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Order ANSERIFORMES

Medium-sized to large aquatic, marine and terrestrial birds. Three families: (1) Anhimidae (screamers), (2) Anseranatidae (Magpie Goose) and (3) Anatidae (true wildfowl); Screamers confined to South America, Magpie Goose confined to Aust. and New Guinea, and rest cosmopolitan. Suggestion that the order is distantly related to Phoenicopteriformes and Ciconiiformes (see Sibley & Ahlquist 1972) now seems unlikely. Claims for some anatomical similarities with gamebirds such as Cracidae, suggesting distant affinity with Galliformes via Anhimidae and Anseranatidae (Simonetta 1963; Johnsgard 1968; Bock 1969), strongly rejected by Olson & Feduccia (1980).

All members of the Anseriformes are web-footed (in some semi-palmate) swimming (some now almost terrestrial) and diving birds that are filter-feeders or are derived from aquatic filter-feeders. They differ from Galliformes in almost every anatomical feature (see Olson & Feduccia 1980). The unique filter-feeding mechanism is diagnostic of the order. Two groups of filter-feeding birds probably evolved from some charadriiform origin; in one, the specialized mechanisms for filtering evolved in the lower mandible (flamingoes); in the other, the upper mandible housed the specialized tongue used to provide the pump-action for filtering. The complex structure of the bill and its operation during filter-feeding in a typical duck has been investigated recently (Zweers 1974; Zweers et al. 1977; Kooloos 1986; Kooloos & Zweers 1989; Kooloos et al. 1989). Sensory apparatus of the bill associated with this filtering function is likewise complex (Berkhoudt 1980). The typical bill, representing the fundamental apparatus unique to the order, acts as a double-action suction-pump in which fluid is drawn in at the tip and expelled past filter plates at the sides and rear. The tongue and internal shape of the bill provide the elaborate piston effects and the lamellae or fine plates, common to all members of the order, act as the sieves. Lamellae trap the food, which is then brushed free and swallowed by the combined actions of tongue and lamellae. Vestigial lamellae occur in screamers (Olson & Feduccia 1980). Filtering is the original feeding method and departures from it towards adaptations for grazing in geese, serrated edges for catching fish in 'saw-billed' ducks (mergansers and allies) or superficially fowl-like bill of screamers, are all derived features (Olson & Feduccia 1980). Anhimidae, however, being extralimital, are not considered further.

The innovative modern classification of the ducks, geese and swans, and the systematic order proposed by Delacour & Mayr (1945, 1946) and Delacour (1954–64), was modified by Johnsgard (e.g. 1965a, 1968) in the light of further studies, particularly on behaviour and social signals, and new information on little known species. Woolfenden (1961) and Livezey (1986) have prepared phylogenetic analyses of the order based on morphological characters, and the classification by Livezey has been followed by some recent works (e.g. Madge & Burn 1988). Madsen et al. (1988) provide important additional information from DNA studies and give a partial classification of the order. We have adopted the classification of Johnsgard in Peters with some modification concerning only those species within our area. Our reasons for these changes are as follows but the arrangement of species fits closely the proposed classification of the order given by Sibley et al. (1988) and Madsen et al. (1988). The arrangement is consistent with the persuasive argument presented by Olson & Feduccia (1980) concerning the origin and evolution of the order. The fossil *Presbyornis* (Eocene; North America) and the endemic *Stictonetta* (Freckled Duck) and *Malacorhynchus* (Pink-eared Duck) of Aust. have special significance in this respect (see

Olson & Feduccia 1980).

Special features of Stictonetta are: reticulated anterior face of tarsus; lack of a syringeal bulla; no speculum; unpatterned downy young (see Frith 1964a,b). Structure of the trachea and syrinx described by Ramsey (1878) and in more detail by Campbell (1889) and in Campbell demonstrate the lack of any development of a swollen bulla in drake. Claim by Frith (1964a, 1965, 1967, 1982) that tracheal loop occurs in mature drake is unconfirmed in many hundreds of birds examined (G.F. van Tets). Long neck. Uropygeal wax esters like those of some swans (Edkins & Hansen 1972) but chemotaxonomy difficult to interpret because similarities also shown with Cereopsis, Branta, Cairina, Tadorna, Mergus and Melanitta (Jacob & Glaser 1975). Brush (1976) has shown that the featherproteins are unique. Verheyen (1953) on skeletal characters (cranial & post-cranial) concluded that it was sufficiently distinct to be separated from other waterfowl. Clearly it shows a large number of 'primitive' characters. Olson & Feduccia (1980) emphasize several feature of the cranium that are unique in living ducks: the markedly recurved rostrum and mandible and the expanded lachrymal. Livezey (1986), largely from osteological characters, supports traditional conclusions that it is the last branch of the waterfowl with reticulate tarsi and places it after the geese and swans. Faith (1989) has shown that many of these skeletal characters might be explained on divergence between diving, dabbling and grazing adaptations. Recent DNA studies (Madsen et al. 1988) lend some support to an earlier suggestion, based on behaviour and some morphological features, of possible similarity with Oxyurinae (Johnsgard 1965b). Fullagar et al. (in press) add support to idea that Stictonetta has several behavioural similarities with stiff-tails. The uniqueness of this species has been widely supported, but in the past the absence of information about its behaviour and ecology ensured that it remained doubtful to which other group of wildfowl it was most closely related. Many of these deficiencies have now been resolved (see text elsewhere) and the argument for a link with stiff-tails has become more compelling. Plumages, social signals and vocalizations are all in some way most readily comparable to Oxyura and Biziura but specially to Heteronetta. A seasonally colourful bill in the male most closely matches the condition found in Heteronetta but also in most stiff-tails; sequence of moults follow unusual pattern found in at least some, if not all, stiff-tails but not known in other wildfowl, notably the presence of a post-juvenile moult including wings. Many characteristics of breeding biology (nest-construction and choice of site; small clutch-size; predisposition to dump laying; appearance and quantity of down used in lining nest; unpatterned ducklings) are features shared with most stiff-tails. In particular the unusual copulation involving greatly elongated pseudopenis is most closely comparable with features shown only by stiff-tails.

