enlargements are appropriated for the domiciles of the larvae. Portions of the galleries are typically packed with frass. Larval growth apparently requires several years (Packard 1890, Herrick 1904).

Injury and damage. Injury is characterized by large galleries in the wood from the root collar downward into the roots (figure 156C and D) (Herrick 1904, Packard 1890, USDA FS 1985). Bark at root collar and at places along infested roots may be cracked or ruptured, exposing tightly packed frass in portions of the larval burrows (figure 156E). Also, irregular to oval holes may occur in bark (figure 156F). This pest attacks trees of all sizes but prefers young trees, especially sap-

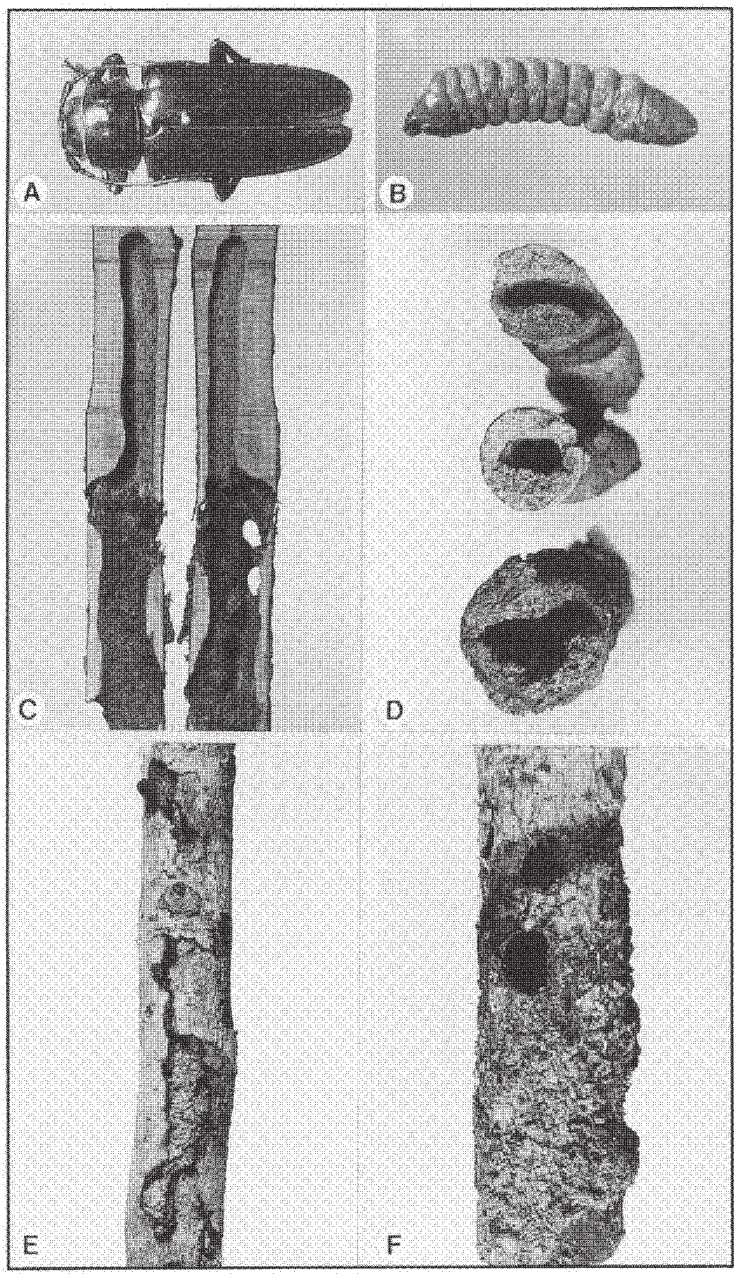


Figure 156—Archodontes melanopus melanopus, *[live oak root borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, hollowed out root; D, oval to flattened gallery in cross section; E, infested root with openings and frass; F, oval holes in infested root (A & C, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

lings. It sometimes kills roots, resulting in very few new rootlets being formed. Old roots excavated by larvae constantly grow new woody layers that are in turn eaten away, eventually producing gigantic root galls. The galled roots may become gnarled and tangled. Heavily infested trees often die back to the ground and are replaced by a cluster of smaller, straggling suckers, often forming clumps of sprouts or underbrush. Decay is usually associated with root and root-collar injuries. Damage has been particularly severe in south Georgia and Florida, where this borer has been largely responsible for the creation of large, relatively barren areas of scrub oak (Packard 1890). On extremely sandy sites, forest stands have been reduced to scattered oak bushes that barely suffice to cover the sand.

Control. Little is known about control, but the root collars of valuable trees in problem areas should be examined frequently for evidence of this borer's presence. Either the larvae should be dug out or the burrows probed with a wire to kill the larvae (Herrick 1904).

Archodontes melanopus serrulatus (LeConte)

[poplar root borer]

Hosts. Poplar, mesquite. Cottonwood and common mesquite preferred (Leng 1884, Linsley 1962a).

Range. Subspecies found from central Texas west through New Mexico into Arizona and in Mexico (Leng 1884, Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, robust, broad, elongate longhorn beetle, somewhat flattened and dark brown (Leng 1884, Linsley 1962a). One of largest beetles in this country, ranging from 39 to 62 mm long. Similar to *A. m. melanopus*, but lateral margins of pronotum crenulate rather than dentate or serrate, and beetles average slightly larger. ***Larva.*** Robust, cylindrical, white, and shiny; may reach 9 cm long when mature.

Biology. Adults are present June to September (Leng 1884, Linsley 1962a), active at night, and occasionally attracted to light. Females deposit eggs at bases of host trees. New larvae bore into roots and feed. Life cycle requires 3 to 5 years.

Injury and damage. Large, irregular burrows are made in the root collars and roots of hosts (Linsley 1962a). Frass is packed in portions of the galleries. The larvae bore in the roots, weakening and sometimes killing trees.

Control. Keeping trees healthy and vigorous helps to minimize damage. Nothing is known of natural controls.

Archodontes melanopus aridus (Casey)

[willow root borer]

Hosts. Willow. Western species of willow are the only recorded hosts, but adults have been taken in flight around baccharis, indicating possible host status.

Range. Found in hosts growing only along the Colorado River in California and Arizona (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, elongate longhorn beetle, rather flattened and dark brown (Linsley 1962a). Similar in appearance to *A. m. melanopus*

and *A. m. serrulatus*, but smaller, sides more parallel, and edges of protonum crenulate rather then serrate or dentate. Adults 21 to 43 mm long.

Biology. Adults have been recorded during July and August (Linsley 1962a). They become active at dusk and can be found on or around host trees. Females deposit eggs around the root collar and groundline. Larvae bore into the roots, and the life cycle probably requires 3 or more years.

Injury and damage. Burrows and galleries can be found in the roots of host trees (Linsley 1962a). Galleries may be partially to completely packed with frass. Weakened trees may succumb to heavy tunneling.

Control. Cultural practices that keep trees healthy will help to minimize injury. Little is known about natural and other controls.

Stenodontes dasytomus dasytomus (Say)

[hardwood stump borer] (figure 157)

Hosts. Oak, hackberry, willow, sycamore, boxelder, hickory, sweetgum, elm. Reported from Australian pine, a deciduous exotic in south Florida. Probably attacks many other deciduous broadleaf trees (Beutenmuller 1896, Hovore and others 1987, Linsley 1962a, Thomas 1977).

Range. Virginia south to Florida and west to Arizona (Craighead 1915, Thomas 1977); also found in eastern and northern Mexico (Hovore and others 1987, Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, elongate, somewhat flattened, reddish brown to dark brown longhorn beetle 23 to 47 mm long (figure 157A) (Craighead 1915, Linsley 1962a). Head large and coarsely punctured. Prothorax wide; sides armed with many small flattened teeth. Antennae reach basal third of elytra in males and slightly shorter in females. Genae bidentate; protonum of male has distinct polished facets, frequently reunited posteriorly, and distinctly punctated. ***Larva.*** Robust, cylindrical with smooth shiny skin, sparsely hairy; and can reach 64 mm long when mature (figure 157B). Head wider than long, retracted into prothorax, and front produced in smooth transverse carina. Two small groups of 5 to 10 chitinous points found on underside of prothorax. Small thoracic legs present, and ampullae bear two transverse impressions. ***Pupa.*** White, head glabrous, and protonum and abdomen with many fine to coarse asperites.

Biology. Most adults emerge from May to July, but a few have been found as early as April in south Florida, and some have been collected in other areas as late as October (Hovore and others 1987, Linsley 1962a, Riley 1880, Thomas 1977). Females deposit eggs around wounds where the wood is exposed, at or near the base of trees, and in sites that have been previously infested. Larvae bore into the sapwood and heartwood where they feed close together for 3 to 4 years. They make large, meandering tunnels and eventually honeycomb the heartwood. Mature larvae prepare pupation cells in galleries deep in the tree by plugging them with fibrous frass. Emerging adults chew holes directly through the wood and bark. Larvae can complete development in dying or recently dead trees.

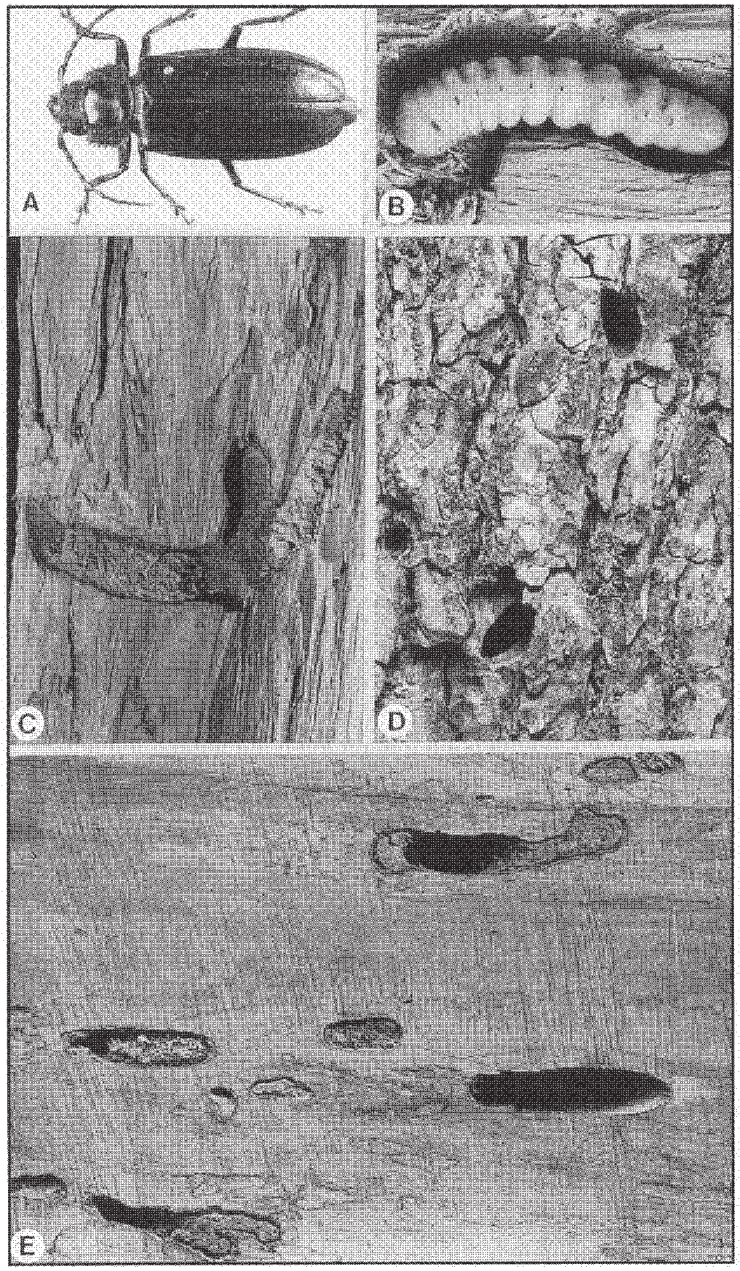


Figure 157—Stenodontes dasytomus dasytomus, *[hardwood stump borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, fibrous frass-packed gallery in wood; D, large, oval emergence holes in bark; E, large holes in lumber.*

Injury and damage. Infestations often go unnoticed until trees are weakened and break. At the point of break, which usually occurs in the basal portion of the tree, large, flattened oval tunnels that measure up to 8 by 22 mm and are packed with coarse, fibrous frass can be observed (figure 157C) (Craighead 1915). The heartwood at the point of infestation may be completely honeycombed with galleries. Although little frass is ejected to the outside, large, oval emergence holes 8 by 18 mm (figure 157D) are left in standing trees after a few years. Trees with basal wounds within the range of this borer should be suspect, and regular inspections are recommended. Wood products cut from infested portions of trees have numerous large galleries, some packed with frass (figure 157E). Shade trees with little support from the canopy of surrounding trees, as in a forest stand, have been particularly susceptible to breakage. Wood products sawn from infested trees are degraded and reduced in value. Crossties and other wood products in contact with the ground are also subject to attack and damage (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Woodpecker excavation holes have been found in infested trees, but little is known of these or other natural enemies. Shade trees should be kept healthy and vigorous, and basal wounds should be avoided. Fresh wounds should be promptly treated or filled to avoid borer attacks.

Stenodontes dasytomus masticator (Thomson)

[Arizona sycamore borer]

Hosts. Sycamore, alder. Arizona sycamore appears to be major host (Linsley 1962a, Linsley and others 1961).

Range. Arizona, south through Mexico to Colombia (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, elongate, slightly flattened, and reddish brown to dark brown to black longhorn beetle; 23 to 47 mm long (Linsley 1962a). Adults distinguished from those of *S. d. dasytomus* by genae tridentate; pronotum of male with polished facets small, completely separated; punctation fine. ***Larva.*** Robust, cylindrical, smoothly shiny, sparsely hairy, with small thoracic legs, and up to 64 mm long when mature.

Biology. Adults are present during July and August (Linsley 1962a, Linsley and others 1961) and remain near their burrows for some time after transforming, secreting themselves in the burrows or under loose bark during the day. In early evening, adults can be seen with heads and antennae protruding from the large exit holes or crawling over the surface nearby. Females deposit eggs around wounds and injuries, especially sunscald injuries, and sometimes back into exit holes of previously infested trees to oviposit. Larvae burrow through the wood, packing the galleries with frass. After pupating, adults emerge through large, oval, exit holes cut to the surface by larvae.

Injury and damage. Injuries are characterized by large mines filled with coarse, fibrous frass. Attacks are mostly on the west side of trunks and in association with sunscald injuries and occasionally on branches (Linsley and others 1961). Broken trunks or branches

reveal galleries and sometimes large larvae. The heartwood of repeatedly attacked trees will be honeycombed with burrows. These pests are particularly abundant in host trees in ravines near Portal, Arizona (Linsley and others 1961).

Control. Adults are preyed upon by nocturnal birds, especially the great horned owl and bats. Also, larvae of the large eye-marked elaterid—*Alaus zuniana* Casey—are predacious on the borer larvae (Linsley and others 1961). Valuable trees should be protected from sunscald and other injuries to prevent infestation.

Stenodontes lobigenis (Bates)

[southwestern stump borer]

Hosts. Mesquite, peppertree, fig, baccharis, blue paloverde. Peppertree is favored in ornamental plantings (Linsley and Ross 1940).

Range. Southwestern United States from Texas to southern California, and in western Mexico, including Baja California (Linsley 1962a).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, flattened, and dark reddish brown or brown longhorn beetle (Linsley 1962a). Mandibles long (1.75 times length of head) and extend prominently forward. Antennae reach to about middle of elytra in males and slightly shorter in females. Adults 20 to 42 mm long.

Biology. Adults are present from June to September (Linsley 1962a, Linsley and Ross 1940). They hide during the day and become active at dusk and early evening, when they mate and oviposit. Larvae are primarily root feeders but frequently work upward into the bole of the tree. However, most bole tunneling occurs in the basal 2 m of the trunk.

Injury and damage. Injuries consist of extensive, large galleries mostly filled with coarse frass. Damage occurs primarily in lower trunk and roots (Linsley and Ross 1940). Repeated attacks gradually hollow out the heartwood. Infested trees that break near the base either above or below the ground line usually show extensive evidence of tunneling in the heartwood. Breakage often exposes some tunneling larvae. In the desert resort towns of southern California, especially Palm Springs, this borer has been very destructive to shade and ornamental trees.

Control. Immatures and adults are preyed upon by larvae of the large elaterid—*Chalcolenpidius rubripennis* LeConte (Hovore 1988). Cultural practices that keep the tree vigorous and prevent bark injuries help to minimize infestation and damage.

Desmocerus palliatus (Forester)

[elder borer] (figure 158)

Host. Elder. Wild and ornamental elder, particularly American elder and European elder (Herrick 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1972).

Range. Throughout the eastern and central United States west to Kansas and north to Ontario (Craighead 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1972).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, subcylindrical, robust longhorn beetle measuring 18 to 27 mm long (figure 158A) (Linsley and Chemsak 1972, McDaniel 1936, USDA FS 1985). Beetle bright, metallic blue or

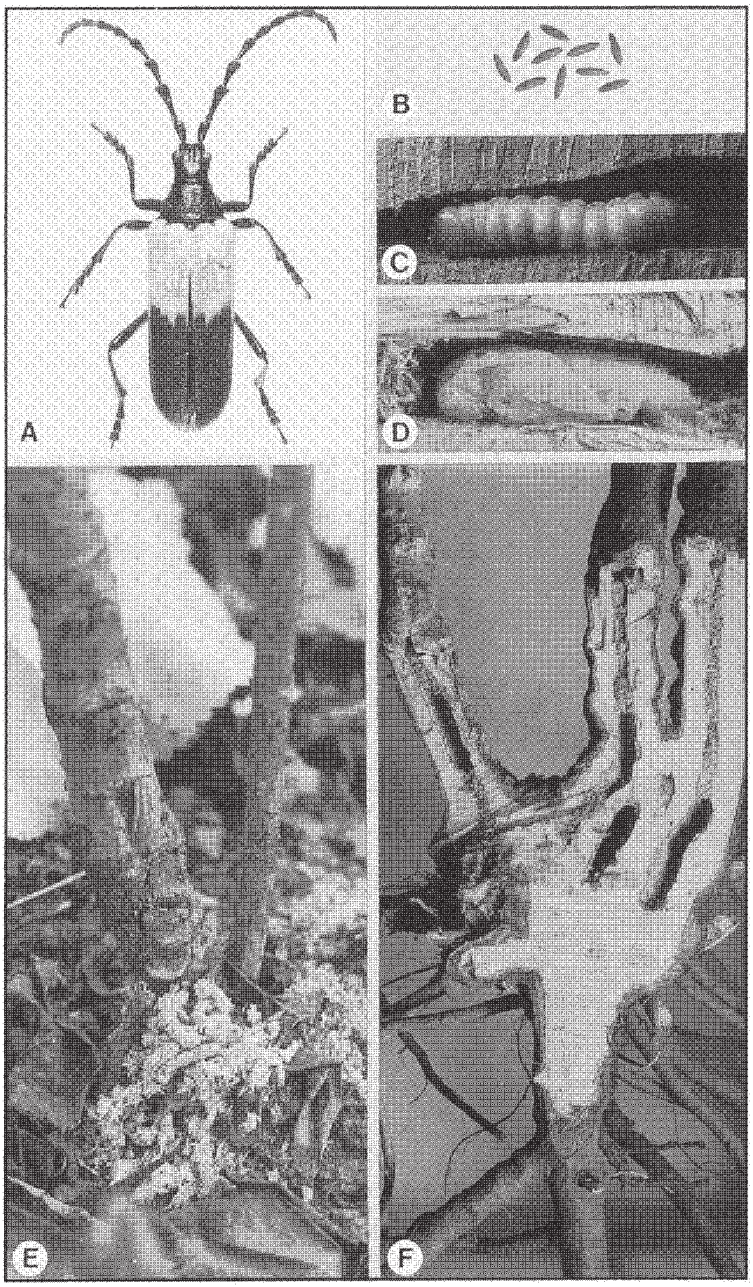


Figure 158—Desmocerus palliatus, *[elder borer]: A, adult; B, eggs; C, larva; D, pupa; E, pile of frass at base of American elder clump; F, galleries in lower stems and roots of elder.*

violet with basal third to half of elytra yellow to yellowish orange except for two small, black spots along basal margin of elytra. Antennae extend to about middle of elytra in females and slightly longer in males. ***Egg.*** Yellowish brown, fusiform in shape, about 3 mm long, and surface longitudinally wrinkled (figure 158B) (Herrick 1923). ***Larva.*** Creamy white and shiny with brown head and black mandibles and about 25 mm long (figure 158C) (Herrick 1923). ***Pupa.*** Yellowish white and 15 to 24 mm long (figure 158D).

Biology. Adults emerge April to June and feed on leaves and flowers through July (Burke 1921, Craighead 1923, Herrick 1923, McDaniel 1936). Females deposit eggs on bark; some reportedly deposit on foliage. Larvae burrow into the pith of stems where they tunnel and feed. Larvae excavate galleries 12 to 20 cm long and 8 to 10 mm in diameter. Galleries are packed with fine frass initially, later with coarse and excelsior-like frass as larvae develop and are enlarged somewhat for the pupal chambers. Mature larvae tunnel in roots below the surface and usually reverse their direction and pupate in the galleries at or just below the soil surface. Pupation occurs in April and May. Life cycle varies from 1 year in the Deep South to 2 or 3 years elsewhere (USDA FS 1985).

Injury and damage. Coarse, fibrous frass is usually extruded in large quantities at the base of infested stems (figure 158E) (Craighead 1923, McDaniel 1936). Exit holes occur at the base of stems up to 15 to 20 cm above the soil line (Herrick 1923). Dieback and mortality may be evident in heavily infested plants. Dissection of infested plants reveals frass-packed tunnels and larvae in lower stems and roots (figure 158F). Injuries may greatly mar the symmetry and beauty of ornamental shrubs (Herrick 1923). Conversely, the insect is considered useful by some who consider its wild hosts to be troublesome plants.

Control. Controls may be needed to protect ornamental shrubs. Fumigants applied in April or insecticides directed at the adult stage on the foliage and stems and applied in May and June can help to minimize losses (Herrick 1923). Nothing is known of natural controls.

Desmocerus californicus Horn

[California elder borer] (figure 159)

Host. Elder. Blue elder is only recorded host (Davis and Comstock 1924, Linsley and Chemsak 1972).

Range. Coastal region and lower Sacramento Valley to the upper San Joaquin Valley in northern and central California (Linsley and Chemsak 1972).

Description. ***Adult.*** Colorful, blue-black and red-orange (fading to yellowish postmortem) longhorn beetle; male 13 to 20 mm long and female 18 to 25 mm long (figure 159A) (Burke 1921, Davis and Comstock 1924, Linsley and Chemsak 1972). Robust; elytra subparallel, tapering apically. Antennae reach middle of elytra in female and slightly longer in male. Two subspecies distinguishable. In *D. californicus californicus* Horn, the elytra of males are mostly blue black with margins reddish orange, whereas in *D. c. dimor-*

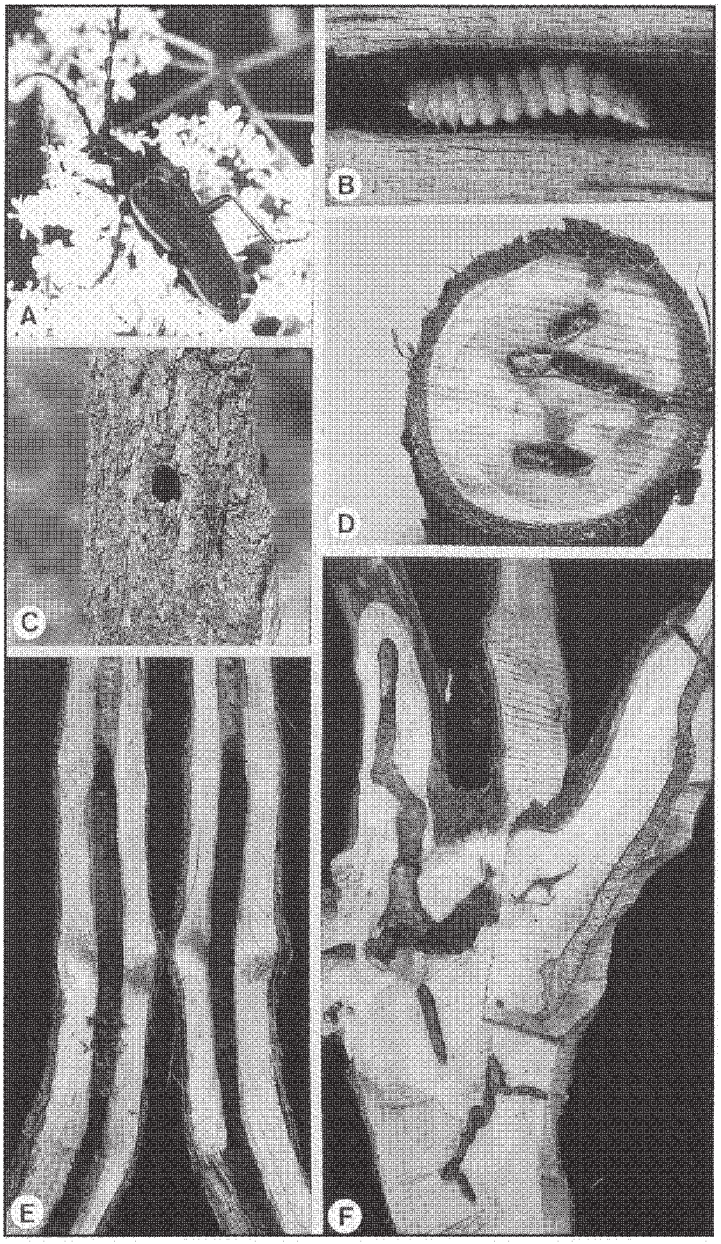


Figure 159—Desmocerus californicus, *[California elder borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, oval emergence hole; D, cross section of galleries in blue elder; E, longitudinal gallery in pith of small stem; F, frass-packed galleries in lower stems and roots (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

phus Fisher males, the elytral dark pattern is reduced to four, oblong, blue-black spots (Linsley and Chemsak 1972). ***Egg.*** White, becoming brownish white to reddish brown, oblong, pointed at both ends, surface marked with heavy reticulation, and about 3.5 mm long and 1.3 mm in diameter (Burke 1921). ***Larva.*** Elongate, subcylindrical, thoracic segments somewhat flattened, yellowish white with brown head and black mandibles, and about 25 mm long (figure 159B) (Davis and Comstock 1924).

Biology. Adults emerge in March or April and can be found as late as August (Davis and Comstock 1924, Linsley and Chemsak 1972). They feed and rest on foliage and are active during morning hours (Davis 1931). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices, often tucked under the bark at scars or in the wood where small branches have been broken. Newly hatched larvae enter the bark and wander for some distance before entering the wood. Typically, larvae mine into the pith, but in large trunks, they remain in the wood and complete development without reaching the pith. As larvae tunnel, they make lateral mines to the surface at irregular intervals to eject frass. Mature larvae bore to the surface, retreat for several centimeters, and plug galleries with shredded frass to form pupal cells, usually in the pith. Pupation begins as early as January or February and lasts 1 month. A generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Coarse, fibrous, yellowish white frass is extruded from openings in the bark and on the ground near the base of infested plants (Burke 1921). Oval exit holes 6 to 8 mm in diameter (figure 159C) and oval scars on the bark in the lower trunks may be observed. In cross section, the galleries are mostly flattened ovals partly filled with frass (figure 159D). In small stems, the galleries typically occur in the pith and may be 12 to 20 cm long (figure 159E). In large stems and in roots, the burrows are more irregular, shorter, and sometimes largely filled with coarse, fibrous frass (figure 159F). The insect seldom causes mortality, except when it heavily infests plants (Burke 1921). However, blue elder, a commonly used dooryard shade tree in California, is sometimes threatened and may require protection.

Control. Insecticides applied to the foliage and stems, and timed to coincide with early adult emergence, provide protection for ornamental plantings. Natural controls have not been recorded.

Desmocerus auripennis Chevrolat

[golden-winged elder borer] (figure 160)

Host. Elder. Pacific red elder, blackbead elder, and blue elder are attacked (Linsley and Chemsak 1972, Essig 1929).

Range. Through the Sierra Nevada and northern Rocky Mountains east and north from coastal California to Nevada, Montana, and British Columbia (Burke 1921, Essig 1929, Linsley and Chemsak 1972).

Description. Four subspecies have been described on the basis of size, color pattern, pubescence, and distribution, but intermediate populations present a transition from one subspecies to another (Linsley and Chemsak

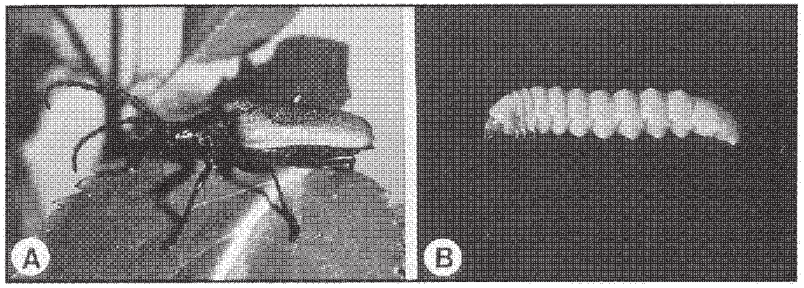


Figure 160—Desmocerus auripennis, *[golden-winged elder borer]: A, adult; B, larva (courtesy F. Hovore).*

1972). They will be treated together here.
Adult. Medium to large, robust longhorn beetle from 11.5 to 30.0 mm long (figure 160A) (Burke 1921, Linsley and Chemsak 1972, Webb 1905). Head, antennae, thorax, and legs dark metallic blue or violaceous. Elytra golden orange or red orange (fading to yellow postmortem), usually concolorous in males, with blue-black median pattern varying widely in size in females. ***Larva.*** Creamy white with brown head and black mandibles and about 25 mm long when mature (figure 160B). Larvae distinguishable from other members of genus only by taxonomists (Craighead 1923).

Biology. Adults emerge in April and May, are most common in June and July, and can be found through August (Burke 1921, Craighead 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1972). Adults feed on foliage and flowers. Females deposit eggs in crevices on bark of trunks and branches. Young larvae mine through to the pith, where they feed until grown. Several larvae may occupy one stem, but galleries are usually kept separate. Galls up to 25 mm in diameter sometimes form from tunneling at the base of plants. Larvae feed on the abnormal tissue inside the galls. Mature larvae mine to the surface and then retreat into the pith, plugging the burrows with shredded frass to form pupation chambers. Pupation begins in March. A life cycle requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Large swellings or galls, particularly at the bases of stems, provide evidence of infestation (Burke 1921, Craighead 1923, Linsley and Chemsak 1972). Dissection of galls and stems reveals larval burrows and larvae. Coarse, fibrous frass ejected from bark openings provides additional evidence of infestation. Mortality occurs only when populations are high.

Control. Chemical sprays during the adult stage on leaves and stems can protect ornamentals.

Leptura pacifica (Linsley)

[California scrub oak borer] (figure 161)

Host. Oak. Reared from California scrub oak (Skiles and others 1978). Probably infests other oak species on the same sites.

Range. The arid mountains and yucca flats of southern California, where its hosts are found; however, full geographic distribution has not been determined.

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate and cylindrical longhorn beetle with body tapering posteriorly; 10 to 14 mm long (figure 161A) (Linsley and Chemsak 1976). Antennae about as long as body with bases partially surrounded by eyes. Adults vary from all black, except for abdomen, to yellow-marked elytra and yellow legs. Typical specimens have yellowish elytra with black transverse band at basal and apical third and two black lateral spots at middle. Apices of elytra diverge slightly along midline, and tips are obliquely truncate. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 161B) yellow orange, about 10 mm long with well-developed thoracic legs (Skiles and others 1978). ***Pupa.*** Yellowish, slender, and about 11 mm long (figure 161C).

Biology. Adults emerge during May and early June and are active daytime flyers (Skiles and others 1978). Little is known

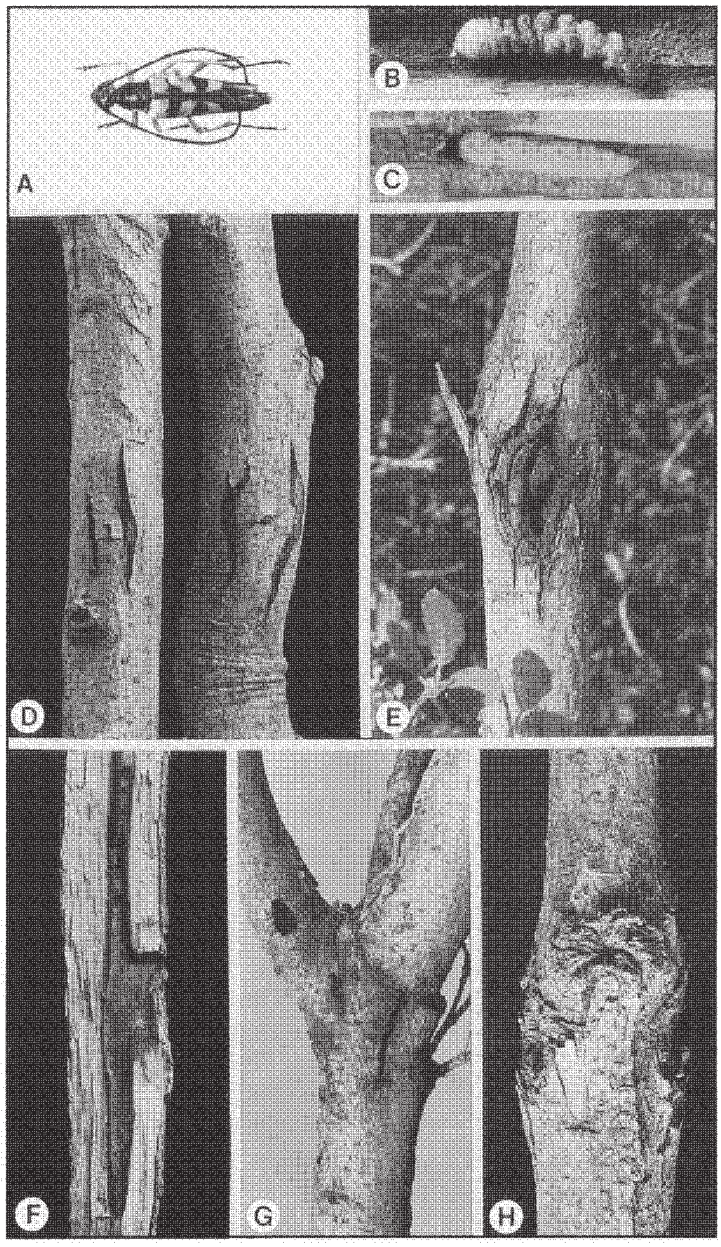


Figure 161—Leptura pacifica, *[California scrub oak borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, early larval attack sites; E, old larval attack site partially plugged with frass; F, gallery; G, oval emergence holes; H, puckered scar over old attack (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

about adult activity and oviposition. Early in their development, larvae slightly rupture the bark, but the openings seldom show much sign of having been used to expel frass. The oval larval galleries run in the heartwood parallel to the grain and are usually 15 to 20 cm long at pupation. Larvae burrow repeatedly up and down the branch, enlarging the galleries and partially filling them with a compact mixture of excrement and excelsior-like frass. As the larvae enlarge their galleries, they generally construct one or more additional openings through the bark. One or more of these openings are about 4 by 6 mm and plugged with a tight wad of excelsior-like frass. Larvae pupate just below the larger openings, and the new adults ultimately chew oval holes, often through the frass plug, to emerge. The life cycle is about 3 years, as larvae of two distinct sizes are found during and immediately after the adults fly. *Leptura pacifica* is frequently found in close association with another cerambycid borer—*Purpuricenus dimidiatus* LeConte—whose habits are remarkably similar. Larvae of *L. pacifica*, however, do not girdle branches, but their tunneling may kill small branches. Galleries of the two species may merge and completely overlap, particularly in dying branches. Often *L. pacifica* appears to rework the galleries and frass of *P. dimidiatus* (Skiles and others 1978).

Injury and damage. Chlorotic foliage and dead or dying branches indicate infestation (Skiles and others 1978). Small elongate openings in the bark evidence early larval attack (figure 161D). These openings are gradually enlarged, and infested stems may become slightly swollen (figure 161E). Such openings may or may not be plugged with excelsior-like frass. Splitting infested stems reveals galleries extending usually to the pith and then longitudinally in both directions from the entrance (figure 161F). The walls of the galleries and adjacent wood are usually stained by fungi. Adults leave oval exit holes in the branches (figure 161G). Entrance and exit holes heal to form oval irregular puckered scars on the bark (figure 161H). California scrub oak is most often a shrub 1 to 3 m high with several stems rising directly from the root crown. Infestations occur in the healthy living branches 1 to 3 cm in diameter and in dying and recently dead branches up to 5 cm in diameter. Occasionally, larvae burrow downward in the wood below the ground surface and into the root crown. In dead or dying branches, infestation occurs most often at bases, adjacent to the living wood. Because its hosts are not commercially valuable species, this borer is of little economic importance. However, the hosts serve as important cover in arid areas and as browse for sheep, goats, deer, and other wildlife, so that the borer could cause environmental harm.

Control. Natural control agents have not been reported, and artificial control measures have not been needed.

Strophiona nitens (Forster)

[chestnut bark borer]

Hosts. Chestnut, oak, hickory, walnut, beech, maple. Favors chestnut followed by

oak; attacks other species less frequently (Linsley and Chemsak 1976).

Range. Massachusetts south to Florida and west to Colorado and in parts of southern Canada (Linsley and Chemsak 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, moderately elongate longhorn beetle 10 to 15 mm long (Linsley and Chemsak 1976). Light brown antennae extend to about middle of elytra (Knull 1946). Velvety black body with golden yellow bands on margins of thorax; four transverse yellow bands on each elytron; the elytral bands widen toward midline (Craighead 1950). Underside of thorax densely clothed with recumbent golden hairs (Linsley and Chemsak 1976). Elytra about twice as long as wide, tapered posteriorly, tips obliquely truncate, each bearing short spine at outer angle (Linsley and Chemsak 1976). ***Larva.*** Head and general body form flattened (Craighead 1923). Head sparsely clothed with short, stiff hairs; body hairs coarse and chestnut colored. Legs very slender with long end-segment. ***Pupa.*** Similar in form to adult, forked spine on last abdominal segment, and covered with very stiff, short, reddish brown hairs that taper sharply at tips.

Biology. Adults emerge from May to July and feed on flowers. Females deposit eggs in bark crevices at moist areas. Larvae bore into the bark, forming large, irregular galleries that they pack with coarse, fibrous frass. Larvae feed mostly on the bast fibers in living bark and destroy patches of cambium. Some frass is ejected from the bark opening. Pupation occurs during May and June in the bark mine in an oval cell lined with fibrous frass. Life cycle is 2 to 3 years (Craighead 1950).

Injury and damage. Only external evidence of infestation is one or more holes in the thick, moist bark in limb crotches or near the tree base. Coarse, fibrous frass may be expelled through holes in the bark (Craighead 1950). Larval galleries occur largely in the outer bark and occasionally extend to the cambium and surface of the sapwood. Burrows are usually large, irregular, almost cavelike. Galleries are packed with coarse, fibrous frass and sometimes meander or radiate in several directions, particularly when more than one larva is feeding. Infested trees rarely die from insect feeding. This pest reportedly helped bring about the rapid destruction of American chestnut because of its habit of feeding in living bark, thus creating infection courts for spores of the chestnut blight fungus, *Cryphonectria parasitica* (Murrill) Barr. In the southern Appalachians, *S. nitens* populations increase enormously by exploiting bark cankers of blighted chestnut sprouts.

Control. The ichneumon wasp—*Xorides rileyi* (Ashmead)—is the only reported parasite (Linsley and Chemsak 1976). Keeping the bark healthy and free of disease, cankers, and other wounds helps prevent infestation.

Styloxus fulleri (Horn)

[roundhead oak twig girdler] (figure 162)

Host. Oak. Coast live oak is primary host but also found in interior live oak (Brown and Eads 1965a, Linsley 1962b). Probably

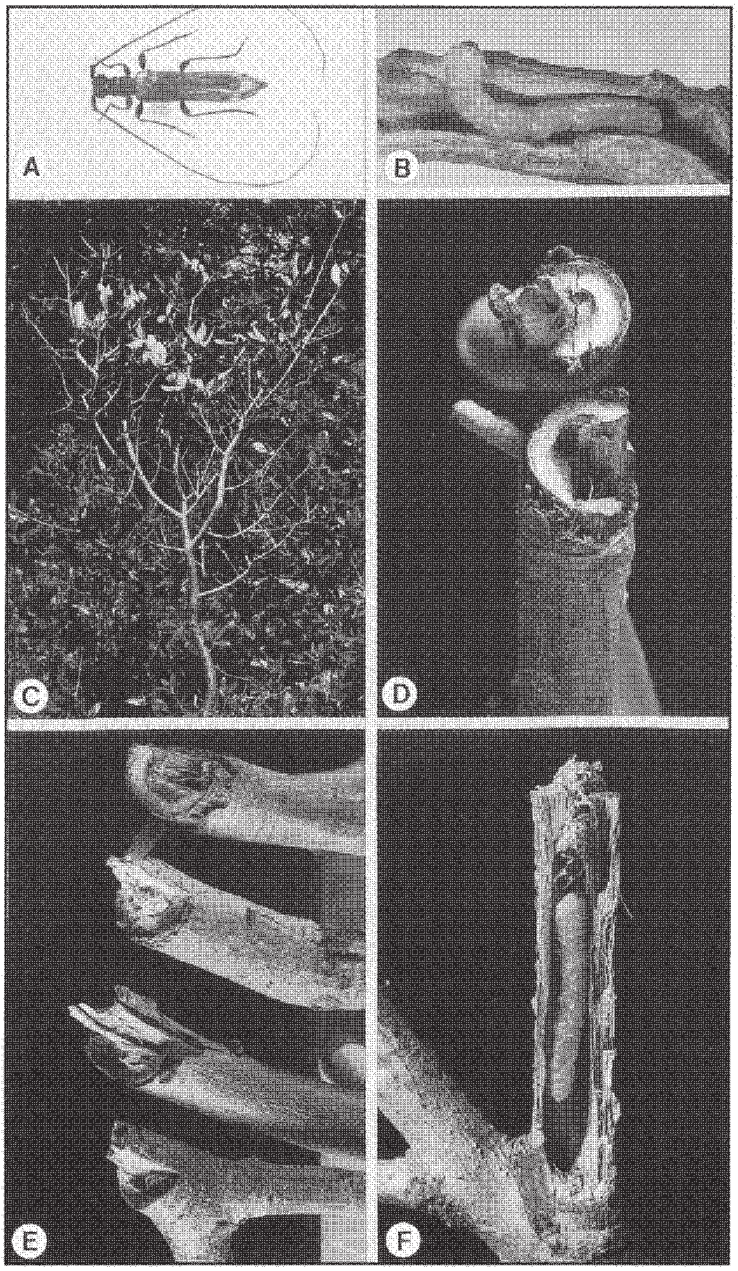


Figure 162—Styloxus fulleri, *[roundheaded oak twig girdler]: A, adult; B, larva; C, girdled branch dying; D, branch broken at girdled site; E, oblique girdles half way around stems; F, larva in gallery with severed end plugged with frass (specimens courtesy F. Hovore).*

occurs in other oaks to a lesser extent.

Range. Two subspecies have been described: *S. fulleri fulleri* (Horn) in south central Texas and *S. fulleri californicus* (Fall) from southern California to southern Oregon (Linsley 1962b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very slender, brown to olive brown longhorn beetle with front of head reddish brown, measuring 10 to 18 mm long (figure 162A) (Brown and Eads 1965a, Linsley 1962b). Body surface coarsely punctured and sparsely pubescent. Unlike those of most other cerambycids, this beetle's elytra do not cover entire abdomen. In males of *S. f. fulleri*, elytra cover only first three abdominal segments, whereas in *S. f. californicus* elytra cover first four abdominal segments. Female antennae about one and a fourth the body length; male antennae about twice as long as body. ***Larva.*** Taper to posterior end with prothorax somewhat enlarged and head sunken deeply within prothorax (figure 162B). Larvae legless and glistening, deep yellow (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Biology. Females deposit eggs on small twigs in the crown. Eggs hatch in about 2 weeks (Linsley 1962b). Larvae tunnel down the twig, ejecting little or no frass, but packing it tightly behind in the galleries (Brown and Eads 1965a). Larvae overwinter and pupate within the galleries during late spring or early summer. Pupal period requires 10 to 14 days. Adults fly from April to September in California with most activity in June and July. In Texas, adult activity has been recorded from July to October (Hovore and others 1987). This species requires 2 years to complete development (Furniss and Carolin 1977, Linsley 1962b).

Injury and damage. First signs of infestation are patches of dead leaves in the crown (figure 162C). Damage is often confused with that of *Agrilus angelicus*, which makes spiral girdles around twigs. Stems severed by *S. fulleri* have oblique girdles or tracks halfway or slightly further around the stem (figure 162D and E). Tunnels are large, broadly oval, and partly filled with frass. Tunnel openings at severed ends are always tightly plugged with excelsior-like fibers (figure 162F). The insect hollows out and girdles twigs and branches 6 mm to 12.7 mm long mostly in the crowns of large trees (Brown and Eads 1965a, Linsley 1962b). Serious pruning may occur, causing patches of dead leaves scattered over the crown, ruining the beauty of ornamental trees. In southern California, this girdler is responsible for up to 30% of the patches of dead leaves previously attributed to *A. angelicus* (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Control. This girdler attacks trees already infested by *A. angelicus*. Chemical controls directed at *A. angelicus* also appear to control *S. fulleri*. Little is known of natural and cultural controls.

Tylonotus bimaculatus Haldeman

[ash and privet borer] (figure 163)

Hosts. Ash, privet, elm, hickory, black walnut, butternut, yellow-poplar, birch. Green, black, and velvet ash, and privet preferred (Craighead 1950; Linsley 1961, 1962b; Lugger 1899; Riley 1880).

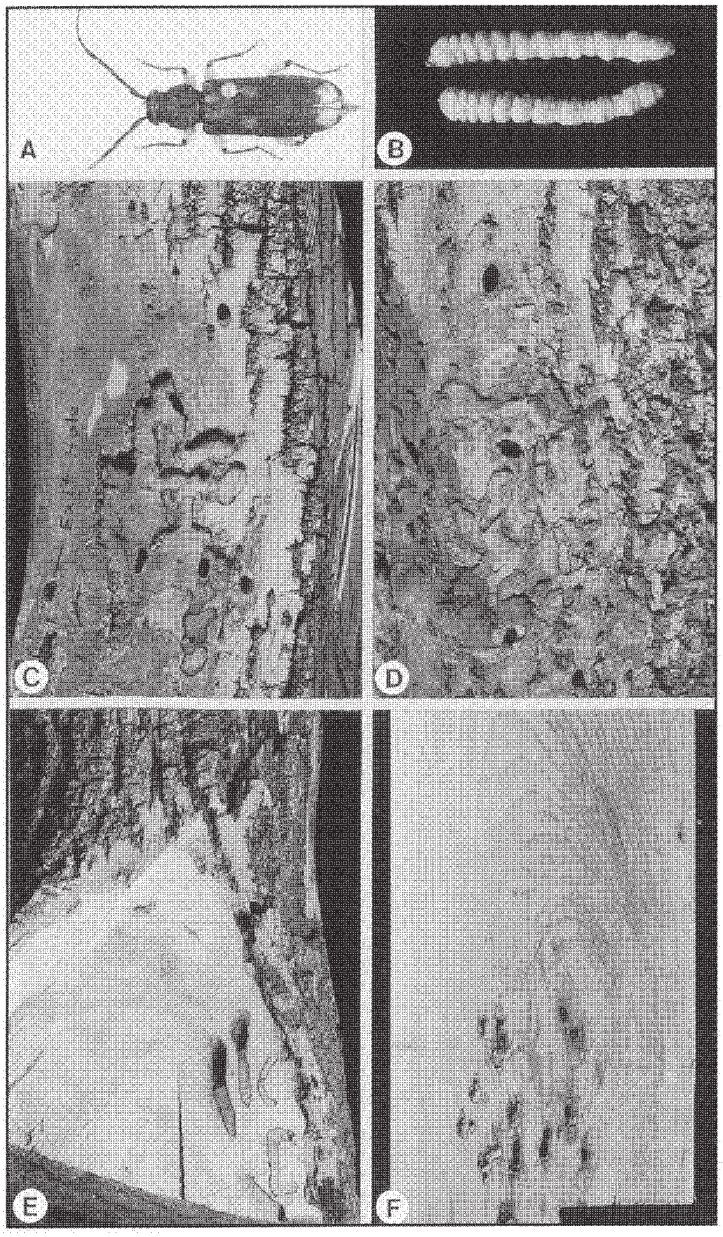


Figure 163—Tylonotus bimaculatus, *[ash and privet borer]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, meandering surface mines packed with frass; D, oval exit holes; E, basal attack with galleries extending into wood; F, ash lumber with cluster of holes (C-F, specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

Range. New York south to Florida and west to North Dakota and Arizona and in eastern Canada (Linsley 1962b, Stein and Tagestad 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, robust, and somewhat flattened longhorn beetle (figure 163A) (Craighead 1950, Knull 1946, Linsley 1962b). Dark brown, typically with median and apical light spots on each elytron. Legs pale with yellowish femora. Antennae in males stout, extending slightly beyond tips of elytra; those in females slender and reaching only apical third of elytra. Beetles 9.5 to 18.0 mm long. ***Larva.*** Elongate, slender, subcylindrical, with integument firm and shiny, and sparsely covered with short, fine, light yellow hairs (figure 163B) (Craighead 1923). Head wider than long; mouthparts greenish brown with black mandibles. Thoracic legs very short. Dorsal ampullae projecting, oval, and shiny. ***Pupa.*** Few short, stiff hairs on pronotum and two groups of small conical points on upper surface of each abdominal segment.

Biology. Adults emerge in May and are present into early August (Hovore and others 1987, Kirk and Knull 1926, Linsley 1962b). Females deposit eggs beneath scales of bark on living or dying ash trees or at the bases of privet plants. Larvae enter the bark and initially feed principally in the phloem tissue. Larvae bore deeper into the cambium and finally into the sapwood. In privet, they mine beneath the bark and in the wood. Larvae make extensive mines that meander in different directions. Little or no frass is ejected, but the larvae pack it behind within the galleries as they extend the mines. Pupal cells are constructed in or beneath the bark and sometimes near the surface in the sapwood. Two years are required to complete a generation.

Injury and damage. Sap oozing from the bark marks the point of attack (Craighead 1950). Removing bark reveals broad, meandering mines packed with granular frass (figure 163C). Oval, exit holes 4 to 6 mm in diameter are left in the bark (figure 163D). In ash, it usually attacks and kills large branches first; later, the infestation proceeds downward, often on one side of the trunk (figure 163E). Ash sawn for lumber may have clusters of larval holes (figure 163F). In privet, attacks are nearly always around the base of the plant. Old and drought-injured trees are attacked and gradually die branch by branch, especially in parks and windbreaks. A single larva can kill a small tree. Infestations are often associated with other borers, especially cossids and sesiids. Although the pest sometimes attacks healthy trees, it favors trees that have been stressed, weakened, or injured. This pest is economically important in dry areas such as the Great Plains, where it has been particularly troublesome in windbreaks (Tunnock and Tagestad 1973, Wygant 1938). Privet hedges frequently suffer severely when these insects are abundant.

Control. This borer is most apt to attack trees that are stressed or weakened, so cultural practices should be followed that promote tree vigor. Nothing is known of its natural enemies.

Aneflus prolixus insoletus Chemsak and Linsley

[guajillo borer]

Host. Guajillo. Guajillo is only known host (Rice and others 1985).

Range. Southwestern subspecies reported from San Patricio and Starr Counties in southern Texas and from the northern and east central states of Mexico—Tamaulipas, Coahuila, Durango, and Chihuahua (Rice and others 1985, Turnbow and Wappes 1978).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, reddish brown to brown longhorn beetle, covered with whitish pubescence except for rows of small denuded areas on elytra (Linsley 1963, Turnbow and Wappes 1978). Antennae about as long as body, segments 3 through 7 spinose at apex. Beetles 20 to 27 mm long. Distinguished from the related subspecies, *A. p. fisheri* (Knull), by denser, finer pubescence, longer antennae, and smaller antennal spines (Turnbow and Wappes 1978).

