Present-day distribution patterns of the holarctic Psylloidea (Homoptera: Insecta) with particular reference to the origin of the nearctic fauna

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ABSTRACT. The Psylloidea or jumping plant lice tend to be host-plant specific with related species usually occurring on closely related host plant species. The distribution of the eighty-two holarctic genera across eighteen floral realms was investigated. There is a marked faunal similarity between floral realms lying to the north of the deciduous forest regions. However, within the warmer Mediterranean/steppe/prairie/desert regions the faunas of the nearctic and palaearctic diverge with a large number of genera being endemic to their respective regions. Infiltration of tropical genera northwards occurs throughout holarctic but the genera involved tend to differ in different regions.

The probable origins of the nearctic fauna are discussed in detail. It is concluded that three distinct phases of development occurred. Firstly evolution of endemic genera from a stock existing prior to the separation of Europe and North America, secondly repeated waves of migration across a Beringia connection and finally a southern infiltration of neotropical genera and species.

Introduction

The Psylloidea or jumping plant lice are a group of usually narrowly polyphagous sapsucking insects which feed almost exclusively on dicotyledenous plants (Eastop, 1972; Hodkinson, 1974). The psyllids as a group probably arose in the early Permian (Becker-Migdisova, 1973) and thus initially almost certainly were associated with the gymnosperms. This coniferous feeding habit has not survived and transfer on to the angiosperms probably occurred just prior to or coincident with the angiosperm explosion in the early Cretaceous, which probably heralded the evolution of the present-day forms. Certainly several of the extant psyllid genera had evolved by the Oligocene and by the Miocene these genera contained species very close to present-day forms (Becker-Migdisova, 1967). This situation is very similar to that pertaining to the flowering plants (Takhtajan, 1969). Thus psyllid evolution, making due allowance

for some possible disjunct host range extensions, appears to have closely paralleled that of the Angiosperms so that today closely related psyllid species tend to occur on closely related plant species. In general, but with the notable exception of the large genera Cacopsylla Ossiannilsson and Trioza Förster, which will be discussed later, the psyllids tend to form reasonably homogeneous groups and the analysis has been largely conducted at the generic level. However, more detailed information at the species level is presented, where appropriate, in the discussion of the origin of the nearctic fauna. The study is confined to the holarctic region as the fauna is reasonably well known: extension into other zoogeographical regions would require massive taxonomic revision. Eastop (1978), however, has discussed the broad geographical distribution of the major psyllid groups.

The psyllid data used in the study are drawn from a huge literature and from unpublished records in museums, especially the British Museum (Natural History) and the U.S. National Museum. It is impractical to give a complete bibliography but the prime source references listed by geographical region are given below: Macaronesia (Loginova, 1976b), Morocco (Loginova, 1972b), Egypt (Samy, 1972), Spain (Ramirez-Gomez, 1956a, b. 1960), Britain (Hodkinson & White, 1979), Switzerland (Schaefer, 1949), Central Europe (Haupt, 1935), Poland (Klimaszewski, 1975), Rumania (Dobreanu & Manolache, 1962), Czechoslovakia (Vondracek, 1957), Scandinavia (Ossiannilsson, 1952; Lindberg & Ossiannilsson, 1960), European U.S.S.R. (Loginova, 1964), Turkey (Klimaszewski & Lodos, 1977, 1979), Asiatic U.S.S.R. and Mongolia (several references summarized by Klimaszewski, 1973), Northern India (Mathur, 1975), Japan (Miyatake, 1963, 1964, 1969, 1973, 1974, 1978; Kuwayama, 1908, 1910), China (Enderlein, 1937); Kuwayama & Miyatake, 1971), Greenland (Henriksen, 1939; Koponen, 1978), Alaska (Hodkinson, 1978), Canada (Strickland, 1938, 1939; Kitching, 1971; Hodkinson, 1976 and unpublished), U.S.A. (Crawford, 1914; Tuthill, 1943; Caldwell, 1937, 1938, Jensen, 1951a, b, 1957a, b; Russell, 1971, 1973), Mexico (Tuthill, 1944, 1945, 1950) and Central America (Caldwell, 1944a, b; Caldwell & Martorell, 1952). A complete list of the holarctic psyllid genera together with their world distribution and host plant associations is given in Appendix 1. This classification of the holarctic Psylloidea is in broad general agreement with those proposed by Becker-Migdisova (1973), Klimaszewski (1964) and Heslop-Harrison (1948, 1949a, b, c, 1951a, b, c, 1952a, b, 1958, 1959, 1961), but I have also made use of recent data on the classification of the Psylloidea presented by Loginova (1972a, 1974, 1975a, b, 1976a, c, 1977, 1978a, b).

A total of eighty-two psyllid genera occur in the holarctic and of these, twenty-one are monobasic. Fifty genera are endemic and of the remaining thirty-two a further fifteen exhibit maximum species diversity within the holarctic suggesting that their origin or their main centre of evolution was within the region. The residual seventeen genera exhibit maximum species diversity in other zoogeographical regions, usually the tropics,

and represent a southern infiltration into the holarctic fauna.

Information on continental drift is derived largely from Cox et al. (1973), Smith et al. (1973) and Schuster (1976); on the evolution of the flowering plants from Cronquist (1968), Takhtajan (1969), Hutchinson (1964, 1967, 1969, 1973) and Beck (1976), and on the present-day distribution of plants from Good (1974) and Willis (1973).

Present-day distribution patterns of the holarctic psyllid genera

Takhtajan (1969) classifies the holarctic region into nine distinct sub-kingdoms based on the dissimilarity of floras. This system has been used, with some further subdivision, to investigate psyllid distribution patterns. The subdivisions (Fig. 1) are:

- 1. Palaearctic tundra
- 2. West palaearctic coniferous forest
- 3. East palaearctic coniferous forest
- 4. West palaearctic deciduous forest
- 5. East palaearctic mixed forest
- Mediterranean
- 7. Macaronesian
- 8. Palaearctic grassland/steppe/desert
- 9. Nearctic tundra
- 10. Greenland
- 11. Nearctic coniferous forest
- 12. Nearctic eastern deciduous forest
- 13. Rocky Mountains
- 14. Pacific northwest rain forest
- 15. Nearctic prairies
- 16. Nearctic southwest deserts
- 17. California
- 18. Nearctic subtropical

The basic presence (1) or absence (0) matrix for each psyllid genus in each floral realm (Appendix 2) forms the basis for interpretation. The psyllid communities associated with the different floral realms exhibit a general gradient of diversity from north to south which parallels the gradient in plant diversity. In the arctic tundra regions of both the nearctic and palaearctic regions just four psyllid genera Aphalara, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza are present, usually associated with plants of the families Polygonaceae, Betulaceae and Salicaceae. Green-

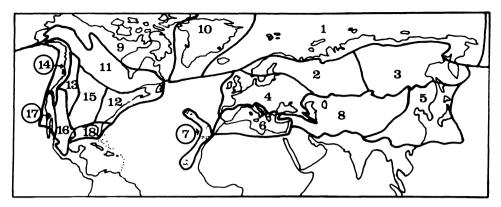


FIG. 1. Subdivision of holarctic region into floral realms. For explanation see text.

land shows an impoverished fauna with just two genera, *Psylla* and *Cacopsylla*, represented.