Major recommended works of reference are: Comprehensive accounts: Delacour (1954-64); Todd (1979); Phillips (1922-26) [ducks]; Scott (1972) [swans]; Owen (1980) [geese]. Regional accounts: Palmer (1976) [Nearctic]; BWP [w. Palaearctic]; Bauer & Glutz von Blotzheim (1968-69) [Europe]; Frith (1982) [Aust.]. Field guides: Scott (1988); Madge & Burn (1988). Special studies: Hochbaum (1955, 1973) and Sowls (1955) [migration and habits]; Johnsgard (1965a) [complete review of behaviour]; Hochbaum (1944); Driver (1974) and Kear & Berger (1980) [species monographs].

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Family ANATIDAE wildfowl

Waterbirds (some more or less terrestrial) with rather short legs and front toes connected by webs; hallux elevated and reduced. Though considerable adaptive diversity in outward appearance, size, colours of plumage, behaviour, and ecology, homogeneous in many characters, as attested by numerous, often fertile, interspecific hybrids reported, chiefly in captivity (see Gray 1958). About 160 species in six sub-families: (1) Dendrocygninae (whistling-ducks); (2) Oxyurinae (stiff-tails and Freckled Duck); (3) Anserinae (swans and geese); (4) Tadorninae (shelducks, sheldgeese and steamer-ducks); (5) Anatinae (dabbling ducks and allies); (6) Merginae (eiders, scoters,

mergansers and allies).

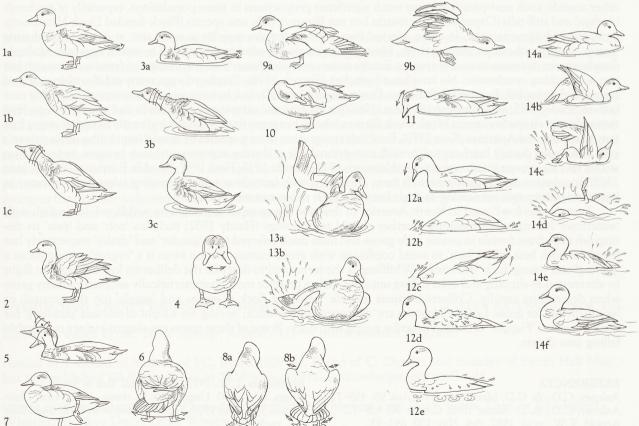
Body, broad and rather elongated in many, though more rotund in some, especially diving species. Plumage, thick and waterproof; contour-feathers distributed over distinct feather-tracts with underlying coat of down. Neck, medium to long. Wings generally rather small; mostly pointed, fairly broad in many, but narrower in some highly migratory species. Small claws on first and second digits occur in most. Spurs-horny sheathed bonesoccur in several species as projections near carpal joint; attached either to radial carpal or the metacarpal. Wingspurs are found in the Tadorninae and Sarkidiornis, Plectopterus and Merganetta in the Anatinae. Eleven primaries; p9 nearly always longest, p11 minute. Wide range in number of secondaries, from 12 to 24, innermost (tertials) often long and brightly coloured; diastataxic. Many species, particularly in Tadorninae, Anatinae and Merginae have a specialized, contrastingly coloured patch (speculum) on upper surface of inner wing, important for sexual and social signalling. Most fly fast and have large, high-keeled sternum. Tail, short and square or slightly rounded in most; long in some diving species (serving as rudder), pointed or with elongated central feathers in some others. Tail-feathers, 14-24 but varying even in single species. Bills show much adaptive variation but typically of medium length, broad, often flattened centrally and distally but high at base, and rounded at tip with horny nail at tip, producing slight terminal hook; covered with soft skin. Edges of mandibles with rows of lamellae, showing different development in various ecological types and taxonomic groups; most highly specialized in surface plankton-feeders, least so in species (such as scoters Melanitta) that swallow molluscs whole. Tongue, thick and fleshy; epithelium covered with papillae and horny spines. Lower part of tibia and tarsus bare; front toes connected by webs (reduced in a few species), hind toe elevated. Gait, striding or waddling. Oil gland, feathered. Aftershaft, reduced or absent. Special intromittent copulatory organ present in males; vascularized sac everted from wall of cloaca, protruded by muscular action; facilitates sexing by examination (Hochbaum 1942), even of small young. Salt-secreting nasal glands subject to adaptive variation in size, even in same species; enlarged in forms inhabiting saltwater or brackish habitats, modifying profile of head considerably. In many species, males have remarkably lengthened, bent, or locally widened trachea forming resonating tubes; also syringo-bronchial sound-boxes (bullae), either fully ossified or with membranous fenestrae. These vocal structures highly characteristic of species or larger taxonomic units (see Eyton 1838 and, especially, Johnsgard 1961, 1971). Considerable diversity in types of plumage: male and female similar, nearly similar, or show extreme sexual dimorphism. In all species, except some sheldgeese, flight-feathers moulted simultaneously, producing period of flightlessness lasting 3-4 weeks. Two body-moults per cycle. Young precocial and nidifugous, covered with thick down; pattern often cryptic and characteristic of taxonomic groups within sub-families. Able to swim soon after hatching.