Biology. Adults fly from May to September (Hovore and others 1987, Rice and others 1985, Turnbow and Wappes 1978). Larvae extend their galleries down the stem into roots. Before pupation, larvae excavate preemergence holes through the sapwood to the bark. Pupation occurs between two wads of coarse, fibrous frass. New adults chew exit holes through the bark. The life cycle is unknown.

Injury and damage. This borer attacks basal stems and roots of host plants (Rice and others 1985). Infestation is evidenced by piles of frass expelled around the bases of the plants. Dissection reveals linear tunnels through the heartwood.

Control. Nothing is known of natural or other controls.

Aneflus protensus (LeConte)

[mesquite borer]

Hosts. Mesquite. Attacks only mesquite (USDA FS 1985).

Range. A southwestern species reported from Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and in Baja California and northern Sonora, Mexico (Linsley 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, subcylindrical, light to dark brown longhorn beetle clothed with whitish gray pubescence; 20 to 31 mm long (Linsley 1936, 1963). Antennae about as long as body in females and slightly longer than body in males. Antennal segments 3 through 5 have prominent apical spines. ***Larva.*** Elongate, cylindrical, tough, with shiny integument and clothed with stiff reddish hairs (Craighead 1923).

Biology. Adults emerge and are present from June to September (Linsley 1963). Beetles are often attracted to light (Linsley 1936). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices, usually at branch crotches, particularly those of small branches (USDA FS 1985). Larvae bore into the stems, making large mines and completely hollowing small branches. As the larvae feed and grow, they extrude frass through tiny openings in the bark, and dark sap oozes and drips from the many entrances. The interior walls of the larval mines are always stained black. The life cycle is completed in 2 years.

Injury and damage. Weak, deteriorating, dying, and dead branches and trees provide evidence of infestation (USDA FS 1985). Small openings in the bark with frass can usually be found. Dark, watery liquid often drips from the attack sites and stains the foliage and ground beneath. Dissection of infested branches reveals tunnels and larvae. Branches and small trees are sometimes killed by larval tunneling (USDA FS 1985). This borer might be considered (along with the mesquite girdler) a biocontrol of mesquite where landowners wish to slow the spread of the trees.

Control. Natural enemies have not been reported, and direct controls have not been needed.

Psyrassa unicolor (Randall)

[branch pruner] (figure 164)

Hosts. Pecan, hickory, oak. Prefers pecan in the lower Mississippi River Valley but readily attacks hickories and, to a lesser extent, oaks (Solomon 1985b). Collected occasionally from walnut, chinkapin, beech, redbud, mulberry, plum, and grape (Blatchley 1910, Champlain and others 1925, Knull 1946, Linsley 1963, Loding 1945).

Range. Primarily an eastern species, distributed from New York south to Alabama and west to Texas, Kansas, and Minnesota (Linsley 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very narrow and elongate, light brown to reddish brown coarsely punctured longhorn beetle, with short and inconspicuous pubescence (figure 164A) (Knull 1946, Linsley 1963). Antennae about as long as body in females and slightly longer in males. Females 9 to 15 mm long and average 2.2 mm wide; males slightly smaller. ***Larva.*** Slender, elongate, cylindrical, whitish, with dark brown mandibles, yellowish thoracic shield, very short rudimentary thoracic prolegs, measuring about 12 to 18 mm long at maturity (figure 164B) (Craighead 1923).

Biology. In Mississippi, adults emerge from late April to early June (Solomon 1985b), markedly earlier than the June to July flight in Indiana (Blatchley 1910) and June 10 to August 15 in Michigan (Gosling 1973). Although oviposition has not been observed, it is apparent from the points of gallery origin that eggs are deposited singly near the apex of small twigs 2 to 4 mm in diameter. Newly hatched larvae tunnel under the bark toward the twig base, often intersecting one or more larger twigs or branches. Larvae often penetrate to the center of the twig before reaching a larger branch that they eventually sever. Twig galleries are 12 to 36 cm long, meandering from one side of the twig to the other, and filled with granular frass. Larvae next bore into larger branches and begin girdling, which is completed during late winter and spring. The larvae make very smooth, concentric, circular cuts, often completely severing the wood but leaving the bark intact (figure 164C). Larvae in severed branches bore distally 4 to 18 cm, usually just below the wood surface (figure 164D). They plug the open ends of the galleries with fibrous frass. Severed branches fall in Mississippi from late January to mid-May (figure 164E). Pupation occurs within the

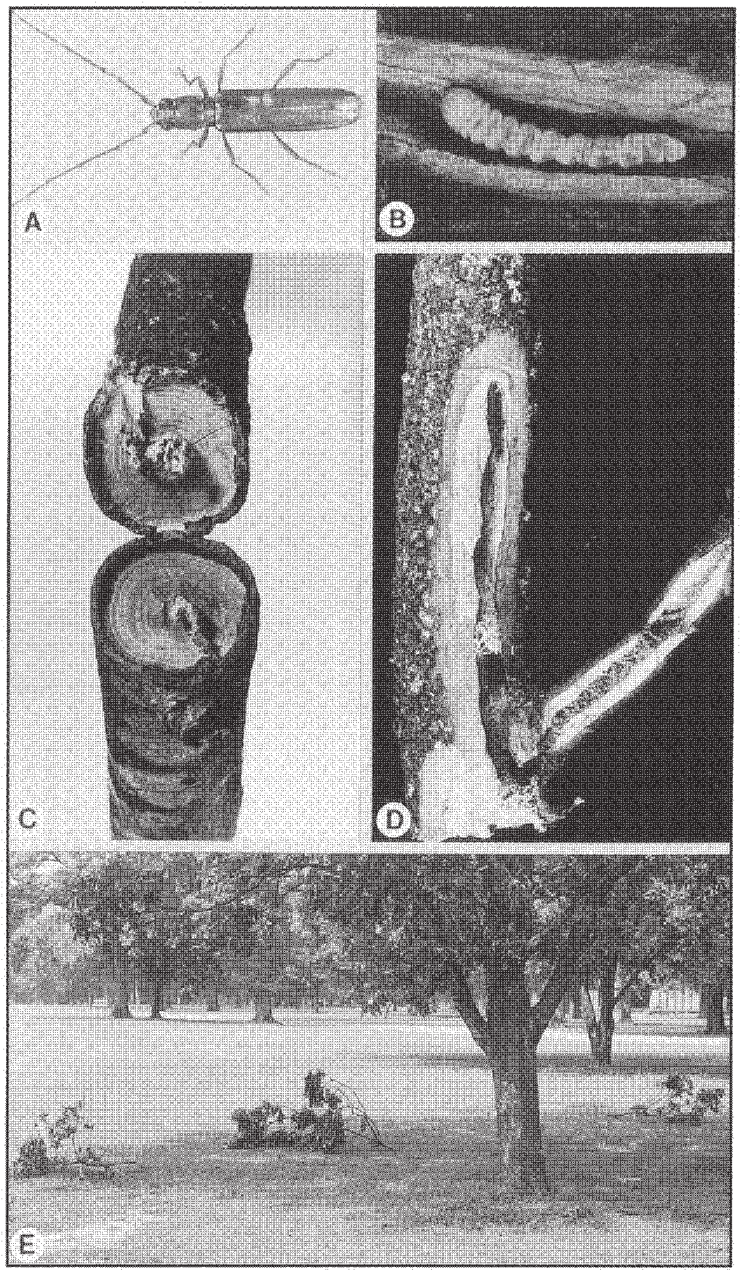


Figure 164—Psyrassa unicolor, *[branch pruner]: A, adult; B, larva; C, pruning cut is smooth, flat, and circular; D, frass-packed gallery in side twig and open gallery and pupation chamber in large branch; E, pruned branches under pecan tree.*

galleries. New adults cut irregularly shaped holes through the bark to emerge. The life cycle requires 1 year, possibly longer.

Injury and damage. Branches pruned by this species are distinguished by the kind of girdle, time of year, and size of pruned branches. The smooth, circular pruning cut made by the larvae of *P. unicolor* (figure 164C) is similar to those of several twig pruners—*Anelaphus villosus* Fabricius and *A. parallelus* (Newman)—except that the larval gallery of the *P. unicolor* rarely ends at the center of the pruned branch. The end usually occurs just below the bark near a small side twig. The internal pruning cut of *P. unicolor* is considerably different from the external V-shaped girdling cut made by the adult twig girdler—*Oncideres cingulata*. Branches pruned by *P. unicolor* fall to the ground during late winter and spring, as opposed to the summer, fall, and early winter for those pruned by *A. villosus, A. parallelus*, and *O. cingulata*. Branches pruned by *P. unicolor* are much larger (10 to 50 mm in diameter and 0.6 to 3.6 m long) than those girdled by *O. cingulata* (6 to 12 mm in diameter and 0.3 to 0.6 m long) and are generally larger than those pruned by *A. villosus* and *A. parallelus* (8 to 20 mm in diameter and 0.2 to 0.9 m long). Because of their size and weight, branches pruned by *P. unicolor* almost always fall free to the ground (figure 164E), seldom lodging in the canopy or hanging from the tree at the severed end, as happens to branches severed by other pruners and girdlers. Individual pruned branches are generally much larger than those girdled by other twig girdlers or twig pruners, but the number of pruned branches is usually fewer. Individual trees, particularly shade and ornamentals, and occasionally orchard trees, may be seriously pruned, but entire stands or groves seldom sustain economic damage.

Control. Severed branches on the ground (figure 164E) should be picked up in spring and destroyed before the adults emerge. To be most effective, the pick-up-and-destroy practice should encompass an entire orchard or neighborhood. Direct control in natural forest stands or woodlots is rarely needed. Two hymenopterous parasites—*Agonocryptus discoidaloides* (Viereck) and *Labena grallator* (Say)—help to reduce infestations (Linsley 1963). Predation, presumably by squirrels and woodpeckers (based on characteristics of their excavations), is less than 2% (Solomon 1985b).

Aneflomorpha subpubescens (LeConte)

[oak stem borer] (figure 165)

Hosts. Oak, chestnut. White oak preferred but black, southern red, blackjack, post, willow, and water oaks have also been listed as hosts (Beal and others 1952).

Range. Eastern United States from Pennsylvania south to Florida and west to Oklahoma (Linsley 1963). Collected most often in the Appalachian Mountains from Georgia northward.

Description. ***Adult.*** Very narrow, extremely elongate longhorn beetle, 15 to 18 mm long and only about 3 mm wide (figure 165A) (Knull 1946, Linsley 1963).

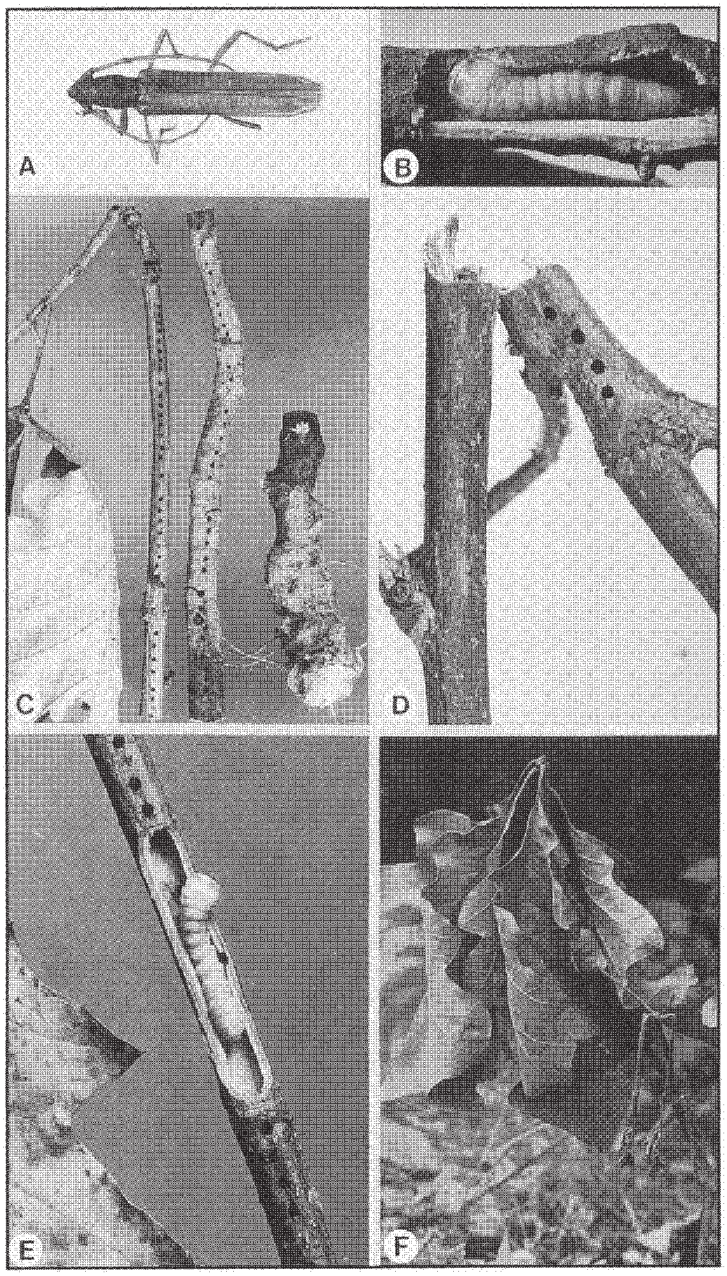


Figure 165—Aneflomorpha subpubescens, *[oak stem borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, closely spaced, linear series of holes in oak sprout; D, oak seedling girdled and broken; E, hollowed-out stem; F, dying infested sprout with brown leaves.*

Beetles generally light brown to reddish brown with semierect brown pubescence. Tips of elytra notched and bispinose. Antennae slightly shorter than body in females, slightly longer than body in males, and equipped with single short spines on third and fourth segments. ***Larva.*** Very slender and cylindrical, with body thickly covered with fine, white setae that become golden on thorax (figure 165B). Grown larvae yellowish except for light brown mandibles and tergal plates; up to 18 mm long. ***Pupa.*** Head and thorax glabrous; posterior half of abdomen has prominent spines.

Biology. Adults emerge late May through July and deposit eggs at leaf bases, mostly on small twigs near the tops of seedlings and sprouts (Knull 1946, Linsley 1963, USDA FS 1985). Newly hatched larvae burrow into the twig and tunnel within the branch toward the main stem. Larvae make tiny round holes in a straight line to eject frass. As the larvae grow, they consume and hollow out the woody part of the stem, often cutting the stem off or causing it to break off in sections. During late summer and fall, larvae typically make their way to the base of the plant and enter the root collar and upper roots to overwinter. They usually cut off the main stem just above groundline and plug the open gallery tightly with fibrous frass. During spring, they prepare pupal chambers between two wads of frass within the gallery and pupate (Champlain and others 1925). New adults chew through the upper wad of frass to emerge. There is one generation per year (Beal and others 1952, Craighead 1923).

Injury and damage. Attacks usually begin in a small branch near the top of the plant but sometimes in a small twig on a side branch. Seedlings and sprouts 20 to 70 cm tall and 6 to 25 mm in diameter at the root collar seem most susceptible. Larvae tunnel in the twig down to the main stem or trunk and then to the root collar or below. Examination reveals a single straight row of small round holes 3 to 6 mm apart along the branch or twig and down the main stem to the groundline (figure 165C). Frass is extruded through these holes and can be found in small piles at or near the base of the plant. Larvae hollow the stem, sometimes cutting or girdling portions so that sections break (figure 165D). A stem may be completely hollowed, leaving only a shell (figure 165E). Browning foliage and dying terminals, branches, or entirely dead seedlings are quite noticeable during the growing season (figure 165F). Dying leaves remain attached to the plant as flags of continuing infestation. Occasionally, this borer becomes abundant and kills a high proportion of the oak regeneration in parts of the Southeast (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Little is known of natural enemies. Some evidence of woodpecker predation has been observed. No direct controls have been investigated.

Aneflomorpha lineare (LeConte)

[antelope brush girdler]

Hosts. Antelope brush, oak. Antelope brush favored, but coast live oak, Arizona white oak, and Emory oak, are readily attacked (Linsley 1963, Tyson 1970).

Range. Western species occurring in foothills in Arizona, California, and Oregon (Furniss and Carolin 1977, Linsley 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, subcylindrical, and slender longhorn beetle measuring 10 to 17 mm long (Linsley 1963). Body brownish yellow and sparsely clothed with whitish hairs that lie close against body and appendages (Furniss and Carolin 1977). Antennae extend one antennal segment beyond end of elytra in males, considerably shorter in females. Antennal segments 3 through 5 have distinct but diminishingly smaller spines at apices. Elytra about four times as long as wide with parallel sides and end in shallow-notched tips that do not bear spines.

Biology. Adults are active from July to September (Linsley 1963). Larvae burrow down the centers of small twigs and branches, making spiral galleries to the bark surface at frequent intervals and ejecting frass through holes. When they reach stems 19 to 38 mm in diameter, they make one incision, a spiral cut from the pith outwards. Larvae construct pupal chambers just beneath the thin bark (Linsley 1963, Tyson 1970). The life cycle is completed in 1 year.

Injury and damage. Flagged twigs and small branches scattered over the crowns of hosts are evidence of infestation. Examination of flagged twigs reveals that they are hollow and girdled from within at several places along their length. Numerous small holes occur along the tunneled portions of the stems for frass ejection (Linsley 1963, Tyson 1970). Larvae burrow in stems 8 to 38 mm in diameter. Most of the antelope brush at Ebony Flats in the Death Valley National Monument, California, is in very poor condition because of severe branch girdling by this borer (Tyson 1970).

Control. Nothing is known of the natural enemies of this borer, and direct controls have not been needed.

Enaphalodes rufulus (Haldeman)

red oak borer (figures 166 and 167)

Hosts. Oak. Red and white oak groups are attacked (Donley and Acciavatti 1980). Upland hosts include northern red, black, and scarlet oaks, with particular preference for black oak (Hay 1974a); in bottomland forests Nuttall, water, and overcup oaks are preferred.

Range. Throughout the eastern half of the United States and westward to Oklahoma, Texas, and in southeastern Canada (Donley and Acciavatti 1980).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust longhorn beetle from 23 to 33 mm long (figure 166A). Newly emerged beetles covered with short tan to very light brown pubescence that is partially lost with activity, giving a light brown appearance. Antennae about as long as body in females and about twice body length in males, reaching maximum length of about 62 mm. ***Egg.*** White, parchment-like, elongate, and about 2 to 3 mm long. ***Larva.*** Robust and shiny white except for stout, dark mandibles and amber spiracles (figure 166C). Thorax has tiny four-jointed legs.

Biology. Adults emerge during June and July, varying about 2 weeks from South to

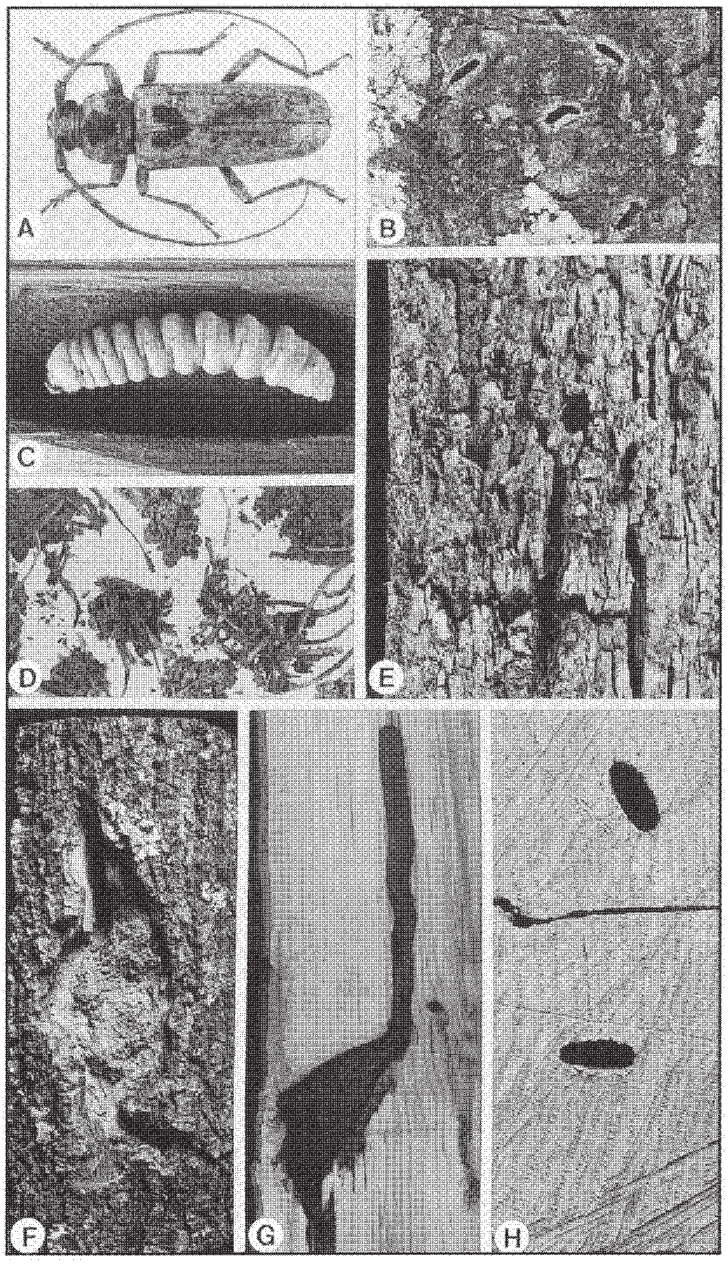


Figure 166—Enaphalodes rufulus, *red oak borer: A, adult; B, tiny, flat holes of early attack; C, larva; D, granular frass mixed with wood fibers; E, oval exit hole; F, frass-packed cavity beneath bark; G, gallery in red oak; H, cross section of oval galleries.*

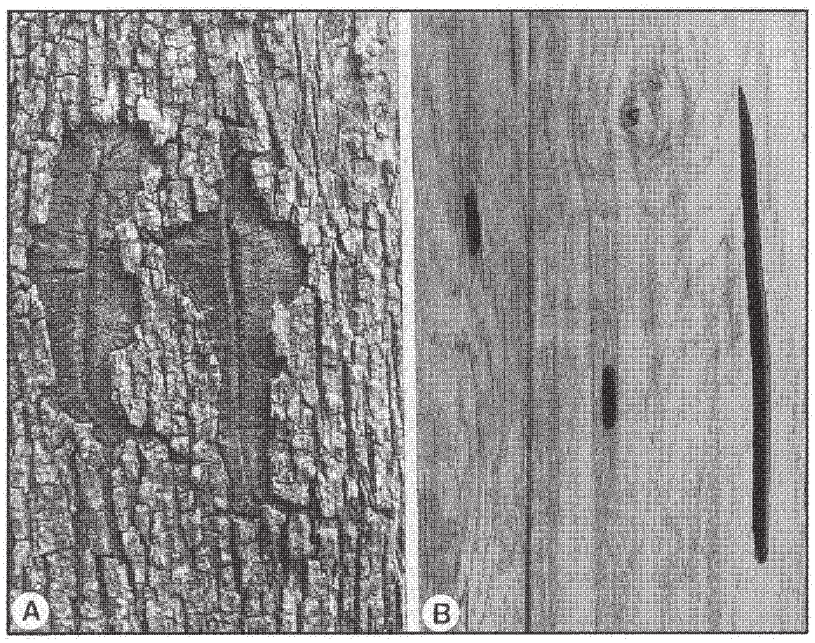


Figure 167—Enaphalodes rufulus, *red oak borer: A, two L-shaped bark scars; B, large hole defects in oak lumber.*

North, and may be present until mid-August (Donley and Acciavatti 1980). They emerge almost entirely at night, and most activity is nocturnal (Hay 1972). Adults generally do not feed on twigs and foliage as do some cerambycids; however, they drink water and sap ooze. Females mate once or more and deposit an average of 200 eggs singly or in groups of 2 to 4 in bark crevices, under bark scales, under lichen patches, and under tightly attached vines (Donley 1978b). Eggs hatch after incubating 10 to 13 days. Hatching larvae chew through the egg chorions and bore directly into the phloem. By the end of the first growing season, larvae make small oblong holes in the bark for frass ejection (figure 166B) and are well established in 12-mm cavelike burrows in the inner bark or phloem. During spring and summer, larvae burrow upward or laterally in the phloem, then upward. During early summer, larvae begin etching the wood, and by midsummer begin to enter the sapwood, pushing out large amounts of frass. The following spring, larvae extend their tunnels slightly and eject small amounts of frass of almost entirely excelsior-like wood fibers. Then, mature larvae (figure 166C) prepare pupal chambers at the uppermost parts of their galleries by packing them tightly with plugs of fibrous frass. Pupation occurs in May and June and lasts about 3 weeks. New adults emerge by chewing through the frass plug and bark near the upper portions of the phloem burrows. A generation is completed in 2 years. In the central United States, the cycle is synchronized so that adult beetles emerge almost entirely during odd-numbered years. In the southern United States, beetles emerge every year, but more emerge during odd-numbered years.

Injury and damage. During the first fall and winter, attacks are difficult to detect because only tiny pin holes with fine light frass are present (Donley and Acciavatti 1980). During the following spring and summer, dark stain spots make the sign of attack more prominent. Also, one or more oblong 3- by 1-mm holes (figure 166B), fine frass, or frass tubes and sap-ooze may be found. Frass becomes brown and coarsely granular during summer and often piles up at the base of the tree below the entrance hole. A few excelsior-like fibers appear in the frass during fall and become more numerous during the second spring just before pupation (figure 166D). Beetles leave oval exit holes 10 to 14 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 166E). Larvae excavate sizeable cavelike chambers in the phloem-cambium area that eventually extend about 37 mm wide and 62 mm long (figure 166F). These chambers are commonly partially packed with brown granular frass. In the upper parts of each chamber, a gallery is extended obliquely upward for 62 to 75 mm into the wood, then straight upward for another 10 to 15 cm. Completed galleries are typically 15 to 25 cm long (figure 166G). In cross section, the oval galleries are more flattened than carpenterworm galleries and typically are about 9 by 17 mm (figure 166H). Wounds heal in 1 to 2 years, leaving vertically elongate bark scars with median seams. Bark scars some-

times have a short horizontal extension at the bottom, giving an L-shaped appearance (figure 167A). Tunnels are usually free of granular frass but may contain some excelsior frass. Tunnels are stained only slightly compared to those of carpenterworms (figure 167B). Ingrown bark pockets are more extensive than with most other borers. A high percentage of the large oaks in the eastern, southern, and central United States has been attacked by this species. A pest of shade or ornamental trees, this longhorn beetle has gained attention as a pest of timber stands as well. Large holes seriously degrade lumber sawn from infested trees. The red oak borer is one of the major species responsible for damage averaging $24 per thousand board feet in red oaks in three leading upland hardwood-producing states in the East (Donley 1974). Annual losses are estimated at over $100 millon result from the actions of this borer (plus several other species) in the eastern United States.

Control. Natural controls are important in reducing red oak borer populations but do not prevent economic damage. Larval mortality in the early instars averages 40% primarily from woodpecker predation (Hay 1974a). The hairy woodpecker and downy woodpecker are major predators (Hay 1972). In the middle instars, an average of 30% are killed mostly by fermenting sap, nitidulid sap beetles, and ants (Galford 1985). Lepidopterous woodborers, primarily *Prionoxystus* spp., invade wound sites when red oak borer larvae are in the mid- or late-larval stages and kill 4 to 5% of the larvae (Hay 1974a). Overall survival averaged 16% in one study (Hay 1974a) and only 6% in another (Hay 1972). Silvicultural control through recognizing and removing "brood trees" is recommended for young timber stands (Hay 1962). In Ohio studies, these cultural controls reduced red oak borer populations 63 to 68% (Donley 1983). Also, borer attacks can be prevented by spraying with insecticides at the proper time.

Enaphalodes cortiphagus (Craighead)

[oak bark scarrer] (figure 168)

Host. Oak. White oak group preferred. Chestnut oak, white oak, and chinkapin oak especially subject to attack (Champlain and others 1925). Other oaks are undoubtedly attacked.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States west to the Ozark Mountains and north to North Dakota (Stein and Tagestad 1976, USDA FS 1985).

Description. All stages of this borer resemble those of *E. rufulus* (Craighead 1950). ***Adult.*** Reddish brown longhorn beetle but covered with gray pubescence, giving grayish brown appearance (Linsley 1963). Females 20 to 30 mm long; males slightly smaller, varying from 16 to 24 mm (figure 168A). Antennae about length of body in females and twice body length in males. Adults are slightly smaller and slightly darker when compared to those of *E. rufulus*. ***Larva.*** Somewhat robust, body shiny white, mandibles dark brown, and spiracles amber (figure 168B) (Craighead

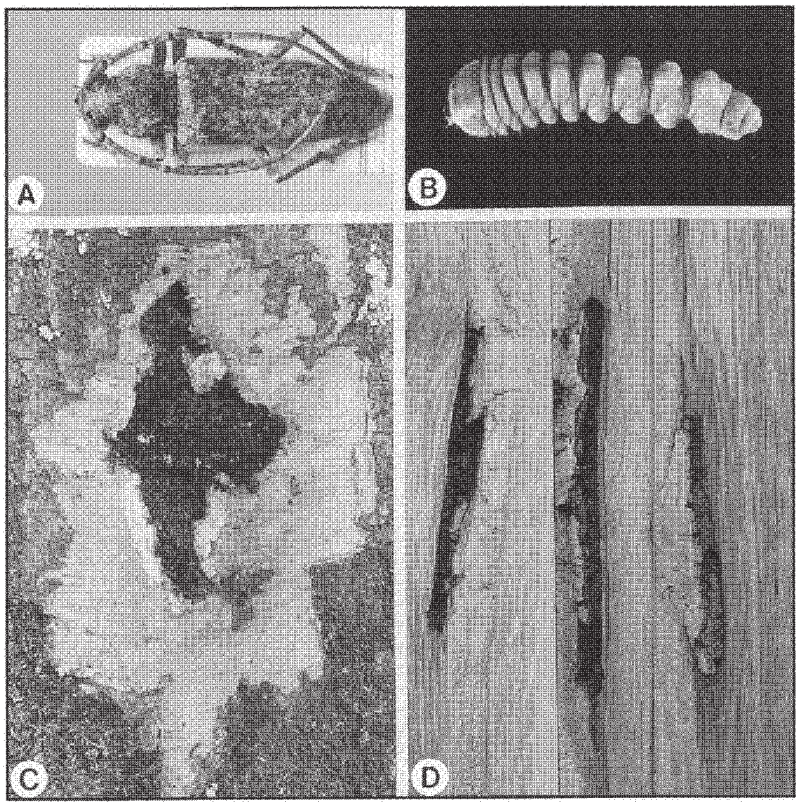


Figure 168—Enaphalodes cortiphagus, *[oak bark scarrer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, large cavity under bark with granular frass; D, large bark pocket defects in oak lumber (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

1923). Although larva of *E. cortiphagus* closely resembles that of *E. rufulus*, it is distinguishable by several deep transverse wrinkles or folds across the underside of the head (in *E. rufulus*, this region is wrinkled longitudinally). Body texture thinner and scattered body hairs finer than those of *E. rufulus*. ***Pupa.*** Resembles that of *E. rufulus* except for larger, well-dispersed, erect, acute spines on upper surface of abdominal segments.

Biology. Adults emerge when chestnut and chinkapin are in full bloom and continue emerging for a short time afterward (Craighead 1950). Flight period is July to September (Linsley 1963). Adults have been taken in North Dakota as late as August 22 (Stein and Tagestad 1976). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices, selecting large mature trees with thick bark. Newly hatched larvae bore into the bark and feed within the thick ridges (Craighead 1923). Larvae gradually mine deeper into the bark as they grow. They eject little frass at first but pack the frass tightly behind them as they mine through the bark. After about 3 years, they burrow deep into the inner bark and cambium where they make large excavations for the pupal chambers. New adults emerge by chewing through the bark. Although little is known about the biology of this longhorn beetle, a life cycle of 3 years has been suggested (Craighead 1950).

Injury and damage. New attack sites are difficult to detect, but careful observation will reveal tiny pin holes in the bark with fine, light brown frass in the bark crevices. As attacks progress, injury becomes more apparent. As larvae tunnel the bark, much of the frass is packed within the gallery, but some is ejected through large openings (Craighead 1950). Breaks gradually appear, causing irregularities in the bark and imparting a rough appearance. Frass becomes coarsely granular and dark brown during later development. When bark is removed, the large, irregular mine through the bark ridges is exposed (figure 168C). The mine is packed tightly with brown, granular frass except near the larva. The cambium and sapwood are scarred, especially as the larva matures and approaches pupation. After larval development, attacks can be recognized by long elliptical scars on the bark parallel to the trunk, often resembling a long blaze or axe cut. Galleries do not extend deep into the wood as in the related *E. rufulus*. Injuries to wood products are large, black pockets of bark or defect (figure 168D). This defect is most commonly found in the wood of large thick-barked oaks, especially at higher elevations in the Appalachian and Ozark Mountains. An ingrown pocket of bark develops as the wound heals. These defects degrade lumber and other wood products sawn from infested trees and cause considerable quality loss.

Control. Because this insect prefers mature oaks with thick heavy bark ridges, foresters should promptly harvest mature or overmature trees to minimize losses through defect. Heavily scarred trees should be removed. Practices that maintain or improve tree and stand vigor help to minimize populations. Although little is known of natural controls, woodpeckers are partic-

ularly effective in capturing the larvae mining in the bark. No direct controls have been investigated. Utilization of the bark for tannin extracts destroys many of the larvae (Craighead 1950).

Anelaphus parallelus (Newman)

[oak twig pruner] (figure 169)

Hosts. Oak, hickory, walnut, apple, plum, cherry, peach, elm. Prefers oak, particularly northern red and black oaks (Dean 1920; Gosling 1978, 1981; Linsley 1963). Nuttall oak suffers heavy pruning in southern bottomland forests. White and bur oaks are occasionally attacked.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States west to Texas and northward into southern Canada (Linsley 1963). Geographic distribution coincides closely with that of *A. villosus* (Fabricius).

Description. ***Adult.*** Narrow, elongate, parallel-sided, longhorn beetle; male 10 to 13 mm and female 12 to 15 mm long (figure 169A) (Linsley 1963). Generally, brown to dark brown with small patches of pale pubescence scattered irregularly over body, giving a blotchy appearance. Male antennae barely surpass apices of elytra, whereas female antennae barely reach elytral tips. Antennal segments 3 through 5 have spined apices. In closely related *A. villosus*, antennal segments 3 through 6 are spined (Linsley 1963). Adults smaller and less robust than those of *A. villosus* (Gosling 1978). Apex of each elytron bispinose. Apex of fifth sternite truncate (apex of fifth sternite rounded in *A. villosus*) (Gosling 1978). ***Larva.*** Elongate, slender, cylindrical, and creamy white with short rudimentary thoracic prolegs (figure 169B). Mature larvae 14 to 22 mm long.

Biology. Information is based largely on research reported from southern Michigan (Gosling 1978, 1981). Adults emerge in late May and early June. They are nocturnal and frequently attracted to lights around oak and hickory forests. Eggs are deposited at the base of bud clusters near the tip of a short (10 to 12 cm) twig, about 20 cm from the end of a branch that is about 10 mm in diameter. Larvae consume all the woody portions of the short twigs by the end of the first summer and extend their galleries into the nodes of main branches where they remain dormant through winter. In early summer, they bore into the center of branches near the twig nodes and burrow for 20 to 30 mm toward the branch base, making their characteristic pruning cuts in progressively larger arcs until only the bark of the branch remains. Galleries are then firmly plugged with shredded wood. Cuts are made in late June and early July in southern Michigan. In the South, pruning cuts are made during late summer and fall. Affected branches nearly always break off shortly afterwards. During the second summer, the larvae construct pupal chambers by firmly plugging galleries with a wad of shredded wood 20 to 30 mm from the distal end. Pupation occurs in September or later. Adults emerge during spring in the South and continue until June in the North. This pruner requires 2 years to complete its life cycle in Michigan and is single brooded, so most twig pruning occurs in even years, and

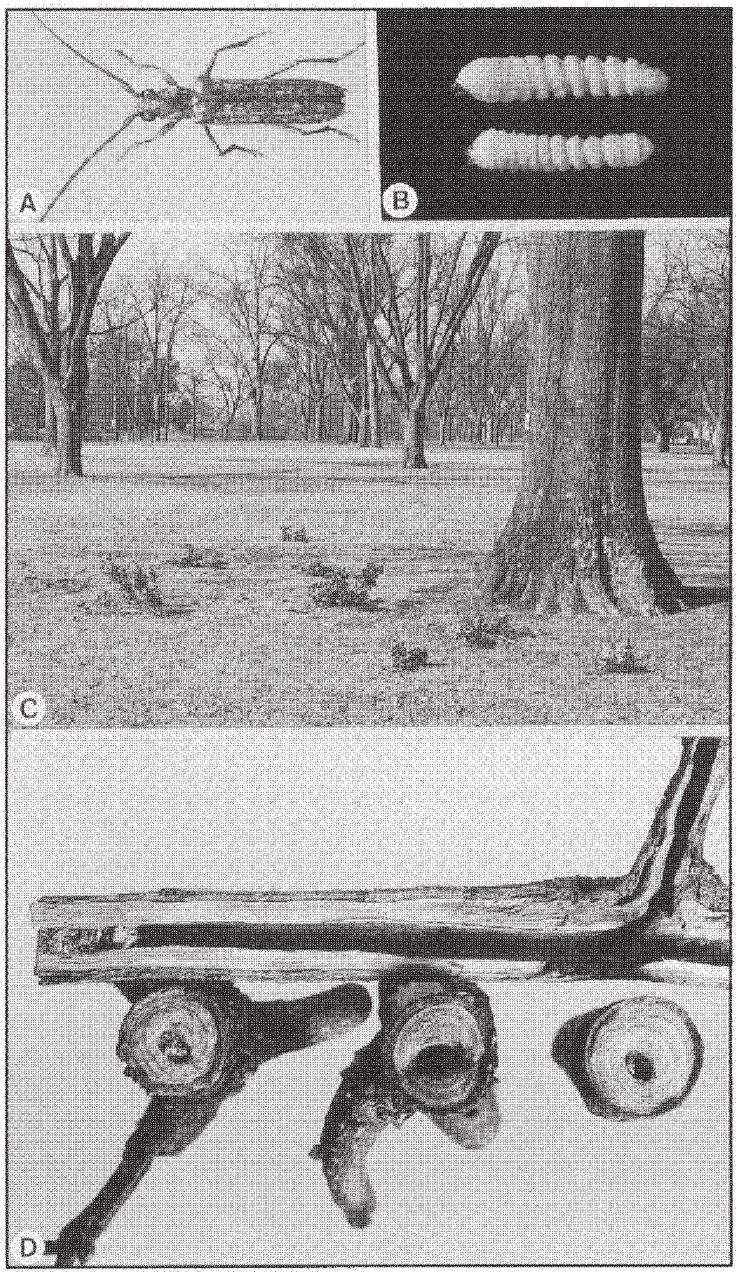


Figure 169—Anelaphus parallelus, *[oak twig pruner]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, pruned branches under Nuttall oak; D, smooth pruning cuts with oval frass-packed holes in severed ends of branches.*

adults emerge in odd years (Gosling 1978).

Injury and damage. Attacks occur most commonly on the edges of forest stands, along fence rows, in fields, and on ornamentals (Gosling 1978). In late summer and fall, numerous small branches and twigs from 8 to 20 mm in diameter and 20 to 90 cm long are on the ground in such areas (figure 169C). Concentric cuts from the stem center outward leave the bark intact, so the end of the severed branch is smoothly cut. Near the center is an oval gallery opening plugged lightly with fine, fibrous frass (figure 169D). Sometimes partially severed branches with green, wilted foliage are scattered throughout the tree crown. On the broken branches, a hole plugged with wood fibers marks where the branch was attached to the tree. Plugged holes may be found where smaller twigs have been broken from larger branches. This pruner can severely disfigure crowns of trees and retard growth. It is a serious nuisance where esthetics is a primary objective. Branches dropping onto lawns in late summer and fall may also annoy homeowners. Young trees, especially seedlings and sprouts, may be girdled and killed. An unusually severe infestation occurred in Minnesota in the late 1800's, when these borers destroyed all the black oak reproduction on several hundred hectares in less than 5 years (Lugger 1899).

Control. Natural controls are effective in reducing pruner infestations. Rodents, particularly squirrels, have destroyed up to 31% of the larvae (Gosling 1978). Insectivorous birds also destroy large numbers of the larvae. In one study, 4 hymenopterous parasites—*Agronocryptus discoidaloides* Viereck, *Iphiaulax eurygastor* Brulle, *Meteorus tibialis* Muesebeck, and *Minthozelia ruficanda* Reinhard—parasitized 6% of the larvae in 557 infested twigs. Destroying fallen, infested branches is recommended (Dean 1920). However, because many pruner larvae are parasitized after the twigs have fallen in late June or early July, fallen twigs should be gathered and burned just after they fall, killing the pruners but not the parasites (Gosling 1978). Insecticidal control of this borer has not been investigated and is probably not justified under most circumstances.

Anelaphus villosus (Fabricius)

twig pruner (figure 170)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan, basswood, redbud, chestnut, locust, sassafras, sumac, Osage-orange, apple, pear, plum, peach, orange, quince, walnut, elm, hackberry, sweetgum, birch, maple, oak, poison ivy. Seems to prefer hickories and basswood (Felt 1905, Gosling 1981).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States northward to Canada and westward to Arizona (Chittenden 1910, Gosling 1981, Linsley 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate longhorn beetle with parallel sides; male 12 to 17 mm long and female 11 to 18 mm long (figure 170A) (Linsley 1963). Body brown to dark brown or reddish brown and sparsely covered with yellowish, somewhat mottled, pubescence. Male antennae surpass ends of elytra by length of two antennal segments; female antennae barely surpass ends of

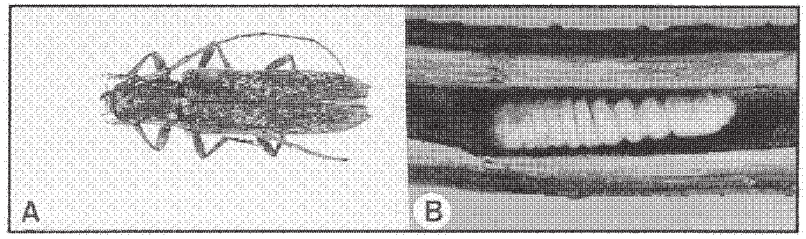


Figure 170—Anelaphus villosus, *twig pruner: A, adult; B, larva.*

elytra (Linsley 1963). Antennal joints 3 to 6 armed with small spines. Elytra end in two small spines. ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 170B) shiny, white to yellowish, and about 19 mm long (Craighead 1923). Body cylindrical and slender with segment prominently defined. Prothorax covered with very long lemon yellow hairs.

Biology. This borer is frequently confused with its sibling species *A. parallelus* (Gosling 1981). Adults emerge from mid-through late June in Michigan and deposit eggs in weakened, dying, and recently dead hosts, whereas adults of *A. parallelus* prefer living hosts for oviposition. (Craighead 1923, Felt 1905, Gosling 1981, USDA FS 1985). After hatching, larvae feed beneath the bark, excavating large, irregularly shaped galleries. Boring removes the inner bark and cuts into the sapwood, leaving paper-thin layers of outer bark covering the chambers. In small branches, larvae usually pupate between plugs of shredded wood in narrow extensions of the chamber. In larger branches, larvae extend narrow, oval galleries to the center of the branch and continue down the center for varying distances. Pupation occurs between shredded wood plugs near the ends of galleries. Adults emerge through holes in the bark cut for expelling frass. The life cycle requires 2 years in Michigan; adults are usually present only in odd-numbered years.

Injury and damage. Older literature describes infested branches as being pruned from living trees by circular cuts made from within by larvae (Craighead 1923, Felt 1905, Gill 1924). However, recent studies in Michigan suggest that this species largely attacks recently dead trees and does not typically sever infested branches (Gosling 1981). This new information indicates that larvae make broad, various-shaped cavities beneath the bark. Dissection reveals that these chambers are typically 100 to 150 mm long and 5 to 20 mm wide. In larger branches, narrow galleries can penetrate the stem centers and continue for as much as 120 mm. No pruning cuts are made, but hollowed branches containing the larvae may break and fall to the ground.

Control. Two hymenopterous parasites—*Bracon eurygaster* Brulle and *Odontobracon elaphivorus* Rohwer—have been recorded (Linsley 1963). Predaceous birds include the downy woodpecker, blue jay, and black-capped chickadee (Chittenden 1910). A spider—*Theridium tepidariorum* C. Koch—has been observed preying on the adults.

Anelaphus inflaticollis Chemsak

[box-thorn borer] (figure 171)

Hosts. Box-thorn, greasewood. Widespread in *Lycium* spp. and common in box-thorn (Hovore and Giesbert 1976, Hovore and others 1978). A small series has been reared from black greasewood (Cope 1984).

Range. Western species confined to three counties in the Mojave Desert of California (Cope 1984, Hovore and Giesbert 1976, Linsley 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, black to reddish black longhorn beetle with yellowish or grayish pubescence; about 13 mm long (figure 171A) (Linsley 1963). Head coarsely punctate with raised area between

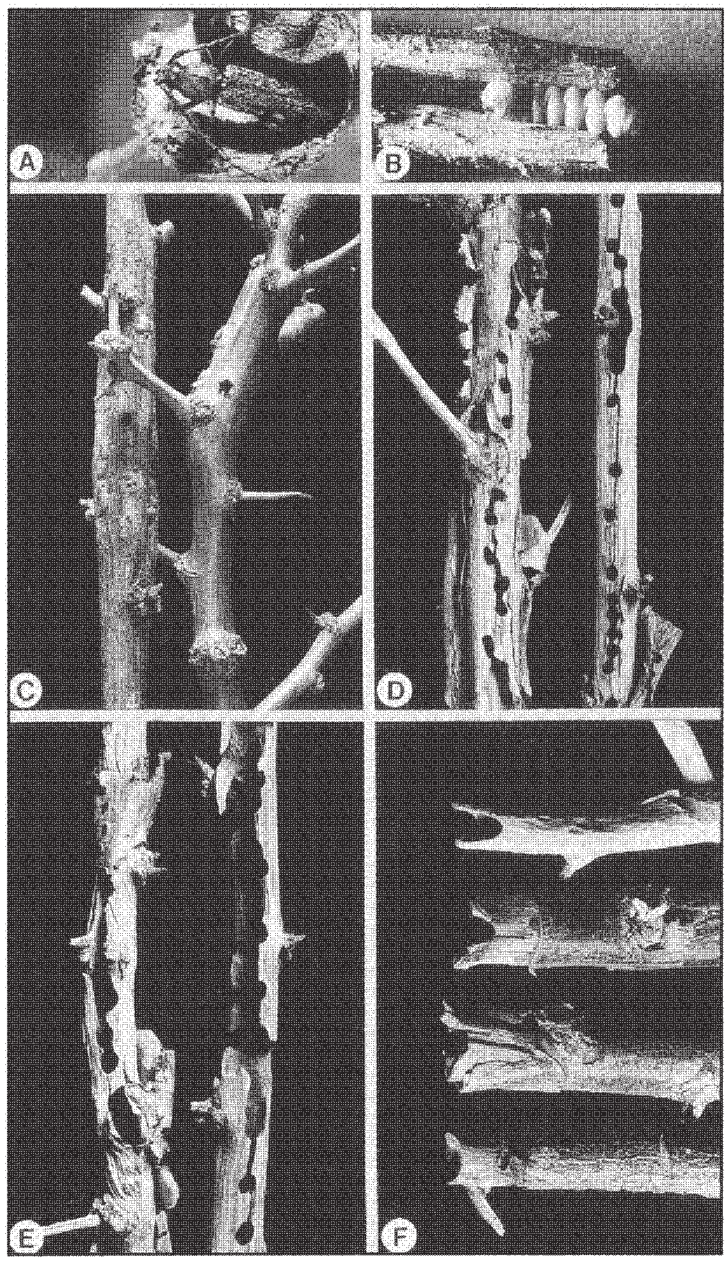


Figure 171—Anelaphus inflaticollis, *[box-thorn borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, infested stems; D, linear series of holes in branches; E, old injuries with galleries; F, saddle- to V-shaped stem girdles (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

eyes. Antennae slightly shorter than body. Pronotum inflated, broadly rounded, and equal to elytra in width. Elytra about 2.7 times longer than broad, surface sparsely and coarsely punctured, dense yellowish pubescence mixed with depressed whitish hairs. Legs short and moderately pubescent. ***Larva.*** Elongate and white with well-developed ampullae (figure 171B).

Biology. Adults are in flight during May (Linsley 1963). However, teneral adults have been collected from pupal cells as early as January in Los Angeles County (Hovore and Giesbert 1976), which indicates that adults emerge early in the year. Some appear to begin in twigs, then proceed downward to larger branches or main stems. Larvae expel frass from numerous holes along the stems. Mature larvae girdle the stem, then retreat into long, pupal chambers below the girdle. Life cycle is unknown but this borer probably requires 1 to 2 years for development.

Injury and damage. Branches, twigs, and main stems 5 to 24 mm in diameter may be attacked. In the early stages of infestation, stems may become swollen and have 1-mm-diameter round holes (figure 171C). The holes increase in number and size (2.0 to 2.5 mm diameter) and are scattered along the stems in nearly straight lines (figure 171D), giving many stems a flutelike appearance. Stems are sometimes nearly hollowed out with tunnels from 14 to 42 mm long (figure 171E). Infested stems are partially to completely girdled with the severed ends varying from a saddle- to V-shaped girdle (figure 171F). Exposed girdles are tightly plugged with a wad of shredded wood (Hovore and Giesbert 1976). Larvae hollow the stems, causing dieback and mortality of plant parts.

Control. Nothing is known of natural controls, and direct controls are not needed.

Parelaphidion incertum (Newman)

[mulberry bark borer]

Hosts. Mulberry, oak, hickory. Favors red mulberry but is sometimes found in chestnut oak and pignut hickory (Linsley 1963, Stein and Tagestad 1976).

Range. Eastern United States from New York south to Florida and west to North Dakota and Texas (Leonard 1928, Linsley 1963, Stein and Tagestad 1976, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, rather robust longhorn beetle (Blatchley 1910, Linsley 1963). Dark reddish brown with antennae and legs paler; 8.5 to 17.0 mm long. Pubescence short and sparse with scattered, irregular white or grayish brown patches. Antennae of males about body length and slightly shorter in females. ***Larva.*** White with dark mouthparts, robust, elongate, and thickly covered with long golden hairs.

Biology. Adults present from April to September (Blatchley 1910, Fattig 1947). Larvae feed and develop mostly in outer bark of hosts, sometimes feeding into the cambium (Craighead 1923, Linsley 1963). They excavate irregular, contorted galleries mostly in outer bark. Life cycle requires 2 years in living and dying trees and 3 years in dead trees (Stein and Tagestad 1976).

Injury and damage. Galleries and burrows are limited largely to the outer bark, only occasionally reaching the cambium (Craighead 1923, Linsley 1963). Living, dying, and recently dead trees may become infested. Damage in most cases is negligible.

Control. Natural controls have not been reported, and direct controls have not been needed.

Phoracantha semipunctata (Fabricius)

[eucalyptus longhorn borer] (figure 172)

Host. Eucalyptus. Eucalyptus species are attacked but vary considerably in susceptibility. Of four species studied, bluegum eucalyptus and manna gum are preferred, whereas Blakely's red gum and sugar gum are less susceptible (Scriven and others 1986).

Range. Native to Australia, recently introduced into California. Discovered first in October 1984, near El Toro in Orange County, California (Ali and Garcia 1988, Scriven and others 1986). Now covers most counties in southern California (Ali and others 1988). Expected to spread to northern California, the Central Valley, and possibly Arizona (Anonymous 1986).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, dark brown to shiny black longhorn beetle, with moderately long legs; body 20 to 35 mm long (figure 172A) (Ali and Garcia 1988, Scriven and others 1986). Antennae of females about length of body and somewhat longer and heavier with prominent spines on each segment in males. Elytra have two, distinctive, yellow, zigzag markings or bands proximally and two yellow oval dots distally; elytral apices spined. ***Egg.*** Elongate to spindle shaped and creamy white, resembling miniature grains of rice (figure 172B). ***Larva.*** Moderately robust, thorax slightly widened, yellowish white except for dark head and mandibles, and 26 to 38 mm long (figure 172C). ***Pupa.*** Less robust, white, and 22 to 36 mm long (figure 172D).