As one moves south into the coniferous forest zones of both the nearctic and palaearctic then the genus Livia on Carex and Juncus and the Craspedolepta species on Onagraceae appear. In addition a number of genera with a more southerly distribution reach their northern limit. These include Strophingia and Psyllopsis on Calluna and Fraxinus respectively in the palaearctic and Pachypsylla on Celtis in the nearctic.

In the deciduous forest zones throughout the holarctic, species of the genera Livia, Aphalara, Craspedolepta, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza predominate but with an infiltration of genera which exhibit maximum diversification in more southerly floral realms. In the west palaearctic these include Camarotoscena on Populus, Spanioneura on Buxus and a number of Arytainine legume-feeding genera - Arytaina sensu stricto, Alloeoneura, Arytainilla, Floria, Livilla and Amblyrhina. There are no true endemics but Psyllopsis spp. on Fraxinus show maximum diversification in the region and the monotypic genus Rhinocola on Acer is typical of the warmer parts of the region.

In the eastern palaearctic forest the picture is similar with several oriental genera including Paurocephala on Ficus, Togepsylla on Litsea and Euphalerus on Gleditsia and Caesalpina reaching their northern limit and supplementing the dominant ubiquitous genera previously listed.

In addition, seven endemic genera Anomoneura on Morus, Epitrioza on Eleagnus,

Metapsylla on Gleditsia, Syntomoza on Myroxylon, Syringilla on Syringa, Ligustrinia on Ligustrum and Epheloscyta (host unknown) are apparent. The presence of Calophya on Anacardiaceae and Pachypsylla on Celtis indicate links with the nearctic deciduous forest fauna.

In the nearctic deciduous forest the six ubiquitous genera are again dominant. Characteristic genera include Pachypsylla, but there appears to be only a single monotypic endemic, Hemitrioza on Sonchus. However, more southerly elements are present in Neotriozella (host unknown), Amorphicola on Amorpha and Gyropsylla on Ilex.

The faunas of the Pacific North West rain forest and the Rocky Mountains are again dominated by Livia, Aphalara, Craspedolepta, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza. Endemics are absent but there is again an infusion of southern genera including the Arytainines Euglyptoneura and Ceanothia on Ceanothus and the Aphalaraoidine Neophyllura on Arctostaphylos and Arbutus.

Thus in general there are broad similarities throughout the holarctic region in the psyllid genera associated with floristic regions lying north of the more arid or warmer zones and it is not until these zones are reached that differences become marked.

Within the palaearctic Mediterranean zone the fauna changes: Aphalara, Craspedolepta, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza, while still present, cease to dominate and genera associated with xerophilous plant species become predominant. Endemism is rare as most genera have spread outwards from the Mediterranean:

the monotypic triozid genus Engytatoneura (host unknown) from Morocco and the monotypic Arytainine genus Pseudacanthopsylla on Retama from Egypt appear to be exceptions. However, several genera have their centre of distribution in the region. These include a large number of closely related Arytainine genera associated with the fabaceous shrubs of the tribe Genisteae, namely Arytaina sensu stricto, Alloeoneura, Amblyrhina, Arytainilla, Floria and Livilla; a number of Strophingia species associated with Ericaceae, and Euphyllura on Oleaceae. The fauna also encompasses a large desert-steppe element which appears to have its origins further to the east. This includes the Aphalaroidine genera Camarotoscena, Acaerus and Pachypsylloides, the Aphalarine genera Xanioptera, Caillardia, Rhodoclanis, Colposcenia and Crastina, the Arytainine genus Cyamophila and the Triozid genera Egeirotrioza and Eutrioza. In addition two genera Acizzia (Psylla bicolorata Samy) on Acacia and Albizia and Pauropsylla on Ficus appear to have entered the region via a southern route, either from India or Africa south of the Sahara where their centres of distribution lie. Also, for the genus Diaphorina it is possible to postulate a similar northward movement, although a westward movement from an Asian centre of origin must also be considered. Homotoma, a genus associated with Ficus spp., which exhibits maximum diversity in the eastern Oriental region completes the fauna (Miyatake, 1973).

The Macaronesian fauna can be derived by reduction from the Mediterranean fauna although two highly specialized endemic Aphalaroidine genera *Lisronia* on *Cistus* and *Megadicrania* (host unknown) are present and the Arytainine genus *Arytainilla* on Fabaceae has undergone explosive evolution.

The desert-steppe region of central Asia is especially interesting in that it contains a large endemic fauna associated with xerophilous plants. The genera involved are the Aphalaroidine Eremopsylloides on Calligonum, the Aphalarines Brachystetha on Nitraria and Zygophyllum, Xenaphalara on Ceratocarpus, Eurotica on Eurotia, Eumetoecus on Kochia and Camphorosoma, Rhombaphalara on Halocnemum and the Arytainine Astragilita on Astragalus. In addition the genus Craspedolepta has undergone explosive evolution on

Artemisia. A number of genera are also present which appear to have spread westwards into the Mediterranean and beyond yet exhibit maximum diversity in the steppe/ desert, suggesting that this is the centre of their diversification. These include the Aphalaroidine genera Pachypsylloides and Acaerus on Calligonum, the Aphalarine genera Caillardia on Anabasis and Haloxylon, Rhodoclanis on Salsola, Suaeda and Salicornia, Crastina on Myricaria, Colposcenia on Tamarix, the Arytainine genus Cyamophila on Caranga, Glycyrrhiza and Astragalus and a mixture of Triozine forms including Egeirotrioza on Populus and Eutrioza on Pinus (unconfirmed). The Aphalaroidine genus Diaphorina on Lycium, Convolvulus, Zygophyllum, Clutia and Salvadora is especially interesting. It has undergone wide diversification within this region but it also occurs abundantly throughout the Ethiopian and Oriental regions. Its origins are somewhat obscure. The ubiquitous Cacopsylla, Aphalara and Trioza are present but not dominant.