Cosmopolitan, but absent from continental Antarctica and some islands. Usually on or close to water. Highly vulnerable to human pressures on habitats. Labrador duck Camptorhynchus labradorius extinct during last century, and three more (Crested Shelduck Tadorna cristata, Pink-headed Duck Rhodonessa caryophyllacea, Auckland Merganser Mergus australis) probably so this century. A few species domesticated: Swan Goose Anser cygnoides, Greylag Goose A. anser, Muscovy Duck Cairina moschata, and Mallard Anas platyrhynchos (Goodwin 1965); some populations of a few more (Mute Swan Cygnus olor, Canada Goose Branta canadensis, Egyptian

Goose Alopochen aegyptiacus) kept in semi-domesticated or feral conditions.

N. forms often highly migratory and tied to Arctic or high latitudes for breeding, exploiting brief but productive period each year to raise young; for many of these species autumn movements preceded by marked moult-migrations by males to special areas for period of flightlessness. More sedentary in warmer latitudes, specially in equatorial regions. The term 'boreal' for these n. wildfowl is useful to draw attention to the marked differences between the breeding ecology of n. high-latitude wildfowl compared with many s. hemisphere species for which the term 'austral' has been used (Fullagar et al. 1988). In general, most austral species are more sedentary and certainly lack spectacular migrations. Regular movements in most s. hemisphere species are at best only local. Occasional much wider dispersal is often initiated by factors such as flooding rains and drought (specially in Aust.). Many austral ducks exploit seasonally persistent or occasional, extremely propitious conditions by responding with an extended breeding season. In reality, most are seasonal breeders but productivity of some will vary greatly according to rainfall and flooding; most notable with many species in Aust. For further details see Fullagar et al. (1988).

Wide range in diet, from totally vegetable to totally animal, and in feeding habits, from terrestrial grazing to bottom diving; correlated with conspicuous adaptations in structure of bill, musculature of head, length of neck, and in general proportions of body. Terminology of feeding methods in species accounts mainly after Sziji (1965) and Bauer & Glutz (1968, 1969); see also Olney (1963). Typical filtering action of most members of the order, described earlier, best termed 'suzzling'. Most species gregarious, feeding, loafing, roosting, and travelling in cohesive flocks, integrated by calls and special pre-flight signals. Generally solitary breeders nesting in concealed sites, though some species colonial, either habitually or, more often, as alternative to dispersed nesting, usually in protected areas such as islands. Degree of territorialism when breeding and relation between territory and nestsite vary between species and larger taxa; some strictly territorial; others occupy wholly or largely undefended home-ranges. Monogamous pair-bond in most species but much variation between taxonomic groups in duration of bond and degree of male promiscuity (if any). Social systems and displays correlated with formation and maintenance of pairs; complex (see classic work of Lorenz 1951-53) and largely dissimilar in six sub-families (see below). Copulation on water in all species (except some Anserinae and Tadorninae), typically with male grasping female's nape in bill. Vocalizations varied but generally simple (mainly honks, grunts, quacks, coos, and whistles); often different between sexes when linked with anatomical differences in vocal apparatuses (syringeal bullae). Non-vocal sound-signals produced in some species. Calls of downy young are: (1) Contact or Greeting Call (also termed Pleasure and Contentment Call) and (2) Distress Call (see Kear 1968). Comfort-behaviour well known. Bathing frequent and elaborate. Typically performed while swimming in water too deep for standing; involves head-dipping, wing-thrashing, somersaulting, and diving. Followed by oiling (with use of bill and head) and preening. Full description of comfort movements, the behaviour patterns of shaking, stretching, preening, bathing and related activities given by McKinney (1965). The diagrams (Figs 1 to 14) based on those from McKinney illustrate most of these actions, all of which are common to all wildfowl. Some essentially aquatic species (genera Thalassornis, Oxyura and Biziura) have other, slightly specialized, preening and shaking actions peculiar to them because they are performed on water. No elaborate thermoregulatory responses except erection of feathers. Other behavioural characters are: (1) direct head-scratching; (2) resting, often on one leg, with head



Figs 1–14. Comfort movements of Anatidae (based on Grey Teal): (1a-c) Body-shake; (2) Wing-shake; (3a-c) Swimming-shake; (4) Head-shake; (5) Head-flick; (6) Tail-wag; (7) Foot-shake; (8a,b) Wing-shuffle and tail-fan; (9a) Wing-and-leg Stretch; (9b) Both-wing Stretch; (10) Foot-pecking; (11) Bill-cleaning; (12a-e) Head-dipping; (13a,b) Wing-thrashing (14a-f) Somersaulting.

turned back and bill inserted in scapulars on same side as lifted leg (Heinroth & Heinroth 1954), latter being

characteristically stowed away in waterproof flank 'pocket'.