Biology. Adults active February to November (Scriven and others 1986). Females begin mating when 2 days old and oviposit at 4 to 6 days. Adults are nocturnal, usually hiding under loose bark in the daytime. They feed on eucalyptus flowers and other plants. Eggs are usually laid beneath the bark, typically in clusters of 3 to 30, but up to 100 eggs have been found in some clusters (Ali and Garcia 1988, Scriven and others 1986). Females may live 40 days during summer and up to 180 days in winter and lay up to 300 eggs, which hatch in 10 to 14 days. Newly hatched larvae feed superficially in the bark, leaving dark trails 1 to 2 cm long. They penetrate the phloem to the cambium and feed until nearly mature. Galleries are gradually widened to three times the head width and sometimes extended up to a meter or more in length. Mature larvae make short tunnels to the bark surface, then burrow 6 to 10 cm into the wood and excavate pupation chambers. Larvae develop in about 70 days in fresh hosts and about 180 days in dry logs. Pupal stage lasts about 20 days. New adults exit through large oval holes. The life cycle is 3 to 4 months during spring and summer but up to 9 months in fall and

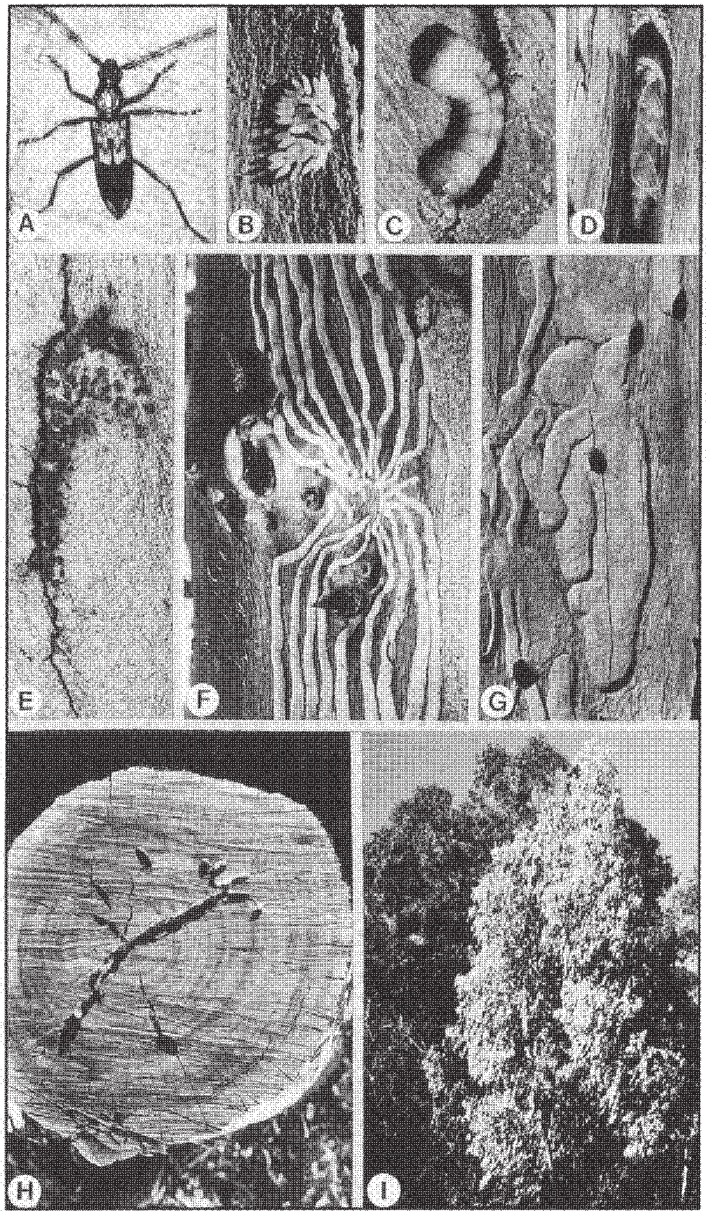


Figure 172—Phoracantha semipunctata, *[eucalyptus longhorn borer]: A, adult; B, egg mass; C, larva; D, pupa; E, cluster of egg niches in bark; F, frass-packed galleries radiating from egg mass; G, oval exit holes; H, cross section of galleries; I, eucalyptus dying from borer attacks (A & D, courtesy R. Penrose; B, C, & F, courtesy G. Scriven; E, G, & H, specimens courtesy F. Hovore).*

winter. Two to three overlapping generations occur per year in southern California.

Injury and damage. Earliest sign of infestation may be a cluster of egg niches in the bark (figure 172E). Egg niche clusters usually appear near bark cracks, branch stubs, or injuries where the bark begins to loosen. Lifting the bark reveals a cluster of white eggs. Healthy, vigorously growing trees respond to larval feeding by producing and exuding copious quantities of kino (dark brown, resinous, gummy fluid), which stains the bark and sometimes runs down the trunk. Larvae leave many long, wide galleries, tightly packed with frass under the bark and etched in the surface (figure 172F). Later, many large, oval exit holes are made in the bark and sapwood (figure 172G). In bole or log cross section, the oval galleries are deep within the wood (figure 172H). Trees that show sprouting from inactive buds along the bole and changes in leaf color should be examined for borer infestation. When limbs are attacked, branches flag and die back. Heavily infested trees may die suddenly, and their leaves will turn yellow and then brown and remain on the tree for 4 weeks or longer (figure 172I). Although this borer will attack healthy trees, it prefers stressed, weakened, dying, and recently dead trees and fresh-cut logs (Scriven and others 1986). Trees suffering from moisture stress are particularly susceptible. This pest kills many trees and inflicts heavy damage, particularly in urban settings. Eucalyptus, one of the more common broadleaf trees in urban southern California, is threatened for use in landscape and woodlot plantings (Scriven and others 1986).

Control. Natural controls cause significant mortality of borers in Australian eucalyptus forests and are being studied for introduction into California (Ali and Garcia 1988, Anonymous 1986, Scriven and others 1986). In California, only light woodpecker activity and a predacious mite—*Pyemotes* sp.—of eggs have been observed. In Israel, the Syrian woodpecker causes about 28% mortality. Because trees under stress are most susceptible, good cultural practices such as timely irrigation and fertilization can help many withstand attacks. Prompt removal and destruction of beetle-infested trees, logs, and slash are recommended. Freshly cut trap logs treated with insecticides have been used in Spain to limit the borer's impact. Firewood cut from infested trees should be fumigated and then covered tightly with sturdy tarpaulins or placed in screened enclosures to prevent spread. Two species of eucalyptus—Blakely's red gum and sugar gum—have substantial gum defenses and are much less susceptible than bluegum eucalyptus and manna gum. Soil- and trunk-injected systemic insecticides have given only partial control; application costs are also high, making these impractical control options (Ali and others 1988).

Dryobius sexnotatus (Linsley)

[maple dryobius] (figure 173)

Hosts. Maple, elm, beech, basswood. Sugar maple preferred (Perry and others 1974). Basswood and beech occasionally attacked; beech is a secondary host. One

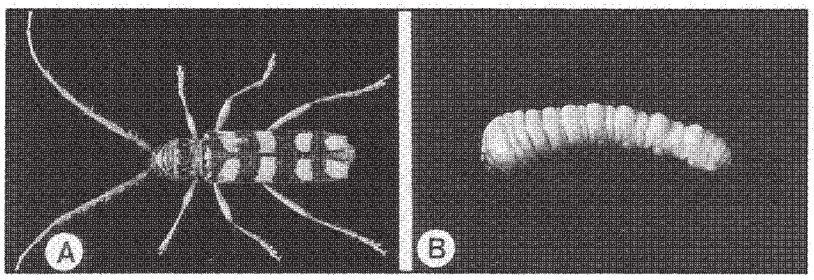


Figure 173—Dryobius sexnotatus, *[maple dryobius]: A, adult; B, larva (B, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

record of the insect from elm.

Range. Eastern North America. Reported in 14 states from New York west to Michigan and Kansas and south to Louisiana (Perry and others 1974). Best known from the Ohio River Valley, especially in Pennsylvania and Ohio, where it has been studied and collected (Dury 1902, Linsley 1964, Perry and others 1974).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, slightly elongate longhorn beetle, and 20 to 26 mm long and 5 to 6 mm wide (figure 173A) (Knull 1946, Linsley 1964, Perry and others 1974). Body generally dark brown to black and banded with golden yellow pubescence. Two bright yellow bands on head, two on pronotum, and four across elytra. Antennae and legs reddish to light brown. Males have antennae about twice length of body; antennae of females only slightly longer than body. ***Larva.*** White to yellow, subcylindrical, slightly depressed across thorax, and widest across prothorax (figure 173B) (Perry and others 1974). Mandibles and other mouthparts black to reddish brown. Head pale yellowish brown. Tiny thoracic prolegs present and distinctly four segmented. Mature larvae reach 32 mm long and 7.7 mm wide.

Biology. Adults fly from March to September; most appear in June and July (Perry and others 1974). Beetles emerge from galleries during the afternoon. Diurnal activity occurs from midmorning until late afternoon on host tree trunks exposed to sunlight; in shady, heavily wooded areas, beetle activity has been observed only from noon to midafternoon. Beetles spend the night in cavities and under loose bark; none are found fully exposed after dark. Mating was observed during high temperatures but not oviposition. Larvae tunnel into the wood and extend their galleries. They eject little or no frass, instead packing the fine-textured frass behind in the galleries. Larvae feed 2 to 3 years and work their way close to the bark surface before pupating.

Injury and damage. This borer attacks living, dying, and recently dead standing trees, but most commonly attacks large mature and overmature trees that have been wounded or scarred and are deteriorating (Perry and others 1974). Injury is caused by larvae boring in and through the trunk. Larvae may continue to tunnel in susceptible trees even after the trees succumb. Larvae work throughout the wood but prefer the heartwood of sugar maple. In beech, the larvae tunnel less into the heartwood. Large, meandering galleries in infested trunks are packed solid with fine-textured frass. The wood is eventually so riddled that it becomes a mass of old, frass-packed galleries. Extensive tunneling in the sapwood and heartwood can weaken infested trees, making them susceptible to breakage and causing degrade in any wood products. The large old trees tapped and used by the sugar maple industry have come under attack. Losses have been negligible because the pest is widely scattered and populations are sparse.

Control. Excessive humidity appears to affect survival (Perry and others 1974). Because attacks are limited mostly to large, overmature trees, harvesting as soon as trees are mature and begin declining in

vigor will help minimize losses. No parasites or predators have been reported. Infestations are so infrequent that direct controls have not been needed.

Physocnemum brevilineum (Say)

[elm bark borer] (figure 174)

Hosts. Elm. American elm mentioned, but other elm species are undoubtedly infested (Haliburton 1951).

Range. Most of the eastern United States south to Mississippi and west to Oklahoma and in southern Canada (Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Subdepressed, elongate-oblong longhorn beetle with parallel sides, and 9 to 20 mm long (figure 174A) (Haliburton 1951, Linsley 1964). Body black to dark brown; elytra having purple, bluish, or brassy lustre and sometimes ornamented with three raised, longitudinal white marks of variable length (Haliburton 1951, USDA FS 1985). Antennae of females slightly shorter than body and those of males slightly longer. ***Larva.*** Slender, smooth, and dull white with shiny, longitudinally striate pronotum and gouge-shaped mandibles (figure 174B) (Craighead 1923, Haliburton 1951). Largest larvae are about 40 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge May to July, with specimens taken in Michigan as late as August 25 (Gosling 1973, Linsley 1964). Beetles can be found crawling up and down trunks, particularly on sunlit portions of the bark (Haliburton 1951). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices and beneath bark scales at selected places on the trunk and branches. Newly hatched larvae mine in the dry outer bark, occasionally reaching the inner phloem and cambium. Mining in the cambium is more common in weakened, stressed, and dying trees. In recently dead trees and felled logs, larvae may extend galleries into the sapwood. Galleries are sometimes extensive, meander, and are usually tightly packed with granular frass. Late in the season, larvae boring in the outer bark of a healthy tree typically mine deeper into the living phloem, where they prepare loci for hibernation. During spring or early summer, the larvae construct pupal cells, usually in the outer bark but sometimes in the inner bark or outer sapwood. New adults cut elliptical holes (3 to 7 mm across at the major axis) in the bark to emerge (figure 174D). Life cycle is usually 1 year, but sometimes requires 2 years (Linsley 1964).

Injury and damage. In healthy trees, mines are limited mostly to the dry, dead phloem tissue of the outer bark. Galleries occasionally reach the living phloem and cambium. In weakened, stressed, and recently dead trees, frass-filled mines commonly extend into the inner bark, cambium, and outer sapwood, particularly during late season (figure 174C). Necrotic areas may form where the inner phloem and cambium have been injured. Small areas of injured bark usually heal rapidly, but large areas of dead bark sometimes slough off when larval mines coalesce. This, together with the corking out of phloem injuries, may completely alter the appearance of the bark, replacing the regular pattern of vertical ridges and fissures with irregular patches of scales.

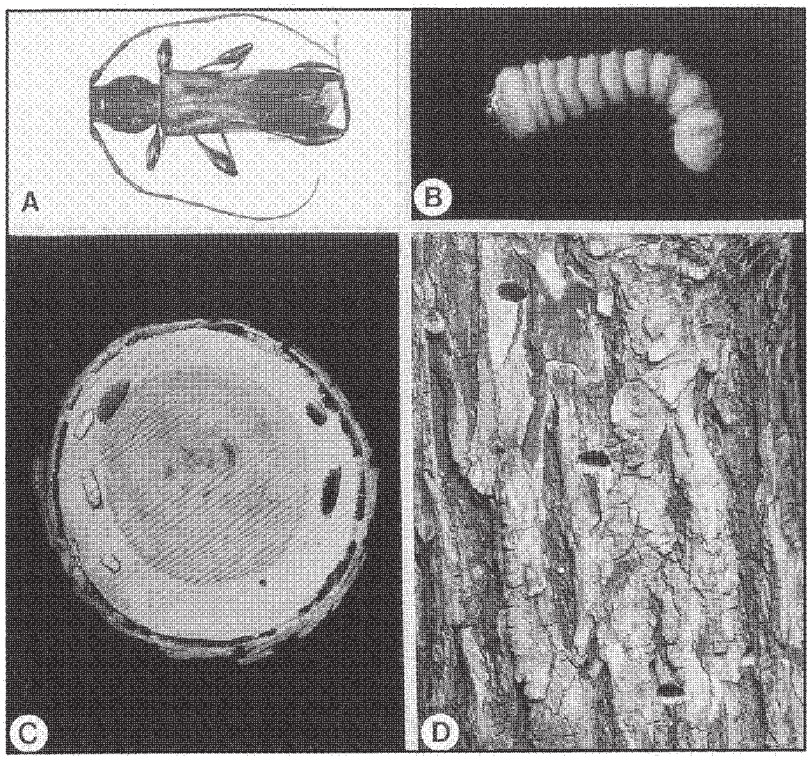


Figure 174—Physocnemum brevilineum, *[elm bark borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, cross section of mines in and under bark, and outer sapwood; D, oval emergence holes in elm bark (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C & D, specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

Attacks occur in all types of bark, from the lower trunk to branches as small as 5 cm in diameter. In felled logs, mines are more common in the cambium area and on the wood surface and much more extensive than in standing living trees. Emerging beetles leave elliptical holes (figure 174D). Large patches of killed bark reduce the esthetic beauty of shade and ornamental trees. Phloem injuries that heal often have ingrown pockets of bark along with stain and decay. Such injuries on trees sawn for wood products result in defect, degrade, and lost value. Fortunately, infestations are widely scattered, with only one tree or a small clump of trees being infested. The borer is capable of transmitting Dutch elm disease, but its role is considered of negligible importance.

Control. Parasite emergence holes in the bark of infested trees have been observed, but the identity of the parasite(s) has not been determined (Haliburton 1951). Populations are so widely scattered that this pest is of little economic importance. Direct controls have not been investigated.

Xylocrius agassizi (LeConte)

[gooseberry rootborer] (figure 175)

Hosts. Gooseberry. Wild and cultivated gooseberry varieties have been attacked (Essig 1929). Willow mentioned but not confirmed.

Range. Along the Pacific Coast and through the Rocky Mountains from British Columbia, Canada, south to California and New Mexico (Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust longhorn beetle, usually black, 10 to 17 mm long (figure 175A) (Linsley 1964). Most of body and appendages clothed with short, semierect, black hairs. Antennae about one-third body length. The third and fourth antennal segments of both sexes rounded at apices; remaining antennal segments truncate at apices. Pronotum about as wide as elytra and sides broadly rounded. Elytra less than twice as long as wide, sides curved slightly inward near middle, and tips broadly rounded. ***Egg.*** Transparent and milky white when first deposited, turning pale, sea green in about 48 hours (Chamberlin 1925). Egg gradually becomes opaque, and in about 4 days, dark mandibles become visible through chorion. ***Larva.*** White, moderately robust, with body shape typical of longhorn group (figure 175B).

Biology. In Oregon, adults emerge from mid-March through early April, but beetles have been taken in flight as late as July (Chamberlin 1925, Linsley 1964). Eggs are deposited under bark scales or in roughened areas of bark close to or slightly below ground (Chamberlin 1925). Eggs are deposited singly, but sometimes several females will oviposit at the same location making clusters of 3 to 4 eggs. An average of 5 eggs (range 2 to 11) is deposited per female (Chamberlin 1925). New larvae generally bore into plants at or near stem forks, then burrow downward in the center of stems and enter the larger roots, where they overwinter (Chittenden 1900c, Essig 1915). In light infestations, usually only one larva is found per plant. In heavy infestations, plants show decline symptoms, and as

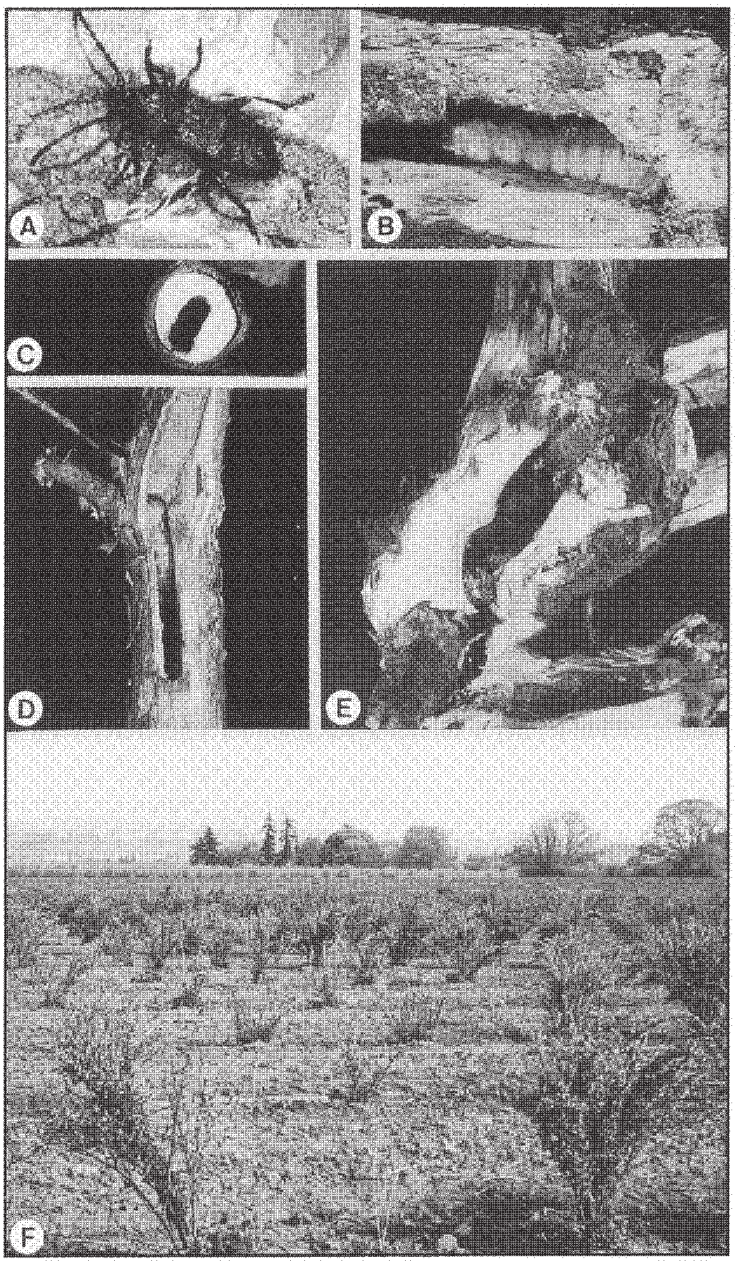


Figure 175—Xylocrius agassizi, *[gooseberry rootborer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, cross section of oval gallery; D, stem with gallery, larva, and packed frass; E, rootstock with galleries and frass; F, weakened, dying plants in gooseberry planting (courtesy R. Penrose).*

many as 21 larvae can infest a plant (Chamberlin 1925, Penrose 1977). In Oregon, by September a wide range of larval instars, including prepupae and pupae, can be found in plants, indicating that the borer probably overwinters in all immature developmental stages, except the egg (Penrose 1977). Pupation occurs in a chamber at the end of the larval gallery just beneath the bark surface, usually several centimeters above ground (Chittenden 1900c). The life cycle presumably requires 2 years to complete, because adults appear in much larger numbers during odd-numbered years than in even-numbered years (Chamberlin 1925).

Injury and damage. Infested plants suffer reduced growth and leaf size, flagging branches, reduced fruit production, dieback, and sometimes death (figure 175F) (Penrose 1977). Borers may work in a plant for several years without signs of infestation, except for reduced berry production. Occasionally, injury becomes visible at the root collar. Excavating and dissecting the root collar and roots reveal larval burrows and larvae within the tunnels (figure 175C, D, and E). Heavily injured plants often succumb. During the early 1900's, infestations were so severe in many commercial gooseberry plantings in Oregon that growers were forced either to destroy all plants or replace all older ones (Chamberlin 1925). In the 1970's, heavy damage occurred near Salem, Oregon; in one 12-ha commercial gooseberry planting, the number of larvae ranged from 8 to 21 per plant (Penrose 1977).

Control. Cutting and burning infested plant parts has been effective. Cutting out the aboveground canes has been only partially effective (Essig 1915). Removing and burning the plants including roots have been most effective (Chittenden 1900c). No natural controls have been reported, and chemical controls have been only partially effective.

Megacyllene robiniae (Forster)

locust borer (figure 176)

Host. Black locust. Only black locust and its cultivars or horticulturally derived varieties in the genus *Robinia* are attacked (Galford 1984, Wollerman 1962).

Range. A native insect, first discovered in 1702 (Wollerman 1962). Original distribution probably coincided with its host, ranging from Pennsylvania to Georgia and into the Ozark Mountains. Widespread use of black locust as a shade tree and in reforestation and land reclamation plantings has enabled the borer to disperse widely. Now occurs from eastern Canada south to the Gulf Coast; and west to Washington, Colorado, and Arizona (Galford 1984, Harman and others 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Colorful, slender, longhorn beetle 12 to 19 mm long (figure 176A) (Galford 1984, Wollerman 1962). Bright yellow bands mark jet black background of adult. A W-shaped band extends across elytra. Males and females similar in appearance, with moderately long, yellow legs and antennae; males slightly smaller and more slender than females. ***Egg.*** White, oval, and about 2.4 mm long and 0.8 mm in diameter; typically tucked into bark crevices

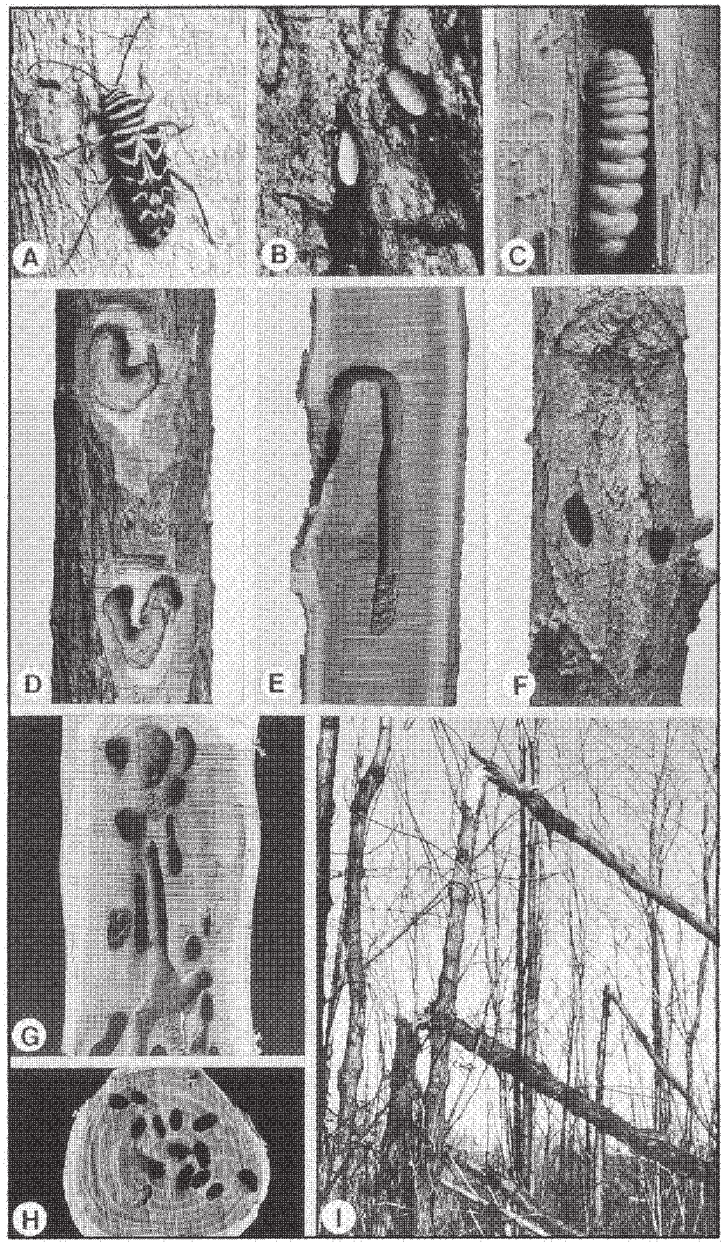


Figure 176—Magacyllene robiniae, *locust borer: A, adult; B, eggs in bark crevices; C, larva; D, heart-shaped, larval cavities under bark; E, single, uninterrupted gallery; F, oval emergence holes; G, black locust riddled by galleries; H, cross section of galleries; I, breakage from borer attacks (specimen I, courtesy J. Galford).*

(figure 176B). ***Larva.*** White, 18 to 26 mm long with black head and mouthparts, measuring about 6 mm in diameter (figure 176C). ***Pupa.*** Newly formed pupa creamy white and about 12 mm long.

Biology. Adults appear during late summer and early fall and are abundant during September. They feed on the pollen of goldenrod blossoms and in the morning fly back to locust trees (Galford 1984, Garman 1916, Wollerman 1962). Later in the day until well after sunset, the beetles run up and down tree trunks in search of oviposition sites. Females deposit eggs singly, mostly during the afternoon, usually in rough bark crevices and around wounds. Eggs hatch in about a week, and the larvae burrow into the inner bark and make small hibernation cells to overwinter. In spring, activity begins about when locust tree buds swell. The larvae work their way into the woody parts of the tree trunk and branches and approach maturity around mid-July. They usually transform to the pupal stage in late July and early August. Adult beetles in excavated tunnels emerge through exit holes in August. Life stages may be modified as much as 2 weeks by local climate.

Injury and damage. Borer attack becomes apparent in spring about when locust leaf buds swell (Galford 1984). Activity of young larvae in the inner bark is evidenced by wet spots and sap around the tiny larval entry holes in the trunk or branches. Granular frass is pushed through the tunnels to the outside, where it may accumulate at the base of the tree. In late spring or early summer, developing larvae work into the sapwood and push white frass from their galleries. When the larvae burrow deeper and reach the heartwood in late summer, the frass becomes yellow. Removing bark from attack sites reveals heart-shaped cambium cavities 2 to 3 cm wide (figure 176D). Uninterrupted galleries extend obliquely upward, inward, and then straight down, and measure 9 to 14 cm long and 6 to 8 mm in diameter (figure 176E). Adults make oval exit holes about 5 by 10 mm across (figure 176F). Trunks that suffer repeated attacks are badly riddled with galleries (figure 176G and H). Severely attacked trees have dead, broken trunks and branches and knotty swellings (figure 176I) (Garman 1916, Wollerman 1962). Repeated attacks and breakage often result in nothing more than shrubby sprout growth. Black locust will grow on nutrient-poor soils and is often planted on badly eroded sites for land reclamation. Trees on such sites are more prone to borer damage, especially during droughts, after wildfire, when livestock graze the land, and when other influences damage the site and reduce tree vigor (Berry 1945). Locust borers annually destroy thousands of hectares of natural regeneration and young plantations of black locust, and enormous numbers of older trees, especially slow-growing overtopped trees. On the other hand, trees on good sites and thrifty dominants older than age 10 are seldom killed.

Control. Woodpeckers are the most important natural enemies. Downy and hairy woodpeckers destroyed an average of 30% of the larvae during 4 years in Ohio (Hall

1942). Two hymenopterous parasites—*Dolichomomitus irritator* (Fabricius) and *Habrolepoidea depressa* Girault—destroy less than 1% of the larvae (Hall 1942, Krombien and others 1979). Silvicultural controls are partially effective in minimizing damage (Galford 1984). Slow-growing young stands and severely injured stands should be cut back during dormant periods to initiate regeneration by sprouting. Sprouts should be thinned to leave only the most vigorous. Mixing tree species in plantings is beneficial. Mixed stands usually produce denser shade (reducing oviposition) and more leaf litter (improving the site) than pure stands. Pruning, however, allows more light penetration to the trunk, which favors egg-laying females, and provides crevices favorable for oviposition around wounds and callus tissue. Ornamental and other small plantings benefit from mulching. Fencing out livestock and preventing wildfire can promote site quality and tree vigor, reducing borer damage. Old trees with stag-headed tops serve as brood trees. Removing them from the vicinity of planting sites can help to minimize damage. Planting superior varieties of black locust can help reduce borer injury. Shipmast locust and a strain called "Higbee" have exhibited resistance to the locust borer (Hall 1942). Insecticides may be needed to prevent or control borers in valuable ornamental trees (Galford 1984). Trunk sprays during egg laying have been effective in preventing new attacks.

Megacyllene snowi snowi (Casey)

[locust root borer] (figure 177)

Hosts. Locust. New Mexico locust is the specific host (Linsley 1964). Adult beetles have been collected on goldenrod flowers but do not reproduce in this plant (Linsley and others 1961).

Range. Southwestern subspecies in Arizona, New Mexico, and northern Mexico (Linsley 1964) west of the Continental Divide in New Mexico into Arizona. Another subspecies—*M. s. zuniana* (Casey)—occurs east of the Continental Divide only in central New Mexico (Tyson 1982). Associated with host plants growing mostly at high elevations (Lewis 1979).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately large, robust, dark brown to black longhorn beetle ranging from 11 to 18 mm long and 3.5 to 7.0 mm wide (figure 177A) (Hopping 1937, Linsley 1964). Antennae reddish brown and reach to middle of elytra in males and extend to basal third of elytra in females (Linsley 1964). Legs pale red or reddish brown. Head with band of dense yellow pubescence at base that extends along margin of eyes and above base of antennae. Pronotum has four transverse bands of gray to yellow pubescence. Elytra have seven narrow, transverse, gray and yellow, pubescent bands. Abdomen densely clothed along sides with bright yellow pubescence. Female abdomen covered with dense, yellow pubescence. ***Larva.*** Moderately robust, yellowish white except for dark brown head and mouthparts and about 22 mm long (figure 177B).

Biology. Adults present from July through September and often found on bark and foliage of hosts and feeding on nearby goldenrod flowers (Linsley 1964, Linsley

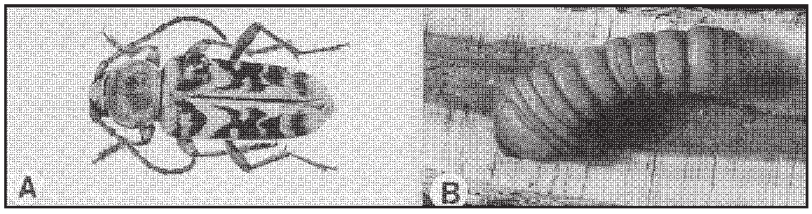


Figure 177—Megacyllene snowi snowi, *[locust root borer]: A, adult; B, larva (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

and others 1961). Females deposit eggs around the root collar, and larvae mine the roots (Linsley 1964).

Injury and damage. Presence of these colorful beetles on the foliage of host plants or on nearby goldenrod flowers is evidence of a local infestation. Infested locust, particularly saplings and small trees, are often broken over at the groundline (Linsley 1964). Inspection of breaks and excavating the stump reveals tunneling larvae. Galleries are found in stems slightly above ground down into the root crown; those made by the subspecies *M. s. zuniana* (Casey) occur as high as 30 cm above ground (Tyson 1982). Damage is usually negligible.

Control. Natural controls have not been reported, and direct controls have not been needed.

Megacyllene robusta (Linsley and Chemsak)

[honey mesquite borer]

Host. Mesquite. Honey mesquite is only known host. Adult beetles have been collected from goldenweed blossoms, but none have been reported boring into these stems (Hovore and others 1978).

Range. Limited distribution in southwestern New Mexico and southeastern Arizona (Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, robust, black longhorn beetle with brownish red legs, reddish black antennae; about 21 mm long (Linsley 1964). Pronotum has three transverse yellow bands, with the first just behind anterior margin, the second behind middle, and the third, basal. Elytral pattern of seven yellow or yellow and white transverse partial-to-complete bands. Antennae reach to about apical quarter of elytra in male and extend only to basal third of elytra in females. Abdomens densely yellow pubescent along sides.

Biology. Adults are present during October and November (Linsley 1964). Females lay eggs in bark crevices. Larvae mine beneath the bark and tunnel into the wood, making broad and meandering galleries that are packed with fine, grainy frass. Pupal cells are made in the sapwood or heartwood and plugged with coarse, shredded frass. Frass plugs are sometimes visible. New beetles chew holes through the bark to exit (Hovore and others 1978). The life cycle is unknown but presumably requires at least 1 year.

Injury and damage. Presence of the colorful adult beetles on blossoms and foliage can alert landowners of local infestation. Typically, attacks the base of small trees 10 to 15 cm in diameter and the large lateral branches of older trees (Hovore and others 1978). Dissection of infested stems reveals frass-packed galleries and larvae. Frass can sometimes be seen protruding from the bark. Fresh emergence holes in the bark are conspicuous in late fall. Old holes from previous years are evident as oval rings of scar tissue (Hovore and others 1978). Populations are generally small and infestations are scattered; thus, its impact on mesquite is very light.

Control. Nothing is known of natural controls, and direct controls have not been needed.

Glycobius speciosus (Say)

sugar maple borer (figure 178)

Hosts. Maple. Sugar maple is only known host (Hoffard and Marshall 1978).

Range. Throughout most of the range of sugar maple, extending from southern Canada through the southern Appalachian Mountains to Tennessee and North Carolina and westward to Missouri and Minnesota (USDA FS 1971). Less common in its southern range and found mostly at higher elevations.

Description. ***Adult.*** Brilliant black and yellow longhorn beetle; stout and 22 to 27 mm long (figure 178A) (Packard 1890, Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955, USDA FS 1971). Head bright yellow. Thorax has two parallel yellow bands not joined at middle. Elytra with five, dark yellow bands, the middle one near base W-shaped. Can be distinguished from the locust borer by yellow legs and two black dots near end of elytra. ***Egg.*** Elongate, whitish, and 2 to 2.5 mm long. ***Larva.*** Robust, rosy white, and cylindrically shaped, with minute thoracic legs and brownish head and mouthparts (figure 178B). When fully grown, 40 to 58 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge during June and July. Eggs are laid in cracks or crevices in the bark from June into August (USDA FS 1971). After hatching, the larvae bore beneath the bark and form meandering mines in the cambium. Larvae feed until early fall, when they excavate shallow cells in the sapwood to overwinter (Hoffard and Marshall 1978). During the second season, larvae tunnel just under the bark, longitudinally or transversely, and partially around the bole or branch, but generally upward. In winter, larvae bore into the wood, upward at first and then parallel to the grain for several centimeters, often forming a J-shaped gallery (USDA FS 1971). At the far end of tunnels, the larvae form pupal chambers. Before pupating in spring, larvae cut exit holes (Hoffard and Marshall 1978).

Injury and damage. The first sign of activity is wet, discolored spots on the bark. Subsequently, dust and frass can be found exuding from the holes in the bark or in bark crevices below the holes (Hoffard and Marshall 1978). Borer attacks on branches may cause foliage discoloration, branch breakage, or death of the branches. Stems may break in small trees when galleries partially or completely encircle them (USDA FS 1971). Old borer scars are horizontal or vertical (figure 178C and D). Callus tissue bulges to form swellings and cankerlike scars (figure 178E). Horizontal scars are left (figure 178F) when larvae do not complete their life cycle and generally indicate less internal damage than vertical scars. Vertical scars (figure 178D) indicate that larvae survived into the second year. Ridges of bark that form over the galleries rise, crack, and sometimes slough off, leaving open-faced scars (figure 178C) (Hoffard and Marshall 1978). Lumber sawn from infested trees has oval holes measuring 7 by 13 mm to 10 by 18 mm in cross section (figure 178G). Although this pest prefers intermediate or co-dominant trees of low vigor, vigorous trees from sapling to mature may be attacked. The percentage of trees injured is likely to be greater in uneven-

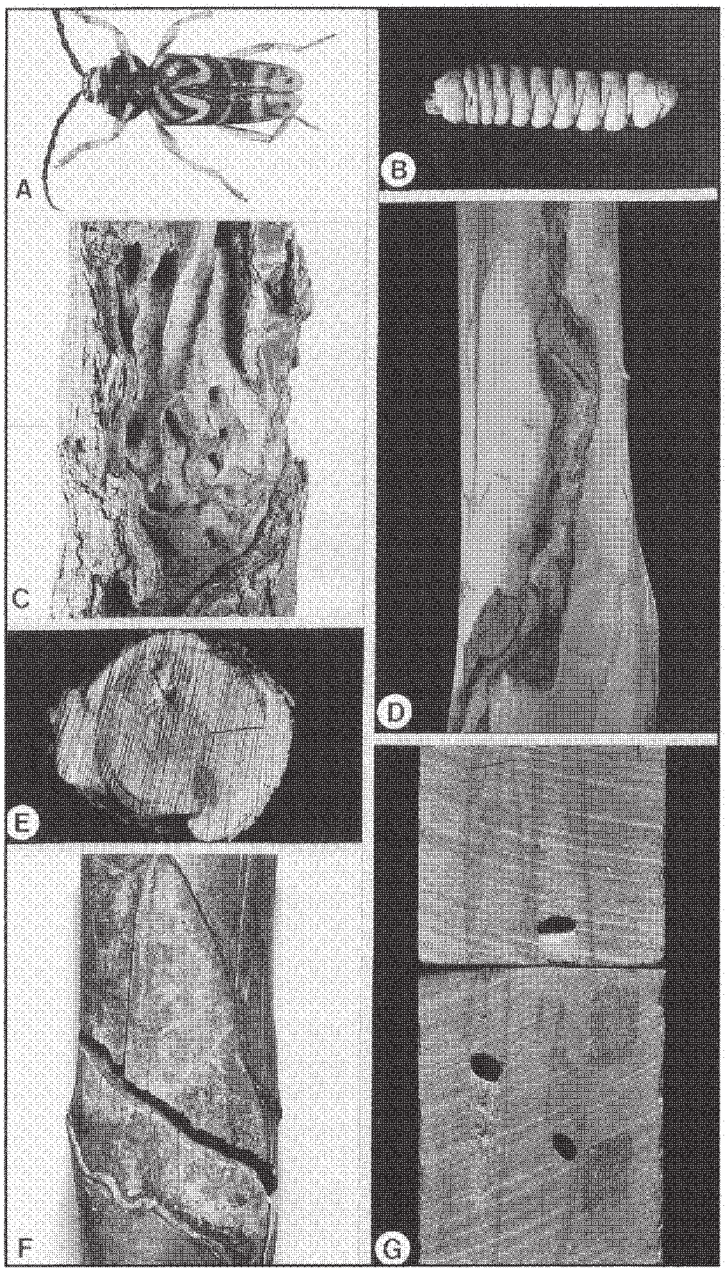


Figure 178—Glycobius speciosus, *sugar maple borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, maple trunk heavily scarred by borers; D, vertical gallery; E, cross section with cankerlike scars; F, spiral or horizontal gallery; G, oval galleries in lumber (specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

aged stands than in even-aged stands (Shigo and others 1973). Attacks occur from ground level up to 9 m, but injuries are more likely on the lower part of the bole, with as many as 95% of the attacks on the lower 6 m of the bole (Talerico 1962). This borer is generally considered the most important insect pest of sugar maple. Infestations have been most damaging in the Northeast, particularly in New York and Pennsylvania (Newton and Allen 1982). Girdling impairs maple sap production. The Armstrong Forest Company of Johnsonburg, Pennsylvania, found that borer damage interrupted the upward movement of herbicides used during chemical girdling (Talerico 1962). Borers feeding close together can often completely girdle and kill trees (Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955). The greatest economic loss results from defects caused by larval galleries, discoloration, decay, and twisted grain (Hoffard and Marshall 1978). Mineral streak in sugar maple is actually discolored wood from sugar maple borer wounds (Shigo and others 1973). Damage is generally most severe in shade trees and in trees in open stands and near streams. Forest infestations appear to be heaviest in open, second-growth stands or in heavily grazed understocked stands (USDA FS 1985). As much as 26 to 43% of the sugar maple trees in stands may be damaged (Newton and Allen 1982, Shigo and others 1973).

Control. Several cultural methods have been suggested (Hoffard and Marshall 1978). Large, low-vigor, exposed trees are most suseptible to attack, and cultural controls should be used. In uneven-aged stands, trees should be selectively cut at maturity; in even-aged stands, all large trees should be harvested at the same time. All old, low-vigor, and heavily infested trees should be harvested before June, when adults normally emerge. Excluding grazing livestock (which may reduce stand vigor) and maintaining well-stocked stands also offer control. Timber stands should be surveyed to assess borer impact and determine control needs (Hoffard and McCreery 1977). For valuable specimens, such as shade trees, water and fertilizer should be used as needed, especially during droughts and other periods of stress. Infested branches of shade trees should be pruned and burned. Larvae in the early stage of attack may be destroyed by probing through the entrance hole with a wire. Chemicals may be necessary for control in valuable trees.

Megacheuma brevipennis (LeConte)

[greasewood borer]

Hosts. Greasewood, saltbush. Black greasewood favored but shadscale saltbush, Gardner saltbush, and Parry saltbush also attacked (Barr and Penrose 1969, Hovore 1979).

Range. Occurs in California north to Oregon and east to Wyoming, Nevada, and Utah (Hovore 1979, Linsley 1964). Most abundant in the northern Great Basin and adjoining areas (Barr and Penrose 1969).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, elongate longhorn beetle with slightly abbreviated elytra and greatly distended abdomen, 11 to 20 mm long (Hovore 1979, Linsley

1964). Reddish antennae reaching about middle of elytra. Legs hairy. Upper surface of thorax and abdomen somewhat flattened. Elytra have three well-defined transverse bands and poorly defined dark areas near their apices; elytral length slightly more than twice basal width. Body reddish brown to black and clothed entirely with short, dense, grayish white to yellowish hairs that lie flat against integument. Two subspecies—*M. b. brevipennis* Hovore (with grayish white body pubescence and dark appendages) and *M. b. tiemanni* Hovore (with yellow body pubescence and pale appendages)—have been described (Hovore 1979). Both are treated together here because there is little difference in their habits, biology, and damage.

Biology. Adults fly from July to October (Hovore 1979, Linsley 1964) and have been seen on foliage of host plants at midday mostly from 11 a.m. to 2:30 p.m. When disturbed, they drop to the ground; females immediately attempt to burrow into the soil and debris near the base of the plant. Females do not fly, but males run swiftly into open sandy areas and take flight when disturbed. Mating occurs in late afternoon on the ground at the base of host plants. After mating, females thrust their abdomens into the soil near the root crown, presumably depositing eggs. Multiple larval infestations are common; as many as eight beetles have been reared from one 3- by 19-cm root-crown section. Pupation occurs within galleries at the root collar. Life cycle is 1 year in southern California but 2 years in Idaho and Oregon.

Injury and damage. Larvae burrow in the main stem, root collar, and roots just above and below ground, and plants sometimes succumb or break at weakened sites. Cutting into the root crown reveals larval galleries, oval to round in cross section, running parallel to the wood grain. Galleries are tightly packed with fine, grainy, dried frass (Hovore 1979). It is common to find dead, dried females on the ground beneath heavily infested hosts. Damage is negligible.

Control. A clerid beetle—*Enoclerus acerbus* Wolcott—preys on larvae and pupae in the roots of host plants (Barr and Penrose 1969). Little else is known about control.

Xylotrechus aceris Fisher

gallmaking maple borer (figure 179)

Hosts. Maple. Red maple is favored. Silver maple, sugar maple, and Norway maple are also attacked (Linsley 1964, MacAloney and Ewan 1964).

Range. Eastern United States south to North Carolina and Georgia and west to Michigan and in southern Canada (Gosling 1973, Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slender longhorn beetle with subparallel sides, 10 to 14 mm long, 2.5 to 3.8 mm wide (figure 179A) (Hopping 1932, Linsley 1964, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Thorax dark brown with four indistinct spots of yellowish white pubescence. Elytra clothed with obscure brownish pubescence sparsely suffused with white and marked with faint lines. Antennae short, extending barely past base of elytra.
Larva. Moderately robust, legless, and

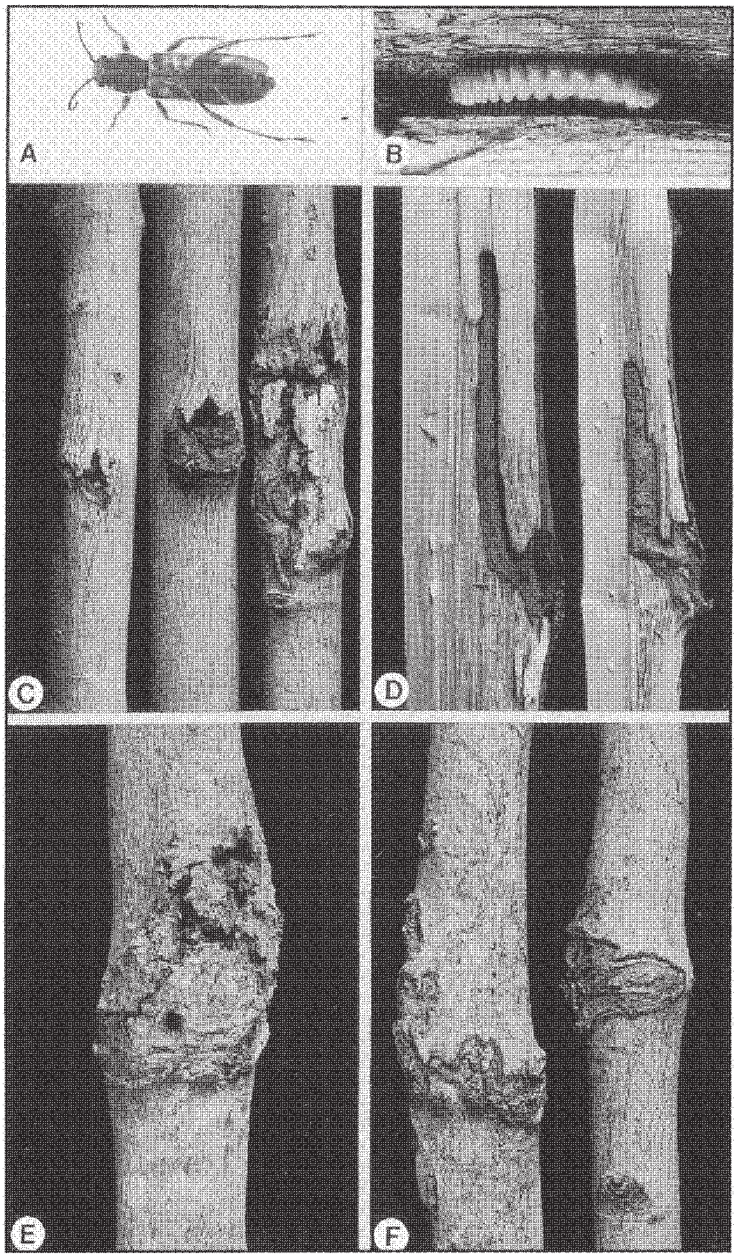


Figure 179—Xylotrechus aceris, *gallmaking maple borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, active attacks in red maple saplings; D, galleries partially filled with frass; E, round emergence hole; F, bulging bark scars from previous attacks.*

12 to 17 mm long (figure 179B). Cream colored with head wider than long, one ocellus on each side, and mandibles rounded at apices. Posterior area of pronotum and ampullae covered with fine, but stiff, brownish, velvety pubescence (Craighead 1923, 1950). ***Pupa.*** Dull white with sides of pronotum armed with short chitinous points.

Biology. Adults emerge June to August and deposit eggs singly at rough spots on the trunk but prefer bases of small dead twigs or in and around wounds (Gosling 1973, Knull 1946). Broken bark around scars of old attacks is particularly attractive to females for oviposition. Larvae bore directly into the sapwood and heartwood, often to the center of small stems. During the second year, larvae tunnel upward or occasionally downward in the stem (Craighead 1950). Portions of the galleries may be filled with light brown, tightly packed frass. Galleries are fairly uniform, extending horizontally or obliquely inward, then straight upward or sometimes downward. Completed galleries usually measure 10 to 15 cm long, but galleries up to 31 cm long have been reported (Knight 1968). When mature, larvae construct pupal cells at the end of the burrows by plugging the galleries tightly with frass. New adults chew through the frass plug and gnaw round exit holes at or near gallery entrances. One generation requires 2 years.

Injury and damage. Visible evidence of infestation is swellings or gall-like formations on otherwise smooth stems. Bark begins to break away at the entrance, exposing wood darkened by decay (figure 179C). Fine yellowish frass may be present at gallery entrances. Dissection of infested stems reveals a small cavity under the bark and a gallery 7 to 12 mm in diameter extending 5 to 12 mm horizontally into the stem, then turning 8 to 13 cm straight up (figure 179D). Attack sites sometimes resemble disease cankers. Young saplings 4 to 7 cm in trunk diameter, particularly those in the understory, are most susceptible, but attack sites have been found in trunks up to 10 cm in diameter (Champlain and others 1925, Knight 1968). Attack sites are most common in trunks but sometimes occur in branches of larger trees. Attack sites are prevalent in the lower 2.4 m of trunk but can occur to a height of 5.4 m. The gall-like and cankerlike attack sites are slow to heal, allowing secondary insects and fungi to extend injury. Galleries and/or larvae can often be found by examining saplings broken at attack sites. Adults leave round exit holes, 4 to 5 mm in diameter usually in the galled, distorted bark near entrance sites (figure 179E). Swollen, irregular scars that remain on the stems for several years are evidence of previous attacks (figure 179F). Larvae construct tunnels in the heartwood; repeated attacks often destroy the center of trees. Infested trees are rarely killed outright but may be seriously weakened, becoming subject to breakage (USDA FS 1985). It is common to find 75% of red maples in a neighborhood or local forest stand with borer injuries and many broken off at the point of attack (Craighead 1950). Repeated attacks on young trees leave defective stems that sometimes never recov-

er adequately for desirable crop trees. A low-quality log may be the result of old borer damage (Knight 1968).

Control. Moderate woodpecker predation occurs. Little else is known of the natural and cultural controls. Chemicals applied during oviposition would probably prevent attacks on valuable trees, but none have been evaluated.

Xylotrechus insignis LeConte

[Pacific willow borer] (figure 180)

Host. Willow. Pacific willow specifically mentioned as a host, but other willows undoubtedly attacked (Craighead 1923, Linsley 1964).