It is interesting to note that relic populations of certain arctic—temperate species such as P. zaecevi Sulc, P. viburni Löw, Aphalara maculipennis Löw and Trioza urticae (L.) are found south of the arid zone in the mountains of northern India.

The fauna of the North American prairies is derived from the ubiquitous northern element Livia, Aphalara, Craspedolepta, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza with the addition of Californian/desert forms including Aphalaroida, Euglyptoneura, Amorphicola and Leurolophus. The genus Craspedolepta has undergone only moderate diversification in this region. The presence of Rhinopsylla and Heteropsylla indicates an infiltration of southern neotropical forms.

The faunas of the nearctic desert and California are similar with a number of typical genera exhibiting maximum species diversity. These include the Aphalaroidine genera Aphalaroida and Heteropsylla on the Mimosoidea, Neophyllura on Arctostaphylos and Arbutus, the Arytainine genera Amorphicola on Amorpha, Purshivora on Purshia, and Ceanothia on Ceanothus. True endemics are uncommon but the Aphalaroidine genus Paraphalaroida on Fremontia, the Arytainine genus Pexopsylla on Cercocarpus and the

Triozid Levidea on Parthenium are unique to these regions. In addition a number of genera of clearly neotropical origin are present including Leuronota, Metatrioza, Neotriozella and Kuwayama. Northern forms including Aphalara, Craspedolepta, Cacopsylla, Pachypsylla and Calophya on Rhus are present but no longer dominant.

In contrast to the arid zones of the old world the nearctic arid zone fauna appear to contain fewer endemic genera and a lower species diversity. Whereas in the forest zone northwards the typical genera exhibit holarctic distributions, in the arid zones the nearctic—palaearctic links are at the tribe or subfamily level through the subfamilies Aphalaroidinae and Arytaininae: there are no common typical genera. Furthermore, within the subfamily Aphalarinae the massive radiation which occurred in the Old World has not occurred in the nearctic. The implications of this will be discussed later.

The subtropical south-east zone retains a small proportion of the ubiquitous Livia, Aphalara, Cacopsylla and Trioza within the fauna but also contains a large element of genera having their centre of distribution either in the neotropical zone or at least within the tropics. These genera are Gyropsylla on Ilex, Rhinopsylla (host unknown), Leuronota on Celtis, Ceropsylla on Sideroxylon, etc., and Euphalerus on Piscidia.

Analysis

To summarize the basic data matrix, to identify recurrent groupings of psyllid genera with common distributions and to measure the faunal similarity at the generic level between faunal kingdoms two similarity matrices were calculated. These were firstly a matrix expressing, on a scale from $0 \rightarrow 1$. the similarity between the faunas of the eighteen floral realms based on the psyllid genera which occur in them and secondly a matrix expressing the similarity between the distributions of the psyllid genera based on their occurrence in the different floral realms. In both instances Jaccard's coefficient of similarity A/(A+B+C) was used, where, for example, to calculate the faunal similarity between two floral realms A is the number of

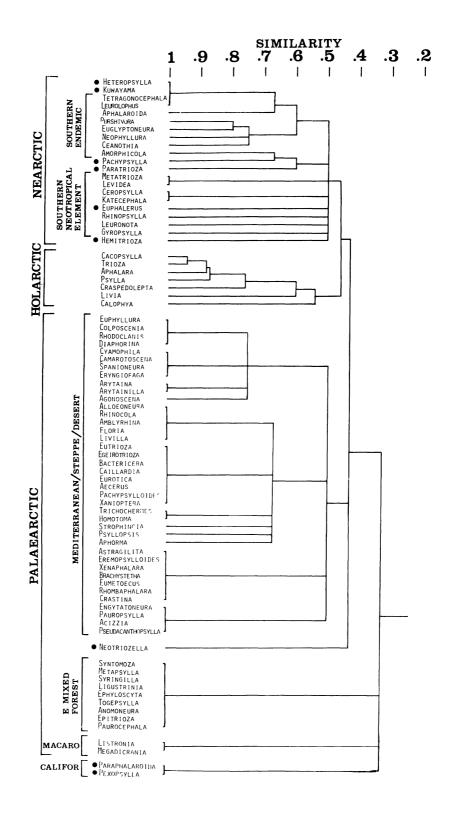
genera occurring in both realms, B is the number of genera found in the first realm only, and C is the number of genera found in the second realm only. Minimum spanning trees were calculated across each of the matrices which were then clustered by single linkage (Gower & Ross, 1969; Farris, 1970) to produce classifications in dendrogram form (Figs. 2 and 3).

Within the classification of psyllid genera (Fig. 2) a number of basic groups can be recognized above the 0.5 similarity level, i.e. the level at which genera occur together more often than they occur apart.

There are three tight clusters of endemic genera (1.0 similarity) associated with the eastern palaearctic forest (nine genera). Macaronesia (two genera) and the Californian region of the nearctic (two genera). A further four looser major clusters can be identified. These are firstly a typically Mediterranean/ steppe/desert group of forty genera associated with the more arid southern zone of the palaearctic. This group contains generic elements such as the Alloeoneura/Livilla cluster which have spread northwards into the west palaearctic deciduous forest and the Pauropsylla/ Acizzia which represents a southern infiltration into the palaearctic fauna. The second major grouping includes seven genera which exhibit a broad distribution throughout the holarctic and which, with the exception of Calophya, can be regarded as an ubiquitous northern element. A third very loose cluster encompasses a group of seven genera which appear to have entered the southern nearctic from the neotropical region. The apparent looseness of this cluster is partly a reflection of sporadic records across a few floral kingdoms. The final major cluster incorporates a group of seven genera which are endemic to the warmer southern regions of the nearctic.

One further cluster is worthy of note, namely, that including *Pachypsylla* and *Paratrioza*. These genera occur both in the east palaearctic and the nearctic but their more widespread occurrence in the latter gives them a high similarity with the endemic nearctic genus *Amorphicola*.