Breeding strictly seasonal in boreal, migratory species and populations; less so or opportunistic at warmer latitudes. For most wildfowl, censuses of breeding numbers extremely difficult. Although breeding habitat and nest-sites show considerable diversity, nests usually placed over water or on or near ground. Well hidden in vegetation or sometimes concealed in other dark places such as burrows and tree holes (or nest-boxes); some species also use old nests of other birds or cliff ledges. Often near water but some species may at times nest far away from it. Nests made only of vegetation, or other materials, within reach of sitting bird, using side-building method (see Harrison 1967). In spite of limited scope of this method materials are often collected from large area by repeated movements of this form. Nest usually lined with down plucked from female's belly (often cryptic and grown specially for this purpose). Value of down for insulation and for concealing nest examined for arctic geese by Thompson & Raveling (1988). Eggs, large, immaculate; surfaces greasy. Clutches often large. Regulation of clutch-size in Anatidae has been the subject of much investigation in n. hemisphere (Rohwer 1984, 1988), but has received little attention in s. Proximate (physiological and psychological [Lack 1974]) factors that may regulate clutch-size include availability of food, condition of birds, weather, age or experience of the breeding birds, ability to incubate, and, of the female, to acquire resources for production of eggs, time of breeding, hormonal levels and interactions between two or more of these (Bengston 1971; Johnsgard 1973; Braithwaite 1977; Ankney & MacInnes 1978; Drent & Daan 1980; Duncan 1987; Ankney & Afton 1988; Kingsford 1989; Briggs 1990). Ultimate (evolutionary [Lack 1974]) factors that may regulate clutch-size are availability of food, condition of birds, length of breeding season, weather, predation and viability of eggs, ability to incubate and rear brood, time of breeding, trade-offs between annual reproductive effort and residual reproductive value, and interactions between two or more of these (Williams 1966; Lack 1967; Ryder 1970; Johnsgard 1973; Braithwaite 1977; Pellis & Pellis 1982; Toft et al. 1984; Lessells 1986; Arnold et al. 1987; Briggs 1990). Both proximate and ultimate factors can act together to influence clutch-size. Eggs laid at intervals of 24 h in most species but longer in some. Clutch covered by down in most species during recess of adult. Some species may lay some or all of their eggs in nests of other anatids; such nest-parasitism may reach significant proportions in some populations, especially of pochards (Aythya) and stiff-tails (Oxyura and Stictonetta but not Biziura); only one species (Black-headed Duck Heteronetta atricapilla) obligate parasite. In some species, two or more females may lay at same site, at extreme producing 'dump' of eggs without incubating them. Most species single-brooded but many will re-nest if eggs lost. Multiple clutches more common in austral species. Except some species of Anserinae, incubation by female; starts with last egg; so hatching synchronic. No true brood-patches (Skutch 1976). Displaced eggs retrieved if within reach of sitting bird, using bill. Eggshells left in nest. Downy young typically led, but not carried, to water after leaving nest but see Sowls (1955) and Johnsgard & Kear (1968) for exceptional carrying of eggs, shells and young. Young feed themselves in all species except Musk Duck Biziura lobata, but some food provided indirectly in earlier stages by a few Anserinae and Anatinae (Kear 1970). Establish recognition of own species by special imprinting upon parent's calls and image during brief critical period; exceptionally (e.g. during experiments) may become imprinted on wrong species or even inanimate objects (Heinroth 1911; Lorenz 1935; Hess 1957; Boyd & Fabricius 1965; Schutz 1965). Incubation and fledgling periods vary, correlated with latitude at which breeding takes place; shorter in boreal migratory species nesting in high latitudes with short summer season.

Term 'waterfowl' used in North America to describe the group is restricted by 'wildfowl' in English with 'waterfowl' having wider meaning. Further special terminology (Hardy 1952) includes 'cob' and 'pen' to distinguish male from female in swans; male goose and male duck referred to as 'gander' and 'drake' respectively but female in both best called 'hen' to avoid confusion with group names. Young swan is a 'cygnet'; young goose a 'gosling' and young duck 'duckling'. 'Whiffling' is the term used to describe the deliberate loss of height in flight by alternate side-slipping and even rolling onto the back; a practice most characteristically adopted by many geese when descending rapidly. Collective names include 'herd' for flock of swans and 'gaggle' (on the ground) or 'skein' (flying) for geese. Less well known are 'dropping' for shelduck; 'spring' for a flight of teal and 'paddling' for duck on water. 'Flapper' is used to describe young wild duck. Some of these terms are elegant but are regrettably

falling into disuse.