Range. Oregon south through California to northern Baja California and east to Arizona and Nevada (Essig 1958, Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Beautiful, cylindrical, reddish brown to black longhorn beetle with yellow markings; 13 to 18 mm long (figure 180A) (Essig 1958, Linsley 1964). Head has conspicuous, V-shaped frontal carina; antennae short and robust, barely reaching base of elytra. Pronotum bordered by narrow, yellow band in front and rear of females. Elytra marked with pale pubescence by a basal patch; an oblique, oval, subbasal spot; a transverse band to apical one-third; and a broad apical marginal patch. Males slightly smaller and less colorful. Legs moderately slender and elongate. ***Larva.*** Elongate and white except for brown head and mouthparts, ampullae covered with velvety pubescence only on perimeter and along median line, and 16 to 24 mm long (figure 180B) (Craighead 1923).

Biology. Adults begin emerging in March and are present until August (Linsley 1964). Females deposit eggs around dead, dying, and broken branches. Larvae make long frass-filled mines under the bark, enter the wood, and complete development. Pupation occurs in chambers in the wood galleries. New adults cut holes directly through the wood and bark to emerge in spring. The life cycle requires 1 or 2 years.

Injury and damage. Initially, injury is difficult to diagnose, but after a few months, the bark begins to loosen in patches. Removing the bark reveals mostly longitudinal larval mines etched in the surface of the sapwood and packed with granular frass (figure 180C). Dissecting the sapwood reveals numerous galleries deep in the wood (figure 180D). In cross section, the galleries are oval, 3 to 4 mm by 6 to 8 mm, and mostly filled with frass (figure 180E). Beetles leave round, 4-to 5-mm-diameter exit holes in the bark (figure 180F). This pest attacks living trees but is found most commonly in dying trees. It can riddle the wood of infested trees, but the host species and condition of host minimize its overall economic impact.

Control. Natural controls have not been reported, and direct controls have not been needed.

Xylotrechus quadrimaculatus (Haldeman)

[birch and beech girdler] (figure 181)

Hosts. Birch, beech, maple, alder, American hornbeam. Birch and beech are

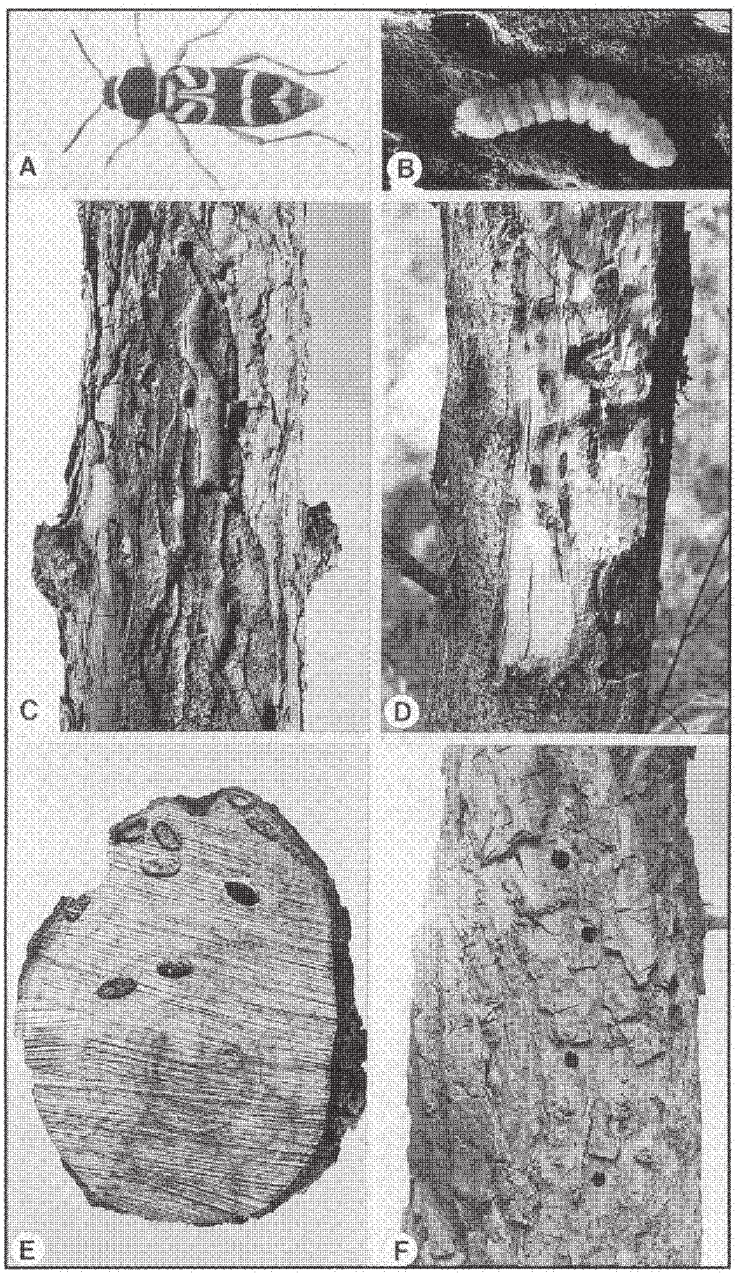


Figure 180—Xylotrechus insignis, *[Pacific willow borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, longitudinal frass-packed galleries; D, galleries in wood; E, cross section of oval galleries; F, round emergence holes in bark (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

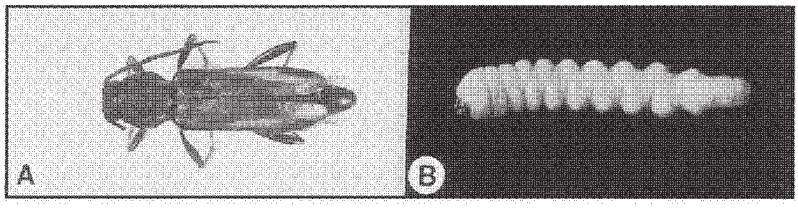


Figure 181—Xylotrechus quadrimaculatus, *[birch and beech girdler]: A, adult; B, larva (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

major hosts (Leonard 1928, Linsley 1964, USDA FS 1985). Pear mentioned, but not confirmed.

Range. Northeastern United States and eastern Canada, but recorded as far west as Michigan (Gosling 1973, Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, slender longhorn beetle, varying from 7.5 to 15.9 mm long and 2.0 to 3.5 mm wide (figure 181A) (Hopping 1932, Linsley 1964, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Thorax black with four yellow, pubescent spots. Elytra pale brown and indistinctly marked with pale yellowish white lines. Adults closely resemble sibling species, *X. aceris*, but are distinguished by having fainter spots on thorax and stronger markings on elytra. ***Larva.*** Moderately robust, legless, and creamy white; and slightly larger than adult when fully grown (figure 181B). Larvae distinguished by a single perimeter of ampullae that are velvety pubescent instead of entirely pubescent as in *X. aceris* (Craighead 1923). ***Pupa.*** Dull white with sides of pronotum armed with slender chitinous points.

Biology. Adults emerge from mid-May to mid-June but are collected as late as August (Champlain and others 1925, Linsley 1964). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices and at healed injuries, particularly in the axil of small twigs. Eggs hatch in about 6 days, and larvae begin feeding beneath the bark, usually in straight lines. Larvae begin girdling branches when they reach 6 mm long. Larvae make concentric cuts starting from the mine just under the bark to the stem center, continuing until the branch is almost severed (USDA FS 1985). After completing the girdles, larvae generally tunnel distally into the severed branches. Girdled branches soon fall, and most larvae fall to the ground with the severed branches. A few can be found in the branch stubs remaining on the tree. Occasionally, branches break before the girdle is complete, and the larvae are dislodged and fall freely to the ground and die. Larvae in girdled branches mine beneath the bark for 5 to 10 cm, then bore deeper into the wood, making galleries 15 to 30 cm long. Larvae pack the galleries tightly with granular frass as they advance. During fall, the larvae make simple cells at the ends of galleries to overwinter. In spring, usually in April, mature larvae construct exit tunnels to the outer bark and then pupate. Pupation lasts 12 to 15 days. New adults complete the exit holes and emerge. There is one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Severed branches hanging in the canopy and lying on the ground beneath host trees are evidence of infestation (Champlain and others 1925, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Pruned branches and branch stubs show a clean, circular cut in the sapwood encircling the stem directly under the bark, extending more or less to the stem center. The bark is not cut, and sometimes, a small portion of the stem center is not severed. Weakened branches break from their own weight or the wind. The girdled end of the severed branch usually contains a small larval hole tightly plugged with frass. Branches from 13 to 50 mm in diameter may be girdled. Infestations are most common on ridge tops of hills and mountains (Craighead

1923). Although forest trees are seldom seriously damaged, valuable shade and ornamental trees may be pruned. Severed branches hanging in the crown and pruned branches littering the ground can reduce esthetic value in residential areas.

Control. Collecting and destroying pruned branches containing the larvae during fall, winter, and early spring help control the borer. Nothing is known of the natural enemies, and direct controls have not been investigated.

Xylotrechus obliteratus LeConte

[poplar-butt borer] (figure 182)

Hosts. Poplar. Quaking aspen is chief host; other poplars and aspens also attacked (Craighead 1950).

Range. Most abundant in the Rocky Mountain region but also found in parts of the eastern United States (Craighead 1950, Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, elongate longhorn beetle 10 to 18 mm long and 3.8 to 5.0 mm wide (figure 182A) (Craighead 1950, Hopping 1932). Body sparsely covered with gray pubescence. Pronotum may or may not be marked with yellow bands at anterior and posterior margins. Gray elytra suffused with white pubescence and crossed by three yellow bands—the first oblique, the middle curved, and the last transverse. Antennae short, barely reaching base of elytra. ***Larva.*** Dull white, legless, and moderately robust (figure 182B). Can be distinguished from larvae of *X. aceris* and *X. quadrimaculatus* by finer velvety pubescence on pronotum and ampullae (Craighead 1923, 1950).

Biology. Adults are present in late summer, particularly during July and August (Craighead 1950, Linsley 1964). Females deposit eggs in bark crevices and surface irregularities or where the wood has been exposed on the lower trunk. Larvae tunnel and feed beneath the bark until fall, then overwinter in their galleries. In spring, they enter the wood, which they work for several years. The larvae generally extend their galleries downward so that the greatest portion of feeding is beneath the surface of the ground. Mature larvae make upward excavations extending outward toward the bark, form pupal chambers, and pupate. New adults gnaw holes through the bark and emerge. Females of successive generations continue to lay eggs on currently and previously infested trees and continue infestation until the tree succumbs or breaks.

Injury and damage. Trees that are weakened, dying, or broken in the basal portion should be examined for infestation (Craighead 1923, 1950). Examination reveals tunnels in the wood around the base of the tree, mostly at or just below the ground line. Sometimes, the burrows extend into the upper roots. Repeated attacks often result in the wood being completely honeycombed. Heavily attacked trees eventually die or break. Fallen trees typically break where tunneled and weakened. Inspection of freshly broken trees reveals open tunnels and larvae. This beetle is a pest in the Rocky Mountains, where it has destroyed extensive areas of aspen growing above 2,134 m in elevation. In many

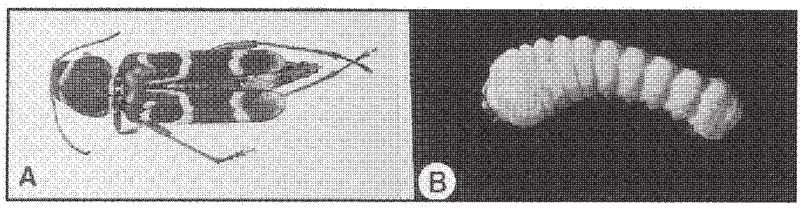


Figure 182—Xylotrechus obliteratus, *[poplar-butt borer]: A, adult; B, larva (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

places, 90% of the trees are attacked each year, some breaking off during winter storms. Stands have been examined following severe ice, snow, and wind storms, and nearly every tree that fell had a hollowed-out butt where it broke (Craighead 1923, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Control. Little is known of natural and cultural controls. It would be impractical under present forestry conditions to attempt direct control, as stumps and roots would have to be removed to destroy the larvae (Craighead 1950).

Xylotrechus nauticus (Mannerheim)

[nautical borer]

Hosts. Oak, walnut, eucalyptus, peach, willow, madrone. Oaks, walnuts, and willows are favored. Other species are also attacked (Craighead 1923, Linsley 1964).

Range. Occurs along the Pacific Coast from British Columbia (Furniss and Carolin 1977) to California (Linsley 1964). Also recorded from Montana (Essig 1915).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, cylindrical longhorn beetle measuring 9 to 16 mm long (Essig 1915, Linsley 1964). Conspicuous, V-shaped ridge on front of head. Integument black, rarely brown, and covered with fine, whitish hairs. Pronotum marked with irregular, sparse patches of whitish gray hairs. Elytra marked with three transverse, zigzag or undulating white lines. Legs moderately elongate. ***Larva.*** Legless, white with brown head and jaws, and about 19 mm long; body slightly wider behind head (Craighead 1923, Essig 1915). Lacks velvety pubescence on pronotum and ampullae present in other *Xylotrechus* species. ***Pupa.*** White to yellow and about 12 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge and fly from May to July. Newly hatched larvae burrow just beneath the bark for several weeks and complete development deep in the sapwood and heartwood in galleries tightly packed with granular frass. Larvae overwinter in galleries, then pupate just beneath the bark during April and May. The life cycle is 1 year (Linsley 1964).

Injury and damage. Occasionally infests living trees but is commonly found in burned, dying, or dead trees, where it infests branches and trunks (Essig 1915). Circular exit holes are made by newly emerged adults in the outer bark. Peeling back the bark exposes a network of meandering and intersecting galleries made by the smaller larvae on the surface of the sapwood and heartwood. Galleries are firmly packed with granular frass (Craighead 1923, Linsley 1964). On living trees, branches are killed back a meter or more by larvae. Eucalyptus logs cut for lumber have been destroyed. Firewood is commonly riddled, and adults often emerge in homes where firewood is stored (Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Control. Natural controls include one insect predator—*Temnochila virescens* (Fabricius)—and two hymenopterous parasites—*Atanycolus simplex* (Cresson) and *Aulacostelhus montanus* (Cresson) (Linsley 1964). Direct controls are rarely needed in living trees but may be necessary in logs cut for lumber.

Neoclytus acuminatus (Fabricius)

redheaded ash borer (figure 183)

Hosts. Ash, hickory, oak, walnut, birch, beech, maple, eastern hophornbeam, dogwood, persimmon, redbud, holly, hackberry, black locust, honeylocust, yellow-poplar, chestnut, Osage-orange, sassafras, lilac, mountain-mahogany, pear, cherry, plum, peach, apple, elm, basswood, sweetgum. Ash is preferred, followed by oak, hickory, persimmon, and hackberry, and, to a lesser extent, the other species (Barr and Manis 1954, Johnson and Lyon 1988, Linsley 1964, MacAloney and Ewan 1964, Waters 1981).

Range. The Atlantic Coast and Gulf Coast west to Idaho, Colorado, and New Mexico and westward across Canada to Manitoba (Craighead 1950, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, tapering longhorn beetle, varying greatly in length from 4 to 18 mm (figure 183A) (Linsley 1964, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Pronotum about as wide as long and broadly rounded at sides; upper surface finely and densely punctured and covered with fine hairs. Anterior and posterior margins of pronotum usually black. Four narrow yellow bands of condensed, fine hairs mark upper surfaces of elytra. Elytra narrower at base than middle of prothorax and sides taper, or narrow, to middle and then more gradually toward apex. Second and third pairs of legs noticeably longer than front pair (Beal and others 1952). ***Egg.*** White, elongate, tapered at one end, and 1.2 by 0.2 mm (Waters 1981). ***Larva.*** Mature larva short, robust, cylindrical, and 10 to 22 mm long (figure 183B) (MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Body surface dull and densely clothed with fine, silky, lemon white hairs. Thoracic legs minute, consisting of one joint and soft spine.

Biology. Adults emerge May to August in the North and February to November in the South (Linsley 1964). In south Alabama, beetles are active March to mid-November, peaking in April, July, and September (Waters 1981). Eggs are most often deposited in bark crevices and cracks, beneath lichens and bark scales, and occasionally at twig nodes. Eggs hatch within 6 days, and young larvae rapidly penetrate the bark. By the 20th day, they have entered the sapwood. During the remainder of development, larvae feed entirely within the sapwood, never entering the heartwood, and pass through six instars. Larval tunnels usually follow the direction of the wood grain, but in smaller trees, the galleries may run horizontally and vertically (Johnson and Lyon 1988). Galleries are always packed tightly with fine, granular frass. Pupation occurs in parallel-sided, frass-free cells either in, or close to, the surface of the sapwood. To emerge, newly formed adults chew circular holes directly through the bark. This borer overwinters most frequently in the larval stage, and the overwintering generation pupates in late winter and early spring. A generation can be completed in 60 to 90 days in Alabama (Craighead 1950, Waters 1981). In Illinois, one generation per year is most common, with a partial second generation during some years (Johnson and Lyon 1988); however, in the South, there are two to three

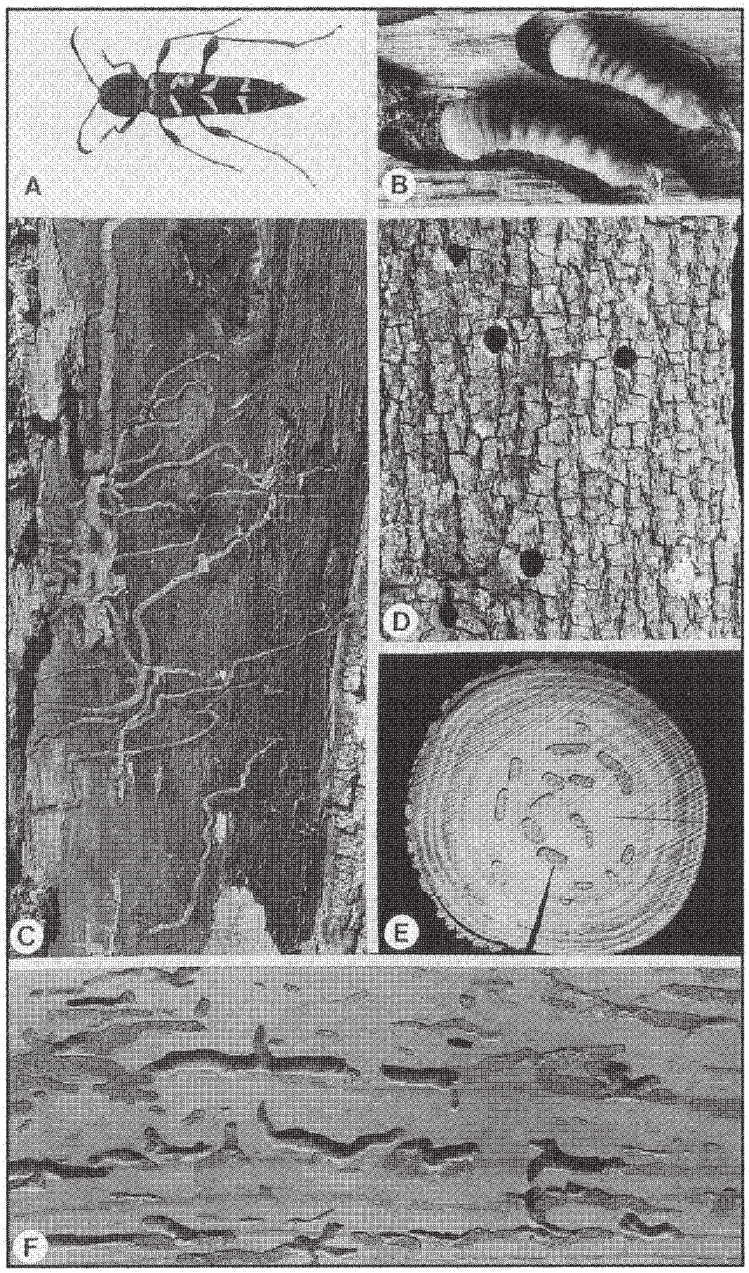


Figure 183—Neoclytus acuminatus, *redheaded ash borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, narrow, meandering frass-packed galleries beneath bark; D, round emergence holes in green ash; E, cross section of oval, frass-packed galleries in wood; F, ash lumber riddled with galleries.*

generations a year (Waters 1981).

Injury and damage. Initial attacks are difficult to diagnose because there are no open entrance holes and little frass is ejected. However, numerous, long, narrow, frass-packed mines can be observed on the surface of the sapwood when the bark is removed (figure 183C). Later, many round exit holes 2 to 5 mm in diameter appear in the bark (figure 183D). Dissecting infested stems reveals numerous galleries throughout the wood. In cross section, the final galleries are flattened oval, 4 by 12 mm, and packed lightly with granular frass (figure 183E). Injury to recently felled trees and unseasoned logs is often confined to the lower half or shaded undersides (Waters 1981). Infested logs sawn into lumber are often riddled with galleries, making them unmarketable (figure 183F). This pest commonly infests weakened, dead, and dying trees but is most destructive to unseasoned logs containing bark. Over 1 million board feet of ash logs have been completely destroyed in some logging operations (Beal and others 1952, Craighead 1950). This species is also a serious pest of apparently healthy black locust trees in farm woodlots and windbreaks (Barr and Manis 1954). Also, it often attacks recently planted trees.

Control. It is vulnerable to many parasites and predators. Nine species of parasites have been reported (Beal and others 1952, Linsley 1964, Waters 1981). A study in south Alabama revealed that 22% of overwintering larvae were killed by two braconid wasps—*Iphiaulax* sp. and *Wroughtonia ferruginea* (Brues) (Waters 1981). Predators include woodpeckers; nuthatches; two clerid beetles—*Chariessa* sp. and *Thanasimus* sp.; and a trogositid beetle—*Temnochilia* sp. (Waters 1981). Good cultural practices should be followed, because healthy trees are rarely attacked. Recently felled trees and green sawlogs may be infested within 20 days during the warm months, particularly in the South. Therefore, logs should be moved promptly to the sawmill and processed. Direct controls may be needed to protect valuable trees and sawlogs.

Neoclytus tenuiscriptus Fall

[seepwillow borer] (figure 184)

Host. Baccharis. Reared only from mulefat baccharis (Hovore 1983).

Range. Reported from only six counties in southern California and from southwestern Arizona (Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, moderate-sized longhorn beetle, with subparallel sides and reddish brown integument with lighter markings; 7.5 to 12.0 mm long (figure 184A) (Linsley 1964). Head and pronotum finely to coarsely punctate and without pubescent bands or patches. Antennae extend slightly past base of elytra. Pubescent bands on elytra are dense and appressed and have white or yellowish hairs; pattern consists of narrow transverse band behind elytra base; narrow, median, acutely angulate band near suture; and slightly broader, transverse, subapical band. Legs noticeably slender and elongate.
Larva. White (except for dark head and

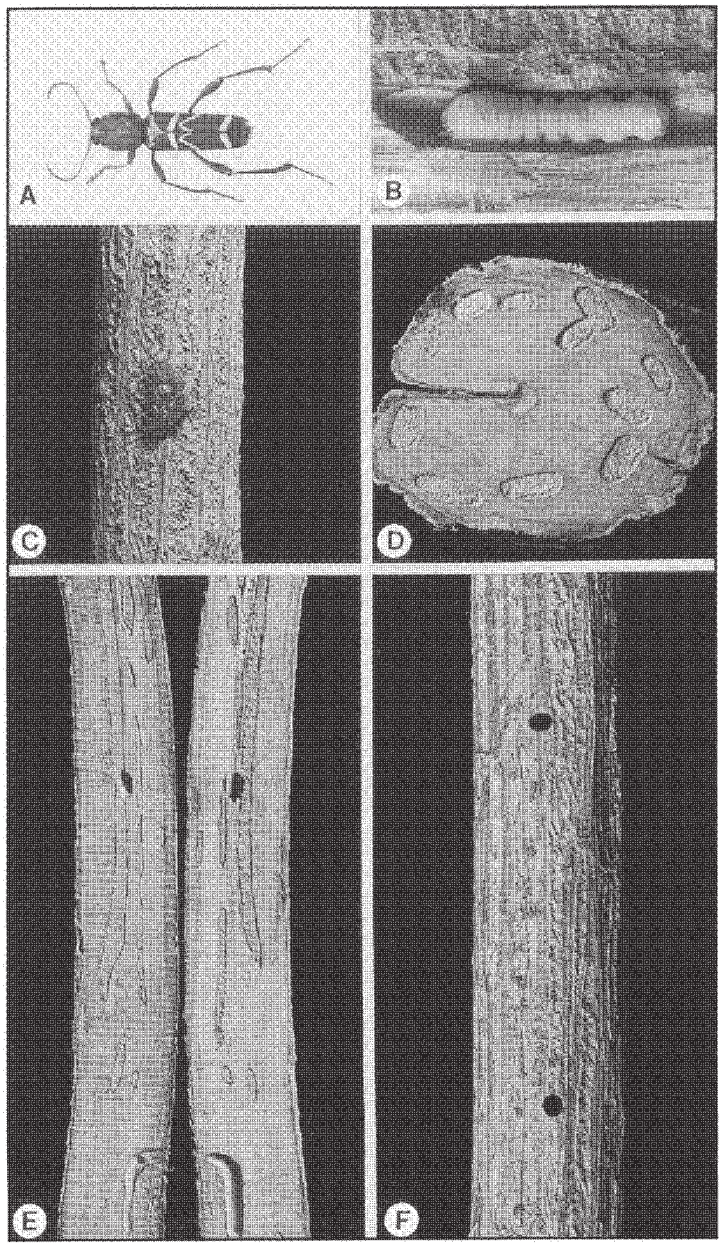


Figure 184—Neoclytus tenuiscriptus, *[seepwillow borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, resinous exudate on bark indicating attack; D, cross section of frass-packed galleries; E, longitudinal galleries and pupal cell; F, round emergence holes in bark (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

mouthparts) and cylindrical, measuring 10 to 16 mm long (figure 184B).

Biology. Adults emerge and fly from March to June (Linsley 1964). Females apparently deposit eggs mostly on lower stems. Larvae mine the basal portions of stems 15 to 50 mm in diameter, with occasional galleries extending distally into the stem terminus and lateral branches (Hovore 1983). Heavily infested canes may have a dozen galleries, representing both recent and older attacks. Just before pupation, larvae chew exit routes from the simple, elongate pupal cells outward to the inner bark. Based on field observations of larval instars, the life cycle is 2 years.

Injury and damage. Initial attacks are often difficult to detect. In some cases, small dark stains appear on the bark. These spots may contain gelatinous or resinous material (figure 184C). The gelatinous deposits congeal and harden and often mark the site of pupal cells that have been chewed outward to the inner bark surface. Dissection of infested stems reveals that most tunnels are in the wood. In cross section, the galleries are oval, packed with granular frass, and 1.5 to 2.0 mm by 4 to 6 mm (figure 184D). Most galleries extend longitudinally with the stem, and except for pupal cells and exits, are packed with frass (figure 184E). Round holes 3 to 4 mm in diameter in the bark mark the sites of adult emergence (figure 184F). Heavily infested plants frequently succumb (Hovore 1983).

Control. Immature stages are very heavily parasitized by unidentified ichneumonoid wasps. Rearing studies reveal a wasp-to-beetle ratio exceeding 4:1 (Hovore 1983). Direct controls are not needed.

Neoclytus cordifer (Klug)

[mangrove borer]

Hosts. Mangrove, orange, mango, pomegranate. Mangrove preferred, but citrus trees, especially orange, are sometimes heavily attacked (Back 1918, Linsley 1964).

Range. First described as a citrus pest in Cuba in 1836; reported damaging citrus in Florida in 1910 (Back 1918). Reported from Georgia since then (Linsley 1964).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately small longhorn beetle, with reddish brown and white markings (Linsley 1964). Elytra about 2.5 times as long as wide, reddish brown with two variable white transverse bands and tipped apically with white. Legs long and slender. Antennae slightly longer in males than females. Beetles range from 7 to 15 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge April through June (Back 1918). Young larvae feed on inner bark and sapwood where frass-plugged winding burrows stand out in contrast to discolored sapwood. Larvae eventually bore deep into the heartwood. Mature larvae tunnel back to the surface then retreat a short distance beneath the bark to pupate. New adults chew exit holes up to 9 mm in diameter through the wood and bark.

Injury and damage. Borer exit holes 6.4 to 9.7 mm in diameter in the bark are evidence of infestation (Back 1918). Tunnels can be found in the inner bark, sapwood, and heartwood of branches, trunk, crown, and roots. Trees less than 18 cm in

diameter are most apt to be attacked. This borer is a potentially serious pest of the orange industry in Florida.

Control. Badly infested trees should be removed and destroyed in early spring before the new adults emerge. Chemical control may be necessary in some localities to protect commercially grown citrus as well as valuable ornamental trees.

Callona rimosa (Buquet)

[mesquite-huisache borer] (figure 185)

Hosts. Mesquite, huisache. Honey mesquite appears to be favored (Linsley 1962b, Vogt 1949b).

Range. Southwestern species found in southern and central Texas and northern Mexico (Linsley 1962b, Vogt 1949b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large longhorn beetle with brown integument in male and black in female, reddish orange femora, lustrous metallic green elytra; males 30 to 36 mm long and females 33 to 38 mm long (figure 185A) (Linsley 1962b). Head sparsely punctate with antennae nearly reaching elytral apices in males and reaching only to middle of elytra in females. Pronotum dull in males and shiny in females, densely punctate, and nearly twice as wide as long. Elytra more than twice as long as basal width, with crinkled surface and broadly rounded apices. Legs sparsely pubescent. ***Larva.*** White, moderately robust, with prominent ampullae and accordian-like segments, measuring up to 40 mm long (figure 185B).

Biology. Adults emerge during May and June (Hovore and others 1987, Vogt 1949b). Adults have been taken on several nonhost trees and shrubs. Females apparently deposit eggs on the bark, mostly near the base. Young larvae bore into the bark and sapwood. Galleries often extend down into the roots, especially in small trees. During October, infested trees typically contain one to three larvae, and larvae enlarge the bark openings to form emergence holes but keep them tightly packed with frass. Pupation chambers are formed with wood fibers within galleries, usually below ground. January studies revealed larvae still in the prepupal stage; and studies made in late March and early April found only pupae and teneral adults. These findings indicate one generation per year.

Injury and damage. This pest attacks trees from about 3.8 to 20.0 cm in diameter (Vogt 1949b). Most attack sites occur around the base, but characteristic damage has been observed in branches of large trees. Sap oozing onto the bark from attack sites is the earliest evidence of infestation. Frass is soon pushed through small openings in the bark. Conspicuous quantities of frass, debris, and sap are ejected during July, August, and September. Gallery openings are kept plugged with frass. Dissection of infested trees reveals straight, spacious galleries about 30 cm long and about twice the width of the larvae. Galleries are found in sapwood, mostly at depths less than 2.5 cm beneath the bark. Up to 10% of the trees have been infested in some areas of the lower Rio Grande Valley. However, host trees are hardy, and the vigor of most infested trees seems largely unaffected.

Control. Nothing is known of natural

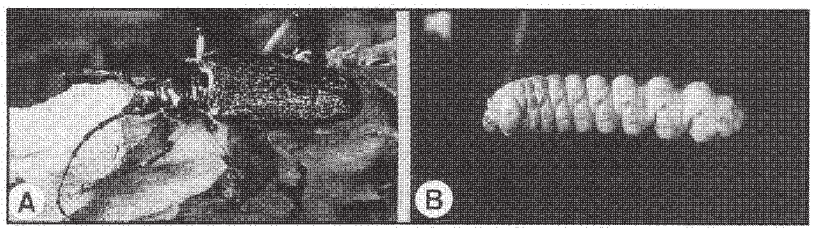


Figure 185—Callona rimosa, *[mesquite-huisache borer]: A, adult; B, larva (A, courtesy F. Hovore; B, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

controls, and direct controls have not been needed.

Crioprosopus magnificus (LeConte)

[Arizona oak borer]

Host. Oak. Arizona white oak, Emory oak, and silverleaf oak are attacked (Hovore 1983).

Range. Southwestern species; Cochise and Pima Counties in southern Arizona and in northern Mexico (Hovore 1983, Linsley 1962b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Large, broad, longhorn beetle measuring 25 to 38 mm long (Hovore 1983, Linsley 1962b). Beetles deep red to yellowish orange (yellowish postmortem) with black markings. Elytra black with two transverse orange bands connected along lateral margin and posterior band not reaching suture. Pronotum with prominent lateral spines. Antennae distinctly longer than body in males and less than body length in females. ***Egg.*** Large, oval, and 2.8 by 4.5 mm.

Biology. Adults emerge in late June or early July and have been collected as late as August 3 (Hovore 1983). Adult emergence appears to be in response to summer "monsoon" rains. Adults are diurnal, with daily activity largely restricted to 9 a.m. to 12 noon. Largest flights occur on warm sunny mornings following rain, with activity decreasing each dry day but increasing again after additional rain. Male beetles fly swiftly over treetops or lazily circle the tree canopy, presumably seeking females. Females are usually on the outer foliage. After mating, females either fly away or crawl down onto the branches or trunk and oviposit. Females deposit eggs singly in fissures of the bark. Egg chorions are coated with a sticky secretion and a layer of fine debris. Larvae tunnel and feed in living trees. Mature larvae pupate at the end of the galleries in elongate-oval chambers plugged to the inner bark surface with wads of excelsior-like frass. New adults chew through the bark to exit. Collections evidence mass emergence in 3-year cycles with few or no specimens collected during intervening years.

Injury and damage. Extensive galleries terminating in pupal cells are found in sapwood and heartwood of living trees (Hovore 1983). Adult emergence holes are cleanly chewed, elliptical openings in the bark up to 20 mm wide. Trunks of small- to medium-sized trees 15 to 30 cm in diameter and lateral branches to 6 cm in diameter may be infested. Limited distribution of the insect makes overall damage minor.

Control. Controls have not been needed. Nothing is known of natural enemies.

Purpuricenus dimidiatus LeConte

[scrub oak borer] (figure 186)

Hosts. Oak, willow. Reared from three species of oaks—California scrub oak, coast live oak, and Dunn oak (Linsley 1962b, Skiles and others 1978).

Range. Throughout California, but more abundant on desert slopes of southern California (Hovore and Giesbert 1976, Linsley 1962b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately robust, black longhorn beetle with reddish markings, measuring 13 to 16 mm long

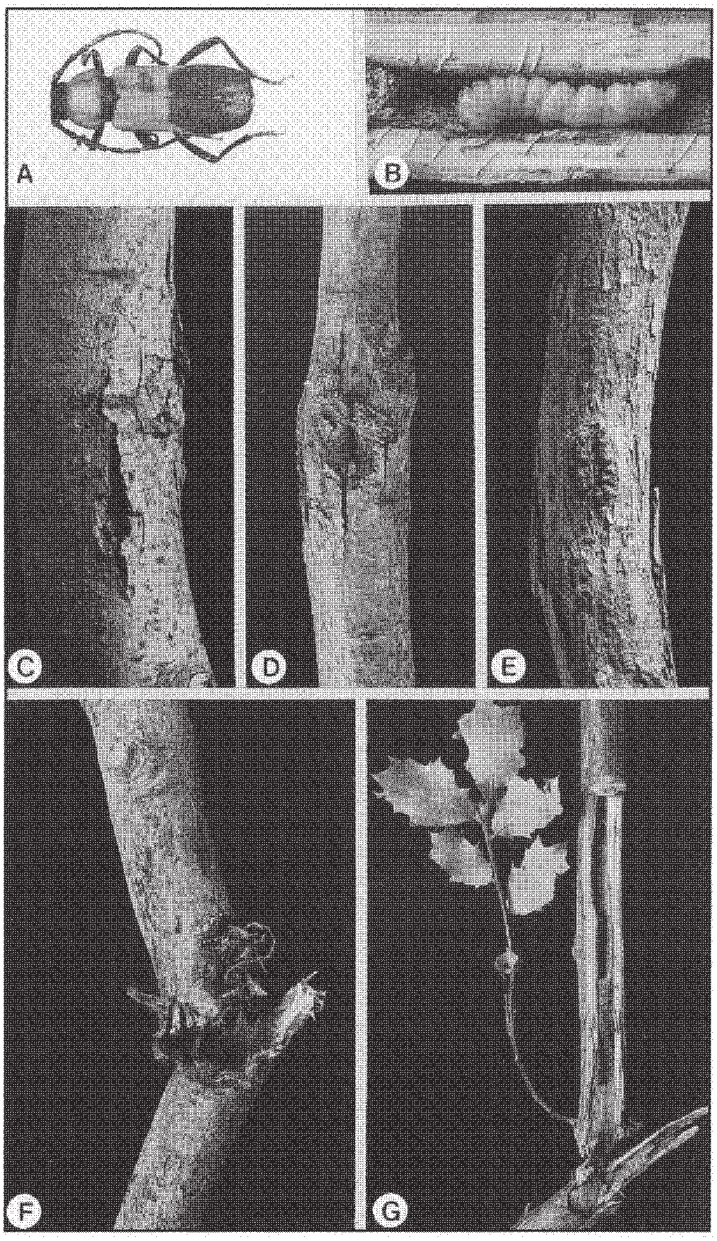


Figure 186—Purpuricenus dimidiatus, *[scrub oak borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, larval entrance in bark; D, old puckered entrance with frass protruding; E, bulging bark scar over old attack; F, stem broken at girdled site; G, gallery in stem center (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

(figure 186A) (Linsley 1962b). In males, disk of pronotum and base of elytra typically reddish, but some specimens entirely black; in females, entire pronotum and basal half of elytra red. Pronotum wider than long, and antennae reach middle of elytra in females and slightly longer in males. ***Larva.*** Moderately robust, cylindrical, white except for brown head and mouthparts, measuring 15 to 20 mm long (figure 186B).

Biology. Adults emerge May to July (Linsley 1962b). Larvae tunnel into the woody portion of stems, making elongate openings in the bark at entrance sites, which they enlarge as they grow. Although some frass is ejected through the bark entrances, small amounts may be packed tightly within portions of the galleries. As the larvae mature, they plug bark openings with fibrous frass. Pupation occurs in the galleries, and new adults emerge through the frass-plugged entrances. The life cycle requires at least 2 years (Hovore and Giesbert 1976).

Injury and damage. Weakened hosts with faded foliage and dying, dead, and girdled branches indicate infestation (Hovore and Giesbert 1976). Elongate openings occur at entrance sites (figure 186C); entrances may later appear slightly swollen and puckered, with frass protruding (figure 186D). Later, the opening is plugged with fibrous frass. After the site is vacated, the opening heals and forms a puckered bulging scar (figure 186E). Small trunks and branches may be infested, but the pest prefers the basal portion of stems arising from the root collar. Infested stems are typically partially girdled and break (figure 186F). Dissection of infested plants reveals galleries usually in the center of the stem (figure 186G). Damage might be considered negligible in noncommercial hosts, but these species are important as cover in arid habitats and as browse for sheep, goats, deer, and other wildlife.

Control. Nothing is known of natural, cultural, or direct controls.

Purpuricenus axillaris Haldeman

[white oak branch girdler]

Hosts. Oak, hickory, chestnut. Oaks (particularly members of the white oak group) are preferred. Recorded from swamp white oak, chestnut oak, post oak, black oak, pignut hickory, and American chestnut (Champlain and others 1925, Linsley 1962b, Lugger 1884).

Range. Eastern United States from New York and Massachusetts south to Virginia and west to Mississippi and Indiana (Linsley 1962b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Robust, subcylindrical longhorn beetle measuring 12 to 29 mm long (Blatchley 1910). Beetles black with dorsal third of elytra yellow or yellowish orange (Linsley 1962b). Head and pronotum densely punctate. Antennae in females reach slightly beyond tips of elytra and slightly longer in males.

Biology. Adults emerge May to July, but beetles have been taken alive as late as August (Kirk and Knull 1926, Linsley 1962b). Eggs are deposited singly on selected branches (Champlain and others 1925). Larvae bore into branches, then

tunnel downward toward the trunk. They often mine smaller branches along main branches and sometimes prune them. Galleries, which are packed tightly with frass, often extend downward 61 cm or more before the larvae mature and sever the branches. Larvae are usually in the pruned portions of branches but sometimes may be in branch stubs on the tree. They occasionally mine into the main trunk at the base of the branches. The life cycle appears to require 2 years.

Injury and damage. Living branches severed and hanging from the tree or lying on the ground confirm infestation. Branches are mined and tunneled and eventually cut off. Damage is similar to that of *Anelaphus villosus* except that *P. axillaris* prunes larger branches, often up to 50 mm in diameter. The lowest branches on the tree seem to be preferred. This pest was reported to cause considerable damage to lower branches of swamp white oak near Hummelstown, Pennsylvania (Champlain and others 1925).

Control. Collecting and burning fallen branches destroy larvae before adults emerge. Little else is known about natural or direct controls.

Amannus pectoralis LeConte

[saltbush borer] (figure 187)

Host. Saltbush. Fourwing saltbush is only reported host (Linsley 1962b). Adults have been collected on rush bebbia, but it is doubtful that this species is a larval host.

Range. Southwestern species ranging from southern Nevada, Arizona, and southern California to northern Baja California in Mexico (Linsley 1962b).

Description. ***Adult.*** Moderately small, slender, dark brown to blackish longhorn beetle with brownish gray pubescence, and 7 to 10 mm long (figure 187A) (Linsley 1962b). Head irregularly punctate with antennae barely attaining middle of elytra in females and exceeding elytral apices by about three and a half segments in males. Pronotum wider than long and thinly clothed with pale hairs denser on sides. Elytra three times as long as wide and densely punctate with dark stripe down middle of each elytron and inner margins narrowly bordered in black. ***Larva.*** Elongate, cylindrical, and yellowish with tiny thoracic legs, measuring 11 to 16 mm long (figure 187B).

Biology. Adults emerge and fly April to June (Linsley 1962b). Based on the location of galleries and emergence holes, females deposit eggs on stems with a range of diameters, although few emergence holes are found in smaller stems. In small stems, the larvae move downward, but in large stems, they may tunnel in either direction. Pupation most often occurs with the head upward in the gallery. The life cycle is unknown but, based on collection of larvae and adults, 1 or 2 years seem likely.

Injury and damage. Main stems and branches from 4 to 30 mm in diameter are infested. Some stem dieback may be observed. Examination reveals scattered tiny openings 0.5 to 1.0 mm in diameter in the bark where some frass is ejected. Adult emergence holes 2 to 4 mm in diameter,

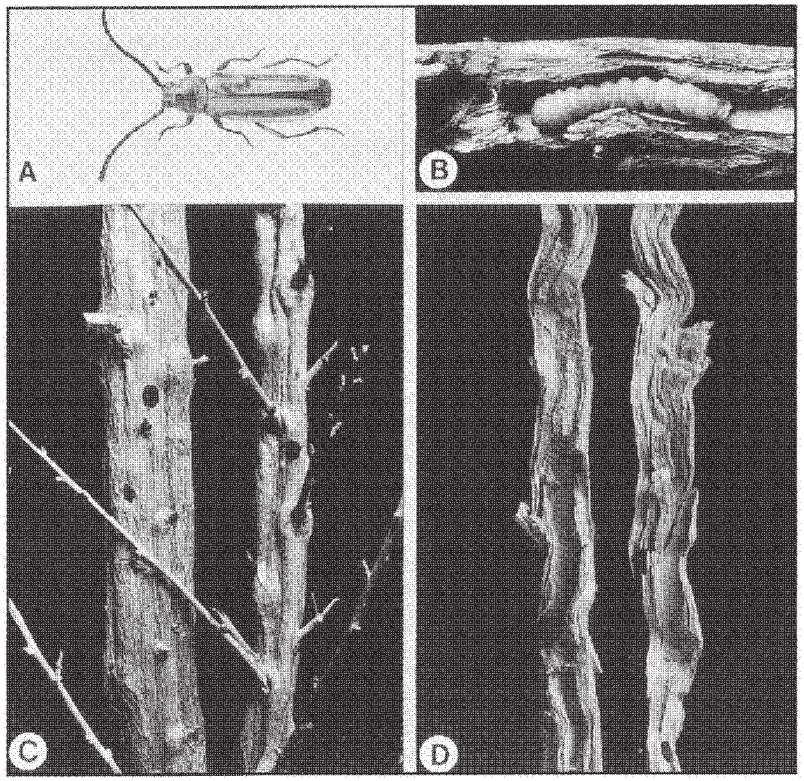


Figure 187—Amannus pectoralis, *[saltbush borer]: A, adult; B, larva; C, emergence holes in stems; D, galleries partially packed with fine frass (specimens courtesy F. Hovore and R. Penrose).*

varying from nearly round to oval to irregular, are scattered along the stem (figure 187C). As many as 10 emergence holes in a 30-cm stem section have been observed. Dissection reveals oval to flattened-oval galleries, portions of which are tightly packed with fine, powdery, yellowish frass (figure 187D). Small diameter stems may be completely hollow, leaving only thin shells. Although some infested plants may die, damage is minor.

Control. One unidentified insect parasite was reared from infested bolts. Direct controls have not been needed.

Family Brentidae—Timber Worms or Primitive Weevils

Members of this family are mostly tropical; only one species is covered here. The adults are greatly elongate, slender, and cylindrical (Arnett 1968, Craighead 1950). The head of the female is prolonged into a slender snout, whereas that of the male is short, broad, and flat with large jaws. The straight snout directed forward and non-elbowed antennae help to distinguish this family from other weevils. Larvae are elongate, cylindrical, and white with scattered setae.

Genus and Species

Arrhenodes minutus (Drury) *476*

Arrhenodes minutus (Drury)

oak timberworm (figure 188)

Hosts. Oak, elm, poplar, beech. Attacks trees in red and white oak groups (Solomon and others 1987). Upland oaks, especially black and scarlet oaks, are particularly susceptible (Buchanan 1960). Elm, poplar (Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955), beech, and aspen (MacAloney and Ewan 1964) have also been mentioned. Clusters of adults found under loose bark of boxelder and honeylocust suggest that other hardwood species are probably susceptible.

Range. Southeastern Canada throughout the eastern United States to the Gulf Coast (Sanborne 1983, Solomon and others 1987).

Description. ***Adult.*** Shiny, very elongate snout beetle, varying from 7 to 25 mm long (figure 188A) (Buchanan 1960, Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955, Solomon and others 1987). Reddish brown to brownish

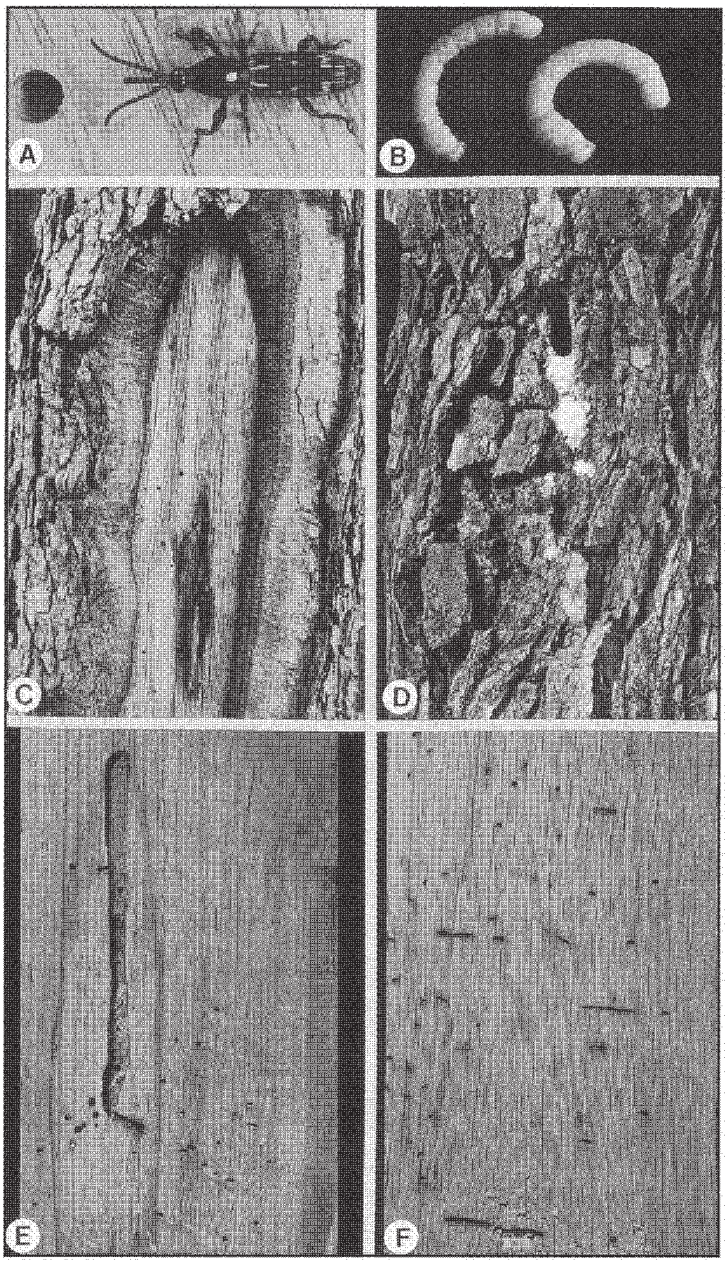


Figure 188—Arrhenodes minutus, *oak timberworm: A, adult; B, larvae; C, sapwood infestation site; D, white frass at old borer tunnel; E, cluster of holes associated with red oak borer gallery; F, oak timberworm holes in oak lumber.*

black with elongate yellowish spots on elytra. Females have long slender snouts; male mouthparts are broad and flattened and noticeably larger than those of females. ***Egg.*** Round, less than 1 mm in diameter, and translucent initially, but gradually becomes opaque. ***Larva.*** White, elongate, cylindrical, and curved with three pairs of two jointed, thoracic legs, and one pair of prolegs at end of abdomen (figure 188B). Full-grown larvae 12 to 24 mm long.

Biology. Adults present from early May to August over most of its range (Buchanan 1960); attracted to sap spots for feeding and sometimes congregate under loose bark at wound sites (Sanborne 1983). Fresh wounds are most attractive for oviposition, but some as old as 2 years are chosen. To oviposit, females chew cylindrical hair-sized holes in large wood vessels on wood surfaces shaded from direct sunlight. One egg is deposited in each hole; most holes are plugged with a sticky secretion and frass. In Ontario, there are two periods of oviposition, from mid-June to late July and from early to mid-September (Sanborne 1983). Egg incubation requires from a few days to 3 weeks, depending on temperatures. Newly hatched larvae bore directly into the wood. The diameter of the tunnels at first is sufficient for movement of the larvae through them but is enlarged in time (Hopkins 1903). Typically, tunnels are bored nearly straight across the wood grain with little up or down slope. Tunnels go almost to the opposite side of the tree, make a sharp U-turn, and go back across the wood grain toward the entrances. Larvae keep the tunnels clean by pushing the frass outside. Pupation occurs near the tunnel exit from which the adults emerge. The life cycle is generally 3 years, but some individuals develop in 2 years and a few require 4 years (Buchanan 1960).

Injury and damage. Attacks are usually associated with previous injuries. Most attack sites are at wounds that expose sapwood (figure 188C) (Buchanan 1960). White, powdery frass at egg sites on exposed wood or at large vacated borer entrances provide evidence of infestation (figure 188D) (Donley and Terry 1977). Holes are often found around large red oak borer galleries (figure 188E). Small round tunnels 0.2 to 4.0 mm in diameter lead from the egg sites into the wood. In sawn lumber, damage is characterized by mostly horizontal tunnels extending in many directions (figure 188F). Dying trees and green fresh-cut logs are sometimes attacked. Economically damaging losses are primarily to standing timber grown for wood products (Hopkins 1903). In particular, losses result from the small wormholes made by feeding larvae. Lumber cut from infested logs may be unfit for special uses such as tight cooperage or flooring (MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Factory grade lumber is sometimes substantially reduced in grade. Also, this borer has been reported to attack fresh-cut stave bolts, large pieces of unseasoned lumber, and squared timbers, resulting in substantial losses (Hopkins 1903). During peak larval activity from spring to midsummer, incidence of attack in blazed trees in the Missouri Ozarks ranges from 50 to 78%

(Buchanan 1960). Defects are most prevalent in upland forests of the central United States, east to Kentucky, Ohio, and West Virginia. Oak timberworm can also vector the oak wilt fungus (Buchanan 1957).