The classification of floral realms based on the distribution of psyllid genera (Fig. 3) shows that in the northerly vegetation zones, the tundra, the coniferous and the deciduous



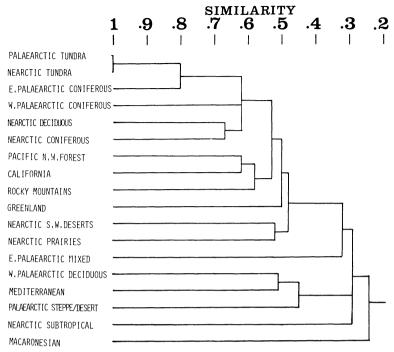


FIG. 3. Phenogram to illustrate the faunal similarity between the eighteen floral realms based on the presence of eighty-two psyllid genera.

forests, there is generally a high similarity (greater than 0.5) in the psyllid genera which occur. However, as one moves into the more southerly floral realms their level of similarity with the former zones decreases. Similarly the similarity between the nearctic and palaearctic regions also decreases. Again the east palaearctic forest, the nearactic subtropical and the Macaronesian zones appear as outliers showing low similarity with other floral realms.

The origins of the nearctic fauna

A number of species have been introduced into North America within recent times and should be excluded from the analysis. These species are *Arytaina genistae* (Latr.), *Arytainilla spartiophila* (Först.), *Acizzia unca-*

toides (Ferris & Klyver), Psyllopsis fraxini (L.), P. fraxinicola (Först.), P. discrepans (Flor), Spanioneura fonscolombii (Först.), Cacopsylla mali (Schmidtb.), C. sorbi (L.), C. pyricola (Först.), C. fatsiae (Jensen), C. buxi (Först.), Trioza alacris Flor, and Homotoma ficus (L.).

The present-day nearctic psyllid fauna could possibly be derived in three separate ways: firstly by evolution in situ prior to and after the final separation of North America and Europe in the Late Cretaceous (70 million years BP, although island chains may have provided a migration corridor for a further 20 millions years); secondly by subsequent immigration from the palaearctic across a Beringia connection, and thirdly by immigration through the Isthmus of Panama, after the joining of North and South America in the Miocene (20 million years

FIG. 2. Phenogram to illustrate the similarity in range of distribution of the holarctic psyllid genera across the eighteen floral realms. • indicates genera with unusual distributions which, as an artifact of the method used, cluster outside their expected groups. Heteropsylla, Kuwayama and Neotriozella are southern nearctic in distribution, Hemitrioza, Paraphalaroida and Pexopsylla are endemics unique to one floral realm in the nearctic and Pachypsylla and Paratrioza are holarctic genera widespread in the nearctic but with restricted distribution in the palaearctic.

BP). Fossil evidence is rare and conclusions are drawn from zoogeographical and host plant data together with a consideration of adult and nymphal morphology.

In general the nearctic fauna is much poorer both in terms of number of genera and numbers of species when compared to the palaearctic. Sixty-one genera are recorded from the palaearctic whereas only thirty-one are recorded from the nearctic.

A number of nearctic genera, Katecephala, Gyropsylla, Rhinopsylla, Kuwayama, Leuronota, Metatrioza, Neotriozella and Euphalerus are largely associated with southern vegetation zones. Each of these genera exhibit maximum diversity within the neotropical species region and can undoubtedly be considered as having entered the nearctic via a southern route within the last 20 million years. In addition, within the heterogeneous genus Trioza, a number of nearctic Baccharisfeeding forms, T. proxima Crawf., and T. collaris Crawf., have their nearest relatives in the Baccharis-feeding species of South America, again suggesting a neotropical origin for this segment of the genus. Baccharis itself is thought to have spread north up the mountain chains from a neotropical origin.

On the basis of adult morphology the Heteropsylline genus Heteropsylla has previously been placed in the Aphalaridae close to Aphalaroida. However, the structure of its nymph and the elongate eighth antennal segment in the adult suggests that it is a very highly evolved Ciriacremine. Heteropsylla species feed on the Mimosidae section of the Fabales, the normal host plants of the neotropical Ciriacremines. Furthermore Heteropsylla is distributed throughout Central and South America and shows certain morphological affinities with Euceropsylla, a neotropical genus. A neotropical origin for this genus appears most likely.

Since the final separation of the North American and European land masses and the final closure of the Atlantic corridor in the mid-Eocene (60 million years BP), faunal immigration into the nearctic must largely have been controlled by climatic conditions existing in the Beringia region. Recent evidence suggests that climatic conditions, as indicated by fossil floras, has undergone progressive deterioration from the Eocene onwards.

During the later Cretaceous the Alaskan flora was analogous to that found in North China and Korea today, while during the Palaeocene and Eocene a temperate deciduous flora became dominant (Cox et al., 1973). At this time the northern limit of the subtropical vegetation lay about 15° N of its present position. From this time onwards the climate began to cool and a marked temporary severe deterioration occurred during the Oligocene, at which time forest persisted over much of Eurasia and this condition persisted through into the somewhat warmer Miocene. The final climatic deterioration began in the mid-Miocene and by the Pleistocene the simpler. cold-adapted arctic/sub-arctic vegetation types had developed and occupied the northern regions of the holarctic.

Hence, as climate has changed, vegetation type has changed and the potential for migration by different groups of psyllids has altered. Is there any evidence to support this hypothesis? A number of predominantly North temperate genera Livia, Aphalara. Craspedolepta, Calophya, Pachypsylla, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza are common to both the palaearctic and nearctic zoogeographical regions and do not, with the exception of Calophya and Trioza sensu lato, occur in the neotropical region. An examination of the evidence from present-day species distribution patterns within these genera suggests that faunal exchange across Beringia must have occurred on many occasions. Working backwards through time it is possible to identify several distinct waves of migration.