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Sub-family ANATINAE ducks

Small to fairly large wildfowl. Tarsi scutellate in front. Marked sexual dimorphism in plumage and structure of syrinx in most species; correlated with sexual differences in visual displays and voice. About 70 species, composing four main groups: (1) so called 'perching ducks' and allies; (2) Torrent Duck (polytypic species in genus Merganetta, South America); (3) typical dabbling ducks (very large genus Anas and monotypic Marmaronetta)

and (4) pochards (Netta, Aythya and extinct Rhodonessa).

Trachea of male usually with bony, asymmetrical bulla on left side of syrinx. Double annual moult in both sexes, resulting in two recognizable plumages. These usually closely similar and cryptic in females, though nonbreeding plumage usually duller. Breeding plumage of male of many species in temperate regions elaborate and colourful ('bright'), contrasting with sombre and cryptic non-breeding plumage (eclipse) usually worn for short period in boreal species, during and following flightless period and post-breeding moult and resembling plumages of females and juveniles. Loss of bright plumage in some austral species much more complex. Wing typically brightly coloured in both sexes, often with metallic speculum on greater coverts and secondaries, which contrasts with colourful median and lesser wing-coverts or tertials; this pattern maintained all year, wing being moulted only once. As a rule, juvenile plumage resembles female plumage, but juveniles separable by tail-feathers (notched tip with bare shaft protruding) and by narrower, shorter, and more pointed body-feathers and wing coverts. Juvenile body-plumage moulted within a few months of hatching (3-4 months). In some species breeding in first year, this plumage involves growth of only a few new feathers and is quickly replaced by breeding plumage; in others that defer breeding until second year, immature plumage more complete and retained longer, being only gradually replaced by breeding plumage during whole first year of life. In all, juvenile wing retained until first complete moult in summer of second calendar year, although tertials often and some wing-coverts sometimes replaced earlier.

TERMINOLOGY OF PLUMAGES. Bright (breeding) male plumage of most duck species (often termed 'nuptial' in ornithological literature and more accurately 'alternate'; see Humphrey & Parkes 1959; Humphrey & Clark 1964) usually worn for much of year when birds not actually breeding, including autumn and winter when pair-bonds initiated and maintained until nesting in spring (see below). Thus, males often attain non-breeding plumage (basic) soon after start of nesting when their reproductive activities (but not those of females) are over. In females, though timing of both moults tends to correspond roughly with those of males, also subject to adaptive variation. In many species, post-breeding moult of females more protracted, with greater individual variation in timing, particularly in successfully breeding females; moult usually inhibited during nesting, starting 1–2 months later than in males. Females of some species (e.g. some dabbling ducks) start moult shortly before nesting and therefore incubate and rear young in basic plumage. Although such females in fact nest

in 'non-breeding' plumage, terminology sometimes maintained for reasons of homology.

Perching ducks and aberrant species

Small to fairly large wildfowl, usually living in well-wooded areas, most freely perch in trees, and often nest in holes high above ground. Some semi-terrestrial. Highly diversified group of 19 species in 15 mainly monotypic genera, often showing striking convergences with other Anatidae and some regarded now as more properly assigned to other sub-families, specially Tadorninae. Most are here retained in Anatinae following Johnsgard (1965) and Peters. Two groups: (1) more generalized genera *Plectropterus* (Spur-winged Goose in Ethiopian Africa), Cairina (Muscovy Duck of neotropical America; White-winged Wood Duck of se. Asia), *Pteronetta* (Hartlaub's Duck of Africa), and *Sarkidiornis* (Comb Duck of South America, Ethiopian Africa, s. Asia); (2) more specialized genera *Nettapus* (three pygmy-geese of central Africa, India to Aust.), *Callonetta* (Ringed Teal of South America), *Aix* (Carolina Duck *A. sponsa* of North America and Mandarin *A. galericulata* of e. Asia), *Chenonetta* (Maned Duck of Aust.), and *Amazonetta* (Brazilian Teal of South America). Also considered here are two very specialized A'asian genera *Malacorhynchus* (Pink-eared Duck of Aust.) and *Hymenolaimus* (Blue Duck of NZ) and *Merganetta* (Torrent Duck of South America) and *Salvadorina* (Salvadori's Duck of New Guinea). Five species in our region.

Wings, often wide and rounded; bony, spur-like knob on metacarpal joint in some. Tails, fairly broad and elongated; slightly graduated but not pointed. Bill, rather thick and goose-like, not depressed, often heavy; large nail; highly specialized structures in *Malacorhynchus* and *Hymenolaimus*. Hind toe well developed, not lobed, and claws strong and sharp at all ages; legs set far forward, tarsus usually short (especially in *Nettapus*), but longer in some (especially semi-terrestrial *Plectropterus*). Usually do not dive, but *Hymenolaimus* specialized river duck. Male noticeably larger than female in some species. Sexes differ in tracheal structure to varying degrees; except in *Nettapus*, *Malacorhynchus* and *Hymenolaimus*, males with bony enlarged bullae; in *Aix*, rather large and rounded, somewhat resembling a dabbling duck. Plumage bright in many; often iridescent, especially in more

generalized genera. Patterns more complex in other genera, particularly Aix. No real speculum in most species but tertials and wing-coverts often bright and metallic. Sexual dimorphism slight in some, considerable in others, especially Aix. Eclipse plumage in Aix, Nettapus and Chenonetta. Juveniles, like adult females. Downy young, patterned dark brown and white or yellow, most like those of dabbling ducks; in some species remarkable for long

stiff tails and capacity for climbing.