Control. Trees should be protected against wounds and injuries, including those caused by large borer species (Solomon and others 1987). In areas with a history of serious timberworm damage, extra precautions during harvesting and other woods operations are needed to minimize bark injuries to residual crop trees. Infestation can also be minimized by promptly removing dying and felled trees (Hopkins 1903). No natural enemies have been reported. Chemical and other direct controls have not been investigated.

Family Curculionidae—Weevils or Snout Beetles

The curculionids are typical snout beetles with the head being prolonged downward into a well-defined and usually curved beak (Arnett 1968, USDA FS 1985). The antennae are inserted on the snout, and they are usually elbowed and club shaped. Many are wonderously disguised with cryptic colors and forms to mimic other insects, bird droppings, or buds; this characteristic is enhanced by their feigning death and dropping to the ground. Larvae are usually C-shaped, subcylindrical, and fleshy, with a few scattered hairs. They feed in buds, shoots, stems, roots, bark, and wood. They are sometimes troublesome to nursery operators, foresters, and landowners, but only a few are serious pests.

Genus and Species

Conotrachelus
aratus (Germar) *480*
schoofi Papp *482*
elegans (Say) *485*
juglandis LeConte *485*
retentus (Say) *489*
anaglypticus (Say) *490*
Cryptorhynchus
lapathi (Linnaeus) *492*
Magdalis
aenescens LeConte *495*
armicollis (Say) *497*
barbita (Say) *499*
Ampeloglypter
sesostris (LeConte) *500*
ampelopsis LeConte *502*

Conotrachelus aratus (Germar)

[hickory shoot curculio] (figure 189)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan. Hickory appears to be favored with bitternut, shagbark, mockernut, and pignut hickories specifically listed (Brooks 1922). Pecan is commonly attacked in the Southeast. (Payne and others 1979). Walnut is mentioned but not confirmed.

Range. Throughout the eastern United States from Massachusetts south to Florida and west to Texas and Kansas (Brooks 1922, Phillips 1964, Schoof 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Snout beetle with short, stout snout that is slightly curved and about one-third body length with breast grooved for reception of beak (figure 189A) (Brooks 1922, Payne and others 1979, Schoof 1942). Beetles dull grayish to reddish brown with indistinct, broad band of yellowish pubescence behind middle of elytra and narrow line of same color on each side of thorax. Adults average about 5 mm long and 2 mm wide. ***Egg.*** Oval to oblong, creamy white, semitransparent; and averages 1.1 mm long and 0.7 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white with brown head and black jaws with scattering of short but noticeable setae (figure 189B). Larvae are legless and slightly curved or crescent shaped and average about 6.0 mm long and 1.5 mm in diameter.

Biology. This weevil overwinters in the adult stage in litter, trash, or debris on the ground near host trees (Brooks 1922, Payne and others 1979, Schoof 1942). Adults emerge from hibernation in early spring as buds begin unfolding and shoot growth begins. Feeding begins in late March and April in the Deep South and 2 to 4 weeks later in the North. After feeding for a short time, females deposit eggs singly in puncture niches in the tender shoots and leaf petioles just above the enlarged petiole base. Eggs hatch in about a week, and the larvae begin feeding and tunneling within the tender new growth where they complete their larval development. By early to midsummer, mature larvae vacate their galleries, drop to the ground beneath the tree, and burrow 12 to 50 mm into the soil where they form unlined, earthen cells for pupation. Pupation lasts 2 to 3 weeks. Adults emerge from the ground mostly during August and September. Emerging adults are comparatively inactive, feeding lightly before entering hibernation in autumn. There is one generation a year.

Injury and damage. Soon after tree growth begins in spring, feeding and oviposition puncture marks made by adult curculios on the tender shoot tips and leaf petioles may be noticeable (Brooks 1922, Payne and others 1979, Phillips 1965b). Egg punctures are characterized by dark, triangular or V-shaped marks or spots about 3 mm long. Dark puncture marks occur in series of 3 to 10, typically one just above each leaf axil. Favorite feeding sites of the larvae are in the bulblike swellings at the base of leaf petioles, but they also burrow in succulent new shoots and cause slight to moderate swellings (figure 189C). Egg puncture openings become the entrance to the larval tunnels and ejection holes for the frass. Active larval galleries usually have small amounts of dark frass at the entrances and darkened areas of tissue encircling the openings (figure 189D).

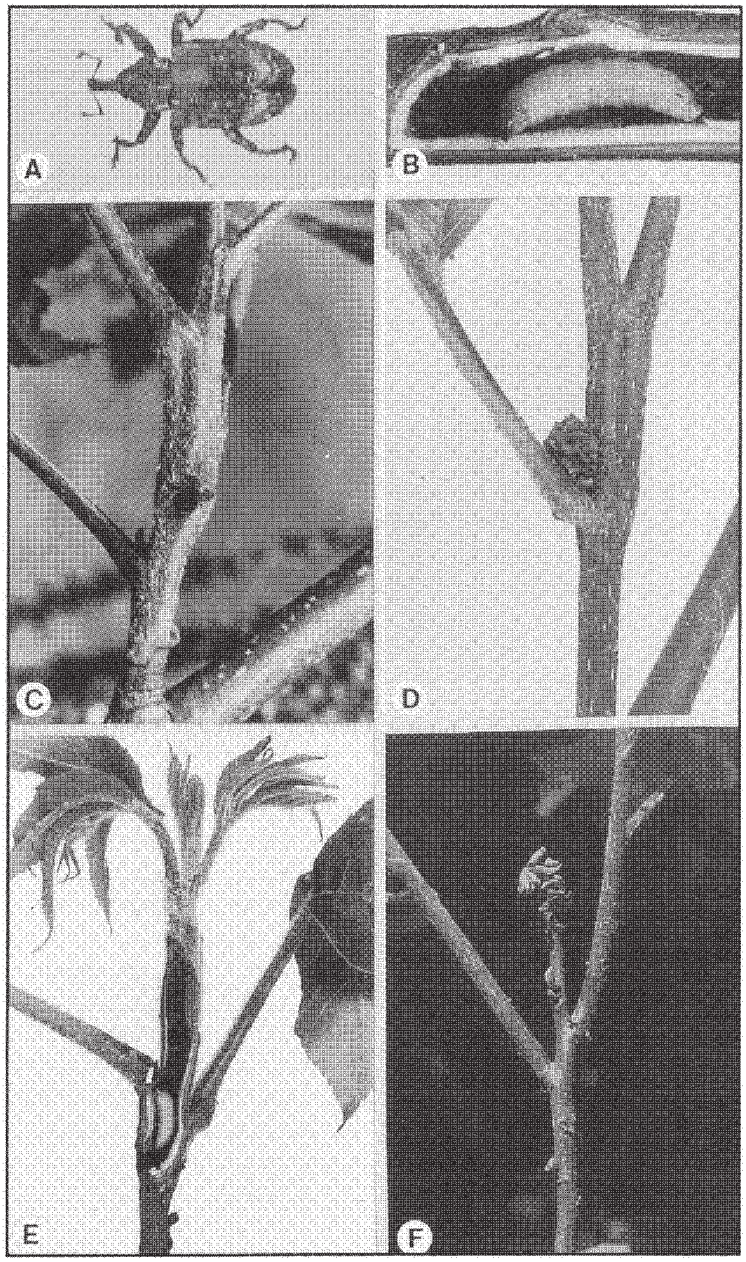


Figure 189—Conotrachelus aratus, *[hickory shoot curculio]: A, adult; B, larva; C, shoot with swelling and gallery entrance; D, dark frass expelled at entrance; E, gallery in hickory shoot; F, infested shoot stunted and overtopped.*

Frass is not tied together with silken threads and less is present than is typical for *Acrobasis* shoot borers attacking the same hosts. Dissection reveals the crescent-shaped larvae. The burrows and galleries range from 25 to 51 mm long (figure 189E). Affected shoot tips and leaves usually become yellowish to brown and wither on the tree or drop away (figure 189F). Heavily tunneled shoots sometimes break and drop without turning yellow and withering. Adult and larval feeding causes injury. Adult feeding punctures cause some dieback of buds and new leaflets and occasionally of the apical portion of new tender shoots, but damage is usually negligible. Injury by the larvae tunneling within the new shoots and leaf petioles results in premature foliage loss and weakening or killing nut-producing shoots. Loss of terminals in young trees intended for timber production can result in forking and abnormal trunk development. Heavy damage has occurred most commonly on unmanaged trees or in groves adjacent to woodlands containing native pecan and hickory (Payne and others 1979). Fifty percent or more of the shoots can become infested.

Control. Natural enemies are generally effective in holding the insect to levels that do not cause economic loss. Half or more of the larval population may be destroyed by parasites (Brooks 1922). Three species of dipterous parasites have been identified from the larvae—*Myiophasia globosa* Townsend, *Cholomyiae longipes* Fabricius, and *Chaetochlorops inquilina* Coquillett. An unidentified hairworm nematode parasite has been reared from larvae. New plantings should be established away from heavily infested woodlots. Sanitation and cultural practices such as clipping, collecting, and destroying infested shoots can help to reduce populations when only one or a few high-valued trees isolated from surrounding hosts are involved. Elimination of trash and debris can also help to eliminate hibernation sites. Chemical control is occasionally necessary when jarring the tree indicates that many adults are present or when there is a history of damage (Brooks 1922, Payne and others 1979, Phillips 1965b). Up to three spray applications beginning in early spring, when unfolding buds have 6 to 25 mm of new growth, may be necessary to control the adults before they lay their eggs.

Conotrachelus schoofi Papp

[pecan shoot curculio] (figure 190)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan. Mockernut, shagbark, and pignut hickories have been listed specifically as hosts and seem to be favored; but pecan is also readily attacked (Schoof 1942, Tedders and Payne 1986).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States from Massachusetts to Florida and west to Texas, Kansas, and Iowa (Buchanan 1947, Papp 1978, Schoof 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small snout beetle with mixture of reddish and black tones, 4.5 to 5.7 mm long (figure 190A) (Schoof 1942). Beak stout, curved, and slightly longer than prothorax and sparsely covered with tan and white hairs. Antennae elbowed, with small, oval club at tips. Prothorax distinctly wider than long with sides usually rounded and distinctly bulging near apical third. Elytra about 1.3 times longer than wide and sides

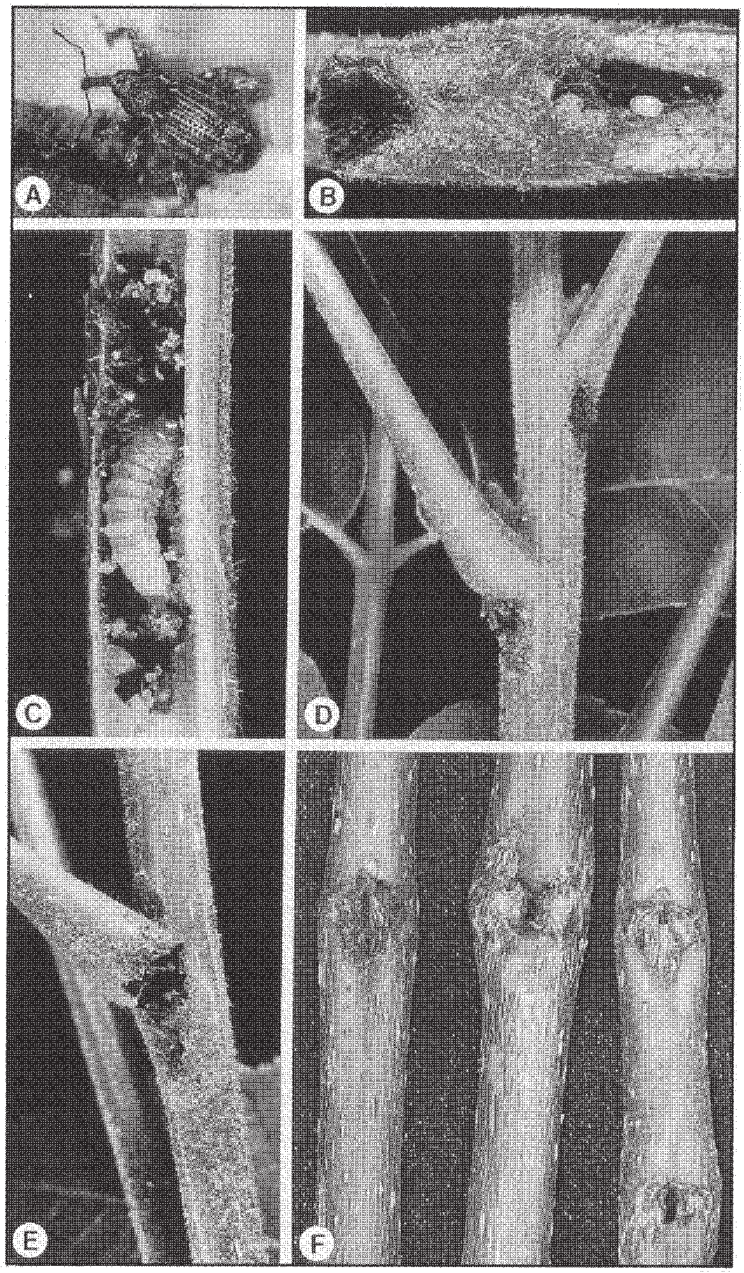


Figure 190—Conotrachelus schoofi, *[pecan shoot curculio]: A, adult; B, egg and egg niches on shoot; C, larva; D, frass at gallery entrance at base of rachises; E, hollowed and broken leaf rachis; F, shoots with healing injuries (courtesy W. Tedders).*

gradually converging toward apex. ***Egg.*** Oval, creamy white, semitransparent, averaging 0.7 mm wide and 1.1 mm long (figure 190B) (Tedders and Payne 1986). ***Larva.*** Legless, curved to nearly crescent shaped, and about 6 mm long (figure 190C). First- and second-instar larvae, clear white to dirty white; mid-instars, light yellow; fifth instars, orangish yellow with light brown beaks.

Biology. Adults overwinter in leaf litter beneath host trees (Schoof 1942). They emerge in late March and April in the Deep South and 2 to 4 weeks later in the northern range. Adults feed on immature foliage and shoots (Tedders and Payne 1986). Damaged leaflets usually curl, and adults use these as protected resting places. Females commence oviposition when new shoots are about 50 mm long. Eggs are deposited singly beneath the epidermal layer opposite the crescent and separated from the crescent by a partition of masticated plant material. Eggs hatch in about 6.5 days. New larvae feed initially in the bulblike swelling of the rachis base but soon tunnel into the shoot and pass through five instars. In Georgia, mature larvae exit the shoots between May 11 and June 22 and burrow 12 to 50 mm deep in the soil for pupation. The pupal period lasts about 7 days, and adults emerge, move back onto the trees, and begin feeding. During autumn, the adults return to the leaf litter for hibernation. There is one generation a year.

Injury and damage. Earliest signs of attack are circular punctures 1.5 to 2.0 mm in diameter on the shoots and leaf rachises (Tedders and Payne 1986). Swelling of infested rachises (and sometimes shoots) soon follows. Oviposition injuries (figure 190D) are at the lower base of leaf rachises rather than above the base as occurs for *C. aratus*. Oviposition injuries initially are crescent-shaped excavations about 4 mm long, but they gradually darken, becoming necrotic and V-shaped. Usually, larvae chew a second hole to the outside of the shoot between the upper base of the leaf rachis and the shoot, often destroying the buds. Slight winds cause injured compound leaves to break from the shoot (figure 190E), leaving 1.5- by 4.0-mm exit holes. Dark frass is pushed from the openings. Galleries in the shoots may extend in either direction from the leaf rachis and average 4 mm in diameter and 24 mm long. Broken shoots are usually associated with feeding by several larvae, feeding at the base of the shoot, and leverage by long shoots. Shoots that do not break or die usually heal by the end of the following year (figure 190F). Adult feeding and oviposition punctures cause some injury, but larval feeding causes the major damage. Heavy infestations can cause moderate breakage and loss of petioles and shoots. In the past, serious infestations have rarely been reported, but during the early 1980's, numerous outbreaks caused extensive damage to immature trees in commercial pecan orchards in Georgia (Tedders and Payne 1986).

Control. Natural enemies are two hymenopterous egg parasites—*Anaphes* sp. (most abundant) and *Fidiobia* sp., two hymenopterous larval parasites—*Nealiolus rufus* Riley (most abundant) and *Perilam-*

pus sp., and two dipterous larval parasites—*Cholomyia inaequipes* Bigot and *Myiophasia globosa* (Townsend) (Tedders and Payne 1986). Culturally, locating new orchards away from heavily infested hickories, early pruning, destroying infested shoots, and removing leaf litter to eliminate hibernation sites can help to reduce infestations. Two applications of insecticide timed to correspond to the egg and early larval stages have provided excellent control in grower trials in Georgia.

Conotrachelus elegans (Say)

[pecan gall curculio] (figure 191)

Hosts. Pecan, hickory. Pecan seems to be favored in southern range, but hickories are also readily attacked (Buchanan 1947, Schoof 1942).

Range. New York west to Nebraska and south to Florida and Texas (Papp 1979, Schoof 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Reddish black snout beetle from 3.8 to 5.1 mm long (figure 191A) (Schoof 1942). Head with dense semicoarse punctures covered with tan and white setae. Prothorax rounded from base to near apex and then constricted. Elytra about 0.7 times as wide as long and blackish basally and reddish apically. Abdominal sternites (one to four) more densely punctate than those in related species. ***Larva.*** White, legless, and crescent shaped, measuring 5 to 6 mm long at maturity (figure 191B and C).

Biology. Based on labeled specimens, adults have been taken from May to August (Buchanan 1947, Schoof 1942). Eggs are deposited mainly in galls, where the larvae feed and develop. Mature larvae exit the galls and drop to the soil for pupation. Little else is known of the insect's life and seasonal histories.

Injury and damage. Larvae are found mostly in *Phylloxera* leaf and shoot galls but apparently burrow occasionally in succulent shoots. Pecan phylloxera populations (and galls) have increased markedly in the South during recent years, providing an abundance of preferred feeding sites. Larvae feeding within galls are often difficult to recognize without dissecting the galls. Sometimes, small amounts of brown frass can be seen as it is pushed from openings in the galls. Opening the galls usually reveals one larva along with varying amounts of dark frass (figure 191B and C). When larvae burrow into succulent shoots, dieback and breakage occur. Overall damage has been minimal because most larvae feed within leaf and shoot galls rather than in the shoots.

Control. One hymenopterous parasite—*Eurytoma tylodermatis* Ashmead—has been reported (Krombein and others 1979). Direct controls have not been needed.

Conotrachelus juglandis LeConte

butternut curculio (figure 192)

Hosts. Butternut, walnut. Butternut is preferred native host; black walnut is much less susceptible (Britton and Kirk 1912, Brooks 1922). Among introduced walnuts, favors Japanese over English walnuts. Hybrid trees having Japanese parentage were among the most susceptible in Michigan tests (Wilson and Corneil 1978).

Range. Wisconsin southward to Texas

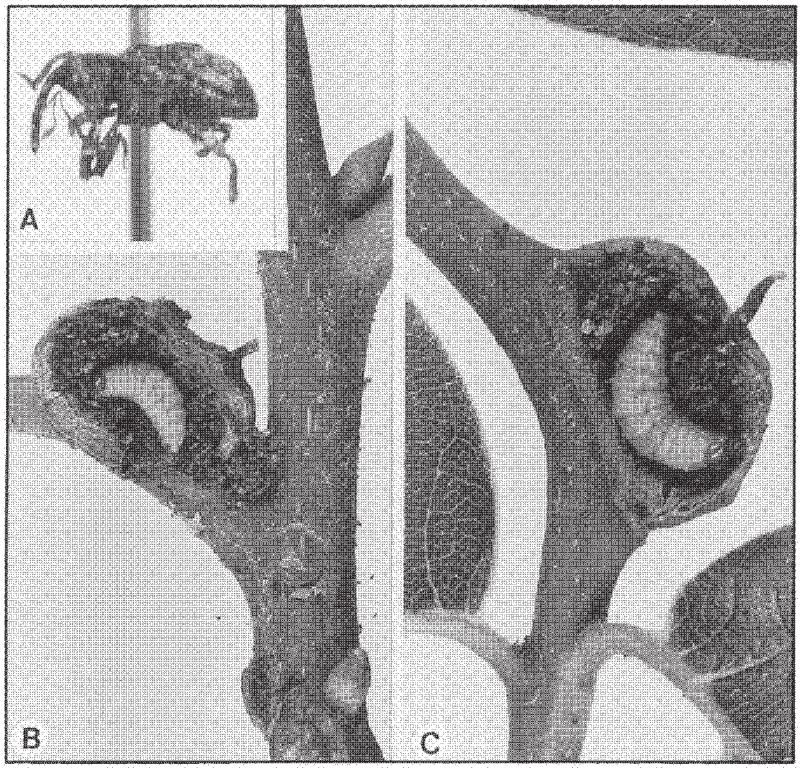


Figure 191—Conotrachelus elegans, *[pecan gall curculio]: A, adult; B, larva in gall on rachis; C, closeup of larva and gall (A, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

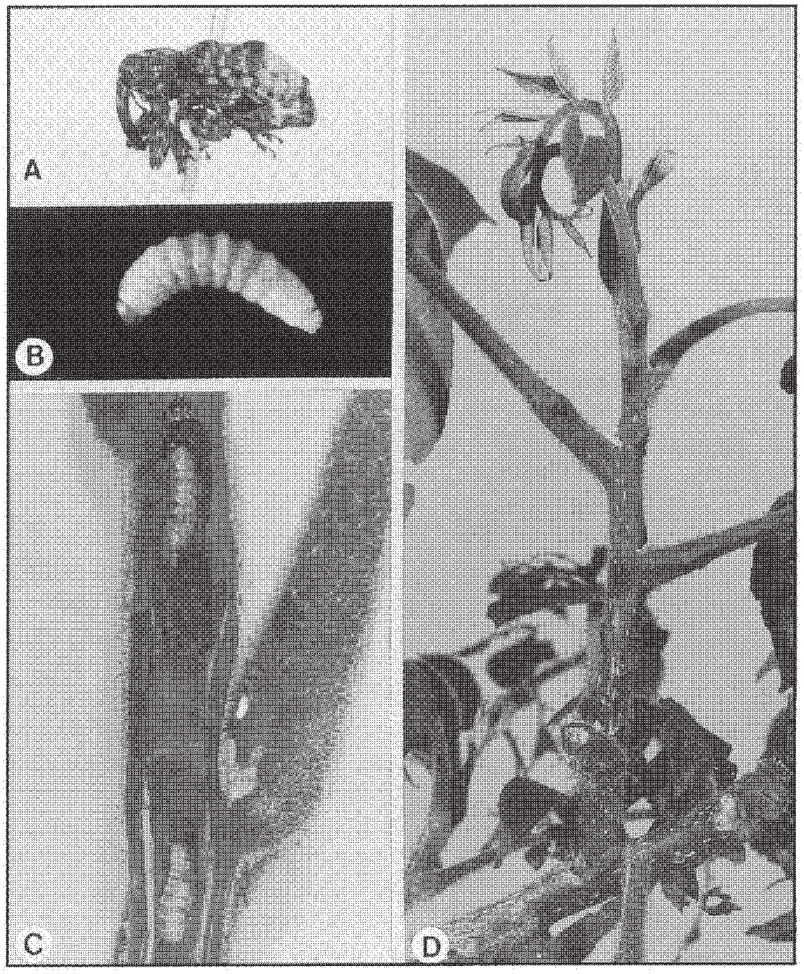


Figure 192—Conotrachelus juglandis, *butternut curculio: A, adult; B, larva; C, tunneled shoot with larvae; D, entrance sites on black walnut shoot (A & B, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead; C & D, courtesy W. Johnson).*

and eastward to the Atlantic Coast; also found in south central Canada (Johnson and Lyon 1988). Range closely approximates that of butternut.

Description. ***Adult.*** Predominantly dark brown to black snout beetle measuring 5 to 7 mm long (figure 192A) (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Brooks 1922). Grayish yellow hairs form line along each side of dorsum of prothorax and broad band behind middle of elytra. Beak shiny and sparsely punctured. Prothorax broadly constricted in front and basal two-thirds rounded at sides. ***Egg.*** Oblong to oval, creamy white with soft shiny surface and measures 0.95 by 0.75 mm. ***Larva.*** Dirty white when young, becoming yellowish white with dark brown head with age (figure 192B). Full-grown larvae legless, crescent shaped, and about 12 mm long.

Biology. Adults hibernate in leaf litter during winter, resume activity in spring when walnut catkins are fully developed, and commence feeding upon shoots and leaf veins (Schoof 1942). Females oviposit first on new growth and later in the immature nuts. Females deposit one egg in each niche chewed in young shoots, usually concealed under a flap of tissue and frass (Wilson and Corneil 1978). In Michigan, oviposition begins in mid-May and continues until early August; adults may live a year or longer (Wilson and Corneil 1978). First-instar larvae appear in mid-May in Connecticut, about 6 to 12 days after oviposition (Britton and Kirk 1912). Young larvae bore into the pith and feed up or down shoots or into the bases of leaf petioles (Wilson and Corneil 1978). Oldest larvae are nearly always found toward the shoot base where pith diameter is widest. Partially hollowed-out shoots that do not break off usually survive but may be stunted. During larval development, the egg niche opening becomes the larval tunnel entrance and an ejection hole for frass. Larvae pass through five instars and complete development in 4 to 6 weeks. Mature larvae exit galleries and drop to the ground, usually by late August in Michigan. Larvae burrow 5 to 8 cm into the soil and construct earthen pupation cells. Pupation lasts 15 to 20 days. New adults begin to emerge in late July in Michigan with complete emergence by mid-September. After feeding on shoot tips and leaflets, they hibernate in leaf litter.

Injury and damage. The most noticeable signs of infestation are wilting and dying of tender shoots and leaves. Dissection of shoots reveals burrows in the center together with some brown frass (figure 192C). Close inspection reveals slight swellings on shoots and petioles with associated openings (figure 192D). During active attacks, varying quantities of brown frass are pushed from gallery entrances. Dark tissue usually surrounds the openings (Wilson and Corneil 1978). Shoots may be so badly tunneled that they break. Infested shoots are frequently girdled near the base, so that most or all of the season's growth is lost. Infested shoots that survive are often stunted. In the early 1900's in Connecticut, nearly complete destruction of new shoot growth on seedlings in nurseries and trees in young plantations and heavy nut losses were reported (Britton and Kirk 1912). Injury by larvae to terminals and branches can be so severe that new

shoots are killed back to the woody growth of the previous season (Johnson and Lyon 1988). Injury deforms the main stem and prevents natural crown development (Wilson and Corneil 1978).

Control. The following dipterous parasites help regulate butternut curculio populations—*Chaetochlorops inquilina* Coquillett, *Cholomyia inaequipes* Bigot, *C. longipes* Fabricius, *Maeophasia aenea* Wied., *Metadexia basalis* G. T., and *Sigalphus curculionis* Fitch (Brooks 1922). Host species and hybrid crosses vary considerably in susceptibility (Wilson and Corneil 1978). Thus, in areas with a history of heavy damage, the least susceptible species—black walnut, English walnut, and butternut—should be selected for planting. Collecting and destroying immature fallen nuts weekly before the larvae leave them may help protect individual trees and small plantings (Brooks 1922). Carefully timed insecticide applications have controlled other shoot curculios and should be effective (Gibson and Kearby 1975).

Conotrachelus retentus (Say)

black walnut curculio

Hosts. Walnut, butternut. Black walnut preferred host; butternut rarely attacked (Brooks 1922, Schoof 1942).

Range. New Jersey and Pennsylvania south to North Carolina and westward through Mississippi to Kansas and Missouri (Schoof 1942). Occurs commonly, and injury appears to be most severe, at the latitude of Maryland and West Virginia and throughout the southern range of black walnut (Brooks 1922).

Description. ***Adult.*** Snout beetle 5.7 to 7.2 mm long with beak somewhat longer than prothorax (Schoof 1942). Adults dull reddish brown and covered with grayish pubescence. Light, indistinct, broad band behind middle of elytra and similar broken line on each side of prothorax (Brooks 1922). Prothorax slightly wider than long with sides rounded and strongly constricted in front. Elytra oblong oval. ***Egg.*** Oval to oblong and creamy white with surface delicately granulose like ground glass, measuring about 1.0 mm by 0.7 mm (Brooks 1922). ***Larva.*** Legless, creamy white with brown head sparsely clothed with short stiff hairs; about 11 mm long at maturity. Body usually held in curved position. ***Pupa.*** White, about 9 mm long; abdomen, thorax, and wing pads sparsely covered with short stiff hairs.

Biology. Adults overwinter in soil or under litter beneath hosts (Blair and Kearby 1978, Brooks 1922, Gibson and Kearby 1975). In Missouri, weevils emerge for several weeks beginning in mid-April and feed largely on leaves, staminate flowers, and leaf rachises of black walnut. Females deposit eggs singly in nuts and developing shoots. Eggs hatch in 5 to 7 days. Several eggs may be laid in a shoot or nut, but larvae cannibalize one another so that usually only one survives. Mature larvae vacate the shoot or nut and enter the soil, where they construct smooth-walled, earthen cells below the surface in which to pupate. Pupation is 2 to 3 weeks. Summer adults emerge in mid-July and into August. Adults feed on foliage until

leaves drop in fall, then overwinter in duff and litter beneath infested trees.

Injury and damage. Earliest evidence of infestation is feeding damage by adults on the base of the leaf rachis (Blair and Kearby 1978). Adult feeding injuries are small, darkened areas and cause some leaflets to break or dieback. Crescent shaped, oviposition punctures can be found in small nutlets and tender shoots. Brown frass may be found at gallery entrances. Heavily infested shoots may be largely hollowed. Dissection exposes shoot galleries and larvae. This pest primarily destroys nut crops on black walnut, but it may cause light to moderate damage to new shoots early in the year (Blair and Kearby 1978, Brooks 1922).

Control. Large numbers of three dipterous parasites—*Chaetochlorops inquilina* Coquillett, *Cholomyia longipes* Fabricius, and *Fannia canicularis* L.—were reportedly reared from the larvae and pupae (Brooks 1922). Two hymenopterous parasites—*Thersilochus conotracheli* (Riley) and *Triaspis curculionis* var. *rufus* (Riley)—were reared in small numbers. Good sanitation beneath trees and frequent collection of fallen infested nutlets help reduce infestations (Brooks 1922). A spray program that coincides with adult emergence, feeding, and oviposition has been effective in black walnut plantations (Gibson and Kearby 1975).

Conotrachelus anaglypticus (Say)

[cambium curculio] (figure 193)

Hosts. Apple, pear, peach, pecan, hickory, beech, birch, chestnut, oak, yellow-poplar, maple, tupelo, dogwood, serviceberry, sourwood, hornbeam. Apple, pear, and pecan seem to be preferred; however, this pest readily attacks a wide range of hosts (Brooks 1924).

Range. Throughout eastern North America from Ontario and Maine west to Michigan and Texas and south to Florida. One report from Montana (Schoof 1942).

Description. ***Adult.*** Compactly shaped snout beetle with body length 3.5 to 5.0 mm (figure 193A) (Schoof 1942). Body brownish black to dark reddish brown. Upper body thinly covered with short hairs that form two narrow, whitish lines on each side of thorax; broad, yellowish, oblique stripe at base of each elytron, and broad grayish band behind middle of elytra. Femora of legs marked with whitish bands of short hairs (Brooks 1924). Beak scarcely as long as head and thorax (Blatchley and Leng 1916). ***Egg.*** Oval, translucent white with touch of yellow, slightly wrinkled surface, and about 0.7 by 0.4 mm (Brooks 1924). ***Larva.*** Mature larva (figure 193B) white with yellowish brown head, fleshy, legless, almost cylindrical but slightly flattened ventrally, and 7 to 9 mm long. ***Pupa.*** White, about 5 mm long, with many spine-like setae on abdomen, prothorax, and wings.

Biology. Adults from overwintering generation emerge in late February and early March in the central peninsula of Florida, in mid- to late April in central Georgia, and by mid-May in West Virginia (Brooks 1924, Phillips 1965a, Schoof 1942). Second generation adults emerge from early July through early August. Adults are long lived, sometimes 5 to 6 months, and in most areas are active most of the summer. Adults are large-

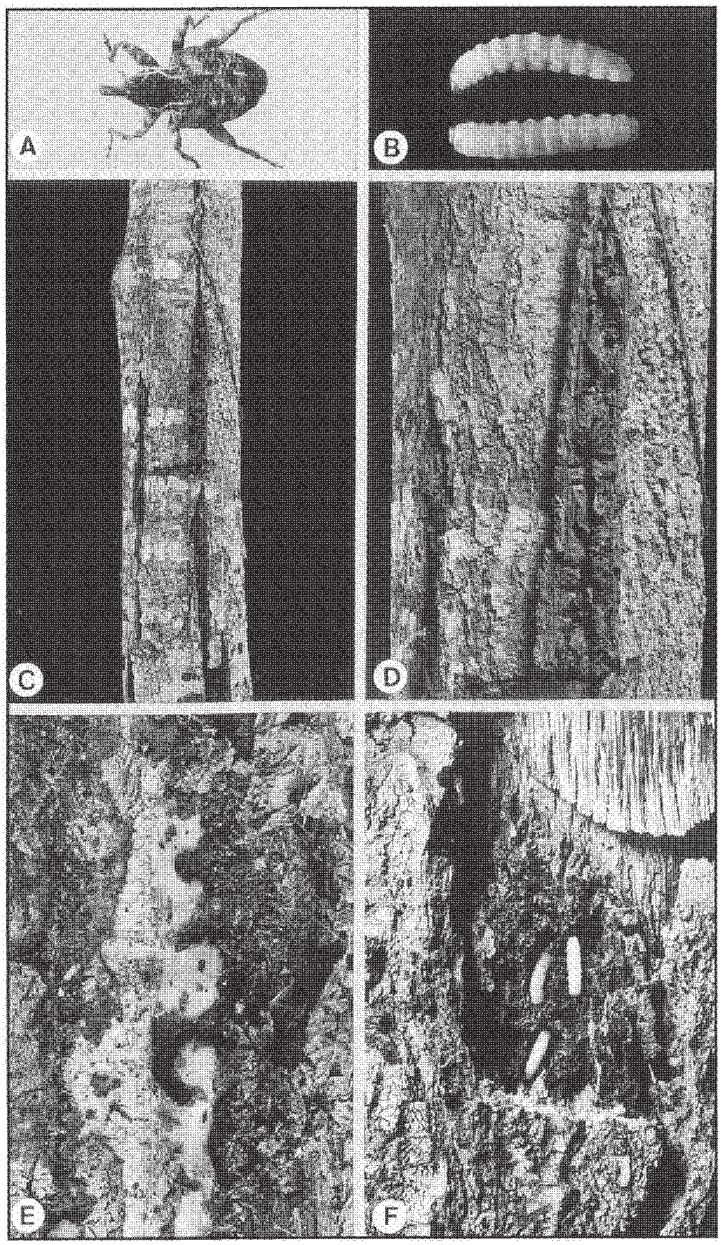


Figure 193—Conotrachelus anaglypticus, *[cambium curculio]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, infested wounds on Nuttall oak; D, closeup of infested wounds with bulging callus tissue; E, bark removed to expose mines and tunnels extending into live tissue; F, tunneling larvae beneath bark.*

ly nocturnal, and oviposition reportedly can last 52 days in north Georgia. Females deposit 25 to 30 eggs each, usually partially embedded in the moist, fibrous, inner bark around fresh wounds and in injured fruits. Eggs hatch in 2 to 4 days. When feeding in fruits, such as peach, plum, and apple, the larvae mature in 11 to 33 days, but take slightly longer to develop in bark. When disturbed, mature larvae have the unusual habit of curling their bodies so that the anal segment hooks under the head; then, by suddenly straightening their body, they jump about 25 mm vertically and 75 to 100 mm horizontally. After feeding, larvae drop to the soil and construct spherical, smooth-walled, earthen cells 2.5 to 5.0 cm deep in which to pupate. In north Georgia studies, 17 to 29 days elapsed between the time larvae entered the soil and new adults emerged. In West Virginia, larvae enter the soil in mid-July and are found as newly formed adults in mid-September. Adults emerge from the soil in fall and presumably overwinter under leaf litter. This curculio has one generation a year at latitudes of West Virginia and northward, two per year in central Georgia, and possibly more than two generations in its extreme southern range.

Injury and damage. Slow-to-heal wounds should be inspected. Favorite sites for attack are fresh wounds (figure 193C and D) (Brooks 1924, Phillips 1965a). Fresh-cut stumps and ends of green logs are commonly infested. Small amounts of brown to black frass can sometimes be observed on wounds. Lifting the bark at wound sites reveals the larval burrows (figure 193E), frass, and sometimes white larvae, often in large numbers (figure 193F). Typically, a feeding band 2.5 to 5.0 cm wide around the edge of wounds with burrows extending into the live tissue can be observed. Although not a tree killer, this insect can cause serious injury. Injuries caused to fruit and ornamental trees are often attributed wrongly to other insect borers. In Florida nurseries, this pest has destroyed up to 50% of the grafts on pecan trees during some years (Phillips 1965a).

Control. One hymenopterous larval parasite—*Tersilochus conotracheli* (Riley)— and one dipterous parasite—*Myophasia globosa* Townsend—have been reared, but little is known of their effect in controlling this pest. Practices that prevent or reduce bark wounds help to minimize injuries. Injuries should be smoothed and wound edges promptly treated with tree wound paint. Budded and grafted trees can be protected 2 to 4 weeks with one application of insecticide (Phillips 1965a). Clean cultivation and sanitation in orchards and beneath ornamental trees help control adult populations by destroying overwintering sites.

Cryptorhynchus lapathi (Linnaeus)

poplar-and-willow borer(figure 194)

Hosts. Willow, poplar, alder, birch. Willow is preferred (Furniss 1972, Harris and Coppel 1967). Poplars vary widely in susceptibility. Balsam poplar and black cottonwood are generally attacked, but quaking aspen rarely. Hybrid poplars also vary greatly in susceptibility. Preliminary studies of hybrid poplars in Ontario revealed infestation rates of 0 to 50% (Morris 1981). This borer rare-

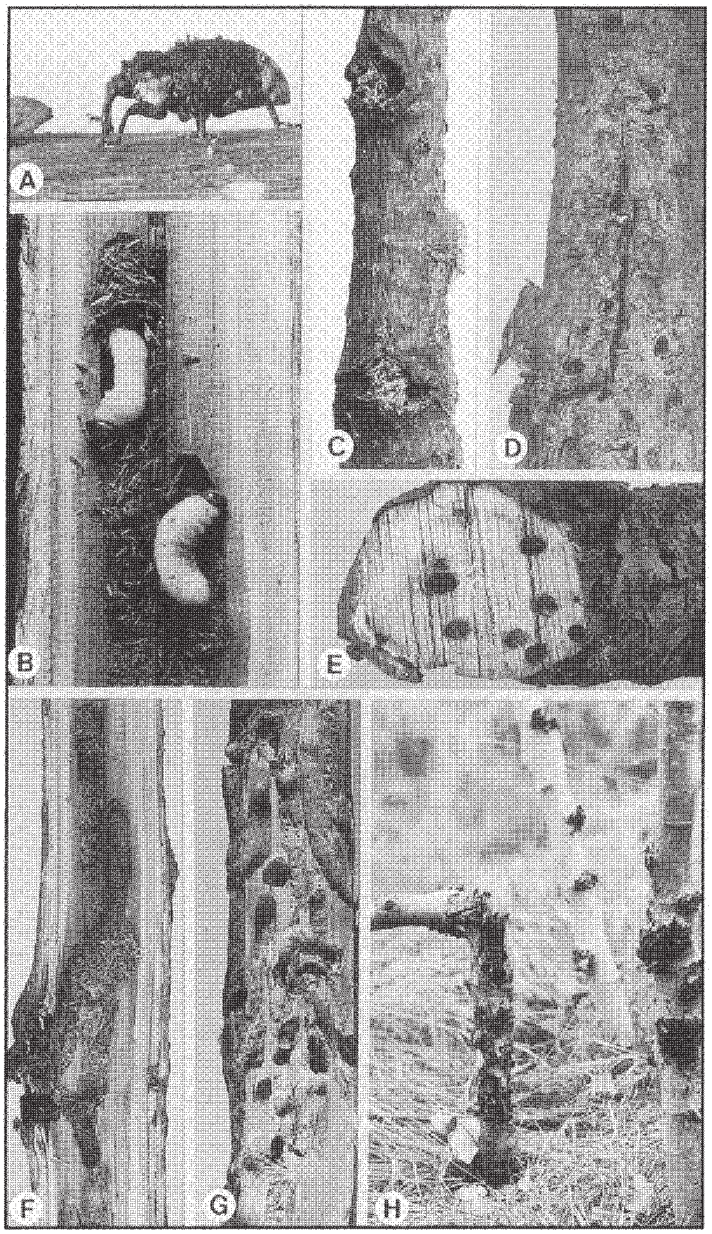


Figure 194—Cryptorhynchus lapathi, *poplar-and-willow borer: A, adult; B, larvae; C, entrance holes with frass; D, cracked bark and round exit holes; E, cross section of round galleries; F, gallery with frass; G, stem riddled by galleries; H, infested saplings galled and broken (H, courtesy J. Harris).*

ly attacks alder and birch. Adults occasionally feed on the bark and fruit of other deciduous trees but do not reproduce in them (Harris and Coppel 1967).

Range. Introduced from Europe or Asia. First reported in New York in 1882 (Furniss 1972). Now found throughout southern Canada and in the northern half of the United States from northern California eastward to the Carolinas.

Description. ***Adult.*** Snout beetle about 8 mm long, black and mottled with black and either gray or pink scales (figure 194A) (Furniss 1972, Harris 1966). Oval body appears rough and hard. Head small, largely hidden by thorax extending into slender beak that can be placed into groove between legs. ***Egg.*** Soft, white, and oval, measuring 1.1 by 0.8 mm. ***Larva.*** Subcylindrical, slightly curved or C-shaped, legless, white with shiny reddish brown head; less than 1 mm long when newly hatched to nearly 13 mm when mature (figure 194B). ***Pupa.*** White, 7 to 9 mm long.

Biology. Adults and larvae overwinter in Canada (Harris 1966, Harris and Coppel 1967), but only larvae overwinter successfully in New York (Matheson 1917). Adult weevils emerge from galleries mostly during summer and fall and feed on bark of new shoots on the main stem (Harris 1966). They are active in evening and morning but inactive during the day if temperatures exceed about 26 °C (Furniss 1972). When disturbed, adults feign death by folding their legs and dropping to the ground. Adults seldom fly and are sedentary (Harris 1966). Weevils mate and begin laying eggs about 2 to 10 days after emergence. Eggs are laid in lenticels, scars, bases of branches, and injured areas of the bark. Females chew into the bark, making round holes the depth of their beaks. One to four eggs are deposited in the hole and packed with bits of wood. There are two peak egg-laying periods: the first in March and April by adults that overwinter, the second from July through September by newly emerged adults. Eggs hatch in 18 to 25 days (Furniss 1972). After overwintering between the bark and wood, young larvae mine partly around the stem, and then usually upward in the wood for about 6 cm (Furniss 1972). Frass is initially expelled from holes in the stem, but later the frass is allowed to accumulate within the gallery. Larvae pupate behind a fibrous frass plug at the end of the tunnel (Harris 1966). They turn headfirst toward the tunnel entrance before pupation, which occurs mostly from mid-July through September (Furniss 1972). Pupal period lasts about 2 to 3 weeks. Development from egg to adult takes about 1 year, but adults may live and continue to lay eggs for up to 2 years.

Injury and damage. Attack sites occur on stems 1.3 to 15.0 cm in diameter but are most common on those 2.5 to 10.0 cm in diameter (Furniss 1972, Gautreau 1963). Attack sites are concentrated on the lower trunk, mostly near the root collar, but occasionally are up to 4 m above ground (Morris 1981). Current attack sites are indicated by irregular holes in the bark, usually with a mixture of sap and moist, reddish brown and white frass at entrances, in bark crevices, and on the ground below (figure 194C) (Harris 1966). Irregular splits usually develop in bark, and round exit holes may be

present (figure 194D). Dissection reveals 4- to 8-cm-long galleries, round in cross section (figure 194E), packed with coarse and fibrous frass (figure 194F). Repeatedly attacked trunks are often honeycombed with tunnels, some of which may be darkened and weathered (figure 194G). Some stems become deformed, with many callused areas, gall-like swellings, and dead bark. Trees that sustain extensive tunneling may be girdled and die or break (figure 194H). When populations are heavy, adults sometimes cause noticeable feeding injuries to newly developing shoots. This borer is an important pest of ornamental and plantation trees. In some northern areas, damage from heavy infestation is only by deformities in the attacked trees (Harris and Coppel 1967). In Alberta, mortality in willow stands has been estimated at 40% (Gautreau 1963). Infestations often persist in the same stems or plants several years. In infested stems, various fungi and insects commonly increase damage (Furniss 1972).

Control. Natural control includes parasitism by two wasps—*Bracon cryptorhynchi* (Muesebeck) and *Dolichomitus irritator* (Fabricius) (Krombein and others 1979). Ants and birds also feed on adults and larvae. Natural flooding during snowmelt and runoff may be a control in some areas (Furniss 1972). Because the adults are sedentary and seldom fly, cultural and sanitation practices can minimize damage. Searching out, cutting, and destroying all infested stems around the periphery of new plantings should prevent or delay infestation. In special situations, new valuable plantings can be temporarily protected by wrapping the trunks with paper or burlap. Various insecticides have been used with only moderate success (Harris 1966). Also, fumigation may be used to treat infested cuttings and transplants.

Magdalis aenescens LeConte

bronze appletree weevil (figure 195)

Hosts. Apple, hawthorn, plum, cherry, alder. Apple is favored; alder is an important native host (Essig 1929, Fall 1913, Moznette 1919).

Range. Alaska southward through British Columbia, along the Pacific Coast to California (Essig 1929), east to Montana and southward through the Rocky Mountains to New Mexico (Fall 1913).

Description. ***Adult.*** Metallic bronzy black, elongate, slender snout beetle, 4 to 6 mm long (figure 195A) (Chittenden 1900a, Essig 1929). Head, beak, and prothorax densely and finely punctured, and elytra distinctly striate. Beak cylindrical and about same length as prothorax. Posterior angles of prothorax prominent and produced over base of elytra. Elytral striae contain small punctures and interspaces finely roughened. Broad femoral leg segments acutely toothed and claws distinctly toothed near bases. ***Egg.*** Ovoid, smooth, shiny, yellowish white, measuring about 0.5 by 0.25 mm. ***Larva.*** Curved to C-shaped, strongly wrinkled, white except for dark brown mouthparts; reaches about 4 mm long (figure 195B). Prothoracic region enlarged as in bostrichid larvae, but these legless and less hairy in this species. ***Pupa.*** Soft and white with snout bent down

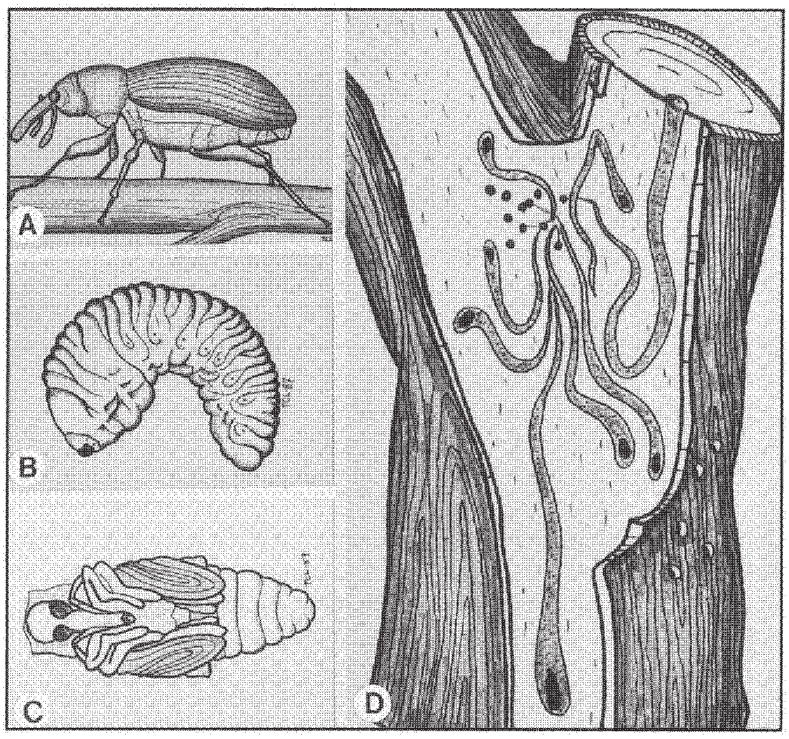


Figure 195—Magdalis aenescens, *bronze appletree weevil: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, cluster of small egg punctures with radiating larval galleries (sketches after Chittenden [1900]).*

against underside of abdomen between legs (figure 195C).

Biology. Adults emerge early April to August and feed on foliage of young fruit trees, particularly on the upper surface, sometimes riddling them with small punctures (Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Females seek roughened bark, especially cankered areas, sunscald spots, and edges of mechanical wounds on trunks and branches for oviposition. Females chew deep holes into the bark, depositing one egg in each, then pushing the eggs deeply into the holes with their beaks, and plugging the holes with frass. Circular clusters of egg punctures range from 4 to 21. Adults die soon after mating and oviposition. Egg incubation is about 2 weeks. Young larvae make 0.5-mm-wide tunnels in the inner bark. They then gradually extend the tunnels between the bark and wood, etching both surfaces, to a width of about 2 mm and length of 25 to 64 mm (Moznette 1919). Oblong to oval pupal cells 6 mm long are constructed under the bark at the end of larval galleries (Chittenden 1900a). Larvae overwinter in and under bark and transform to pupae in spring and summer. Newly formed adults bore round holes 1 to 2 mm in diameter through the bark to emerge.

Injury and damage. This weevil will attack wounds and dead areas on healthy trees but most commonly attacks weakened, neglected trees (Chittenden 1900a, Essig 1929, Mote 1944). Inspection of dead bark reveals a small circular cluster of egg punctures (figure 195D). Usually, the egg punctures are in sunken, discolored bark (Mote 1944). Under the bark, and engraved into the surface of the sapwood, are meandering larval galleries. Larger circular holes show that the new weevils have emerged. This pest is particularly destructive to young fruit trees, especially in neglected, deteriorating orchards (Moznette 1919).

Control. A hymenopterous parasite—*Cheiropachus quadrum* (Fabricius)—has been reared (Krombein and others 1979). Up to 50% of the larvae and pupae are reportedly destroyed by parasites (Moznette 1919). Good cultural practices help to minimize attacks. Infestations can be greatly reduced by destroying pruned branches, removing dying and recently dead trees, and by prompt treatment of injuries with tree wound paint (Essig 1929). Prunings, dead trees, and other debris should be destroyed before April to kill the developing weevils in the wood.

Magdalis armicollis (Say)

red elm bark weevil (figure 196)

Hosts. Elm. American elm listed as specific host, but other elms probably serve as hosts (Goeden and Norris 1963, Kondo and Thomas 1979).