A number of holarctic species occur within the genera Craspedolepta, Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza (Table 1). Nearly all these species exhibit a far northern distribution on circumpolar plant species within the genera Salix, Alnus, Betula, Vaccinium, Ledum and Epilobium. The circumpolar continuity of these psyllid species reflects the known Pleistocene history of the vegetation. The opening of the Bering land bridge during glacial maxima provided a corridor for faunal/ floral exchange of arctic species. There is an excellent correlation between the psyllids which have retained their circumpolar integrity and the presence of their host plant, as indicated by pollen spectra, in the Wisconsin and Illinoian glaciation zones of sediment cores

TABLE 1. The holarctic psyllid species

Species	Host plant
Craspedolepta subpunctata (Först)	Epilobium angustifolium
C. nebulosa (Zett)	Epilobium angustifolium
C. sonchi	Sonchus, Leontodon
Psylla alni (L.)	Alnus spp.
P. betulae (L.)	Betula spp.
P. hartigi Flor	Betula spp.
P. carpinicola (Crawf.)	Carpinus spp.
P. betulaenanae Oss.	Betula nana
Cacopsylla palmeni (Löw)	Salix spp.
C. zaecevi (Sulc)	Salix spp.
C. myrtilli (Wag.)	Vaccinium sp.
C. ledi (Flor)	Ledum palustre
C, phlebophyllae (Hod.)	Salix spp.
C. tenuata (Jensen)	Salix spp.
Trioza salicivora Reut.	Salix spp.
T. atkasookensis Hod.	Salix spp.
T. arctica Hod.	Salix spp.

taken from the Beringia region (Hopkins, 1967). Craspedolepta sonchi is somewhat exceptional as it has only been found in submontane nearctic habitats further to the south and this possibly indicates extinction in the northern parts of its range. The position of Cacopsylla tenuata and Psylla carpinicola is discussed later.

In summary, these species represent the most recent groups which have been geographically isolated for about 13 000 years since the last closure of the Bering land connection and which have not yet diverged.

However, the effects on speciation of repeated glaciation are manifest within the nearctic region. Some holarctic species such as C. palmeni, P. alni and C. subpunctata which are broadly distributed within the palaearctic appear to have diverged within the nearctic. For instance, in North America C. palmeni

is confined to the old glacial refugium north of the Brooks Range in Alaska; further south it is replaced by the closely related but morphologically distinct *C. alaskensis* (Ashmead). Similarly *C. subpunctata* appears to have given rise to the arctic/alpine *C. alaskensis* (Ash.), and *P. galeaformis* (Patch) and *P. caudata* (Crawf.) appear to have separated from *P. alni*. In these cases the exact isolating mechanisms leading to speciation are obscure.

A slightly earlier, but still recent, wave of migration is indicated by the presence of pair species within the genera Psylla, Cacopsylla and Trioza (Table 2). These pair species are morphologically similar and of undoubted common origin yet exist as distinct palaearctic and nearctic forms. In general these species tend to occur in a latitudinal zone lying just to the south of that occupied by the circumpolar species. They are again largely associated

TABLE 2. Palaearctic-nearctic psyllid pair species

Palaearctic species	Nearctic species									
Craspedolepta malachitica (Dahl.)	C. vancouverensis (Klyv.)	Artemisia								
Psylla fusca (Zett.)	P. floccosa Patch.	Alnus								
Cacopsylla zinovjevi (Log.)	C. sinuata (Crawf.)	Salix								
C. elegantula (Zett.)	C. fibulata (Crawf.)	Salix								
C. propinqua (Schaef.)	C. macleani (Hod.)	Salix								
C. arcuata (Log.)	C. kananaskensis (Hod.)	Salix								
C. sibirica (Log.)	C. rufipennis (Hod.)	Salix								
Trioza acutipennis (Zett.)	T. singularis Tut.	Alchemilla, Comarum								
T. urticae (L.)	T. albifrons Crawf.	Urtica								
T. apicalis Först.	T. stygma Tut.	Umbelliferae								
T. curvatinervis Först.	T. incerta Tut.	Salix								

with the plants of the genera Salix and Alnus, although species pairs on Alchemilla/Comarum, Urtica, Umbelliferae and temperate species of Artemisia also occur. The sequence of events leading to their separation appears to be that the parent species crossed through Beringia when climatic conditions were slightly more favourable, prior to the Pleistocene. Subsequent climatic deterioration pushed the species southwards and geographical isolation leading to speciation resulted.

Craspedolepta vancouverensis is especially interesting. It occurs on Artemisia, the same host as C. malachitica, but it also occurs on Achillea millefolium, the normal host of C. nervosa (Först.) in the palaearctic. The latter occurs across the palaearctic from Europe to Eastern Siberia and Japan but has not crossed into the nearctic. This suggests that disjunct host-range extension can occur in the absence of competition from closely related species.

A much earlier wave of migration of species within the genera Aphalara, Craspedolepta (temperate species), Livia, Cacopsylla and Trioza appears to be associated with the somewhat warmer conditions extant in the Oligocene or Miocene, at which time the Beringia flora was cool temperate. Most of these genera are well documented in palaearctic Miocene fossil records. The species groups involved are today generally associated with deciduous forest vegetation types and are widely distributed throughout the holarctic yet still remain coherent groups. This suggests an older common ancestry followed by diversification throughout each region. For instance, the palaearctic Aphalara polygoni Först./borealis H-H/calthae (L.)/longicaudata Sch./sibirica Log. group has its North American counterpart in the A. loca Cald./A. nubifera Patch./nigra Cald./curta Cald./persicaria Cald. complex. Similarly the palaearctic A. exilis W & M/hedeni End. and A. maculipennis Low/itadori (Shinji) groups are close to the nearctic A. rumicus Mally/monticola Hod. and A. manitobaensis Cald./dentata Cald. groups respectively. The family Liviidae (one genus Livia) and the genus Craspedolepta both contain equivalent species groups with apparent common ancestry. Fossil evidence suggests that by the Miocene the genera Cacopsylla and Trioza had undergone wide divergence onto a variety of host plants within the

palaearctic and it is reasonable to assume multiple migration by different groups of these genera, with subsequent proliferation in each region. This phenomenon is best illustrated by the Salix-feeding species in each genus which have undergone wide diversification in each region to form large distinct species groups which nevertheless retain a certain common morphological identity. Similarly certain Cacopsylla which feed on Eleagnaceae show similar divergence. The nearctic C. magnicauda (Crawf.)/tuthilli (Cald.)/stricklandi (Cald.) complex is very close to the palaearctic C. hippophaes (Zett.)/zetterstedti (Thoms.) group.

Cacopsylla tenuata Jensen on Salix and P. carpinicola Crawf. on Carpinus are two species which occur only in Japan and the lower U.S.A. and do not appear to be introduced. These may well be Miocene relict species which have retained their morphological integrity.

Evolutionary links between several groups of temperate *Cacopsylla* and *Trioza* species within the nearctic and palaearctic faunas remain obscure but it is reasonable to assume that their divergence and proliferation probably occurred during Oligocene—Miocene times when climatic conditions were favourable for their development.