Cosmopolitan but most species tropical or subtropical. Most species surface-feeders, some very specialized, though others (notably *Plectropterus* and *Chenonetta*) terrestrial grazers. Often in flocks. **Pre-flight** signals diverse; include **Neck-craning**, **Chin-lifting**, and **Head-thrusting** movements, also lateral **Head-shaking**. Social patterns and behaviour of *Chenonetta* most like those of typical dabbling ducks. **Inciting** display of female also much as in *Anas*. In more generalized genera, however, pair-bonds weak or absent (Johnsgard 1965). Pre-copulatory behaviour varies; includes **Head-pumping** (as in *Anas*), **Head-dipping**, and **Bill-dipping**. Post-copulatory behaviour also varies, but little studied. Voice characteristics vary; sexually differentiated to greater or lesser extent. Male calls mostly whistles; female calls honking, quacking, or squeaking (characteristic **Decrescendo** calls of *Anas* lacking). Some species more or less silent. Torrent Ducks are specialized river-ducks inhabiting rapids and fast-flowing rivers of the Andes of South America; very noisy. *Salvadorina* is similarly specialized but is not necessarily closely allied to the Torrent Ducks. Little is known of its social behaviour and ecology.

Dabbling ducks (known also as surface-feeding, puddle, or river ducks)

Fairly small to medium-sized wildfowl. About 40 species in two genera, Anas and Marmaronetta (Marbled Teal of Mediterranean and w. Asia; has also been placed with pochards but not considered further here). More than 40 species in Anas, including following main species-groups, mostly in Holarctic, some or all formerly treated as separate genera: (1) wigeons, three species including A. sibilatrix vagrant to S. Georgia; (2) gadwalls, all Holarctic: (3) true teals, including several s. hemisphere species (about ten) typified by Grey Teal A. gracilis of Aust.; (4) pintails, including A. eatoni and A. georgica in our region; (5) mallards, including A. superciliosa of Aust. and NZ: and (6) blue-winged ducks, including Australasian Shoveler A. rhynchotis. Term 'teal' used loosely in ornithological literature to indicate small ducks generally, not only in different species-groups of Anas. Bodies fairly slender. No marked difference in size between sexes (males somewhat larger). Wings, long and pointed; in flight, wing-beats less rapid than in pochards and other diving ducks. Tails, usually fairly short, pointed; central feathers elongated in some species. Bills, fairly long in most species; flattened, with distinct lamellae. Legs, quite short and inserted centrally giving horizontal stance; hind toe much reduced, not lobed. Take-off from water and land with facility. Walk easily but with waddling gait; able to perch well, though only a few species regularly perch in trees. Dive rather poorly, submerging briefly with use of wings. Sexes differ in tracheal anatomy, males having enlarged rounded bony bullae on left side of syrinx. Plumage of both sexes usually with bright speculum. In many species, sexes alike also in other plumage characters; most of these rather sombre or wholly cryptic but some quite bright; in both types, non-breeding plumage differs little from breeding. In many species of Anas, particularly migrants within temperate parts of n. hemisphere, males only with bright plumage worn for much of year; alternates with eclipse plumage during flightless period at post-breeding moult. Females of these species highly cryptic at all times. Colour of bill or foot, or both, sometimes bright. Juveniles resemble adults in non-breeding plumage. Downy young, typically brown and buff or yellow, often with dark and light streaks on sides of head and light spot on each wing and on each side of back or rump.

Cosmopolitan and predominantly continental in distribution, though some island forms. Adapted for living in shallow, biologically productive waters. Many species prefer plenty of vegetation, marginal, submerged, and often emergent and floating. Range widely through mid-latitudes, penetrating into Arctic tundra or even taiga zones only slightly. Widespread and often the dominant genus in s. hemisphere. Faster streams and unsheltered or offshore marine waters normally avoided. Though some species enter wooded habitats (especially flooded or swamp forests) and others tolerate and even prefer wide-open spaces, most occupy sites with more or less dense fringing vegetation at chosen waters, latter being either standing or slow-flowing with ready access to secure and sheltered resting and breeding places. Need for concealment when breeding or in flightless stage of post-breeding moult may force them, more or less deeply, into dense marginal or emergent vegetation and swamps with little open water; some species nest, at least at times, far from water. As main habitats unstable in many areas, exceptional powers of flight enable reconnaissance of wide range of waters and rapid shift when necessary. Vulnerable to reclamation of wetlands, especially when these few and scattered, but readily accept artificially created waters if they provide suitable feeding areas. Little information on breeding numbers because accurate counts of nests impossible but large-scale ground and aerial counts now sufficiently comprehensive to provide reasonable estimates of wintering numbers and main locations, and, sometimes, tentative indication of trends. Some species migrate over considerable distances, especially in n. hemisphere. Males moult during late summer and early autumn on or near breeding grounds. All large-scale movements mainly nocturnal, sometimes at high altitudes,