Range. Georgia north to the New England States and southeastern Canada and west to the Dakotas and Texas (Fall 1913, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, wedge-shaped, robust snout beetle and 3.5 to 6.0 mm long (figure 196A) (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Fall 1913). Females reddish brown; males blackish brown with reddish or yellowish brown elytra. Antennae slender and slightly shorter than thorax. Elytra deeply striate and coarsely punctured. ***Egg.*** Ellipti-

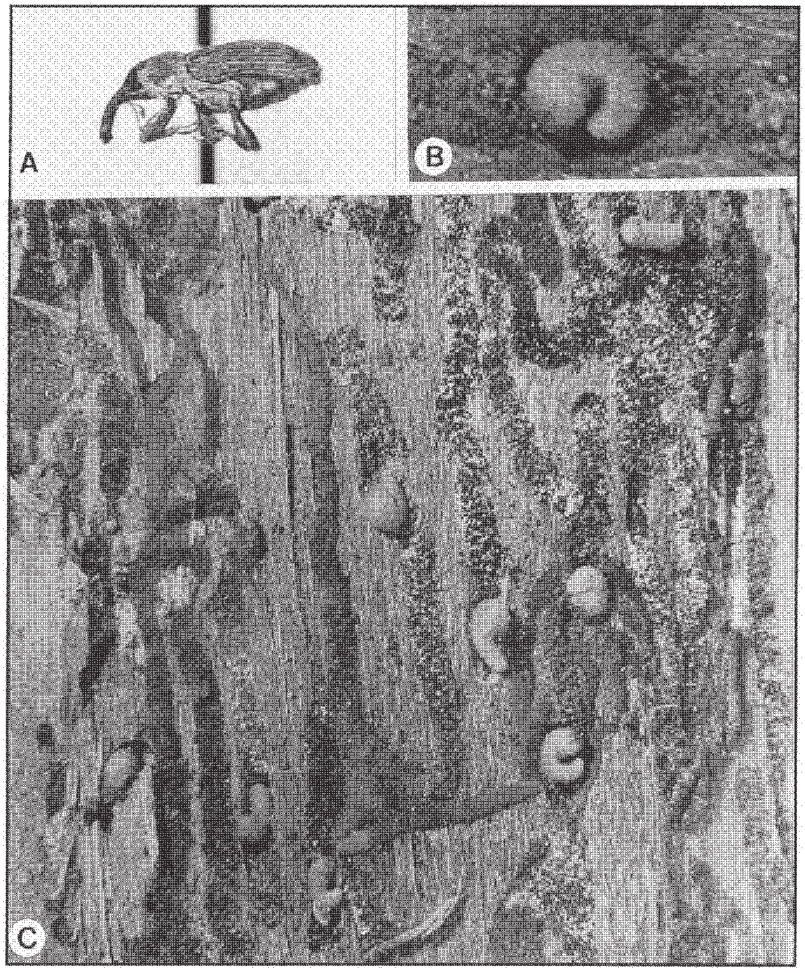


Figure 196—Magdalis armicollis, *red elm bark weevil: A, adult; B, larva; C, galleries, frass, and larvae under bark of elm (A, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead; B & C, courtesy J. Stein).*

cal, white to yellow, and about 0.6 by 0.36 mm (Hoffman 1939). ***Larva.*** Yellowish white, C-shaped with thoracic segments largest (figure 196B).

Biology. Adults emerge April to October with peak from late spring to midsummer (Fall 1913, Hoffman 1939, Kondo and Thomas 1979, McDaniel 1936). Newly emerged adults move to the crowns, feed on the leaves and succulent twigs, and then mate. Before oviposition, females make many test punctures, then deposit one or more eggs deep in the inner bark, sealing with brown frass and adhesive secretions. Eggs hatch in about 9 days, and larvae make convoluted tunnels in the cambium that radiate out from the oviposition site but generally run parallel with the wood grain and score both inner bark and wood surfaces. Larval tunnels gradually increase in size as the grubs develop, eventually terminating in cells where they pass the prepupal and pupal stages. The pupal stage requires 9 to 11 days. There is one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Puncture marks (often clustered on the bark) may be noticeable, especially when populations are heavy (Hoffman 1939). Removing the bark reveals larvae in galleries that radiate out from a group of oviposition punctures (figure 196C). The bark of heavily infested trees may be peppered with small circular emergence holes. Foliage with a shothole pattern indicates adult feeding. This pest prefers weakened, dying, and recently dead trees but occasionally attacks healthy trees (Hoffman 1939, Kondo and Thomas 1979). Small suppressed trees with one or more dead branches are particularly susceptible. Young transplanted trees are also frequently attacked and may be girdled. This insect is a proven transmitter of Dutch elm disease, but incidence of transmission is low.

Control. Recently transplanted trees and young trees suffering from stress can be protected by wrapping with fine wire screen or paper or by spraying the bark with an approved insecticide (McDaniel 1936). Populations can be reduced by removing and burning infested materials in fall, winter, or spring before the adults emerge (Hoffman 1939).

Magdalis barbita (Say)

black elm bark weevil

Host. Elm. Elms, especially American elm, are preferred (McDaniel 1936, USDA FS 1985). Hickory, oak, and alder have been mentioned as hosts but may be misidentifications (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Fall 1913).

Range. Texas and Georgia northward into southern Canada; best known in its northern range (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Herrick 1935, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Black, elongate, wedge-shaped snout beetle, and 4 to 6 mm long (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Fall 1913). Elytra slightly broader posteriorly, deeply striate, and coarsely punctured. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white, C-shaped, thoracic segments noticeably enlarged.

Biology. Adults appear May to July and feed on foliage and tender twigs (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Herrick 1935, McDaniel 1936). Females chew deep punctures in bark to oviposit. Young larvae feed and

burrow in inner bark and sapwood of small and large branches and sometimes trunks, constructing galleries 38 mm long or longer. Pupation occurs in oval cells just beneath the outer bark. This weevil has one generation per year.

Injury and damage. Close examination of susceptible trees may reveal clusters of tiny round puncture marks. Larvae feed under the bark of unhealthy, weakened, dying, and recently dead trees. The C-shaped larvae and galleries can be exposed by lifting the bark. Mature beetles leave perforated emergence holes (Herrick 1935). The weevil is a carrier of Dutch elm disease, but does not seem to be important in disease transmission (Goeden and Norris 1963, Kondo and Thomas 1979).

Control. Maintenance of strong, healthy trees by mulching, fertilization, and watering is important in preventing attacks on ornamentals in heavily infested areas (Herrick 1935). Infested branches should be cut and burned to destroy broods. Trunks and branches of newly transplanted trees can be wrapped with crepe paper to prevent oviposition.

Ampeloglypter sesostris (LeConte)

grape cane gallmaker (figure 197)

Hosts. Grape. Concord and other cultivated varieties and wild varieties serve as hosts (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919, Webster 1900a).

Range. West Virginia west to Michigan and south to Missouri (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate oval, moderately convex and shiny snout beetle, pale reddish brown and 2.7 to 3.0 mm long (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Beak rather slender, strongly curved near base, and about 1 1/2 times as long as thorax. ***Larva.*** Yellowish white with brown head and dark jaws, legless, and about 10 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge from hibernation in May (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919, Webster 1900a). Females start laying eggs when new canes have sufficient growth, usually in May and June. To oviposit, females select a spot directly above the lowest joint that does not bear fruit, then bore holes into the heart of the cane and deposit an egg in each hole. Females fill the hole with bits of bark and make 8 to 14 puncture holes above the oviposition site. Eggs hatch in 7 to 10 days. Larvae feed principally in the pith, working up or down for distances of several centimeters and causing elongate galls to form. Larvae mature in 8 to 10 weeks and pupate within the galls. Adults emerge in August and overwinter under leaves or in other suitable shelters. This pest has one generation a year.

Injury and damage. Examination of infested canes reveals elongate swellings or galls 25 to 38 mm long and about twice the diameter and a row of punctures around the stem causing ugly scars (figure 197A) (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Dissection of galls reveals tunnels, brown frass, and sometimes larvae (figure 197B). Galls sometimes cause the canes to die back, but the pest is of minor importance.

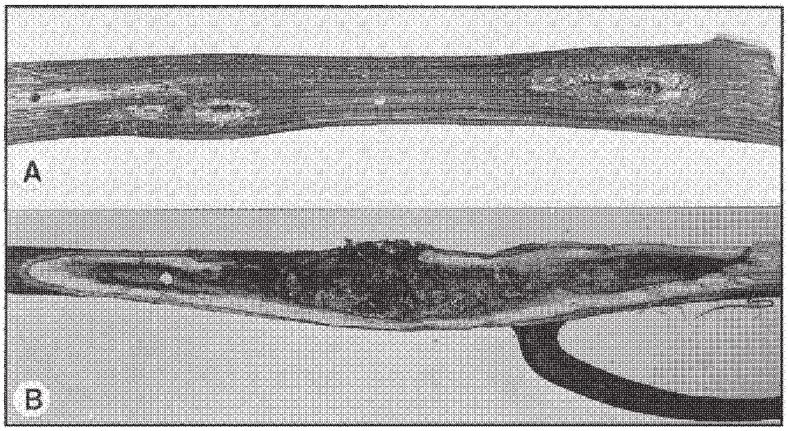


Figure 197—Ampeloglypter sesostris, *grape cane gallmaker: A, entrance holes with slight swellings on canes; B, cane split to show tunnel and frass (specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

Control. Pruning out and burning infested canes during July and early August destroy the larvae and reduce the population (Slingerland and Crosby 1919, Webster 1900a). Chemical sprays directed at the adults in late May and June have provided protection.

Ampeloglypter ampelopsis LeConte

[grape cane girdler]

Hosts. Virginia creeper, grape. Principal wild host is Virginia creeper; attacks grape less frequently (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Range. Eastern United States from New England and West Virginia west to Michigan and south to Indiana (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, oblong, moderately convex snout beetle, measuring about 2.7 to 3.0 mm long (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Shiny black with reddish brown antennae and tarsi; beak robust, strongly curved, and slightly longer than thorax. ***Larva.*** White, footless, and curved.

Biology. This species overwinters in the adult stage, and weevils emerge from hibernation in May (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Females deposit one egg per puncture in the growing canes and then girdle the stem below the egg site with a series of holes. Eggs hatch in about 10 days, and larvae feed in the pith of the cane. Larvae mature in July and pupate within their burrows, and the new adults emerge in August. Adults from this brood overwinter in plant debris.

Injury and damage. Withered tips and tender leaves near the ends of shoots give the vines a noticeably ragged appearance (Blatchley and Leng 1916). Examination of withered canes reveals gall-like swellings and puncture marks where the shoots were girdled. Dissection reveals burrows and white, C-shaped larvae.The insect kills shoots of growing canes, causing minor damage in some commercial vineyards.

Control. Cutting and burning infested canes during late summer destroy the larvae (Slingerland and Crosby 1919).

Family Scolytidae—Bark Beetles and Ambrosia Beetles

The family Scolytidae comprises a large, diverse, and important group of beetles (Arnett 1968, Furniss and Carolin 1977, USDA FS 1985). Adults are small, stout, compact to moderately elongate, and cylindrical. The antennae are elbowed, and the outer segments are enlarged and clublike. Most are brown to black; some have variegated markings of gray. The head is partially to completely hidden from above by the thorax. Larvae are grublike, thick bodied, legless, broadly C-shaped, and white to cream colored. Species are divided into two groups: the **true bark beetles** and the **ambrosia beetles**. Bark beetles burrow either entirely in the inner phloem or at the juncture of the bark and sapwood and feed on the inner phloem. Ambrosia beetles burrow in the sapwood and feed both in the larval and adult states on fungi, known as ambrosia, that they cultivate within their tunnels. The ambrosia beetles (usually females) possess specialized structures called **mycetangia** that store the fungi and introduce it into new galleries during the burrowing process. The specific ambrosia fungi are included here for only a few ambrosia beetle species because of the difficulty workers have had in isolating, identifying, and agreeing on the fungus species involved. Brood burrows of scolytids are of a variety of different types, but those made by the same species are so characteristic that the responsible species can be readily identified without seeing the insect. Although some scolytids attack healthy trees, most prefer weakened, injured, or dying trees and fresh-cut logs. Some bark beetles can kill or hasten the death of weakened trees, and others are important vectors of tree diseases. Ambrosia beetles are important chiefly because of the degrade of sawed lumber that results from their invasion of trees and logs.

Genus and Species

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politus (Say) *551*
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compactus (Eichhoff) *569*
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Scolytus quadrispinosus Say

hickory bark beetle (figure 198)

Hosts. Hickory, pecan, butternut. Prefers hickories, with shagbark and bitternut hickories listed most often in the literature (Goeden and Norris 1964, Hopkins 1912, McDaniel 1936). Pecan and butternut are less susceptible.

Range. Quebec south throughout the eastern half of the United States to the Gulf Coast and westward to Wisconsin and Texas (USDA FS 1985, Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Short, stout, thickly cylindrical, black to reddish brown, almost hairless bark beetle, 2.9 to 5 mm long (figure 198A) (Goeden and Norris 1964, McDaniel 1936, USDA FS 1985, Wood 1982). Front tibiae have a short curved spine or hook. In males, venter deeply excavated; third abdominal segment armed with three spines, fourth with one large median spine. In females, venter less deeply excavated and without spines. ***Egg.*** Ellipsoidal, cream colored, and barely visible to naked eye. ***Larva.*** Short, curved or slightly C-shaped, legless, yellowish white, wrinkled, and 5 to 8 mm long when mature (figure 198B). ***Pupa.*** Very compact, fragile, and white.

Biology. This bark beetle overwinters in various larval stages (Goeden and Norris 1964, 1965; McDaniel 1936). During spring, the oldest larvae transform to pupae in elliptical chambers, terminating each larval tunnel just beneath the bark surface. Beetles begin to emerge in May and continue through late August. Beetle populations and seasonal activity reach maximum during July and early August. Newly emerged beetles fly to the crowns of host trees where they feed mainly in terminal and twig growth for 10 to 15 days. Sexually mature beetles are then attracted to low-vigor trees, where they bore into the bark of trunks and branches. Here, females excavate 12- to 50-mm-long longitudinal upright egg galleries (without nuptial chambers) between the bark and wood. Mating on the bark surface and egg laying within the gallery continue throughout summer, with each female depositing 20 to 60 eggs singly in small niches along either side of the egg gallery. They cover the eggs with a plug of macerated frass. Eggs hatch in 10 to 12 days. Larvae mine outward and parallel to each other at first, but as they become larger, they diverge until the complex of mines resembles an

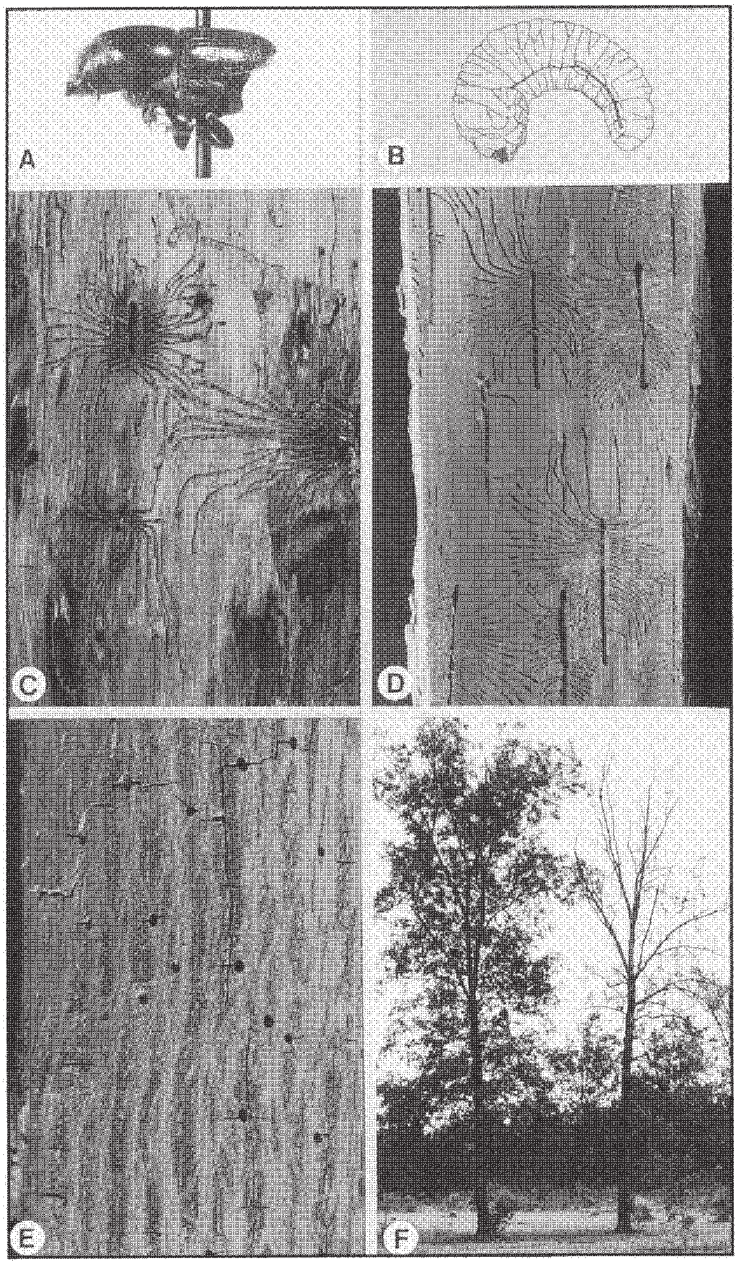


Figure 198—Scolytus quadrispinosus, *hickory bark beetle: A, adults; B, larva; C, vertical egg tunnel with radiating larval galleries engraved on sapwood; D, centipede-like engravings in bark; E, round exit holes in bark; F, hickory killed by beetle attack.*

engraving of centipede legs. Larval mines may extend 75 mm or more outward from egg galleries, thus severing the food and water conducting tissues of the tree. Mature larvae leave the cambium and bore into the outer bark where they pupate in cells. This beetle has one generation per year in its northern range and two in its southern range.

Injury and damage. Reportedly, this bark beetle is the most destructive insect of hickory (Wood 1982). Adults feed in terminal growth, and larvae tunnel in trunks and large branches and cause greatest damage (figure 198C and D) (Goeden and Norris 1965). Newly emerged adults feed on twigs in the tree crown throughout summer. They make short food tunnels, about body length or less, in twigs, mainly at the base of axillary buds and leaf of current year and 1-year-old growth. Heavy twig feeding may cause yellowing and premature dropping of leaves and broken twigs scattered over the crown but rarely seriously weakens the tree. In fall and winter after initial attack, numerous round entrance holes 3 mm in diameter in the bark are often the only outward sign of attack (figure 198E). During winter and spring, woodpecker holes in the bark are good indicators of bark beetle infestation. In spring, sparse or yellowed foliage also indicates attack. Removing the perforated bark reveals the engraved peculiar designs of centipede-like galleries (figure 198C and D). When attacks are numerous, the galleries can girdle the tree. The foliage of heavily infested trees turns yellow and then red within a few weeks of attack, and finally brown as the tree succumbs (figure 198F). Trees stressed and weak from drought, fire, storm damage, disease, or other causes are most susceptible. Healthy trees are seldom attacked except when beetle populations are high. Although large infestations usually kill a tree, light ones may only girdle branches or a part of the trunk, causing top dieback.

Control. Five species of hymenopterous parasites—*Coeloides scolytivorus* (Cresson), *Ecphylus hickoriae* Rohwer, *Heterospilus scolytidae* (Ashmead), *Spathius trifasciatus* Riley, and *Trigonura ulmi* Burks—help to reduce populations (Krombein and others 1979). Hickory bark beetles rarely attack healthy trees, so good cultural practices such as thinning, pruning, fertilization, and irrigation are important for orchard, ornamental, and other valuable trees (Goeden and Norris 1964, Hopkins 1912). The most effective control is to destroy trees harboring overwintering larvae during winter and spring. Infested trees can be cut and burned or submerged in water. An alternative is to peel the bark or spray with an insecticide before emergence begins in May or June. To protect valuable trees during epidemics, trunks and large branches should be thoroughly sprayed with an insecticide during early July.

Scolytus rugulosus (Muller)

shothole borer (figure 199)

Hosts. Apple, peach, pear, plum, cherry, quince, apricot, nectarine, loquat, serviceberry, wild cherry, chokecherry, mountain-ash, hawthorn, elm. Prefers cultivated fruit trees, but occasionally infests wild and uncultivated species (Brooks 1916).

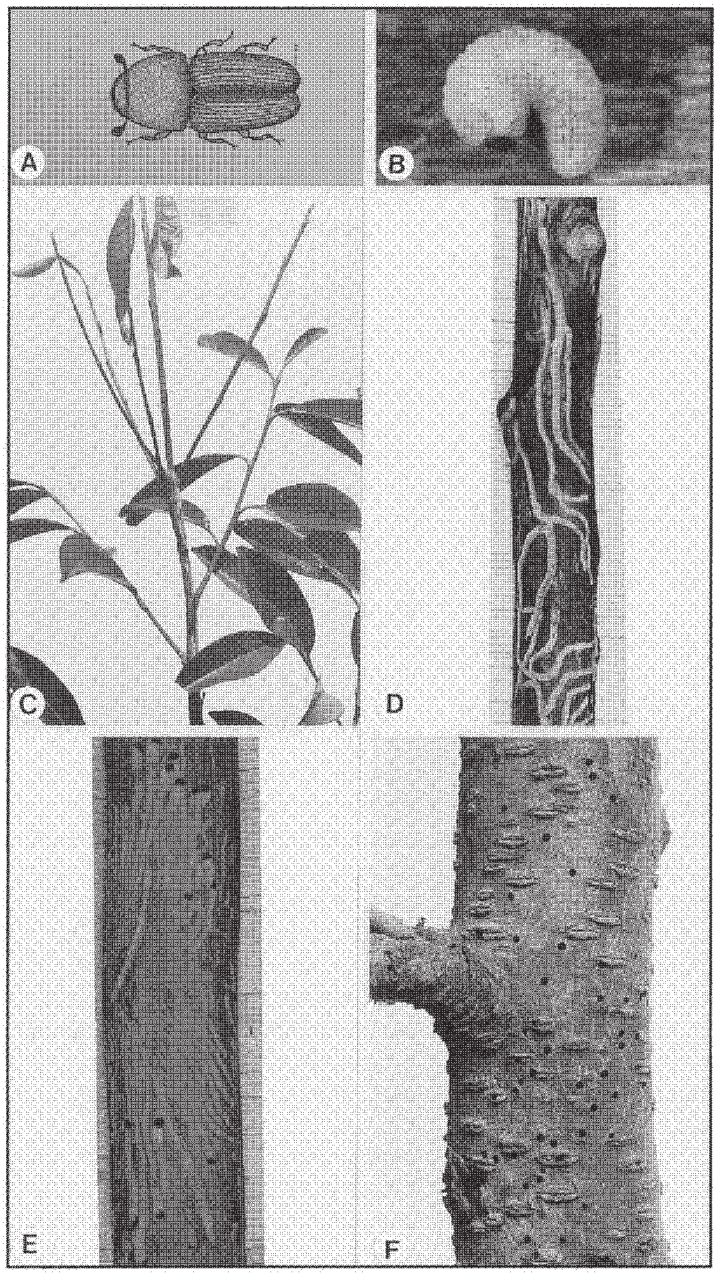


Figure 199—Scolytus rugulosus, *shothole borer: A, adult; B, larva; C, branch dying from attack; D, irregular larval tunnels on small stem; E, uniform galleries with pupation holes in sapwood; F, shot-sized exit holes in bark (B & C, courtesy W. Johnson).*

Range. Introduced in the United States (discovered first near Elmira, New York) from Europe in mid-1870's. Now common in fruit-growing areas throughout the United States, southern Canada, and northern Mexico (Bright 1976, Slingerland and Crosby 1919, Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Dark reddish brown to grayish black bark beetle, 1.5 to 2.9 mm long (figure 199A) (Blackman 1934, Brooks 1916, Wood 1982). Body about twice as long as wide. Head barely visible from above and sparsely clothed with fine, moderately long setae. Antennae yellowish, clubbed at tips. Pronotum slightly wider than long, shiny surface with coarse, rather close, elongate punctures more dense on front and sides. Elytra about equal in width to pronotum, and each elytron rounded posteriorly. Ventral abdominal segments ascend strongly and obliquely toward elytra, but not excavated. ***Egg.*** Oval, 0.50 by 0.36 mm, milky white when deposited, but translucent at maturity (Gossard 1913). ***Larva.*** Legless grub, white to pink, cylindrical, and transversely wrinkled, 3.5 to 4.0 mm long (figure 199B). Head yellowish with rusty red jaws. Thoracic segments enlarged considerably. Abdomen tapers gradually toward tip and bends downward, giving larva a C-shape. ***Pupa.*** White to pink when formed, gradually turning yellow and darkening, 3.0 to 3.5 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge from March to June, but adults may be found throughout much of the growing season (Bright 1976, Brooks 1916, Gossard 1913). Adults fly to susceptible trees, bore into the bark, and construct egg galleries 30 to 60 mm long, mainly in the inner bark, but also etching the surface of the sapwood. Egg galleries are more or less parallel with the stem, but sometimes curve, and occasionally branch or are Y-shaped. Eggs are deposited in small, closely spaced niches along both sides of the gallery. Eggs hatch in 3 to 10 days, and larvae tunnel at right angles to the gallery but sometimes turn and follow the wood grain; larval galleries vary in length from 2.5 to 10.0 cm. When larvae are numerous and crowded, their feeding galleries intertwine. Mature larvae burrow into the sapwood about 16 mm, then turn up or down along the grain and pupate in small oval cells. Some summer generation larvae pupate in the bark, but overwintering larvae are found almost exclusively in the wood. Development from egg to adult during summer is about 1 month. After the spring emergence of the overwintering generation, distinct generations are impossible to distinguish. This borer has one to two generations per year in its North range; and up to four generations per year in the South.

Injury and damage. Twigs, branches, and trunks, particularly of trees weakened from drought, disease, injury, or age, are most subject to attack (Gossard 1913, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Active attacks are often indicated by small amounts of boring dust in bark crevices. On peach and other stone-fruit trees, small masses of clear, gummy exudate accumulate at beetle entrances. The more vigorous the tree, the more gumlike exudate accumulates. Wilting, yellowing, and browning of foliage on twigs

(figure 199C) and other stems are evidence of attack. Entrance holes are usually found at lenticels and other roughened areas of the bark. Galleries are often more irregular than those made by other scolytids on small branches and stems (figure 199D). On larger branches and trunks, both the egg (mostly vertical) and larval galleries (initially transverse, becoming oblique to vertical) are relatively uniform (figure 199E). Emerging beetles leave through many small shot-sized holes—hence the pest's common name (figure 199F). Because it prefers injured, weakened, and dying trees, this species is of minor importance in forest operations. However, it can be a serious horticultural pest in poorly maintained fruit orchards.

Control. Studies in 1965 (Bushing 1965) recorded 20 species of hymenopterous parasites, whereas later studies (Krombein and others 1979) list only 11 species. Woodpeckers excavate many of the larvae, especially during winter (Brooks 1916). Infestations and losses can be minimized by keeping trees healthy. All dead and dying limbs and trees should be removed promptly and destroyed to eliminate breeding sites. Insecticides may sometimes be required to protect fruit trees.

Scolytus multistriatus (Marsham)

smaller European elm bark beetle (figure 200)

Hosts. Elm. All native and introduced species of elm as well as Japanese zelkova (USDA FS 1985).

Range. Introduced from Europe, presumably in either burl elm logs sent to veneer plants or in elm crates used to carry cargo (Whitten 1960). First recorded near Boston, Massachusetts, in 1909 and since reported from every state except Alaska and Hawaii; occurs across southern Canada from Nova Scotia to British Columbia (Schreiber and Peacock 1979, USDA FS 1985, Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small bark beetle with shiny upper surface; pronotum nearly black, elytra dark reddish brown, length 1.9 to 3.1 mm (figure 200A) (Blackman 1934, USDA FS 1985, Whitten 1960, Wood 1982). Head of male flattened in front between eyes; that of female, convex. Antennae clubbed at extremity. Face covered with many, fine, long, incurved, yellow hairs, except near median line. Pronotum slightly wider than long. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum; about 1.3 times as long as wide. Posterior underside of abdomen concave, second sternite nearly vertical and armed with noticeable stout spine projecting from anterior margin. ***Egg.*** Small, globular, shiny, pearly white. ***Larva.*** White, legless grub with brown head, C-shaped, 2.8 to 3.2 mm long (figure 200B). ***Pupa.*** White initially, gradually darken, wings folded under abdomen, about 3 mm long.

Biology. Larvae overwinter in pupal chambers in bark (Schreiber and Peacock 1979, USDA FS 1985, Whitten 1960). They pupate in spring, and adults emerge through "shot holes" they chew through the bark at about the time the first elm leaves fully expand (late March to early June, depending on latitude). Emerging adults fly directly to weakened or diseased elms to breed in the inner bark or to healthy elms to feed on the

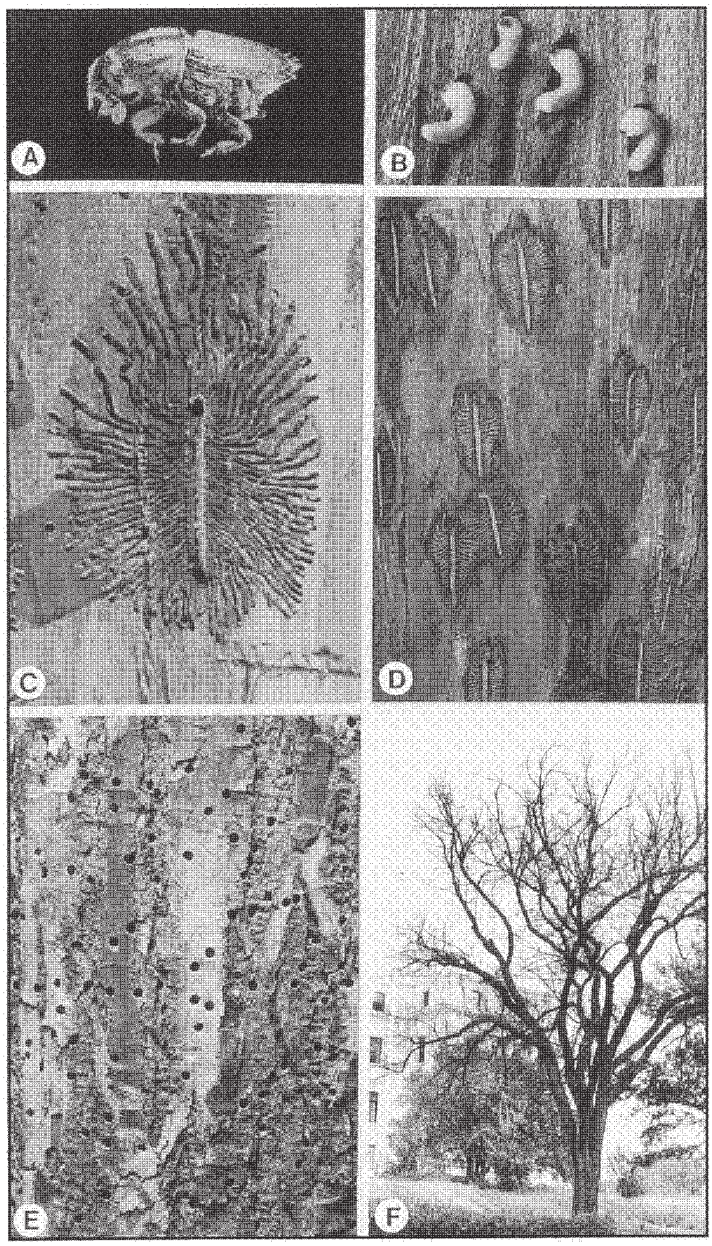


Figure 200—Scolytus multistriatus, *smaller European elm bark beetle: A, adult; B, larvae; C, closeup of vertical egg tunnel and radiating egg galleries; D, numerous galleries under bark; E, beetle exit holes in bark; F, large elm killed by beetles (C-E, specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

bark in the crotches of 2- to 4-year-old twigs. Beetles that emerge from trees with Dutch elm disease become contaminated with the fungus *Ceratocystis ulmi* (Buisman) C. Moreau and in feeding often transmit it to healthy trees. Breeding attacks typically begin in weakened trees. Females initiate the attack and release an aggregating pheromone that attracts both sexes to the breeding site. After mating near entrance holes in the bark, females bore egg galleries in the inner bark 2.5 to 8 mm long and parallel with the grain. Eggs are deposited in closely spaced niches along the sides of the egg gallery. Larvae feed in the inner bark and surface of the wood. Their parallel galleries radiate at right angles to the egg gallery, but larvae often turn and follow the wood grain as they mature. Larval galleries are 8 to 20 cm long. Pupation occurs largely in the bark, and adults emerge through individually excavated holes. Development from egg to adult during summer is about 6 weeks. This bark beetle has two generations per year in the Midwest; three generations per year are common in the South.

Injury and damage. By midsummer, many healthy elms that experienced twig-crotch feeding by newly emerged beetles will develop symptoms of Dutch elm disease: wilting, drying, yellowing, and browning of foliage followed usually by defoliation and death. Symptoms can occur on scattered branches, or the entire crown may wilt and die suddenly. In the inner bark and etched into the surface of the sapwood are the characteristic gallery patterns of adults and larvae (figure 200C and D). Egg galleries are straight and run vertically along the wood grain. Closely spaced larval galleries radiate perpendicularly from both sides of the egg gallery but then turn and follow the wood grain. Galleries often overlap and frequently girdle the tree. Bark appears perforated by numerous small shot-sized emergence holes, 0.7 to 1.1 mm in diameter (figure 200E). This pest is the principal vector of Dutch elm disease in the United States and annually contributes to the death of thousands of valuable street, shade, and park trees (figure 200F) (Schreiber and Peacock 1979, Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955). The United States Government has spent huge sums of money to control this beetle (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Eight species of hymenopterous parasites have been identified (Bushing 1965, Krombein and others 1979). Four disease-causing pathogens—including three entomogenous bacteria (*Aceobacter scolyti* Presson, *Escherichia klebsiellaeformis* Presson, *Serratia marsescens* Bizio (Vago 1963)) and one fungus, *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo) Vuillemin—have been reported. Studies show that 92% of overwintering larvae in damp habitats are killed by *B. bassiana*, but only 4% mortality occurs in dry habitats (Madelin 1963). Low temperatures and overcrowding of broods in the bark have also been reported as natural controls (Shenefelt and Benjamin 1955). Losses caused by this pest and the accompanying Dutch elm disease can be minimized by concerted community efforts to (1) reduce beetle populations by eliminating breeding materials through sanitation

and tree care, (2) protect healthy trees with insecticidal sprays, (3) prevent underground disease transmission by destroying natural root grafts between diseased and healthy trees, and (4) plant trees that are resistant to Dutch elm disease (Schrieber and Peacock 1979). Pheromones can be used to detect and monitor beetle populations and to time chemical controls (Birch and others 1981).

Hylurgopinus rufipes (Eichhoff)

native elm bark beetle. (figure 201)

Host. Elm. Elm species are the major hosts, but also attacks basswood, ash, and wild cherry (USDA FS 1985).

Range. Throughout the eastern United States north of Alabama and Mississippi (USDA FS 1985) west to Nebraska and North Dakota (Furniss and Carolin 1977); in Canada, from New Brunswick to Manitoba (Bright 1976).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brownish black bark beetle, sparsely clothed with stiff, short, yellow hairs, and measuring 2.0 to 3.5 mm long (figure 201A) (Bright 1976, USDA FS 1985). Head convex, thickly punctured, and barely visible from above. Antennal club almost twice as long as wide. Pronotum narrows toward front; entire surface densely punctured; posterior margin reddish. Longitudinal striae on elytra deep and contain deep punctures and erect bumps. Distinguished from *S. multistriatus* (Marsham) (also in elm) by color, shape, and the absence of a concave abdomen and prominent spine. ***Egg.*** Globular, shiny, white (figure 201B) (Whitten 1960).

Larva. Legless, C-shaped, fat, wrinkled, white with brown head, 3 to 5 mm long when mature (figure 201C).

Biology. Adults emerge from mid-April to mid-May and fly to healthy elms to feed in the bark of large branches for brief periods (Hildahl and Jeffrey 1980, USDA FS 1985, Whitten 1960). After feeding, beetles fly to dying and recently dead trees for oviposition. They bore into bark crevices, or under bark scales, and tunnel to the inner bark where females construct egg galleries. Egg galleries extend horizontally across the grain and usually consist of two branches diverging from the point of penetration in the bark. Eggs are deposited along sides of the egg galleries, and developing larvae feed in closely spaced, parallel galleries that run mostly perpendicular to the egg galleries with the wood grain. Larvae pupate in small, oval-shaped cells in the bark at the ends of feeding tunnels. Larvae and adults overwinter in the bark. If the host has Dutch elm disease, emerging beetles will transmit fungal spores to healthy elms during the spring and fall adult feedings. There are two generations a year in the beetle's southern range but only one to one and one-half generations in its northern range.

Injury and damage. Red dust in bark fissures of living trees in spring and fall indicates overwintering beetles (Hildahl and Jeffrey 1980). Accurate identification is best made by examining the adult and larval gallery patterns found in the inner bark and slightly etched into the sapwood surface (figure 201D and E). The egg gallery of *H. rufipes* is horizontal or slightly inclined,

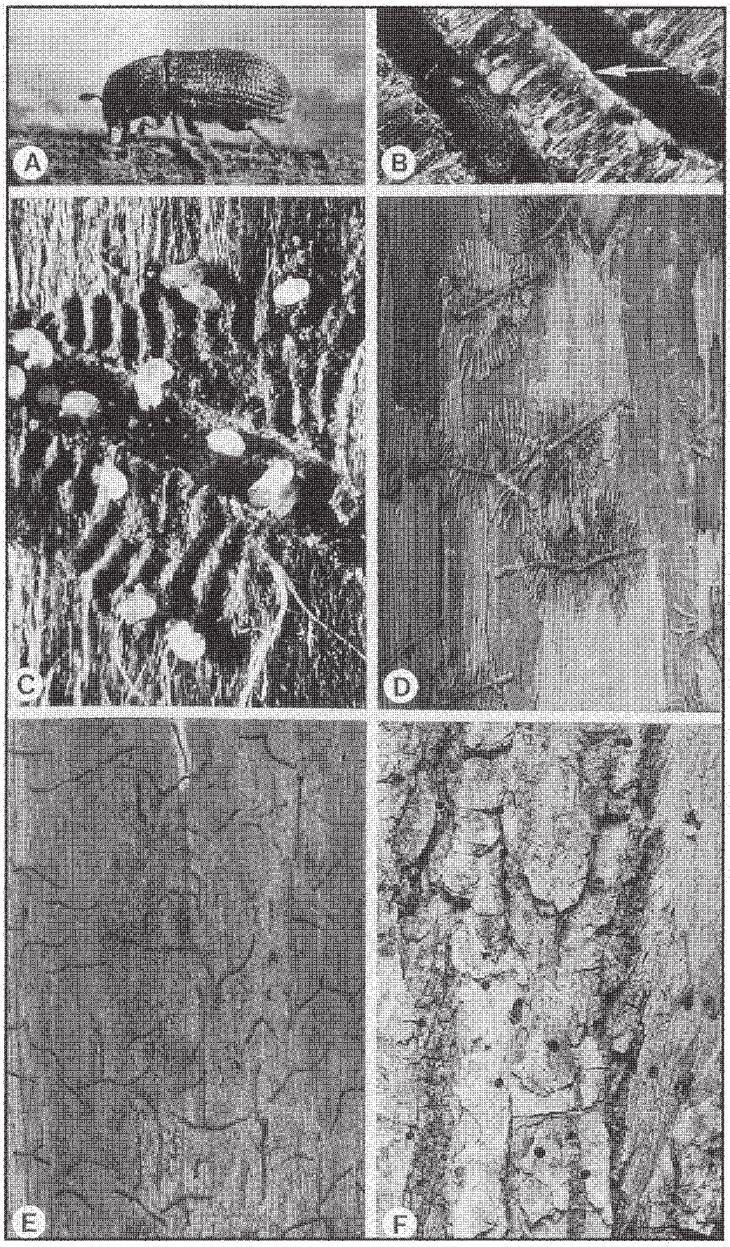


Figure 201—Hylurgopinus rufipes, *native elm bark beetle: A, adult; B, eggs in niches along tunnel; C, larvae; D, horizontal egg tunnels with radiating larval tunnels; E, egg tunnels etched in sapwood; F, adult exit holes in bark (A-C, courtesy C. Jeffery and V. Hildahl; D, courtesy W. Johnson).*

distinguishing it from the egg gallery of *S. multistriatus*, which runs vertically with the wood grain. Larval galleries of *H. rufipes* run along both sides of the egg gallery perpendicular to the wood grain. Larvae, pupae, and callow adults may be found in small galleries and small cells. Emerging adults leave numerous small, round holes about 1 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 201F). Before Dutch elm disease was introduced in the United States, the native elm bark beetle was of little importance because it primarily attacked weakened, dying, and recently dead trees (McDaniel 1936). Now it is a major vector of Dutch elm disease, particularly in New England and Canada, where the species is more abundant than *S. multistriatus* (USDA FS 1985). *Hylurgopinus rufipes* populations can grow large during prolonged drought, when the beetles aggressively attack healthy trees (McDaniel 1936).

Control. Ten species of hymenopterous parasites, predaceous birds, and disease are natural enemies (Bushing 1965, Whitten 1960). Woodpeckers capture many overwintering larvae and adults. Low winter temperatures and competition for food caused by larval overcrowding often cause high rates of mortality. Many communities emphasize prevention through good tree maintenance and strict sanitation as opposed to control (Hildahl and Jeffrey 1980). Infested and diseased elms should be removed and destroyed within 30 days of being diagnosed. Insecticidal sprays and injected fungicides have been used with some success in protecting valuable yard and street trees. However, for sanitation cutting and chemical treatment to be effective, the effort requires communitywide cooperation. Controls are rarely feasible in forests.

Hylesinus aculeatus (Say)

[eastern ash bark beetle] (figure 202)

Host. Ash. White and green ash, but other ash species also probably serve as hosts (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Chamberlin 1939).

Range. Eastern United States west to the Rocky Mountains and eastern Canada west to Manitoba (Blackman 1922, Furniss and Carolin 1977, Ives and Wong 1988).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, elongate, cylindrical bark beetle, 2.2 to 3.4 mm long (figure 202A) (Blatchley and Leng 1916, Ives and Wong 1988, USDA FS 1985). Dark brown; distinct light and dark patterns occur due to dense covering of flattened, whitish gray scales (Blackman 1922). Light scales on pronotum outline a diamond-shaped patch of dark, reddish brown scales. Brown and gray scales on elytra form a variable herringbone pattern. Elytra slightly wider than pronotum and serrate along anterior margin. Rear of elytra convex and gradually sloped (Beal and Massey 1945).
Larva. White with brown mandibles, legless, C-shaped; thoracic segments moderately larger than abdominal segments (figure 202B).

Biology. Adults emerge from hibernation as early as late March in Mississippi (Blackman 1922) but as late as May or June in the northern range (Ives and Wong 1988). Adults fly to limbs and trunks of

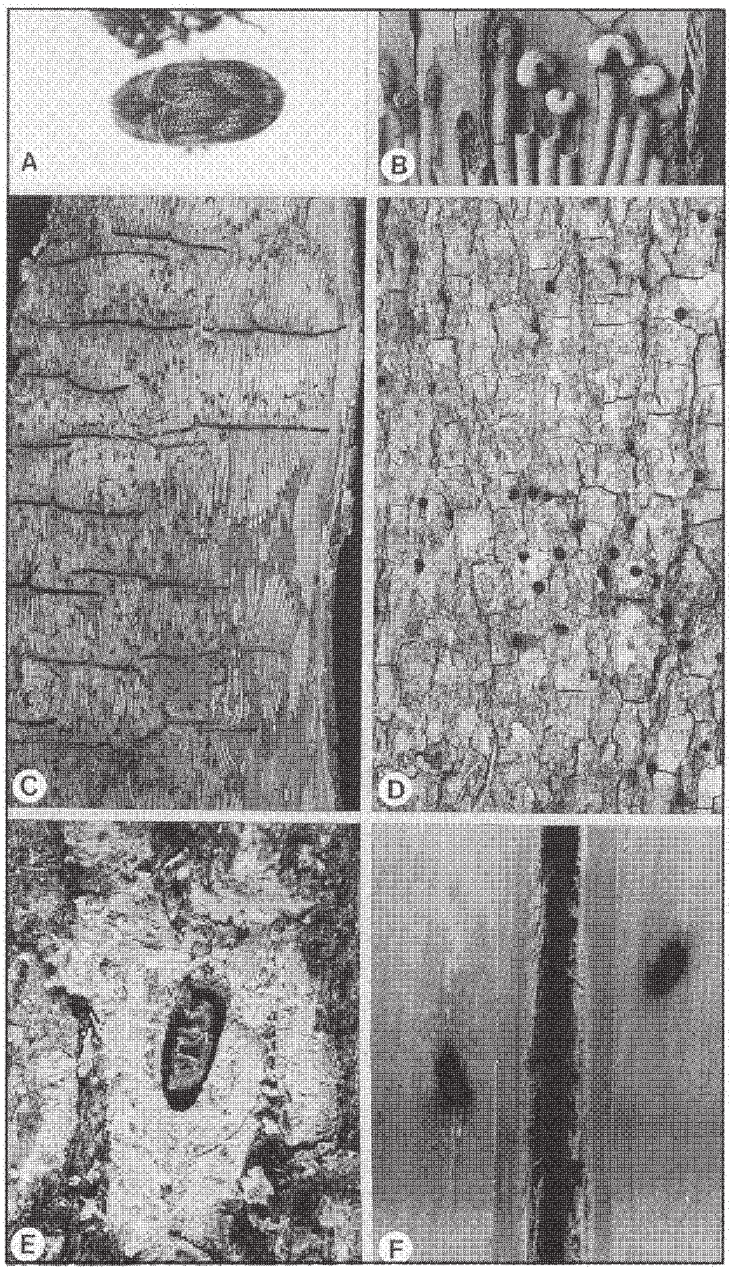


Figure 202—Hylesinus aculeatus, *[eastern ash bark beetle]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, horizontal egg tunnels with vertical larval galleries; D, round adult exit holes in bark, E, adult in hibernation cell in bark; F, hibernation chambers extending through bark to cambium.*

seriously weakened, dying, and felled trees to reproduce (USDA FS 1985). Females make large transverse egg galleries beneath the bark and deposit eggs singly in niches on opposite sides of the gallery. Larvae tunnel perpendicular to the egg gallery with the wood grain and pupate at the ends of the feeding galleries in oval cells. Adult and larval galleries and pupal cells deeply etch the sapwood surface and inner bark (Chamberlin 1939, USDA FS 1985). Newly formed adults rarely disturb the beautiful design of the galleries (figure 202C) because they burrow straight out from their pupal cells to the bark surface to emerge. In fall, adults construct short feeding tunnels in the bark of living or recently felled trees and overwinter (Beal and Massey 1945). This bark beetle has one generation per year in Minnesota, with new adults leaving hosts in midsummer to seek winter hibernation sites (Dodge 1938); two generations occur in North Carolina (Beal and Massey 1945). In Mississippi, beetles develop from egg to adult in 2 to 2.5 months; thus, three generations seem possible (Blackman 1922).

Injury and damage. Bark on susceptible trees and fresh-cut logs may be peppered with small round entrance holes. Fine frass may accumulate in bark crevices. Removing bark reveals typical galleries and white tunneling larvae. The prominent egg galleries are characterized as biramous and transverse, with two arms connected by a very short slightly enlarged tunnel below the entrance hole, which serves as a turning niche and nuptial chamber (figure 202C) (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). Egg galleries range from 2 to 6 cm long. Larval galleries are packed with frass and radiate outward nearly perpendicular from the transverse egg galleries. Larval engravings are further characterized as longitudinal, regularly and closely spaced, and short and uniform (2 to 5 cm). Few other bark beetles produce more uniform galleries (Chamberlin 1939). Beetles leave many tiny round exit holes about 1 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 202D). When populations are high, hibernating niches can be found in the inner bark of healthy trees (figure 202E). Hibernating niches often extend through the bark to the cambium and cause small defects in the wood (figure 202F). Although the beetle can hasten the death of trees weakened by fire, disease, injury, and other stresses, it is seldom important from an economic standpoint (Beal and Massey 1945). Occasionally, it is an economic pest to producers of "rustic" (bark still on) ash products (USDA FS 1985).

Control. Six species of parasites have been listed (Bushing 1965). In New Jersey studies, 32% of the larvae were killed by a hymenopterous parasite—*Coeloides scolytivorus* (Cresson) (Hoffman 1938). In another study in Mississippi, parasitism by an unidentified wasp ran as high as 90% (Blackman 1922). A clerid beetle—*Enoclerus quadriguttatus* Olivier—sometimes destroys large numbers of beetles. Direct controls are rarely warranted but, should they be necessary, felling and debarking infested trees and limbs before broods emerge control the insect (Beal and Massey 1945). Logs intended for "rustic"

uses should be promptly removed from woodlands and stored in beetle-free areas or sprayed to prevent infestation.

Hylesinus californicus Swaine

[western ash bark beetle] (figure 203)

Hosts. Ash, olive. White, green, and Oregon ash, and olive recorded and probably other ash species (Chamberlin 1939, McKnight and Aarhus 1973, Vernoff 1980).

Range. Washington south to California into Mexico and east to North Dakota, Colorado, and Oklahoma (Furniss and Carolin 1977), and in southern Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba (Ives and Wong 1988).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, cylindrically oval bark beetle, 2.3 to 3.0 mm long (Chamberlin 1939, Essig 1917, Ives and Wong 1988). White scales (plumose hairs) on pronotum form an irregular elongate pattern around patch of black scales (sometimes diamond shaped). Antennae and legs reddish brown. White and black scales on elytra produce gray blending, but a variable herringbone pattern is evident. ***Larva.*** White with dark mandibles, C-shaped thoracic segments larger than those of abdomen, slightly longer than adult.

Biology. Adults emerge from hibernation in late May and early June in North Dakota and Oregon (McKnight and Aarhus 1973, Vernoff 1980). Beetles attack twigs, branches, and sometimes boles of living trees. Females select the host; males join them. Short entrances are slightly longer than the bark thickness, and when they reach the junction of the inner bark and outer sapwood, they are enlarged somewhat to form a nuptial chamber and turning niche for adults. Two egg galleries are constructed opposite each other and originate at the nuptial chamber. Egg galleries are straight or only slightly curved, deeply engrave the sapwood, and often completely girdle small stems; they are invariably stained black by a *Ceratocystis* fungus. Eggs are deposited singly in niches along the sides of the egg galleries, and larvae tunnel at more or less right angles to the egg gallery following the wood grain. As larvae grow, their galleries occasionally cross. Mature larvae pupate at the ends of the galleries in small elliptical cells. In North Dakota, new adults emerge through August. They fly to boles of living trees and burrow obliquely upward into the outer bark and construct winter hibernation chambers that may contain one or more beetles. There is one generation per year (Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Injury and damage. Small, round entrance and exit holes in the bark, sometimes with fine frass in bark crevices, may be found. The most characteristic evidence of attack is a row of ventilation holes about 1 mm in diameter and about 4 mm apart directly over the egg gallery (figure 203A) (McKnight and Aarhus 1973). Bark along the row of holes and slightly to either side of the egg gallery on twigs and branches becomes sunken and discolored. Removing the bark reveals typical egg galleries that often nearly encircle twigs and branches (figure 203B). Both the transverse egg gallery and perpendicular larval galleries

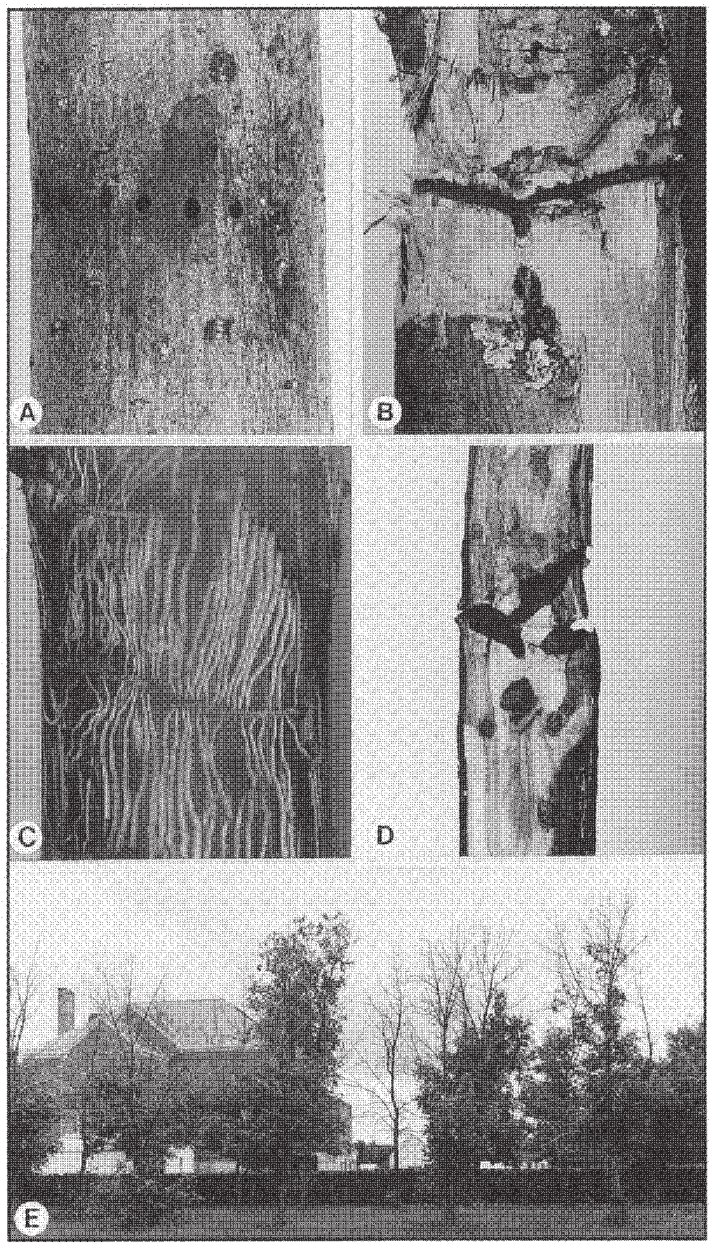


Figure 203—Hylesinus californicus, *[western ash bark beetle]: A, ventilation holes in bark over egg tunnel; B, transverse egg tunnel in bark; C, egg tunnel with vertical larval galleries; D, small ash stem girdled by egg tunnel; E, green ash killed by beetle attacks (courtesy M. Dix).*

are in the inner bark and on the surface of the sapwood (figure 203C). Twigs and small branches may be girdled and killed by one beetle (figure 203D). Leaves on girdled branches turn bright yellow then brown, especially during July and August. Crown dieback and tree mortality occur especially when infested trees are weak from drought or other stresses (figure 203E). In the Great Plains, where green ash is prized as a shade and windbreak tree, this pest sometimes causes noticeable branch and top kill and some tree mortality.