A slightly earlier migration during a warmer climatic period, perhaps the late Eocene, is suggested by the distribution of two genera, the Pauropsylline Calophya on Rhus (see earlier) and the Pachypsylline Pachypsylla on Celtis. These two genera are largely concentrated in the warmer temperate forest zones of the eastern palaearctic and the nearctic regions south of Canada. The endemic North American genus Tetragonocephala appears to be an offshoot of Pachypsylla. Although the majority of Pachypsylline genera and species occur in North America, suggesting a nearctic origin, the most primitive lerpforming species Pachypsylla japonica Miyatake occurs in the east palaearctic. This suggests a palaearctic origin.

The endemic nearctic Euphyllurine genera Neophyllura and Leurolophus are possible Eocene derivatives, via a Bering connection, from the Euphyllurine stem which proliferated in the east palaearctic. However, for reasons stated later a trans-Atlantic origin from a Euphyllura line appears most likely.

Thus migration of species associated with Arcto-Tertiary vegetation types through Beringia appears to have played a significant role in the development of the nearctic psyllid fauna. However, it does not explain the origin of many endemic nearctic genera and an alternate origin must be sought.

The residual endemic genera belong to just groups; firstly the Aphalaroidines Aphalaroida on Prosopis, Pithecellobium, Acacia and Mimosa and Paraphalaroida on Fremontia, secondly the Euphyllurines Neophyllura on Arctostaphylos and Arbutus, and Leurolophus on Rhus, and thirdly the Arytainines, Purshivora on Purshia, Pexopsylla on Cercocarpus, Euglyptoneura and Ceanothia on Ceanothus amd Amorphicola on Amorpha. All these genera have their centres of distribution within the warmer more southerly vegetation zones of the nearctic, suggesting that their evolution occurred within such a region. It is significant to note that these three psyllid stocks also form the dominant elements in the faunas of the drier Mediterranean areas of the Western palaearctic. Two possible origins can be postulated for these genera, evolution from a neotropical element and/or evolution from an early Laurasian stock. The evidence suggests the latter.

The Aphalaroidini, with the exception of the primitive Paurocephala and Tainarys Brethes, do not occur in the neotropical region and Aphalaroida and Paraphalaroida have their closest relative in Strophingia, a west palaearctic Mediterranean/Macaronesian genus feeding on Ericaceae. This strongly suggests that these genera can be derived from a common Laurasian stock which existed prior to the separation of the land masses in the mid-Eocene. Certainly Strophingia itself had differentiated by the Oligocene (Enderlein, 1915). Within the Euphyllurines, Neophyllura is morphologically closer to the European Euphyllura than to the east palaearctic genera centred around Syntomoza or the neotropical Katecephala. This again suggests a trans-Atlantic connection.

The origin of the nearctic Arytainine genera is again open to speculation: as possible candidate stock is available in both South America and the palaearctic. The evidence, however, again suggests that the North

American genera are derived from an old Laurasian Arytainine type stock which proliferated within the region rather than from a neotropical Euphalerid type ancestor. In its North American usage the genus Euphalerus is very broad, containing several only distantly related species. The true 'nest making' Euphalerus centred around E. nidifex Schwarz are found only in the extreme south of the nearctic (Russell, 1971). The remaining species, on both host plant and nymphal morphology data, are referable to other groups within the Arytainini and possibly the Euphyllurini. The Arytainine genera Euglyptoneura, Pexopsylla, Ceanothia, Amorphicola and Purshivora form a relatively close group, most probably derived from a common stock. These genera are closer to the old world genera than to extant South American forms vet have retained more primitive Arytainine characters (e.g. open frons, two basal-metatarsal spines) than some of their more highly derived palaearctic counterparts. The genus Amorphicola on Amorpha (Fabaceae) retains a link with the legume-feeding habit of the postulated ancestor, whereas the other genera have moved onto other closely related host plant families, Pexopsylla and Purshivora onto Rosaceae, and Euglyptoneura and Ceanothia onto Rhamnaceae. Wide proliferation of the latter two genera on a large endemic plant genus like Ceanothus (forty known species) suggests a long parallel evolutionary association between the psyllid and its host. Certainly on the evidence of rates of psyllid evolution from elsewhere, the 20 million year time scale obligated by the neotropical origin hypothesis appears far too short. All other nearctic genera of neotropical origin have not proliferated and are usually confined to an extreme southern distribution.

Further evidence for the Laurasian origin of the endemic genera is provided by the known history of the Madro-tertiary flora of the southwestern U.S.A. which began its development possibly as early as the late Cretaceous (Raven, 1973). Plant communities of a Mediterranean type containing the host plants Acacia, Amorpha, Arctostaphylos, Ceanothus, Cercocarpus, Fremontia, Pithecellobium, Prosopis and Rhus had already differentiated by the Miocene (Axelrod,

1973). In discussing the origin of the California Mediterranean type vegetation Axelrod concluded that 'the close similarities between the mid-Cretaceous floras of southern Europe and the central U.S.A. must have been due to east—west connections which have since been removed by sea floor spreading'.

It is interesting to speculate that, in the absence of competition from *Cacopsylla* species during the initial stages of their evolution, the nearctic Arytainines were able to transfer onto the Rosaceae and Rhamnaceae, the normal *Cacopsylla* host plants.

In conclusion, the development of the nearctic psyllid fauna can be traced through several phases. First, the development of a common fauna with the western palaearctic followed by the final separation of the two regions in the mid-Eocene with the residual faunas continuing their development in situ. Secondly, successive waves of immigration through the Beringian region in response to climatic changes which continued up until about 13 000 years BP. Finally, small-scale immigration into the southern regions from the neotropical kingdom subsequent to their joining in the Miocene (20 million years BP).

Discussion

Within the holarctic region the main centres of psyllid diversification, each with their own highly characteristic fauna, are the Mediterranean basin, the steppe/deserts of Central Asia, the east palaearctic forests and the desert/Californian region of south-western North America. In contrast, the characteristic faunas of the deciduous forest zones of the Old and New World are simpler and share the same major elements in common. The faunas of the arctic and boreal forest zones appear to be derived by reduction from the deciduous forest fauna and several species exhibit an holarctic distribution. There is evidence to indicate penetration of the southern nearctic by neotropical genera and the southern palaearctic by Ethiopian and Oriental genera.