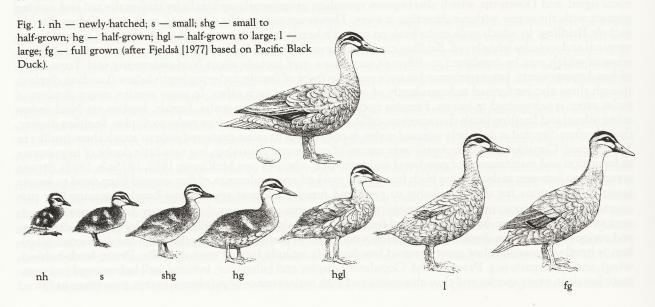
often in irregular wavy lines.

Essentially surface feeders, though dive for food in some conditions. Some primarily vegetarian, on land and

in shallow water. Many omnivorous, taking chiefly seeds and invertebrates mainly from shallow water by dabbling at surface at the same time pumping water and mud through bill, using lamellae to sieve out food (Suzzling). Also filter-feed by dipping head and neck below water, and up-ending; some highly specialized filter-feeders (shovelers), others also forage on land. Feed singly, but most often in pairs and flocks; otherwise usually gregarious when not nesting. Main pre-flight signals: lateral Head-shaking and repeated vertical Head-thrusting. Before and during initial stages of nesting, each pair typically occupies home-range which overlaps with those of other pairs. Within home-range, one or more small areas frequented for feeding, loafing, and preening; variously named 'core area', 'activity centre', 'waiting area' (where male stays while female at nest and where pair meet at times during laying and at times during incubation); defended as territories, to greater or lesser extent, in some species (mainly by male). Monogamous pair-bonds, long-term in monomorphic resident or nomadic, often tropical, species (see Siegfried 1974; Fullagar et al. 1988) but more usually of seasonal duration, especially in boreal migratory species. In latter, pair-formation typically starts in flock during autumn and winter after assumption of breeding ('nuptial') plumage, though initial pairings often temporary; final pair-bond ended at some stage during incubation when males again flock. In addition to maintaining firm bond with eventual mate, males of many species also show promiscuous tendencies, displaying to other females and also copulating with them, mainly by forced copulation. Extent of such promiscuity subject to ecological factors that affect intensity of defence of own mate and territory (McKinney et al. 1983; Birkhead 1988). Same factors also influence types and frequency of pursuit-flights of a female, which are of three main types: (1) courtship-flights: chase by several males originating from displaying party on water and initiated by female; (2) three-bird flights: chase of intruding pair by single male based on own activity centre; (3) forced copulation intent-flights: chase by several males often ending in attempts at forced copulation. Second and third types connected by intermediates; much controversy over details and interpretation, especially role of such pursuits in dispersing pairs. Courtship, typically on water but sometimes on land or even in flight (during pursuits), of two main types: (1) communal courtship (also termed 'social display') and (2) pair-courtship ('directed courtship' of von der Wall 1965). In communal courtship, often starting in autumn or winter, group of several males typically display to one or more females, both unpaired and (increasingly as season advances) paired birds of both sexes taking part. Courting party develops progressively in many species. as more and more males join in; in some, notably A. superciliosa in our region, group typically assembles before display starts. Male displays often elaborate, consisting of secondary and major forms, males tending first to assume special Courtship-intent posture, indicative of impending display. Marked tendency for each male to align body parallel to courted female before displaying; components of some displays also show marked directional bias towards female (McKinney 1975a,b). Secondary displays, mainly derived from comfort-behaviour and closely similar to latter in form, usually silent; often precede one or other of major displays. These are: Upwardshake and Wing-flap (both involving brief rise as bird treads water), lateral Head-shake (with bill inclined down), and Head-flick or Head-roll (with vertical component most marked). Major displays often more elaborate; usually with vocal components produced by contortion of tracheal tubes, which determines posture of neck. These are: Grunt-whistle (or Water-flick) and Head-up Tail-up; in both of which tail elevated and speculum momentarily exposed, specially in latter. Grunt-whistle has loud vocal component and deliberate action of spraying stream of water towards female using rapid flick of bill across the surface. Burp display, which is mainly a vocal signal, and Down-up, which also exposes speculum prominently and includes raising the tail and making contact with the water without directing it away. Down-up not usually addressed to female. Other displays include Bridling, in which male rocks back on tail with head tucked down into shoulders; action thrusts breast upwards and includes whistle call. Bridling can be performed on land. Each species has own repertoire of displays, some of which may be combined in different sequences; may include silent Nod-swimming and Turn-backof-head components, latter performed as male swims in front of female, inducing her to follow (Leading display), though these also performed independently of other displays or each other. In many species, major displays of males often synchronized in bursts. Females noticeably less active than males. Female displays are Nod-swimming (silent) and Inciting (with characteristic calls), either of which may induce males to display. Inciting display, though often directed at definitely rejected males, is not such as to cause preferred male to attack them (unlike in Tadorninae). Considerable controversy over nature of communal courtship, but now little doubt of importance in formation and maintenance of pair-bond and extra-pair relations (see McKinney 1973, 1975a,b, 1985). Strong competition between males, arising both from often marked preponderance of that sex and from need to secure favourable positions for display relative to preferred female. In most species, pair-bond maintained by pair courtship distinct from communal courtship, though elements of communal often occur during latter as bonds start to form. Male Turn-back-of-head and female Inciting; also includes Bill-dip, full Ceremonial-drinking, and various Mock-preen displays, notably highly ritualized Preen-behind-wing (in which the distinctive speculum is briefly exposed); other areas preened less formally include back (Preen-dorsally, Preen-back-behindwing), and underparts (e.g. Preen-belly). Copulatory display and behaviour, initiated we'll before need to inseminate female in many species and thus also associated with maintenance of pair-bond, except sometimes in forced