Control. Four insect parasites—*Coeloides scolytivorus* (Cresson), *Ecphylus schwarzii* (Ashmead), *Habrocytus* sp., and *Spathius benefactor* Matthews—have been recorded (Bushing 1965, Vernoff 1980) but apparently they have little effect on beetle populations. An entomogenous nematode—*Omemeea maxbassiensis* Massey—has been collected from beetle galleries (McKnight and Aarhus 1973). Direct controls are rarely needed.

Hylesinus criddlei Swaine

[northern ash bark beetle] (figure 204)

Hosts. Ash. White and green ashes have been attacked (Swaine 1918).

Range. A northern species reported from Minnesota (Dodge 1938), North Dakota (McKnight and Aarhus 1973), Wyoming, Colorado (Furniss and Carolin 1977), Manitoba, and Quebec (Doane and others 1936).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very small, oval bark beetle, 2.0 to 2.6 mm long (Chamberlin 1939). Pronotum with numerous roughened, rasplike ridges that extend from anterior margin to middorsal area; also with submarginal row of ridges that are elongate and nearly pointed. Elytra with grooves and punctures almost entirely hidden by dense covering of scales. Wing covers slope gradually toward posterior margin. ***Larva.*** White C-shaped body; with brown mandibles and enlarged thoracic segments (figure 204A).

Biology. Adults hibernate in chambers in the outer bark, most commonly around the root collars of trees 10 to 15 cm in diameter at breast height (McKnight and Aarhus 1973). In North Dakota, adults emerge from hibernation in mid-May and fly to susceptible hosts. Trees felled the previous year are especially attractive to beetles. Females bore into the bark and are soon joined by the males (figure 204B). The beetles make two-branched egg galleries and deposit eggs in niches along both sides of the gallery. Larvae feed in closely spaced tunnels, mature, pupate, and produce adults that emerge from late July through August. This species has one generation a year.

Injury and damage. Removing the bark reveals the characteristic galleries (figure 204C). The gallery system is a slightly enlarged, nuptial chamber with nearly straight egg galleries about 1 mm in diameter extending transversely across the wood grain and sometimes encircling twigs and small branches (Doane and others 1936, McKnight and Aarhus 1973). Larval galleries are symmetrical, close together, and filled with frass; they radiate from the empty, larger egg galleries. Egg galleries are often so close together that pupal chambers of

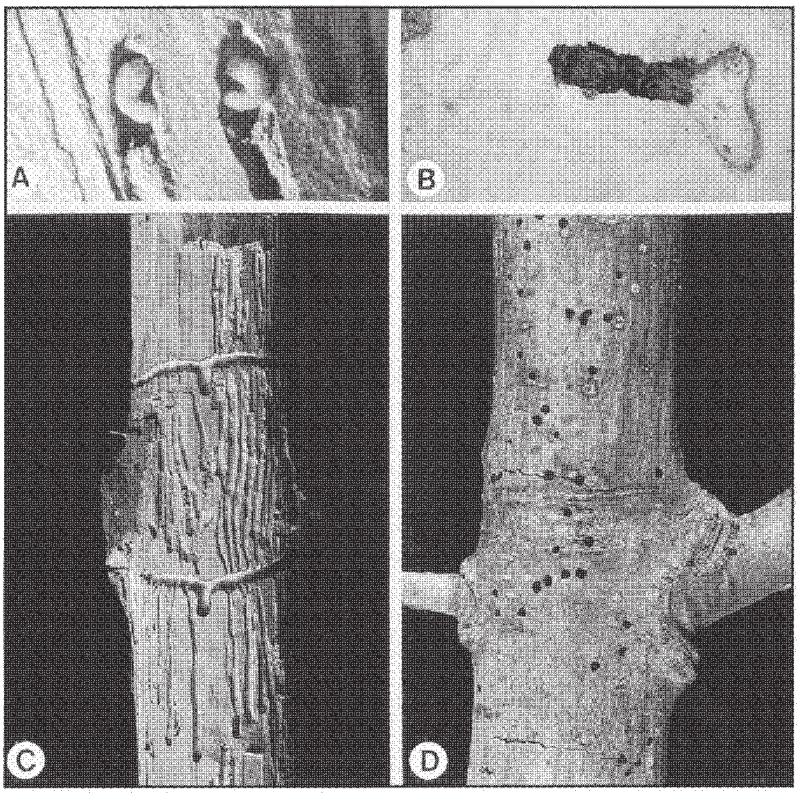


Figure 204—Hylesinus criddlei, *[northern ash bark beetle]: A, larvae; B, pair of adults initiating egg tunnel in bark; C, nuptial chamber, lateral egg tunnels, and vertical larval galleries; D, numerous adult exit holes in bark (A, courtesy M. Dix).*

neighboring broods nearly touch. The egg galleries deeply engrave the outer sapwood but exhibit little or none of the dark staining that occurs with other ash bark beetles. There are no ventilation holes over the egg galleries as with *H. californicus*. The bark may be peppered with numerous round holes slightly less than 1 mm in diameter made by the emerging beetles (figure 204D). Trees may be attacked along their entire lengths from groundline upwards, but attack sites are most common on upper stems and branches above and beyond the attack sites of *H. californicus*. Trees girdled or partially girdled by rodents during winter, trees infested by other bark beetle species, those cut the previous year, and branches broken by winter and spring windstorms are preferred. Thus, the beetle is only of minor importance.

Control. The following parasitic wasps have been reared from infested branches and trunks—*Dinotiscus* sp., *Eurytoma crassineura* Ashmead, *Mesopolobus* sp., and *Rhaphitelus maculatus* Walker. (McKnight and Aarhus 1973). Direct controls are rarely needed.

Phloeotribus liminaris (Harris)

peach bark beetle (figure 205)

Hosts. Peach, cherry, plum, black cherry, elm, mulberry, mountain-ash. Peach preferred, but cherry, black cherry, and other stone fruit trees also commonly attacked (Gossard 1913, USDA FS 1985).

Range. Primarily an eastern species, from the Atlantic Coast west to Arkansas, south to the Gulf Coast, and north to Manitoba (USDA FS 1985, Wood 1982). Particularly troublesome in Ohio, West Virginia, New York, and other northeastern areas (Rexrode 1981, Schultz and Allen 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Oblong, subcylindrical bark beetle, light brown to nearly black, 1.5 to 2.2 mm long (figure 205A) (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Wood 1982). Segments of antennal club greatly elongated. Pronotum entirely reticulate, containing moderately large, shallow punctures and abundantly clothed with long, fine, whitish hairs. Elytra broader than pronotum, anterior margin slightly elevated and serrate, striae deep, punctures coarse, surface clothed with long, fine hairs. Declivity of elytra armed with small, blunt granules. ***Egg.*** Elliptical, opaque, milky white, 0.46 by 0.37 mm (Gossard 1913). ***Larva.*** White with yellowish head and brown mandibles, 2.8 to 3 mm long (figure 205B). Body C-shaped, very wrinkled, and clothed with numerous short spines. ***Pupa.*** White, turning to brown at maturity, about 2.5 mm long and 0.75 mm wide; end of abdomen bears one pair of brown-tipped spines (figure 205B) (Gossard 1913).

Biology. This bark beetle overwinters in larval and adult stages (Brooks 1916, Rexrode 1982, Slingerland and Crosby 1919). Adults emerge as early as March and early April in peach orchards but not until early May in black cherry stands in forests. Confusion over the number of generations a year arises because spring broods are produced by both the overwintering parent adults and by their adult progeny, which develop from overwintering larvae. It is

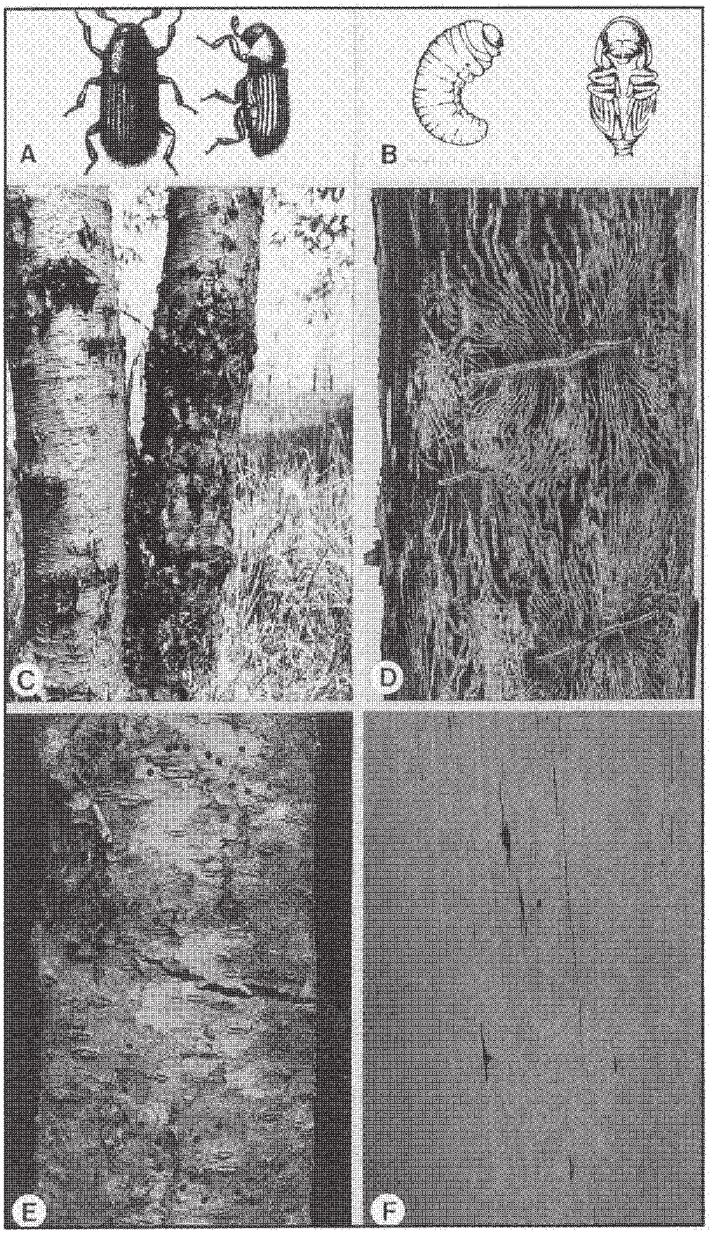


Figure 205—Phloeotribus liminaris, *peach bark beetle: A, adults; B, larva and pupa; C, roughened bark with gum and frass exudates; D, lateral egg tunnels with radiating larval galleries under bark; E, adult exit holes in bark of black cherry; F, gum-spot defects in lumber (A-D, courtesy C. Rexrode).*

common for half of the primary progeny adults to emerge, attack, and lay eggs two or three times in the same or new hosts throughout summer and fall. Reemerging parent adults attack in the gaps between those by progeny beetles; thus, when susceptible hosts are available, adults are continually on the attack. Identification of specific broods is further complicated by the great variation in the duration of each life stage. Eggs can last 7 to 110 days, larvae 25 to 332 days, pupae 17 to 181 days, and adults 7 to 217 days (the long periods include overwintering time). Attacks are initiated by females, which are soon joined by males. Mating occurs in the short entrance tunnel. Females construct an egg gallery, then deposit 80 to 100 eggs singly in separate niches along the sides of the gallery, covering each with a small plug of frass. Young larvae feed in short galleries that radiate at right angles to the egg gallery. Pupae develop in the inner bark at the ends of the larval galleries. New adults emerge through separate holes in the bark, often producing a shot hole pattern. On peach trees, hibernating beetles form small chambers in the inner bark that result in gum exudation on the bark surface. Hibernation chambers on wild black cherry are constructed in the outer bark under bark scales and rarely result in gum flow.

Injury and damage. The most characteristic evidence of attack is small globules of gummy sap, mixed with frass, at entrance holes on the bark surface (figure 205C) (Brooks 1916, Gossard 1913, Rexrode 1981). Gummosis may occur on limbs and trunks; occasionally, gum flows so prolifically that it puddles at the base of trees. The gallery system (figure 205D) consists of a short entrance tunnel that extends to the succulent inner bark and outer sapwood where egg galleries are 25 to 65 mm long and cut transversely across the grain; the short entrance tunnel and the egg gallery often form a Y. Egg galleries are distinguishable from those of the shothole borer, which are mostly parallel with the grain. Larval galleries 38 to 70 mm long run mostly at right angles to the egg gallery but occasionally turn slightly across the grain and sometimes intersect. Emerging beetles leave many round holes about 1 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 205E). This beetle prefers weakened and dying trees but habitually constructs short hibernation galleries (causing gummosis) in healthy trees, thus predisposing such trees to further infestation (Gossard 1913). A well-known enemy in peach orchards, it sometimes causes serious mortality in natural stands of black cherry weakened by insect defoliators (Schultz and Allen 1977). Aborted attacks on healthy black cherry trees result in ingrown gum pockets, black spots, and streaks that degrade wood for lumber and veneer (figure 205F) (Rexrode 1981).

Control. Natural enemies include a hymenopterous parasite (*Cheiropachus obscuripes* Brues) (Bushing 1965), an unidentified nematode, and mites (Gossard 1913). Although direct control measures sometimes may be required, emphasis in commercial fruit orchards should be given to maintaining vigorous trees and control of

other insects and diseases (Chandler 1939). Removal and destruction of severely weakened and dying trees and branches to eliminate breeding must be practiced continually. Chemicals have given control when direct measures are required (Brooks 1916, Chandler 1939).

Phloeotribus frontalis (Olivier)

[mulberry bark beetle] (figure 206)

Hosts. Mulberry. Red mulberry is preferred, but other native and exotic species are also attacked (Blackman 1922, USDA FS 1985). There is one questionable record of occurrence in hackberry (Beal and Massey 1945).

Range. East of the Rocky Mountains from Pennsylvania and Georgia west to Kansas and Texas (Wood 1982). Probably occurs throughout the range of its chief host, red mulberry (Blackman 1922).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very small, somewhat elongate, cylindrical bark beetle; dark brown, 1.8 to 2.2 mm long (figure 206A) (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). Front of female's head convex and shallowly, densely punctured; male's head, front slightly concave, densely punctured, with a pair of spines at base of antennae. Pronotum slightly broader than long, roughened along sides and in front, coarsely punctured on posterior dorsal half. Elytra broader than pronotum; anterior margins arcuate and serrate. Elytral striae deeply impressed with rows of coarse, closely spaced, shallow punctures; spaces between striae granulate and bear short, erect setae. ***Larva.*** White with brown mandibles, and slightly enlarged thoracic segments; curved to C-shaped body and 2.0 to 2.4 mm long (figure 206B). ***Pupa.*** White, gradually darkening, 1.8 to 2.3 mm long (figure 206C).

Biology. Adults hibernate in galleries in the bark of host trees (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). Adults emerge during spring and fly to susceptible trees to reproduce. Branches and trunks of considerably weakened trees, freshly felled trees, and fresh stumps are most susceptible. The monogamous females initiate the attack and construct the slightly enlarged nuptial chamber. After mating, females make egg galleries and deposit 30 to 93 eggs each in tiny niches along the gallery walls. Larvae feed and burrow outward from the egg gallery and pupate at the ends of larval galleries. New adults exit the bark directly above the pupal cells and fly to living trees to feed. The insect has two generations per year. Adults burrow into the inner bark of living trees to feed and overwinter. This tunneling causes irritation and stimulation of thickened callus tissue. Beetles are frequently found in trees infested by the cerambycid species *Dorcaschema wildii* and *D. alternatum*.

Injury and damage. Initially, numerous short strings of yellow frass extrude from attack sites on the bark (figure 206D). Frass becomes fine and powdery as the stems dry. Leaves may yellow and soon brown on individual branches or over the entire crown. Removing bark reveals the characteristic galleries (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). The gallery system consists of a short, enlarged entrance tunnel

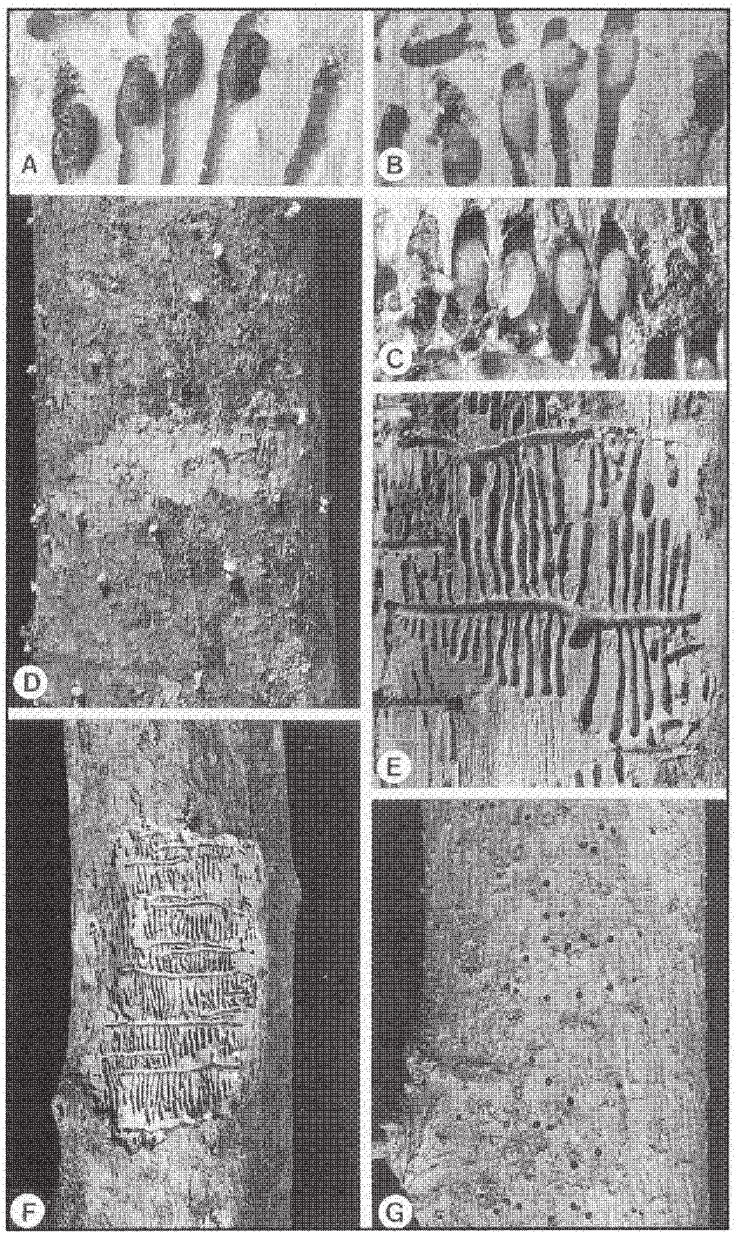


Figure 206—Phloeotribus frontalis, *[mulberry bark beetle]: A, teneral adults; B, larvae; C, pupae; D, yellow frass clumps extruding from entrance holes in bark; E, closeup of nuptial chamber, lateral egg tunnels, and vertical larval galleries; F, overlapping galleries under bark; G, adult exit holes in bark.*

through the bark to the inner phloem and sapwood, from which two egg galleries originate and extend transversely across the grain in opposite directions (figure 206E). Transverse egg galleries engrave the sapwood surface and vary from 30 to 85 mm long. Larval galleries are generally straight, extend mostly perpendicular away from the egg galleries, usually following the grain of the wood. Few other bark beetle species exceed the uniformity of this species' gallery pattern (figure 206F). Many tiny round holes are left in the bark by emerging beetles, often giving the bark a "peppered" appearance (figure 206G). Living, apparently healthy trees sometimes exhibit roughened abnormal swellings, blackened bark, and scars caused by the feeding and overwintering beetles. Shaving the bark at swollen sites reveals numerous short overwintering burrows in the inner bark, sometimes penetrating to the cambium. The burrows can be so concentrated that patches of bark are killed, causing "cat facing" or sloughing of the bark. Repeated attacks by large numbers of overwintering beetles can seriously weaken trees.

Control. Nine hymenopterous parasites and one clerid predator have been listed as natural enemies (Beal and Massey 1945, Bushing 1965). Culturally, cutting infested mulberry trees in spring and fall to destroy the early and late broods has been recommended (Blackman 1922). Chemical controls may be needed occasionally to protect valuable ornamental trees.

Phloeotribus dentifrons (Blackman)

[hackberry bark beetle]

Hosts. Hackberry, sugarberry. Favors hackberry (Beal and Massey 1945, USDA FS 1985).

Range. Occurs throughout the natural range of hackberry in the eastern United States; specifically recorded from Minnesota, Kansas, Mississippi, and North Carolina (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Dodge 1938, USDA FS 1985) and as far west as New Mexico (Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Tiny, oblong, cylindrical bark beetle, dark brown to black, 1.2 to 1.6 mm long (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). Front of female's head convex; front of male's, deeply concave with pair of spines at lower margin of concavity. Pronotum broader than long, roughened on sides, and punctured on upper central portion. Anterior margins of elytra raised and serrate. Punctures in elytral striae coarse and shallow. Smaller body clothed with short, coarse, gray to white, scalelike hairs distinguish this species from the closely related *P. frontalis*, which is clothed with nearly erect, yellowish hairs.

Biology. Adults emerge from hibernation quarters from March to June (Blackman 1922). Beetles attack seriously weakened and dying trees, green logs, and broken branches (Beal and Massey 1945). They make an entrance, nuptial chamber, and transverse egg gallery with perpendicular larval galleries. Females deposit eggs along the walls of the egg gallery; larvae feed outward and pupate in the inner bark.

New adults emerge through holes in the bark. Adults hibernate in the same hosts from which they develop. Large populations are sometimes found in last year's engravings at any time during winter and early spring. There are two generations a year.

Injury and damage. This bark beetle mostly attacks branches less than 38 mm in diameter, but trunks and logs up to about 15 cm are also attacked (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922). Removing the bark reveals a gallery system resembling that of *P. frontalis* in mulberry, that is, a nuptial chamber, transverse egg gallery, and perpendicular larval galleries. But the galleries are smaller and shorter than those of *P. frontalis*. Emerging adults leave tiny, round exit holes in the bark. This species differs markedly in habits from *P. frontalis* by overwintering in last season's engravings and obliterating part of the characteristic gallery system. It is far less aggressive than other *Phloeotribus* species and of little or no economic importance.

Control. Eight species of hymenopterous parasites have been listed (Bushing 1965), but subsequent studies suggest that only one—*Eurytoma phloeotribi* (Ashmead)—has been established definitely as a parasite (Krombein and others 1979). Direct controls are not needed.

Alniphagus aspericollis (LeConte)

alder bark beetle (figure 207)

Host. Alder. Red alder, white alder, and Oregon alder; other western alders are probably susceptible (Doane and others 1936, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Range. Occurs mainly along the Pacific Coast from California north through Washington and British Columbia and presumably into Alaska (Furniss and Carolin 1977). Found east to Idaho and eastern Utah (Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, cylindrical, blackish brown bark beetle, 2.6 to 5.0 mm long (figure 207A) (Borden 1969, Bright 1976, Chamberlin 1939). Pronotum scarcely wider than long, slightly rounded at sides, gradually narrowed, finely and densely punctured. Elytral striae deeply impressed and coarsely punctured, and interspaces moderately convex and minutely granulate. Elytral declivity distinctly elevated with large, acute granules and short and sparse pubescence. Members of genus *Alniphagus* readily distinguishable from other bark beetles by seven-segmented antennal funicle and conical, slightly flattened antennal club. ***Egg.*** Opaque white to light brown, elliptical, about 0.9 by 0.5 mm (figure 207D). ***Larva.*** White with brown mandibles, curved, 3 to 5 mm long (figure 207B). ***Pupa.*** White, wing pads folded under abdomen, 3 to 5 mm long (figure 207C).

Biology. Adults are active throughout the growing season but emerge mainly in May and from mid-July to August. This species prefers trees weakened by other agents and slash caused by windthrow, snow breakage, or logging. Females initiate attack and bore through to the inner bark to construct egg galleries, slightly etching the sapwood. Females deposit up to 69 eggs (figure 207D) in niches about 1 mm apart on both sides of the egg galleries. Larvae

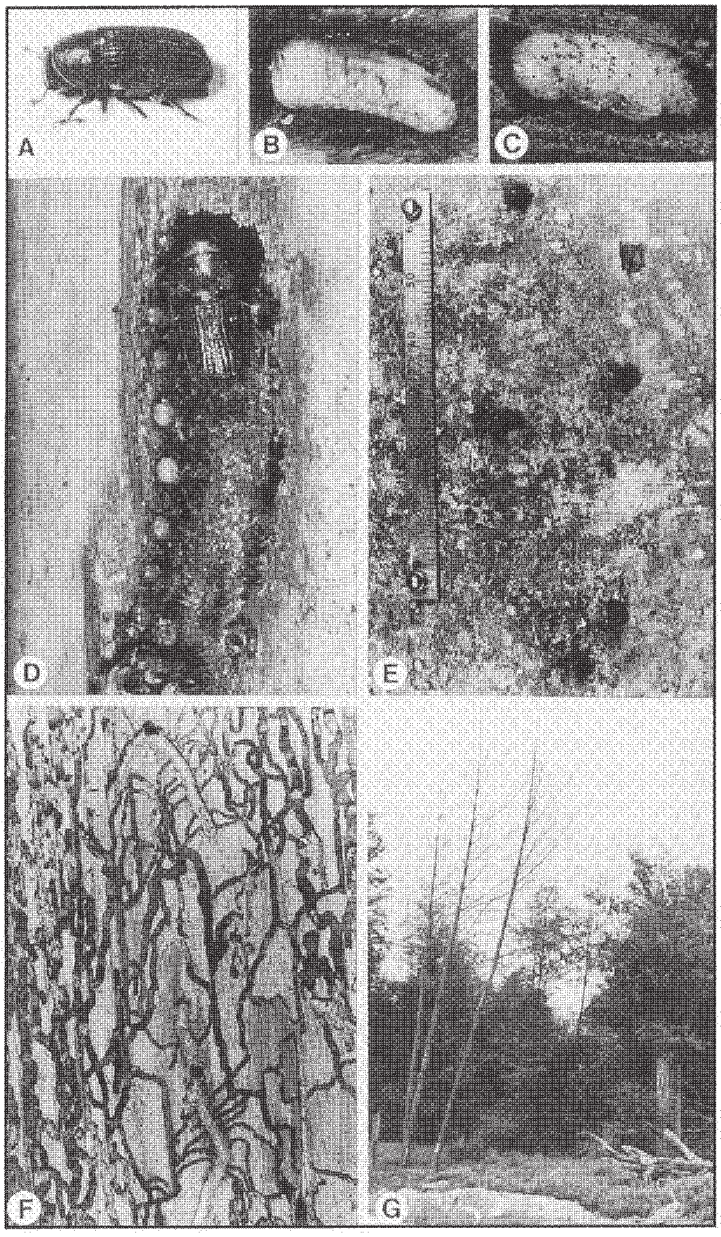


Figure 207—Alniphagus aspericollis, *alder bark beetle: A, adult; B, larva; C, pupa; D, eggs in niches along egg gallery; E, adult entrance holes in bark; F, V-shaped egg tunnels with meandering larval galleries; G, alder trees killed close to pile of debris where beetle population developed (courtesy J. Borden).*

mine a short distance at right angles to the egg gallery and turn to follow the wood grain. Head capsule measurements suggest three larval instars. Mature larvae pupate in the inner bark in small cells at the ends of the larval mines; the pupal stage lasts 2 to 3 weeks. Beetles of the summer generation that do not mature by September overwinter as larvae, pupae, or callow adults; beetles that emerge in the fall fly to healthy trees and construct hibernation chambers 2 to 3 cm long in the outer bark. There are two generations per year (Anderson 1960, Bright 1976).

Injury and damage. Infestation is externally evident by entrance holes bordered by a tightly packed rim of frass and often blocked by the elytral declivity of a resident beetle (Borden 1969, Bright 1976). Bark surrounding each entrance hole becomes darkly stained with sap and small amounts of loose, granular frass (figure 207E). Entrance holes are commonly found under lichens and in bark crevices but more frequently at the base of branches. Attack density of entrance holes varies from about 45 to 377 per m^2. The inner bark may be riddled with egg tunnels and larval mines (figure 207F) and may eventually drop and pull away from the sapwood. Egg galleries are of four types: an elongate gallery up to 8 cm long; a wide, irregularly shaped, cavelike gallery; a two-branched form with tunnels extending up and down the bole; and a V-shaped gallery with two branches extending in the same direction, either up or down. Larval galleries extend outward from the egg galleries and meander but usually turn up or down the bole (figure 207F). Light infestations on living trees create patch kills that leave boles scarred. Heavy infestation can cause tree mortality (figure 207G), but this pest is of little economic importance.

Control. Only one hymenopterous parasite—*Spathius sequoiae* Ashmead—has been recorded (Krombein and others 1979). Direct controls have not been needed.

Trypophloeus populi Hopkins

[aspen bark beetle] (figure 208)

Hosts. Poplar. Quaking aspen favored, but black cottonwood, narrowleaf cottonwood, and lanceleaf cottonwood also recorded (Petty 1977, Wood 1982).

Range. Eastern Nevada and northern Arizona north to Saskatchewan and Manitoba; single collection recorded from New Brunswick (Petty 1977, Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, black compact bark beetle, 1.7 to 2.1 mm long, about 2.3 times as long as wide (figure 208A) (Wood 1982). Head largely concealed from above; frons flattened and weakly convex; antennal club longer than scape, about 1.9 times as long as wide. Pronotum slightly wider than long; four rather large, subcontiguous teeth; asperate in front of summit; short, fine, semierect pubescence. Elytra shiny; striae not impressed and punctures shallow; declivity rather steep and convex; vestiture short; interstrial scalelike setae. ***Egg.*** Oblong, white, translucent, sticky surface, 0.33 by 0.65 mm (figure 208C) (Petty 1977). ***Larva.*** White, except darker when intestines filled with brown bark; legless; grublike.

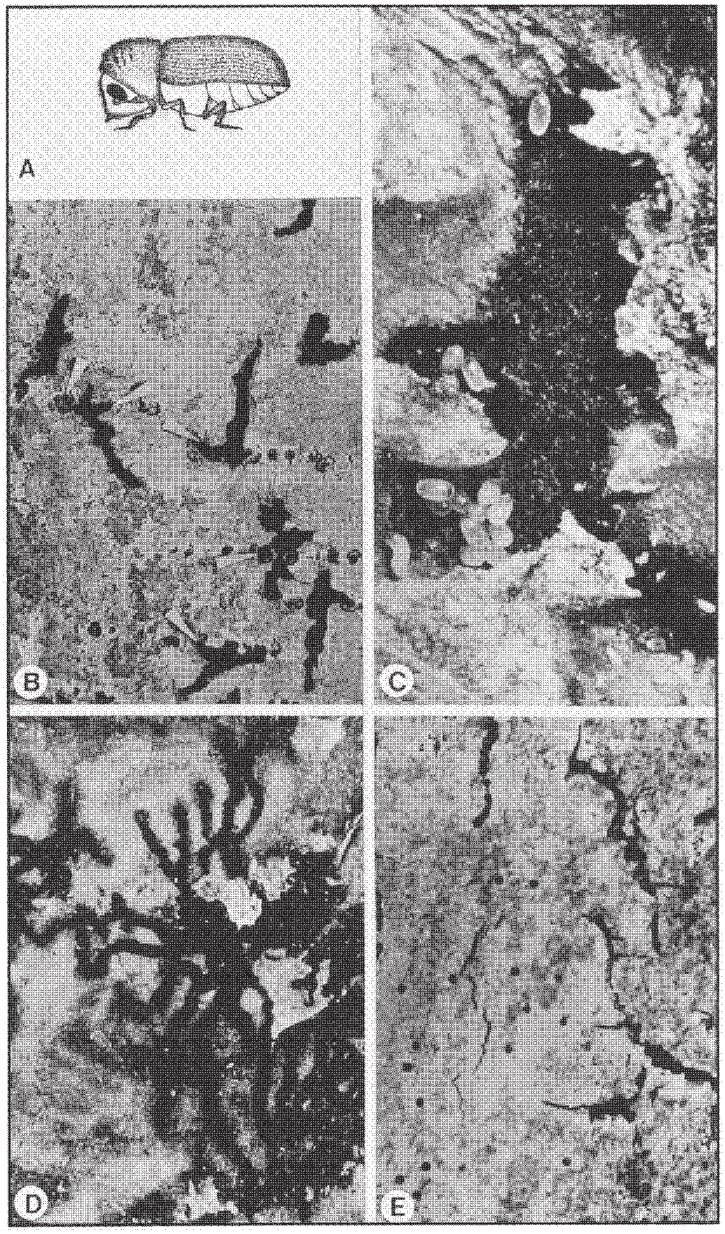


Figure 208—Trypophloeus populi, *[aspen bark beetle]: A, adult; B, epidermis removed to expose primary galleries in bark; C, closeup of primary gallery with egg chamber containing cluster of eggs; D, larval galleries meandering outward from egg chamber; E, adult exit holes in bark (courtesy J. Petty).*

Biology. Adults emerge in June and July and have been found through the summer and fall as late as October 10 (Petty 1977, Wood 1982). Beetles fly in search of weakened trees. After alighting on a susceptible tree, females explore the bark surface and generally select rough darkened areas to initiate attacks. Females initiate the galleries by making entrance tunnels about 2.5 mm long and are soon joined by males. Normally, galleries are shared by one parental male and female. After mating, females excavate a primary egg chamber and deposit an average of 15 eggs (range 10 to 24) in clusters (Petty 1977, Stewart and others 1979). Females also excavate food tunnels and sometimes secondary egg chambers and deposit a few additional eggs. Some females exit the bark and initiate another primary gallery. After hatching, the young larvae bore into the wall of the primary gallery and make individual galleries extending in all directions. Larvae pass through three feeding instars. Larvae overwinter within galleries in all three instars, but survival of those in second and third instars is best. Larvae feed for a while in spring and then excavate frass-free pupal cells at the ends of the galleries. Pupation begins in late June. By early July, adults are emerging and attacking new trees, and by mid-July, they are ovipositing in the new primary galleries. This bark beetle has one to one and a half generations a year.

Injury and damage. Trees stressed and weakened by drought, poor site, disease, or other causes—especially those bordering washes, trails, roadways, and seepage areas—are particularly vulnerable to attack (Petty 1977, Wood 1982). Attack sites may occur on boles, branches, and twigs as small as 10 mm in diameter. Small entrance holes are difficult to detect because of their occurrence in dark roughened bark. Small amounts of frass may be observed on the bark. The gallery system can be exposed by carefully cutting away the outer bark (figure 208B). Typically, the gallery system consists of (1) a 2.5-mm-long entrance tunnel to (2) an irregular cavelike primary egg chamber about 1.5 to 3.5 mm by 10 to 13 mm (figure 208C); (3) a food tunnel about 10 mm long (usually directed upward from the primary egg chamber and partially filled with frass); (4) a secondary egg chamber (sometimes excavated at the end of the food chamber); and (5) narrow larval galleries (about 20 mm long, packed with frass and stained dark brown) that extend outward from the primary egg chamber. These larval galleries follow either a straight course, meander, or reverse directions abruptly (figure 208D). Emerging adults leave small, round holes about 1 mm in diameter in the bark (figure 208E). Susceptible trees are often attacked en masse; thus, infested trees may be covered with galleries from the lower bole to the branches. Foliage of infested trees turns yellow and then brown; the trunk usually is faint orange. Heavily infested trees usually die within 3 to 10 weeks.

Control. Predaceous mites have been found in the galleries, and the species competes with other bark and wood borers (Petty 1977, Stewart and others 1979). On average, about 55% of the larvae survive to

produce adults. Direct controls have not yet been needed.

Dryocoetes betulae Hopkins

birch bark beetle (figure 209)

Hosts. Birch, sweetgum, wild cherry, beech, pear. Yellow birch, paper birch, and sweetgum are favored (Beal and Massey 1945, Blatchley and Leng 1916, Chamberlin 1939).

Range. Across Canada from Newfoundland to British Columbia south throughout the eastern United States to Florida and west to Louisiana, then northwest to Montana and Washington (Bright 1963).

Description. ***Adult.*** Oblong, dark reddish brown, elliptical bark beetle, 2.8 to 4.5 mm long (Blackman 1922, Blatchley and Leng 1916, Bright 1963). Front of head clothed with dense brush of long yellowish hairs with smooth, shiny median space. Antennae elbowed and have club-shaped segments at tips. Pronotum as long as wide, broadly rounded in front, and sides strongly arcuate and aspirate. Elytra nearly twice as long as wide, parallel sides, broadly rounded behind. Declivity of elytra flat to slightly convex.

Biology. Adults have been noted in July, September, and November (Blackman 1922, Blatchley and Leng 1916, Bright 1963). Males enter the inner bark and prepare nuptial chambers and are soon joined by one to four females. After mating, females construct egg tunnels that radiate from the nuptial chambers. Eggs are deposited singly in niches along the gallery walls and covered with tiny frass plugs. The male helps keep the galleries free of frass by pushing it out the entrance hole. Later in the year, males construct special galleries used for hibernation at the nuptial chamber. Larval galleries meander away from egg galleries. Broods produced the first summer overwinter in the same tree with the parent beetles. Overwintering females emerge in spring and attack new hosts. The pest appears to have a 2-year generation in its northern range and a 1-year generation in its southern range.

Injury and damage. Seriously weakened, injured, and recently dead trees, fresh-cut logs, and stumps may be attacked (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Bright 1963). The lower bole and exposed roots are most likely to be infested. Entrance holes and some frass may be found on the bark of trees under attack. Removing the bark reveals the gallery system mostly in the inner phloem. Burrows irregularly radiate, and a variable number of egg galleries may extend longitudinally, diagonally, or transversely to the stem (figure 209A). Numerous tiny niches can be observed along both sides of the egg gallery. Most egg galleries are slightly to moderately curved. The larval galleries, tiny at first but becoming larger, radiate outward and make abrupt turns to avoid adjacent larval galleries and other large egg galleries (figure 209B). Emerging adults leave round holes in the bark. Because of the condition of the hosts attacked, the insect is of little economic importance.

Control. No natural enemies have been reported, and direct controls have not been needed.

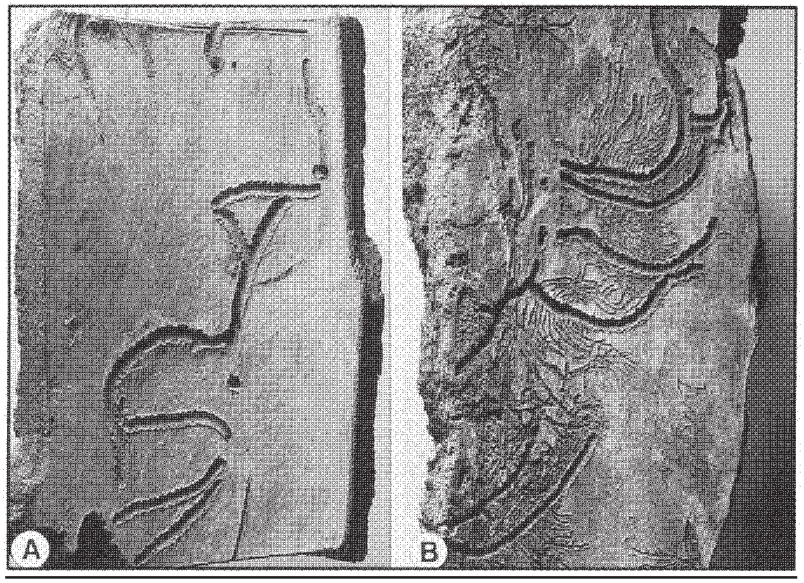


Figure 209—Dryocoetes betulae, *birch bark beetle: A, egg tunnels with tiny egg niches along gallery walls; B, egg tunnels with tiny larval galleries radiating outward (specimens courtesy J. Simeone).*

Pseudopityophthorus minutissimus (Zimmermann)

[oak bark beetle] (figure 210)

Hosts. Oak, chestnut, birch, beech, hickory, dogwood, hornbeam, hophornbeam, serviceberry, witch-hazel, black cherry. Oaks are major hosts; red oaks preferred with scarlet and black oaks particularly susceptible (Beal and Massey 1945, Chamberlin 1939, McMullen and others 1955).

Range. The Atlantic Coast west to the Great Plains and from Quebec south to the Gulf Coast (Chamberlin 1939, McMullen and others 1955).

Description. ***Adult.*** Minute, slender, dark reddish brown bark beetle, 1.5 to 1.8 mm long (figure 210A) (Chamberlin 1939, McMullen and others 1955). Head hidden in dorsal view by enlarged, shield-like pronotum. Front of head with long yellow hairs in males; hairs much shorter in females. Pronotum slightly longer than wide, asperate in front. Elytra 1.7 times longer than wide, sides nearly straight and parallel, broadly rounded behind, surface shiny, fine shallow punctures, sparsely covered with short pubescence. Elytral declivity steep and convex. ***Egg.*** White, soft, spherical, and about 0.2 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** Tiny, legless, 3 to 4 mm long, body pale white when digestive tract empty; brownish gray when filled with dark phloem.

Biology. Adults that develop from overwintering broods in or near the latitude of Missouri to West Virginia emerge in April (Rexrode and Jones 1970); in Wisconsin, adults appear in early May (McMullen and others 1955). Emerging adults fly to healthy trees and make deep feeding cavities in twig crotches and in bud, leaf, and immature acorn axils on small twigs (Rexrode and Jones 1970). Males make entrance holes usually in roughened or concealed areas of bark (Rexrode 1969). Females usually join the males while they build entrances or turn niches and soon construct horizontal egg galleries. Females deposit eggs singly in niches (then packed firmly with frass) along both sides of the gallery at about two a day while egg gallery is being extended. The number of egg niches per egg gallery ranges from 14 to 85. Eggs hatch in 4 to 6 days. Larvae feed at right angles to the egg galleries and pass through three to five developmental stages. In Wisconsin, larvae mature during summer in 7 to 8 weeks. Pupation occurs in small cells between the bark and wood at the end of the larval galleries; the pupal stage last 6 to 16 days. Newly formed beetles bore directly out through the bark from their pupal cells. Up to 50% of the parent beetles reemerge and attack the same or different trees; such re-emergence and attack may occur up to three times. Beetles overwinter in every stage except the pupal. In Wisconsin, there is one and a partial second generation, and in southern Ohio, two generations plus a partial third generation occur. In the Deep South, where beetles oviposit through winter and probably breed continuously throughout the year, three to five generations are possible annually (Chamberlin 1939).

Injury and damage. Branches and small boles of unthrifty or severely weak-

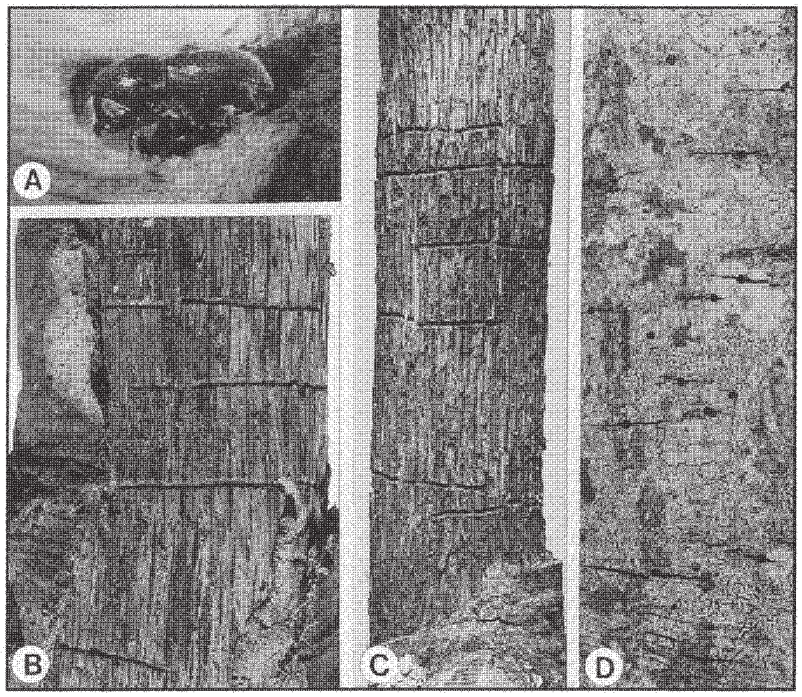


Figure 210—Pseudopityophthorus minutissimus, *[oak bark beetle]: A, adult in gallery; B, lateral egg tunnels engraved on sapwood of oak; C, egg galleries encircling small branch; D, tiny adult exit holes in bark.*

ened trees are commonly attacked, but recently cut trees, limbs, and logs, as well as stumps and cord wood are most attractive to these beetles (Blackman 1922, Chamberlin 1939, McMullen and others 1955, Rexrode 1969). Branches 1.3 to 10.0 cm in diameter are attacked far more frequently than trunks; stems larger than 20 cm in diameter are seldom attacked. Removing the bark reveals the characteristic gallery system (figure 210B and C). Entrance holes extend through the bark to the sapwood, at which point galleries extend 2 to 5 mm vertically. The vertical entrance gallery is bisected transversely by two nearly straight egg galleries that extend horizontally up to 2 cm in either direction, resulting in a distinctive, cross-shaped gallery that grooves both the bark and sapwood. Egg niches are along the upper and lower sides of the egg galleries. Larval galleries are quite straight and run perpendicular to the egg galleries, longitudinally with the wood grain. Larval galleries are almost entirely in the phloem, although they usually show on the inner surface of peeled bark. They are much less noticeable than the egg and entrance tunnel and may be difficult to see. The bark may be speckled with tiny holes made by emerging beetles (figure 210D). Although not a direct cause of tree mortality, large beetle populations can hasten the death of weak trees. Evidence is accumulating that the oak bark beetle is an important vector of oak wilt disease. Beetles developing in trees with oak wilt become contaminated with the fungus, then fly to healthy oaks and feed on live twig tissue, thus transmitting the fungus to uninfected trees (Rexrode and Jones 1970).

Control. Three species of hymenopterous parasites—*Ecphylus leptosulcus* Marsh, *Elachertodomyia phloeotribi* (Ashmead), and *Eurytoma phloeotribi* Ashmead—have been listed (Krombein and others 1979). Also, predatory mites, fungi, cannibalism, and severe winters take a heavy toll during some years (McMullen and others 1955). Cutting and destroying infested trees, branches, and slash while the broods are still present have been suggested for control (Beal and Massey 1945).

Pseudopityophthorus pruinosus (Eichhoff)

[larger oak bark beetle] (figure 211)

Hosts. Oak, American beech, black cherry, Chickasaw plum, chestnut, maple, hickory, hornbeam, and hophornbeam. Oaks preferred, especially red oaks (Beal and Massey 1945, Rexrode and others 1965).

Range. Widely distributed from Quebec and New York south to Florida and west to Michigan and Texas (Beal and Massey 1945) and southward into Mexico, Guatemala, and Honduras (Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, dark brown bark beetle, 1.8 to 2.0 mm long, 2.8 times longer than wide (figure 211A) (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Wood 1982). Head largely hidden in dorsal view by large shieldlike pronotum. Front of head in male densely covered with long, incurved, yellowish hairs; these hairs shorter in female. Pronotum longer than wide, front portion densely asperate, posterior region

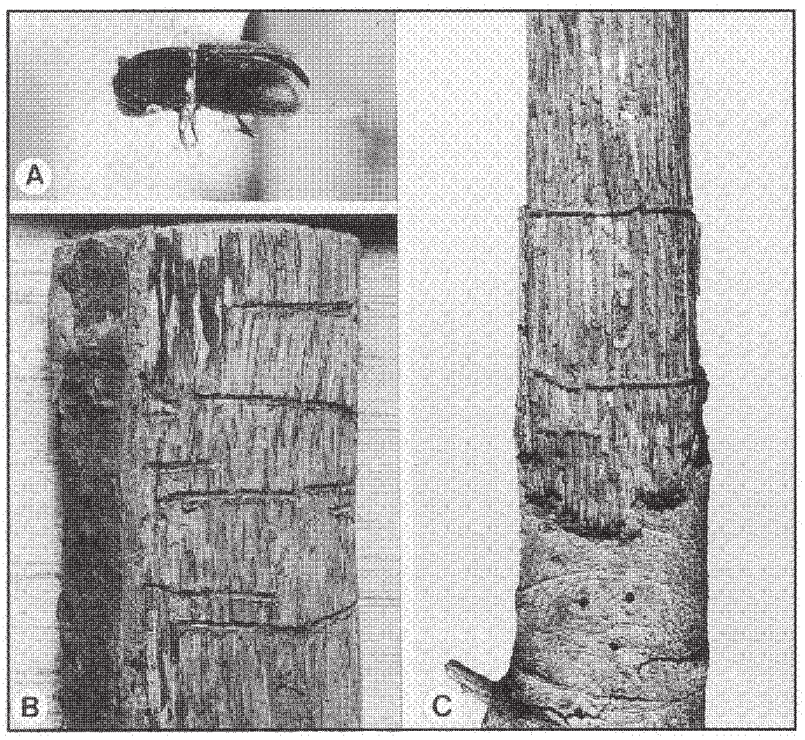


Figure 211—Pseudopityophthorus pruinosus, *[larger oak bark beetle]: A, adult; B, egg and larval galleries in bark and surface of sapwood; C, lateral egg galleries encircling stem and adult exit holes in bark (A, courtesy M. Roling).*

shiny and finely punctured. Elytra as wide as pronotum, without striae, with fine shallow punctures; densely covered with short, coarse, gray, scalelike hairs next to elytral suture. Adults distinguished from those of *P. minutissimus* (Zimmermann) by larger size and elytral punctures, and stouter, almost scalelike elytral setae. ***Egg.*** White, round, about 0.2 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** White (except brownish gray when gut is full), legless, 3 to 4 mm long.

Biology. Adults emerge in April and May in the beetle's northern and middle ranges and may be active throughout the year along the Gulf Coast and its southern range (Blackman 1922, Rexrode and Jones 1970, Rexrode and others 1965). After emerging, beetles fly to healthy trees and feed mainly at nodes between the previous and current year's growth, but they also feed in leaf axils, female flower axils, and bud axils on current growth, making small, round, deep punctures. After feeding, they fly to weakened trees for reproduction. Males initiate brood galleries and are soon joined by females. Females make turning niches in the phloem, mate, and excavate transverse egg galleries. Oviposition commences as females begin to construct egg galleries. On average, each female deposits 41 eggs in tiny niches along the walls of each egg gallery. Eggs hatch in 4 to 5 days. Larvae tunnel between the bark and wood perpendicular to the egg gallery, closely following the wood grain. The original attacking beetles usually emerge, attack the same or different trees, and oviposit up to three times. Larvae pupate between the bark and wood in small cells at the ends of their almost straight galleries. In southern Ohio, first-generation larvae develop in 25 to 28 days but require longer periods during cooler times of the year. The pupal stage lasts about 15 days. There are two and a half generations a year in West Virginia but up to five generations a year along the Gulf Coast. This species overwinters under the bark in all except the pupal stage (Rexrode 1969).