At the generic level there is close correlation between the holarctic floral kingdoms recognized by Takhtajan (1969) and Good (1974) and the main centres of psyllid diversi-

fication. This is not surprising in view of the close association between psyllids and their host plants. Nevertheless, the insect and plant data are complementary and thus mutually supportive.

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SUPER-FAMILY PSYLLOIDEA Burm.

Family	Subfamily	Tribe	Genus	Distribution	Host plants
APHALARIDAE	Aphalaroidinae Vond.	Rhinocolini Vond.	* Rhinocola Först.	P	Acer (Aceraceae)
		Euphyllurini B.M.	Euphyllura Först.	P, E, O	Olea, Phillyrea (Oleaceae)
			* Syntomoza Enderl.	P	Myroxylon (Fabaceae)
			* Megadicrania Log.	P	?
			* Syringilla Log.	P	Syringa (Oleaceae)
			* Ligustrinia Log.	P	Ligustrum (Oleaceae)
			Neophyllura Log.	N	Arctostaphylos, Arbutus (Ericaceae)
			* Leurolophus Tut.	N	Rhus (Anacardiaceae)
			Katecephala Crawf.	N, NO	?
		Aphalaroidini B.M.	Agonoscena Enderl.	P, E, O	<i>Peganum, Ruta, Pistacia</i> (Zygophyllaceae, Rutaceae, Anacardiaceae)
			Aphorma Hod,	P	?
			Strophingia Enderl.	P	Calluna, Erica (Ericaceae)
			Camarotoscena Enderl.	P, E	Populus (Salicaceae)
			* Lisronia	P [']	Cistus (Cistaceae)
			Aphalaroida Crawf.	N	Prosopis, Pithecellobium, Acacia, Mimosa (Mimosaceae)
			Heteropsylla Crawf.	N. NO	Mimosa, Pithecellobium, Prosopis, Acacia, Quassia (Mimosaceae)
			* Paraphalaroida Log.	N	Fremontia (Bombaceae)
			Paurocephala Crawf.	P, E, O, NO, A, P N	Ficus (Moraceae)
		Pachypsyllodini Log.	Pachypsylloides Bergev.	P	Calligonum (Polygonaceae)
		. ac., po, nount Deg.	Acaerus Log.	P	Calligonum (Polygonaceae)
			Eremopsylloides Log.	P	Calligonum (Polygonaceae)
		Diaphorinini Vond.	Diaphorina Löw	P, O, E, A	Lycium, Convolvulus, Zygophyllum, Clutia, Salvadora (Solanaceae, Convolvulaceae, Zygophyllaceae, Euphorbiaceae, Salvadoraceae)

	Aphalarinae Löw	Aphalarini Vond.	Aphalara Först.	P, N, O	Polygonum, Rumex, Caltha (Polygonaceae, Helleboraceae)
			Craspedolepta Enderl.	P, N	Asteraceae and Onagraceae, several genera
			Brachystetha Log. * Xanioptera Enderl. Gyropsylla Breth.? Epheloscyta Log.	P P N, NO, A P	Nitraria (Zygophyllaceae) Artemisia (Asteraceae) Ilex (Aquifoleaceae) ?
		Xenaphalarini Log.	* Xenaphalara Log. Eurotica Log.	P P	Ceratocarpus (Chenopodiaceae) Eurotia (Chenopodiaceae)
		Caillardiini Log.	Caillardia Bergev. * Eumetoecus Log.	P P	Anabasis, Haloxylon (Chenopodiaceae) Kochia, Camphorosoma
			Rhodoclanis Log.	P	(Chenopodiaceae) Suaeda, Salsola, Pterosimonia, Salicornia (Chenopodiaceae)
			Rhombaphalara Log.	P	Halocnemum (Chenopodiaceae)
		Colposceniini Log.	Colposcenia Enderl. Crastina Log.	P, E, O P, E	Tamarix (Tamaricaceae) Myricaria, Tamarix (Tamaricaceae)
LIVIIDAE			Livia Ltr.	P, N, O	Carex, Juncus (Cyperaceae, Juncaceae)
PSYLLIDAE	Ciriacreminae End.	Anomoneurini B.M.	Anomoneura Schwarz	P	Morus (Moraceae)
	Arytaininae Crawf.	Arytainini Vond.	Alloeoneura Löw Amblyrhina Löw Arytaina Först, sensu stricto	P P P	Cytisus (Fabaceae) Genista (Fabaceae) Cytisus, Adenocarpus, Genista (Fabaceae)
			* Astragilita Log. Floria Löw	P P	Astragalus (Fabaceae) Genista, Retama, Cytisus, Ulex, Labumum (Fabaceae)
			Livilla Curt. Arytainilla Log. Cyamophila Log.	P P P	Ulex, Genista (Fabaceae) Cytisus, Genista (Fabaceae) Caranga, Glycyrrhiza, Astragalus
			Acizzia H.H. * Pseudacanthopsylla Samy		(Fabaceae) Acacia, Albizia (Mimosaceae) Retama (Fabaceae)
			Euglyptoneura H-H Purshivora H-H	N N	Ceanothus (Rhamnaceae) Purshia (Rosaceae)
			Amorphicola H-H	N	Amorpha (Fabaceae)
			Ceanothia H-H * Pexopsylla Jensen	N N	Ceanothus (Rhamnaceae) Cercocarpus (Rosaceae)

SUPER-FAMILY PSYLLOIDEA Burm. (cont.)