Injury and damage. Beetles attack weakened and dying hosts, healthy branches and trunks of small trees, and freshly felled trees and slash (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Rexrode and others 1965). Smooth bark of branches and small upper trunks are preferred attack sites. The gallery pattern can be examined by removing the bark from infested trees (figure 211B). Characteristic gallery systems consist of an entrance hole with a very short turning niche extending up and down from the entrance about 5 mm. Two egg galleries with distinctly visible niches along the sides extend 25 to 50 mm transversely across the grain from the junction of the short vertical gallery. Very small threadlike larval galleries extend vertically, perpendicular to the egg galleries. Larval galleries are mostly within the phloem and difficult to see. Brood galleries may be indistinguishable from those of *P. minutissimus* and are sometimes found in the same tree. Bark may be speckled with tiny emergence holes (figure 211C). Because of the condition of hosts attacked, this insect is of minor concern. However, since it can transmit the oak wilt

fungus to healthy trees, it is economically damaging in oak-wilt-infected areas (Rexrode and Jones 1970).

Control. Two hymenopterous parasites—*Ecphylus leptosulcus* Marsh and *Eurytoma phloeotribi* Ashmead—have been reported, but nothing is known of rates of parasitism (Krombein and others 1979). Populations can be reduced in small woodlots by cutting and destroying affected trees and slash while the beetle broods are present (Beal and Massey 1945).

Pseudopityophthorus pubipennis (LeConte)

[western oak bark beetle] (figure 212)

Hosts. Oak. Coast live oak, California black oak, Oregon white oak (Wood 1982), and probably most other western oaks are hosts (Chamberlin 1939).

Range. British Columbia southward along the Pacific Coast through Washington and Oregon to southern California (Chamberlin 1939, Furniss and Carolin 1977).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small, cylindrical, dark reddish brown to black bark beetle, 1.7 to 2.5 mm long, 2.7 times as long as wide (Brown and Eads 1965a, Chamberlin 1939, Wood 1982). Front of head in male densely punctate but masked by long, coarse, yellow hairs; front of head in female clothed with short, fine, more evenly distributed hairs; head hidden from dorsal view. Pronotum slightly longer than wide, anterior margin rounded and bearing numerous serrations. Elytra 1.6 times as long as wide, sides straight and parallel except rounded behind, finely punctured, and densely clothed with recumbent hairs. Elytral declivity steep, rather broadly convex, but slightly depressed along each side.

Biology. This beetle overwinters under the bark in adult and larval stages. Adults emerge during spring and summer and fly to host trees to feed and reproduce in the bark (Brown and Eads 1965a, Doane and others 1936, Wood 1982). Beetles prefer boles, branches, and twigs of unhealthy, weakened, and dying trees. They bore through the bark and construct two transverse egg galleries. Eggs are deposited along both sides of galleries. After hatching, the larvae burrow in fine threadlike galleries perpendicular to the egg galleries. As pupation nears, they tunnel mostly in the inner phloem and hollow out small chambers to pupate. Newly formed adults make their own exit holes through the bark. This beetle has two or more generations a year.

Injury and damage. Beetles attack living trees, but weakened, dying, and recently dead trees are most commonly attacked (Brown and Eads 1965a, Doane and others 1936, Wood 1982). Bleeding sap is sometimes associated with entrance holes on the bark, often followed by stained bark surface and discoloration at the junction of the inner bark and the sapwood (figure 212A). The gallery system consists of an entrance hole in the bark, two lateral egg tunnels, and many short, narrow larval tunnels running with the grain of the wood (figure 212B). When populations are heavy, it is as though a thickly woven cloth had been impressed on the bark's inner surface and on the sapwood. The bark of heavily

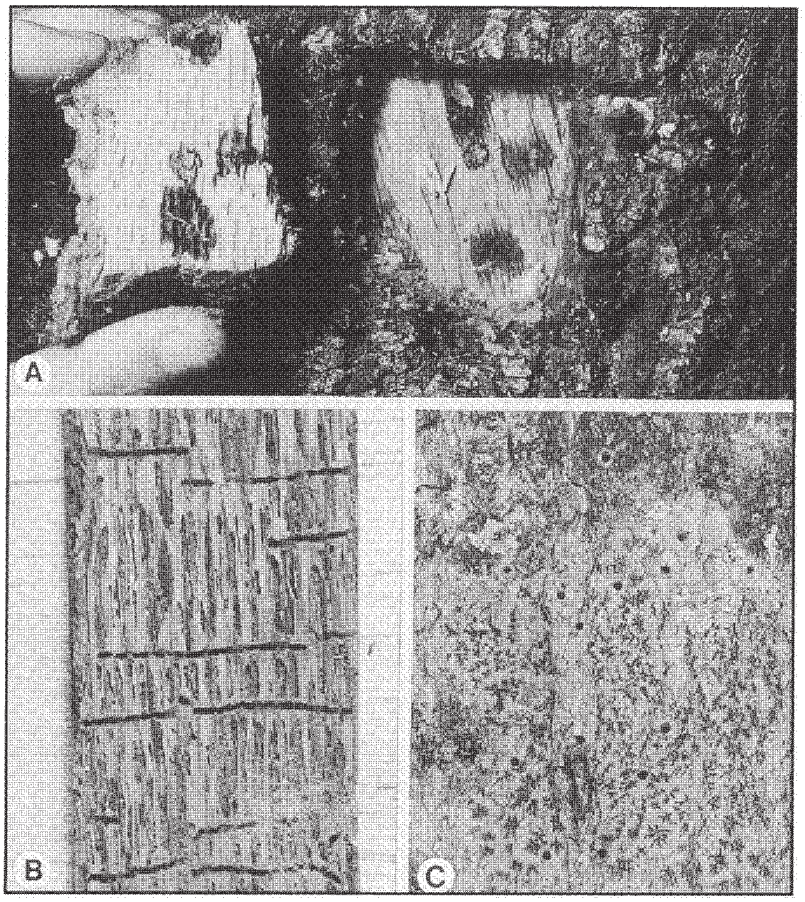


Figure 212—Pseudopityophthorus pubipennis, *[western oak bark beetle]: A, bark removed from living oak to expose new attack sites surrounded by dark stain; B, lateral egg tunnels and vertical larval galleries; C, adult exit holes in bark (A, courtesy L. Brown; B & C, specimens courtesy D. Whitehead).*

infested trees may be peppered with many small, round exit holes (figure 212C). The insect generally does not attack healthy trees but can hasten the death of weakened trees. It is of only minor economic importance.

Control. Natural enemies have not been reported. Judicious pruning, watering, and fertilization of valuable trees can minimize attack (Brown and Eads 1965a).

Corthylus columbianus Hopkins

Columbian timber beetle (figure 213)

Hosts. Maple, oak, yellow-poplar, beech, boxelder, sycamore, birch, basswood, chestnut, elm. Very common in silver maple and red maple from southern Indiana southward and in chestnut oak and post oak over extensive areas. Infestation of white oak is high in areas of West Virginia; infestation of yellow-poplar is high in areas of North Carolina and Virginia. Less commonly found in southern red oak, northern red oak, chinkapin oak, black oak, overcup oak, American beech, boxelder, sycamore, yellow birch, American basswood, American chestnut, and elm (Hay 1974b, Nord and McManus 1972).

Range. Eastern species occurring from Massachusetts south to north Florida and west to Arkansas, Kansas, and Michigan (Nord and McManus 1972, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Very dark, reddish brown to black, cylindrical ambrosia beetle, about 3.6 to 4.0 mm long and 1.4 to 1.6 mm in diameter (figure 213D) (Nord and McManus 1972, USDA FS 1985). Front of head in females broadly concave and covered with short, stiff, yellowish hairs; convex and almost hairless in males. Pronotum broadly rounded and asperate in front. Elytra shiny, striate, and coarsely and shallowly punctured. Elytral declivity armed with small tubercles. ***Egg.*** White, translucent, shiny, smooth shell, oval, 1.0 mm long and 0.5 mm in diameter (figure 213A). ***Larva.*** White, legless, C-shaped, with at least two stages (figure 213B). About 1 mm long at hatching, and 4 mm long at maturity. ***Pupa.*** White, darkening with age, mummylike, 3.4 to 4.0 mm long (figure 213C).

Biology. Adults (figure 213D) overwinter under bark and vines, usually around the base of host trees (Nord 1972, Nord and McManus 1972). In spring, adults become active on the same tree or move to new, healthy host trees and begin excavating galleries (figure 213E). Males initiate the entrance but are soon joined by females, and later one or two additional females may enter the gallery. Completed galleries consist of a primary channel, 1 to 4 secondary channels, occasionally tertiary branches, and 1 to 20 or more short brood cells (cradles) extending at right angles above and below the channels. Soon after the gallery is started, two fungi—*Ambrosiella xylebori* Brader and *Pichia* sp.—that are carried by the beetles begin growing on the gallery walls (Nord 1972, Wilson 1959). These fungi (known as ambrosia), rather than the host plant tissue, serve as food for larvae and adults. Eggs are deposited singly in each brood cell, and the entrances are plugged with tightly packed bits of the ambrosia fungi and minute wood particles. During incubation, the ambrosia fungi grow

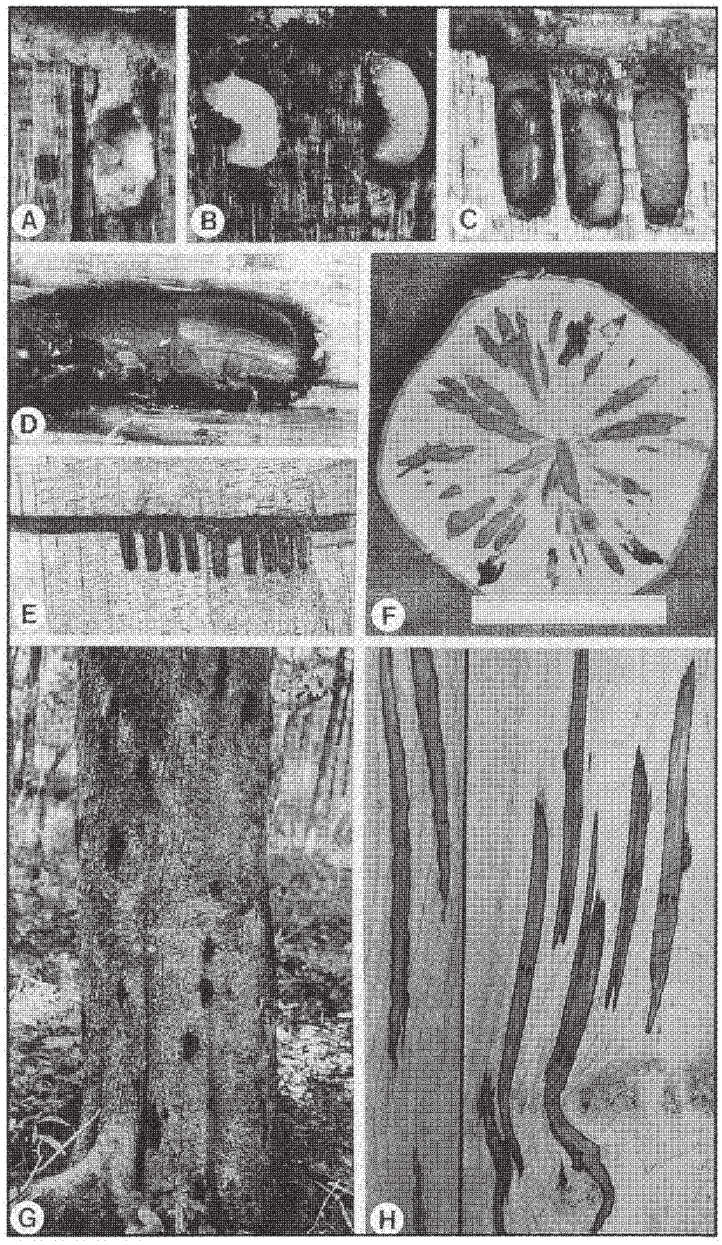


Figure 213—Corthylus columbianus, *Columbian timber beetle: A, egg in cradle containing ambrosia fungus; B, larvae in cradles; C, pupae in cradles; D, adult in gallery; E, gallery with nine cradles; F, stains in log end; G, wet spots at bark entrances; H, bluish gray stains surrounding galleries in maple lumber (courtesy J. Nord).*

on the brood-cell walls. By the time the eggs hatch, the fungi have grown into thick, white, cottony mats that envelop the attached end of eggs. Larvae feed on the fungal growth, almost completely consuming it before they pupate. Pupation and transformation to the adult stage occur inside the plugged brood cell. Brood emergence is 6 to 7 weeks after initiation of the brood gallery. This beetle typically has three generations per year, but this may vary. In Georgia, the first brood emerges in late June to late July, the second from mid-August to mid-September, and the third from late September to late October. After emergence, the third generation moves to overwintering sites.

Injury and damage. Light-colored, dry, granular frass on the bark around the entrance holes is evidence of fresh infestation (Nord 1972, Nord and McManus 1972) that may appear from mid-May through September on healthy trees, from small saplings to the largest mature trees. Several days after boring starts, sap oozes out of the entrance holes, wetting the frass and the bark (figure 213G). Wet spots remain until the galleries callus over, perhaps as late as the following spring if the attack begins in late summer. In some species, such as red maple, a characteristic bark formation indicates old infestations. This formation, associated with annual growth, results in an elongated scar 5 to 15 cm long that tapers to a point at both ends. In sycamore, these bark scars are shorter, often swollen, and sometimes bulge noticeably outward. Dissection reveals the characteristic galleries. Damage in logs can be detected by the radiating stains in the log ends (figure 213F). Lumber and veneer stains vary in pigmentation, shape, and size depending on the species of tree involved, the sawing method, and the number of channels in the gallery. In sawn lumber, defects consist of one to five black round holes (1.8 mm in diameter) surrounded by vertical, elongate, blue or gray stains 5 to 60 cm long and 1.0 to 2.5 cm wide (figure 213H). The lumber industry knows these defects as "flagworm," "spotworm," or "steamboats" (Nord 1971). In soft maple, the concentration of beetle attack sites is greatest in the lower bole and decreases with increasing height above ground. This, together with repeated attacks during a tree's life, means that there is little clear wood in butt logs. Soft maple and white oak lumber with flagworm defect sells at about 25% below the price of undamaged lumber. Conversely, a few sawmills are making character-marked paneling and other decorative products out of maple, sycamore, and boxelder lumber having flagworm defects.

Control. Mites, nematodes, and dipterous larvae have been associated with the beetles in galleries, but none have been confirmed as parasites or predators (Nord 1972, Nord and McManus 1972). Despite the economic importance of this insect, direct controls probably could not be economically justified and have not been developed.

Corthylus punctatissimus (Zimmermann)

[pitted ambrosia beetle] (figure 214)

Hosts. Maple, dogwood, sassafras, hornbeam, elm, hophornbeam, hazel, azalea, rhododendron, blueberry, mountain mahog-

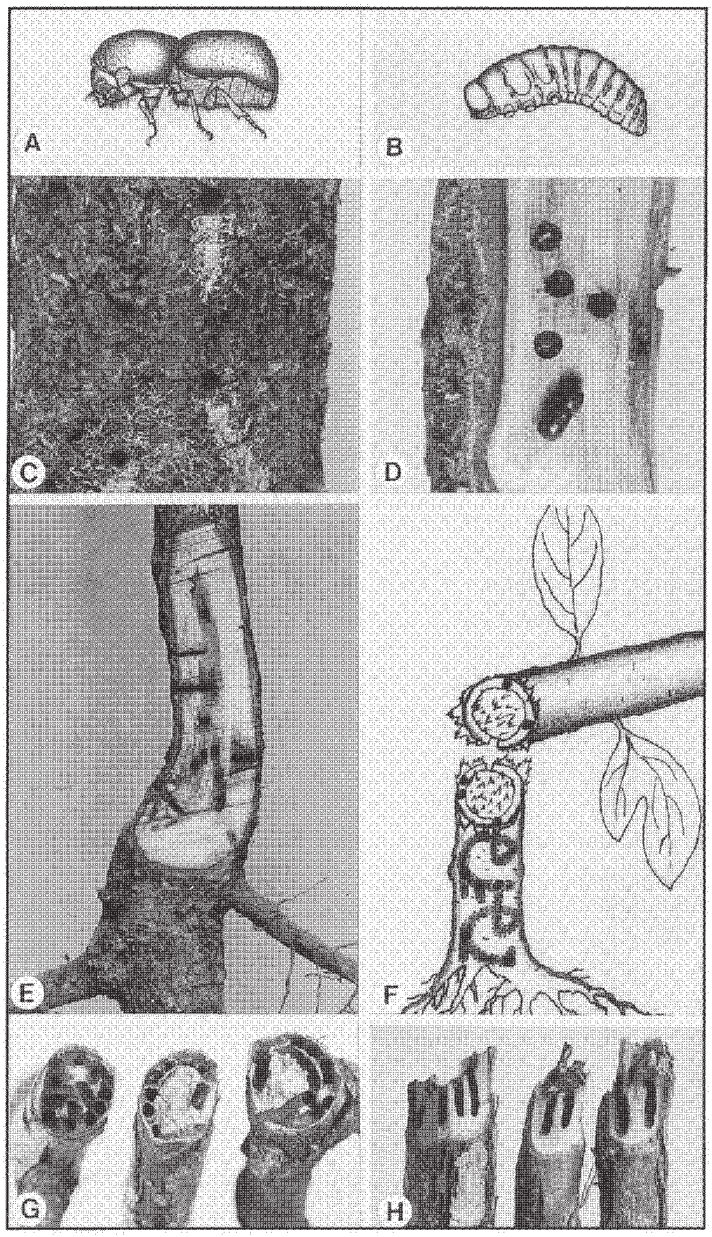


Figure 214—Corthylus punctatissimus, *[pitted ambrosia beetle]: A, adult; B, larva; C, adult entrance holes with frass; D, bark removed exposing holes in xylem; E, galleries in root collar of sassafras seedling; F, spiral gallery with cradles; G, end view of cradles; H, side view of cradles.*

any, mountain-laurel, beech, white ash, and wild and cultivated currants. Prefers sugar maple and rhododendron in the North; red maple in the South (Finnegan 1967, Weiss 1915).

Range. Indigenous to eastern North America, known from Quebec and Ontario through New York south to Georgia and Alabama and west to Colorado (Finnegan 1967, USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Cylindrical, robust, dark reddish brown to black, shiny ambrosia beetle, 3 to 4 mm long (figure 214A) (Finnegan 1967, USDA FS 1985). Legs and antennae rusty reddish brown. Pronotum longer than wide, tuberculate in front, finely and sparsely punctured, and extends hoodlike over head. Elytra strongly punctured, rounded behind, and without furrows of teeth. ***Egg.*** Shiny, nearly transparent, light creamy color, slightly pointed at one end, 0.71 mm long and 0.44 mm in diameter. ***Larva.*** White, nearly transparent, except for black mandibles (figure 214B). Second instar has well-developed prolegs and wing buds.

Biology. Adults overwinter in galleries made the previous summer or in duff on the forest floor and remain more or less inactive until early summer (Finnegan 1967, Merriam 1883, Roeper and others 1987). Flights begin in mid-June and last until early August. Males initiate attack, usually at the base of young plants and are soon joined by females. Although males do most of the tunneling, the females help push frass from the galleries. Spiral galleries with 3 to 12 egg chambers ("cradles") are constructed in the small stem. Males inoculate the galleries and egg cradles with ambrosia fungi (from their mycetangia) that grow into white fungal mats ("ambrosia") on the gallery walls. Females deposit eggs singly in the rich fungal growth within the cradles. They plug cradle entrances with mixtures of ambrosia mycelia and frass. After hatching, the larvae feed exclusively on the ambrosia fungi and complete development in about 2 weeks. Pupation occurs within the cradles with the head pointing toward the main gallery and lasts about 1 week. Most parents leave the galleries after oviposition and apparently fly to new hosts and start more broods. Although newly developed adults appear in the cradles as early as late August, only a few leave the gallery. Most progeny adults overwinter in their cradles. There is one generation a year.

Injury and damage. Seedlings and young saplings 3 to 12 years old are vulnerable to attack (Finnegan 1967, Roeper and others 1987, Schwarz 1892). Plants with a basal diameter of 4 to 14 mm and 28 to 136 cm in height may be attacked. Infested plants can be easily detected by wilting, yellowing, and browning of the foliage. Foliar symptoms are especially noticeable in late August and early September when dead foliage contrasts with healthy plants nearby. Affected plants have one to four small entrance holes, sometimes with frass, on the basal stem just above or below the groundline (figure 214C and D). Generally, only one of the entrance holes leads to a fully developed gallery system with egg niches. Dissection reveals the gallery system (figure 214E

and F). In small stems, tunnels usually extend directly through the center to the opposite side, then spiral immediately inside the cambium in the xylem; in large stems, tunnels spiral as soon as the entrance holes pierce the cambium. The spiral tunnel makes one or two complete revolutions encircling the stem and averages about 26 mm long but can be up to 51 mm long. At intervals along the spiral tunnel, short cradles 5 to 6 mm long oriented vertically either upward or downward are constructed (figure 214G and H). Girdling and/or breaking of the stem near the groundline kill many plants. Serious damage to sugar maple regeneration has been reported in New York, Ontario, and Quebec (Finnegan and others 1959, Merriam 1883), and to azalea, mountain laurel, and rhododendron in New Jersey (Weiss 1915). Mortality in localized maple stands has been as high as 80% of the seedlings.

Control. In stands with a history of serious injury, infested plants should be pruned below the girdle or lifted and burned to destroy the beetles and brood (Weiss 1915). Because damage is greatest in heavily shaded understory regeneration, practices that promote an open plant canopy help to minimize beetle survival and brood development (Finnegan 1967). Insecticides applied during early summer can provide protection when the overwintering beetles are emerging, dispersing, and attacking new plants.

Monarthrum mali (Fitch)

[apple wood stainer] (figure 215)

Hosts. Maple, oak, birch, buckeye, honeylocust, sugarberry, sweetgum, elm, beech, basswood, yellow-poplar, blackgum, apple, plum, cherry, orange, pine, hemlock, cedar. Favors broadleaf trees, especially apple, honeylocust, and sugarberry; but also occasionally attacks conifers (Brooks 1916, Chamberlin 1939, Gossard 1913).

Range. New Brunswick to Ontario and throughout the eastern United States west to the Great Plains and reported from California (Bright 1976, Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Elongate, cylindrical ambrosia beetle, 1.8 to 2.4 mm long (figure 215A) (Blackman 1922, Chamberlin 1939, Wood 1982). Body yellowish to light reddish brown; bases of pronotum and elytra paler. Pronotum considerably longer than wide with parallel sides, broadly rounded in front, weakly roughened, minutely punctured. Elytra narrows slightly toward rear, surface smooth, shiny, containing fine inconspicuous punctures. Elytral declivity steep, narrowly sulcate, flattened below, with two pairs of blunt denticles. ***Larva.*** White with light brown head, curved to C-shaped, 2.0 to 2.4 mm long (figure 215B).

Biology. Adults overwinter in galleries, emerge in early spring, and begin new galleries in the same or different hosts. Males carry ambrosia fungi (*Monilla* spp.) and inoculate the new galleries. The galleries are extended directly into the wood and then branch. Females deposit eggs singly in circular pits or niches along the gallery and loosely pack them with wood chips and ambrosia mycelium. New larvae lie curled in pits made by the parent beetles. As larvae

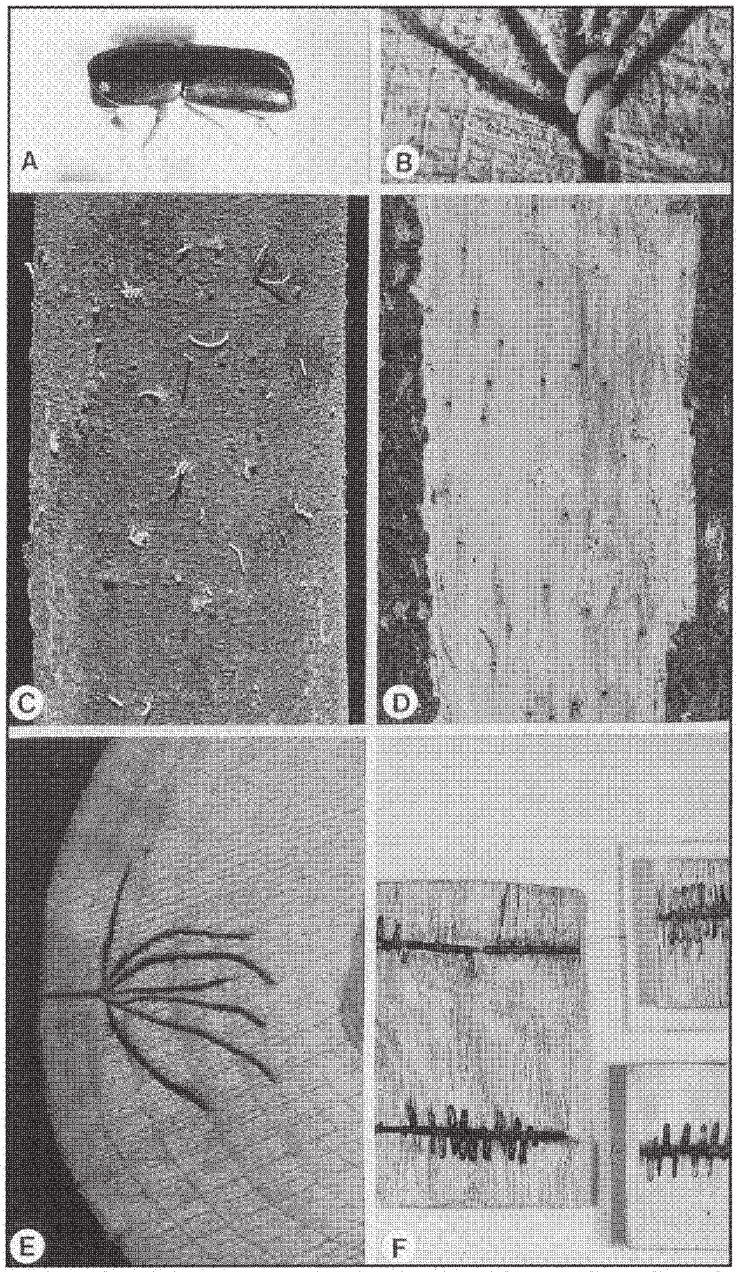


Figure 215—Monarthrum mali, *[apple wood stainer]: A, adult; B, larvae; C, strings of compacted frass on bark; D, bark removed to expose entrance holes; E, cross section of gallery system; F, sections of gallery with cradles (A, courtesy M. Roling).*

grow, they enlarge and deepen the cradles so that they slightly exceed the length of the larvae. Both the larvae and adults feed on a mixture of fungus ambrosia and wood. Females maintain the fungus cultures and attend developing larvae. Pupae form in the larval cradles, and the newly formed adults emerge through entrance holes made by the parent beetles (Blackman 1922, Brooks 1916, Chamberlin 1939, Gossard 1913, Lugger 1899).

Injury and damage. Weakened, diseased, injured, and dying trees, and freshcut logs larger than 10 cm in diameter are favored; healthy trees are rarely attacked (Blackman 1922, Brooks 1916, Gossard 1913, Wood 1982). Small round entrance holes 0.8 to 0.9 mm in diameter are found in the bark. Bark may be stained around the holes. Frass is fine and usually scattered in bark crevices or ejected in long strings (figure 215C). Black-stained entrance holes can be easily observed by removing the bark (figure 215D). In cross section, the black galleries extend horizontally straight through the bark into the wood for 5 to 12 mm and open into a slightly enlarged chamber (figure 215E). From here, 1 to 8 egg galleries, 2 to 5 cm long, branch off or fan out. The first egg galleries begin nearly at right angles on each side of the entrance gallery and often follow the curvature of the tree growth rings. Other egg galleries extend across the growth rings toward the center of the tree. Exposed egg galleries reveal numerous short egg cradles above and below the galleries (figure 215F). Although apple and other orchard trees are sometimes injured, the greatest economic damage occurs in timber trees and unseasoned logs. Lumber sawn from infested logs may be peppered with small black holes. Wine, cider, and vinegar casks filled and in storage are sometimes badly damaged.

Control. Injury to orchard trees can be minimized by keeping the trees healthy (Blackman 1922, Brooks 1916). Weakened and dying timber in heavily infested stands should be harvested and milled promptly. Unseasoned logs should be promptly sawn into lumber. When rapid utilization of green logs is not possible, beetle infestation can be minimized by immersing logs in water or by storage in piles under continuous water spray.

Monarthrum fasciatum (Say)

[yellow-banded timber beetle] (figure 216)

Hosts. Oak, maple, birch, chestnut, sweetgum, blackgum, poplar, hickory, mimosa, apple, peach, pine. Favors deciduous hardwoods; hosts probably include many species not recorded (Chamberlin 1939, Wood 1982). Pine occasionally a host.

Range. Throughout eastern North America from Quebec, Ontario, and Massachusetts south to Florida and west to Texas and Wisconsin (Wood 1982). Most common in southern range (USDA FS 1985).

Description. ***Adult.*** Brown and yellow, elongate, cylindrical ambrosia beetle, 2.3 to 3.1 mm long, 3.2 times as long as wide (figure 216A) (Beal and Massey 1945, Chamberlin 1939, Roling and Kearby 1974, Wood 1982). Body generally reddish brown with wide pale yellow band across middle

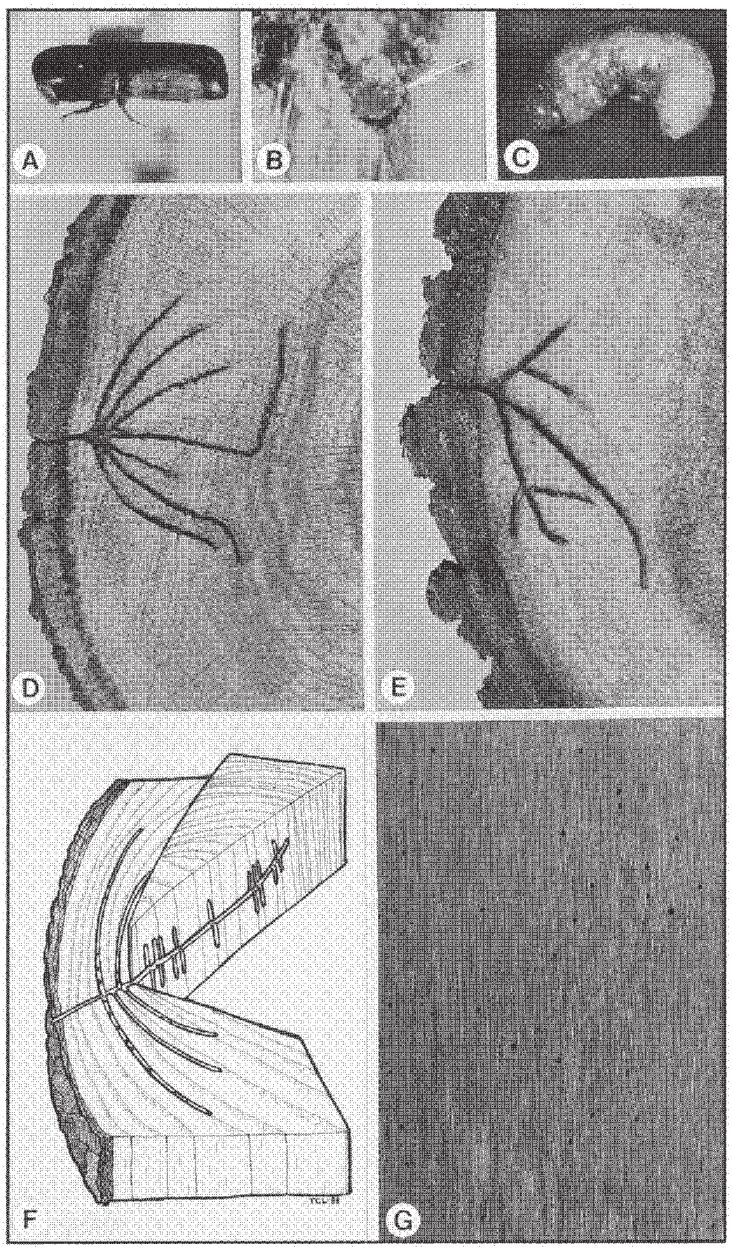


Figure 216—Monarthrum fasciatum, *[yellow-banded timber beetle]: A, adult; B, egg in niche; C, larva; D, typical gallery system in red oak; E, variation of gallery system in cottonwood; F, complete gallery system with cradles; G, tiny holes in air-drying lumber (A-C, courtesy M. Roling).*

part of elytra. Pronotum roughened in front and smooth behind. Elytral declivity abrupt and covered with long, yellow hairs; small blunt tooth on each side of median ridge. ***Egg.*** Oval, smooth, and translucent, 0.45 by 0.75 mm (figure 216B). ***Larva.*** White with amber head and jaws, curved to C-shaped, 0.8 to 2.9 mm long (figure 216C). Very similar to *M. mali* (Fitch); adults larger with yellow band across elytra.

Biology. Flights commence in March in Mississippi and Missouri (Blackman 1922, Roling and Kearby 1974). Males initiate attack, construct entrance tunnels, and are soon joined by one or more females. A nuptial chamber and up to eight egg galleries are constructed. Egg galleries are typically occupied by single females and the entrance holes by single males. Beetles inoculate the gallery walls with special fungi (*Monilia* spp.) that produce ambrosial mycelium used for food by adults and larvae. Females deposit eggs singly in a series of niches on the upper and lower gallery wall surfaces, parallel to the wood grain. Larvae develop and enlarge egg niches into short, fingerlike cradles slightly larger than the larvae. In the egg galleries, females maintain cultures of ambrosial fungi that supply the larvae with food throughout their development. Larvae pupate in the cradles, always with their heads facing the egg gallery. New brood beetles emerge through the same entrance holes made by parent beetles. There are three generations per year in Missouri. First emergence and flight occur from early March to mid-May; the second extends from early June to late July. Second-generation beetles emerge by late August or early September and produce a third generation, but second-generation adults that do not emerge by early autumn overwinter in partially formed new galleries. Some adults of the second generation hibernate in their parents' galleries until the following spring. All adults of the third generation overwinter in the parents' galleries.

Injury and damage. Unthrifty, injured, and dying trees and recently cut logs are most frequently attacked (Beal and Massey 1945, Blackman 1922, Chamberlin 1939, Gossard 1913, Roling and Kearby 1974). On standing trees, attack sites may occur from ground level to 13 m and on larger branches. Newly attacked trees usually have fine white frass in bark crevices or strings of frass that extrude from the entrance holes. Dissection reveals the typical gallery system. When a log is viewed in cross section (figure 216D and E), an entrance hole 0.9 to 1.1 mm in diameter extends horizontally through the bark into the sapwood to depths of 22 mm. The entrance hole opens into a widened nuptial chamber about 3 by 3 mm. From 1 to 8 egg galleries branch or fan out from the widest part of the nuptial chamber; some follow the curvature of the annual rings, whereas others cut across the rings (figure 216F). Egg galleries are up to 77 mm long, but most are less than 40 mm. Vertically oriented egg cradles range from 0.5 to 3.6 mm long and 0.84 to 1.16 mm in diameter; 0 to 14 per egg gallery. They may seriously damage dying timber, fresh-cut logs, and green-sawn lumber. Lumber sawn

from infested trees or logs contains pinhole defects (with or without associated stain) that reduce its value (figure 216G). Wine casks (filled and in use) have been heavily bored in some parts of the South.

Control. Dying timber should be harvested promptly, and fresh-cut logs should be quickly removed to avoid infestations. Logs that cannot be milled promptly should be stored submerged in ponds of water or in piles under continuous water spray (Beal and Massey 1945). At some mill sites, green-sawn lumber intended for air drying must be given a 10-second insecticide dip for protection.

Xyloterinus politus (Say)

[beech timber beetle] (figure 217)

Hosts. Beech, maple, birch, oak, chestnut, hickory, ash, elm, poplar, black cherry, magnolia, alder, pine, spruce, hemlock. Beech favored, but maple and birch commonly attacked (Blackman 1922, Dodge 1938, USDA FS 1985, Wood 1957). Conifers rarely attacked.

Range. New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario and throughout the eastern United States from Maine south to northern Florida and westward to Mississippi and Minnesota (Wood 1957).

Description. ***Adult.*** Dark-brown to black, cylindrical ambrosia beetle, 2.8 to 3.7 mm long, 2.7 times as long as wide (figure 217A) (Beal and Massey 1945, Wood 1957). Front of head convex, granulate, with median ridge; eyes completely divided; antennal club without sutures. Pronotum very slightly wider than long, slightly wider than elytra, broadly rounded in front and sides, anterior margin armed with asperites and four median teeth; female with noticeable mycetangium. Elytra 1.7 times as long as wide; striae finely punctured, covered by sparse, fine, hairlike setae. Elytral declivity rather steep and convex. ***Egg.*** Whitish, ovoid, translucent, 0.89 mm by 0.66 mm (figure 217B) (MacLean and Giese 1967). ***Larva.*** Whitish, legless, slightly curved, about 2.8 mm long (figure 217C). ***Pupa.*** Soft bodied, whitish but gradually darkening; head concealed from above by prothorax.

Biology. The insect overwinters in adult stage in old larval cradles and adult galleries (MacLean and Giese 1967). Adults emerge in March and April and have been taken in flight from March through August in West Virginia. Males mate with females before emergence from brood galleries or on the bark surface of new hosts before attack. After beetles locate susceptible trees, females initiate the attack and carry out gallery construction. Each female extends a gallery into the sapwood where it may fork into one or more secondary tunnels (MacLean and Giese 1967). Females inoculate the gallery walls with ambrosia fungi and deposit eggs singly in cuplike depressions or niches 1.4 mm wide by 0.7 mm deep along the ceiling and floor of the gallery and then cover each egg with a plug of frass. Most eggs are deposited along the secondary tunnels. Egg niches are gradually lengthened by developing larvae to slightly larger than their bodies. During development of the three larval stages, the opening between

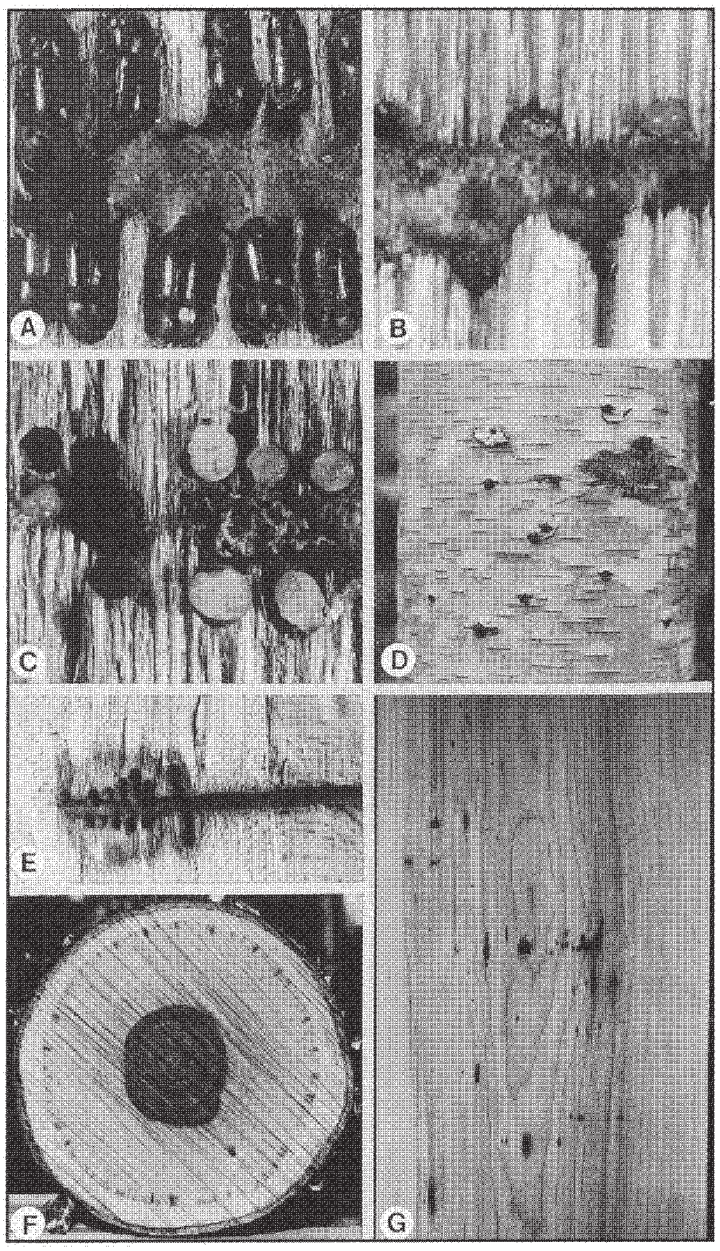


Figure 217—Xyloterinus politus, *[beech timber beetle]: A, teneral adults in cradles; B, eggs in niches along gallery walls; C, young larvae in niches; D, adult entrance holes; E, cradles above and below gallery; F, beetle stains in log end; G, blackened pinholes in lumber (A-C, courtesy R. Giese; D-F, courtesy A. Shigo).*

the larval cradle and the egg gallery remains plugged with frass. Larvae are xylomycetophagus, that is, they feed on both wood and the ambrosia fungi that grow on the cradle walls and frass plug. Mature larvae pupate in the larval cradles. Newly formed adults remove the frass plug from the mouth of the larval cradles and emerge through the parent galleries and entrance holes. In Indiana, eggs and larvae are found from July 3 to 15 and again from August 7 to 28, indicating two generations a year.

Injury and damage. Beetles attack low-vigor trees and are most injurious to the green wood of diseased, injured, and dying trees (Blackman 1922, USDA FS 1985). They also infest recently cut logs and green stumps. Most attacks on standing trees occur within the basal 2.1 m of the bole; none are found above 6.1 m. Trees under attack can be recognized by accumulations of light-colored frass in bark crevices and often by columns or cylinders of frass protruding from entrance holes (MacLean and Giese 1967). Later, only small round holes can be seen in the bark (figure 217D). A gallery consists of an entrance tunnel about 1.6 mm in diameter that extends into the sapwood for 2 to 45 mm before branching into one or two, 14-mm long secondary tunnels at right angles to the main gallery. Occasionally, a secondary gallery rebranches and extends further into the sapwood. The main gallery usually continues past the secondary tunnel for 1.5 to 10.0 mm, where it either ends or branches into a second pair of perpendicular tunnels. Larval cradles are often in double compound rows with two projecting above and two below the secondary tunnels and occasionally along the main tunnel (figure 217E). The double compound rows of cradles are distinct from the single compound row characteristic of other ambrosia beetles (Beal and Massey 1945, Dodge 1938, Drake 1921). Windthrown beech and hard maple in the Adirondack Mountains of New York have been particularly susceptible (Drake 1921). Logs, especially paper and yellow birch logs, containing beetle injuries can often be detected by stains or islands of discoloration on their ends (figure 217F) (Shigo 1966). Lumber or veneer sawn from infested logs contains blackened pinhole defects that render it worthless for many uses, including furniture (figure 217G).

Control. A small parasitic wasp—*Ipideurytoma* sp.—has been reared from larval cradles of this species (MacLean and Giese 1967). Prompt harvesting and utilization of timber and logs are recommended (Beal and Massey 1945). Sometimes, damage can be minimized by removing logs from shade and storing them off the ground in direct sunlight (Blackman 1922).

Trypodendron retusum (LeConte)

[poplar timber beetle] (figure 218)

Hosts. Poplar. Eastern cottonwood, quaking aspen, and bigtooth aspen recorded (Chamberlin 1939, Swaine 1918, Wood 1982). Also attacks paper birch but does not reproduce in this species.

Range. Alaska; south across Canada and into the northern United States; recorded as far south as West Virginia, New Mexico, and

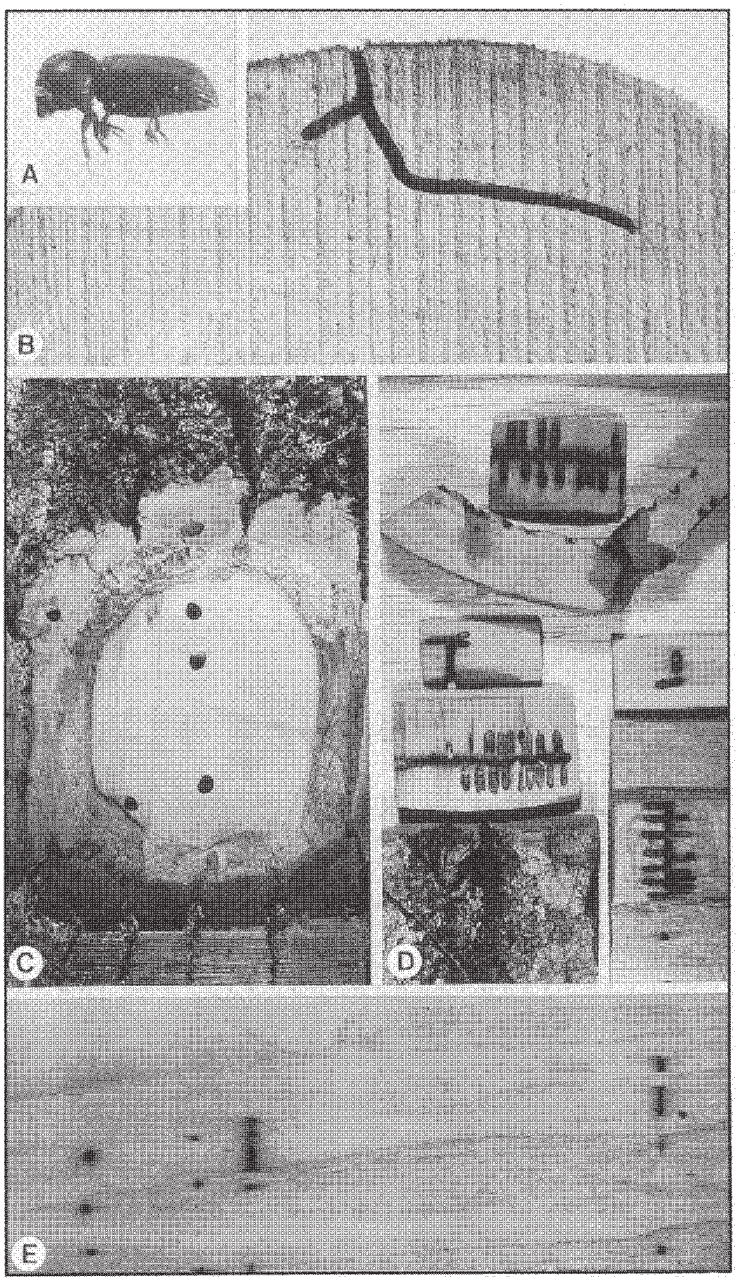


Figure 218—Trypodendron retusum, *[poplar timber beetle]: A, adult; B, entrance and two lateral galleries; C, bark removed to expose entrance holes; D, galleries and cradles; E, dark-stained pinholes in aspen lumber (D, specimen courtesy D. Whitehead).*

California (Wood 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Stout, cylindrical, shiny, brownish black ambrosia beetle, 3.6 to 4.6 mm long, 2.5 times as long as wide (figure 218A). Young adults with pale yellowish brown at base of pronotum and along elytral suture. Front of head in female convex; in male, concave and sparsely clothed with fine erect hairs. Pronotum broader than long, anterior half rounded with front margin armed with four teeth; female with conspicuous mycetangium. Elytra nearly twice as long as wide, sides straight, slightly punctured. Elytral declivity convex, moderately steep. ***Larva.*** White, with brown head, legless, curved body, 3.6 to 5.0 mm long. Head widths of mature larvae 0.66 to 0.79 mm (Brewer and others 1988).

Biology. This species overwinters in adult stage in forest litter (Brewer and others 1988). Spring flights from hibernation begin in early April and continue until early May. After flying to susceptible trees, females initiate attack. Within a day or so, a male joins each female. The beetles are monogamous; mating occurs at the entrance tunnel or on the bark surface. One pair usually occupies an entire gallery system. Rarely, several pairs may dwell within the same gallery system, but when they do, pairs occupy different lateral tunnels (Bright 1976). Females are found deep in the galleries and do most or all of the tunneling; the males are found near the entrance and push the frass out of the entrance holes. Ambrosia fungi are carried in the mycetangia of the female and are inoculated onto the gallery walls. The female completes the primary tunnel in 5 to 10 days. One to three lateral tunnels may be constructed; shallow cradles are excavated vertically either up or down along the lateral tunnels. Eggs covered with a mixture of boring material and fungal cells are deposited singly in each shallow cradle. As many as seven cradles, spaced 2 to 8 mm apart, are made along each lateral tunnel, mostly toward the end; none are found along the entrance tunnel. Eggs hatch in about 1 week, and larvae enlarge the cradles as they grow, feeding on the ambrosia fungus and wood. There are two larval instars; development requires 3 to 4 weeks. The pupal stage lasts slightly over 1 week. Fully developed adults leave their galleries during late summer and fall to hibernate.

Injury and damage. Injured and declining trees, as well as windthrown and recently cut trees larger than 10 cm in diameter, are commonly attacked (Brewer and others 1988, Chamberlin 1939, Hinds and Davidson 1972, Wood 1982). Round entrance holes in the bark lead into the sapwood (figure 218B and C). Early in the attack, white frass may be present at entrance sites. Dissection of an infested stem reveals the gallery system, which consists of an entrance tunnel penetrating directly into the sapwood 5 to 55 mm, and two to five lateral tunnels usually following a growth ring and totalling 25 to 109 mm long (figure 218B). Four to seven larval cradles are oriented vertically above or below each lateral tunnel (figure 218D). Large pinholes along with dark-stained wood on the gallery walls are defects that sometimes seriously degrade lumber sawn from infest-

ed timber (figure 218E) (Bright 1976).

Control. Natural enemies have not been recorded, and direct controls have not been investigated.

Trypodendron betulae Swaine

[birch timber beetle] (figure 219)

Hosts. Birch, alder. Birch, particularly paper birch and yellow birch, are preferred, found rarely in alder (Chamberlin 1939; Dodge 1938; Furniss and Carolin 1977; Wood 1957, 1982).

Range. Southern Canada from Quebec west to Manitoba and northern United States from Maine west to northern Idaho; probably throughout the range of white birch (Furniss and Carolin 1977; Wood 1957, 1982).

Description. ***Adult.*** Small dark brown to black ambrosia beetle with broad dorsal pale yellowish brown area of varying size extending from base to margin of declivity, 2.7 to 3.5 mm long, 2.6 times as long as wide (figure 219A) (Bright 1976; Chamberlin 1939; USDA FS 1985; Wood 1957, 1982). Front of head convex and coarsely but sparsely granulate in females; front of head deeply concave with median tubercle between upper halves of eyes in males. Pronotum wider than long, broadly rounded from midlateral sides to front, with anterior margin bearing two large and two small median teeth in female but straight and unarmed in male. Elytral declivity convex and moderately steep. ***Larva.*** White (except for light brown head), footless, curved 3 to 5 mm long (MacAloney and Ewan 1964).

Biology. Adults emerge from hibernation in spring and early summer and fly to susceptible host trees. Both sexes work together in constructing galleries. Females construct the entrance tunnels that branch; the males remove the frass (Doane and others 1936, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Eggs are deposited in shallow niches cut by the female along the sides of the branched tunnels. Larvae enlarge their niches into short cradles where they spend their immature lives. They feed on ambrosia fungus and wood, pupate, and transform to adults (figure 219B). In late summer and fall, they leave the galleries for hibernation sites in debris on the forest floor.

Injury and damage. Weakened, injured, dying, and felled trees are most apt to be attacked (Doane and others 1936, MacAloney and Ewan 1964). Entrance holes and white frass may be initial injury symptoms. The gallery consists of an entrance that extends directly into the wood and then branches right and left, often following the growth rings (figure 219B and C). Larval cradles extend vertically up and down from the branched gallery (figure 219B). Galleries are similar to those of *T. retusum* but are smaller and extend deeper into the wood (Dodge 1938). Black-stained holes degrade birch lumber and veneer sawn from infested trees.

Control. Nothing is known of natural controls. Direct controls have not been reported.

Xyleborus celsus Eichhoff

[hickory timber beetle] (figure 220)

Hosts. Hickory. Reported in black,