Family	Subfamily	Tribe	Genus	Distribution	Host plants
	Euphale Psyllops Pachyps Psyllini E Homotominae B.M. Homoto Pauropsyllinae Crawf. Paurops Calophy Triozinae Löw Triozini	Euphalerini B.M.	Euphalerus Schwarz	P, N, O, A, E NO, PN	In nearctic Piscidia (Fabaceae) In palaearctic Gleditsia & Caesalpina (Caesalpiniaceae)
			Metapyslla Kuw.	P	Gleditsia (Caesalpinia ceae)
		Psyllopsiini B.M.	Psyllopsis Löw	P	Fraxinus (Oleaceae)
		Pachypsyllini B.M.	Pachypsylla Riley * Tetragonocephala Crawf.	N, P, O N	Celtis (Ulmaceae) ?
	Psyllinae Löw	Psyllini B.M.	Psylla Geoff. Cacopsylla Oss. (sensu Klimaszewski, 1975)	P, N, O P, N, O	Alnus, Betula (Betulaceae) Many families incl. Rosaceae, Rhamnaceae, Salicaceae, etc.
			* Spanioneura Först.	P, O	Buxus (Buxaceae)
CARSIDARIDAE	Homotominae B.M.	Homotomini H.H.	Homo toma Guerin	P, O, A	Ficus (Moraceae)
	Pauropsyllinae Crawf.	Pauropsyllini Vond.	Pauropsylla Rubs. * Togepsylla Kuw.	P, E, O, E P, O	Ficus (Moraceae) Litsea (Lauraceae)
		Calophyini Log.	Calophya Löw	P, A, O, N, NO	Rhus (Anacardiaceae)
TRIOZIDAE	Trio∞inae Löw	Triozini B.M.	Egeirotrioza Bos. Trioza Först. sensu lato	P, O P, N, etc.	Populus (Salicaceae) Several plant families, esp. Asteraceae, Salicaceae, etc.
			Paratrioza Crawf.	P, N	Lycium, Lavatera, Solanum (Solanaceae, Malvaceae)
TRIOZIDAE			Eryngiofaga Klim.	P	Eryngium (Apiaceae)
			Epitrioza Kuw. Kuwayama Crawf.	P N, NO, O, PN	Eleagnus (Eleagnaceae) Lavatera (Malvaceae) & Asteraceae
			Ceropsylla Riley	N, NO, A, O	Sideroxylon, Olmediella, Ocotea, Perse (Sapotaceae, Lauraceae)
			* Hemitrioza Crawf.	N	Sonchus (Asteraceae)
		Eutriozini B.M.	Eutrioza Log. Trichochermes Kirk.	P P, O, E	Pinus? Rhamnus, Frangula (Rhamnaceae)
		Bactericerini H.H.	Bactericera Put.	P	Artemisia (Asteraceae)
Trio zid /Carsidarid g	genera not placed in tribes				
			* Engytatoneura Log. Rhinopsylla Riley Leuronota Crawf. * Levidea Tut. * Metatrioza Tut. Neotriozella Crawf.	P N, NO, O N, NO, O, PN N N, NO N, A	? Persicaria (Polygonaceae) Celtis (Ulmaceae) Parthenium (Asteraceae) ?

APPENDIX 2. Basic distribution matrix of the holarctic psyllid genera across the eighteen recognized floral kingdoms

	Palaearctic tundra	W. palaearctic conif. forest	E. palaearctic conif. forest	W. palaearctic decid. forest	E. palaearctic mixed forest	Mediterranean	Macronesian	Palaearctic steppe/desert	Nearctic tundra	Greenland	Nearctic conif. forest	Nearctic E. decid. forest	Nearctic mountains	Nearctic Pacific rainforest	Nearctic prairies	Nearctic desert	Nearctic California	Nearctic S.E. subtropical
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Acaerus	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Acizzia	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Alloeoneura	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Alloeneura	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Amblyrhina	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Amorphicola	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0
Anomoneura	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Aphalara	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Aphalaroida	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
Aphorma	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Arytaina	0 0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0
Arytainilla Astragilita	0	0	0	1 0	0	1 0	1 0	0 1	0	0	0	0 0	0	0	0	0 0	0	0
Bactericera	0	0	o	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Brachystetha	0	o	o	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Ö	0	o	0
Cacopsylla	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Caillardia	ō	ō	0	ō	ō	1	ō	1	0	0	ō	ō	ō	ō	0	ō	ō	ō
Calophya	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	Ö	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
Camarotoscena	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	ō	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ceanothia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
Ceropsylla	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Colposcenia	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Craspedolepta	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
Crastina	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cyamo phila	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Diaphorina	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Egeirotrioza Engytatoneura	0 0	0	0	0	0	1 1	0 0	1 0	0	0	0	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Epheloscyta	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Epitrio za	0	Ö	Õ	Ö	1	0	Ö	Ö	0	Ö	0	Ö	0	0	0	0	0	Ö
Eremopsylloides	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	o	0	0	0	ō	0	ō	0	ō	0
Eryingiofaga	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	o	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Euglyptoneura	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	Õ	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0
Eumetoecus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Euphalerus	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
Euphyllura	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eurotica	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eutrioza	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Floria	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Gyropsylla	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Hemitrioza Heteropsylla	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Homotoma	0 0	0	0	0	0	0 1	0 0	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 0	1	0	0
Katecephala	0	0	0	1 0	1 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Katecephaia Kuwayama	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1 0
Leurolophus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Leuronota	0	0	o	0	0	0	o	0	0 0	o	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1

APPENDIX 2.

			+:	st	st													
	Palaearctic tundra	W. palaearctic conif. forest	E. palaearctic conif. forest	W. palaearctic decid, forest	E. palaearctic mixed forest	Mediterranean	Macronesian	Palaearctic steppe/desert	Nearctic tundra	Greenland	Nearctic conif. forest	Nearctic E. decid. forest	Nearctic mountains	Nearctic Pacific rainforest	Nearctic prairies	Nearctic desert	Nearctic California	Nearctic S.E. subtropical
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Levidea	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Ligustrinia	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lisronia	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Livia	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
Livilla	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Megadicrania	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Metapsylla	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Metatrioza	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Neophyllura	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
Neotrio zella	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
Pachypsylla	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0
Pachypsylloides	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Paraphalaroida	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Paratrio za	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Paurocephala	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pauropsylla	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Pexopsylla	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Pseudacanthopsylla	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Psylla	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0
Psyllopsis	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Purshivora	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
Rhinocola	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rhinopsylla	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Rhodoclanis	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rhombaphalara	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Spanioneura	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Strophingia	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Syntomoza	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Syringilla	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tetragonocephala	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Togepsylla	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trichochermes	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Trioza	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1 0	1	1	1 0	1	1	1 0
Xanioptera	0	0	0	0	0	1 0	0	1	0	0	0		0	0		0	0	0
Xenaphalara	0	0	0	0	0	U	0	1	0	0	0	0	U	0	0	U	0	U
Total	4	8	5	24	20	36	12	32	4	2	8	12	14	10	17	18	16	10

Corrigendum

Hodkinson, I.D. (1980) Present-day distribution patterns of the holarctic Psylloidea (Homoptera: Insecta) with particular reference to the origin of the nearctic fauna. J. Biogeogr. 7, 127-146.

The printers and publishers regret that a correction line was misplaced: in Appendix 2 (page 145) the third and fourth entries should read 'Agonoscena' and 'Alloeoneura'.