copulations. On water, pre-copulatory displays consist typically of mutual Head-pumping; post-copulatory displays of males vary more but include Burp display, Bridling, and Nod-swimming. Marked sexual differences in voice. Calls of males vary; often weak nasal, rasping, wheezing, clucking, or rattling sounds but also include penetrating whistles (sometimes followed by grunts) in many species; uttered chiefly during display, when disturbed, aggressive, or separated from mate or companions in flock. Calls of females typically louder and coarser, often quacking; most characteristic vocalizations: Decrescendo call (pattern of which tends to be constant individually, facilitating identification) and Inciting call. In some species, pair call simultaneously while posturing during and after antagonistic encounters (Pair-palaver); when mates separated, often call: Decrescendo calls from females; Burp calls from males. Non-vocal sound-signals produced in some species. Behaviour includes mass dashing-and-diving during bathing. Most complex repertoire of displays found in almost all teals, pintails and mallards but some of these do not have certain displays; e.g. most pintails and some teals do not have the Down-up; most mallards do not have the Bridle, except post-copulatory bridling. Gadwalls resemble mallards but never bridle and some also do not Grunt-whistle, Head-up Tail-up, and Down-up. All wigeons, the silver teals (A. versicolor; A. punctata) and the blue-winged ducks (typified by the shovelers) do not have any of these displays but all the last group have the added display of Lateral Dabbling, often use the Jump-Flight (less common in most other Anas); courtship pursuit-flights are particularly significant for shovelers. For details see McKinney (1978).

Breeding strictly seasonal in most species; short breeding periods in those forms nesting in Arctic, but more prolonged in others. Sites often on ground, concealed in thick cover, sometimes well away from water; less often in open but in our region commonly either above ground in cavities in trees (will use artificial nest-boxes) and old nests of other species or in vegetation, surrounded by water in most, and again often using old nest-sites of other species. Nests usually well dispersed but sometimes grouped even quite densely, at protected places. Shallow depressions with rim of vegetation, lined copiously with down plucked by female. Building by female only. Eggs oval, yellowish or pinkish-white, grey-green, buff, rarely bluish; smooth. Clutches usually 6-12, averaging smaller in forms on remote islands (see Lack 1968); multiple layings sometimes occur. Replacements laid after loss of eggs and several species normally double-brooded. Eggs laid at 24-h intervals. Incubation by female only, leaving nest two or more times per day when usually joins male (if still present). Incubation periods usually 21-28 days (Johnsgard 1968; Todd 1979). Young cared for only by female in some species in our region, and is typical pattern in boreal ducks but male parental activity common for many austral or tropical species with long-term pair-bonds; in them, male and female accompany young though only female broods them (see Kear 1970; Siegfried 1974; Fullagar et al. 1988). Young and parents, particularly the female, communicate and recognize each other by characteristic calls. Young aggressively defended by both sexes in species with dual parental care, but main antipredator reaction otherwise distraction display of female in form of 'injury-feigning', parent flapping awkwardly over water or land with wings open, exposing speculum, and giving Distraction calls. In some species male also defensive but never as demonstrative as female. Young become independent just before or at fledging. Mature at 1 year old. Growth of ducklings can be described by reference to appearance that is usefully categorized in the sequence: newly-hatched (nh); small (s); small to half-grown (shg); half-grown (hg); half-grown to large (hgl); large (1) and full grown (fg) (Fig. 1 after Fjeldså [1977] based on Pacific Black Duck).



Pochards

Medium-sized, mainly freshwater diving ducks. Designation 'diving duck' used not as taxonomic term but as ecological characterization for these and other ducks that plunge from the surface and swim underwater. Sixteen species in three genera: Netta (three species) and Aythya (12 species); monotypic Rhodonessa (Pink-headed Duck of India and Nepal) recently extinct. Netta intermediate in some characters between Anas and Aythya. Latter composed of three species-groups: (1) typical pochards, none in our region; (2) white-eyed pochards, including Hardhead A. australis; (3) scaups, including New Zealand Scaup A. novaeseelandiae.

In Aythya, body, short and heavy; head, big; wings, broader and less pointed than in typical Anatinae, necessitating faster wing-beats, often producing whistling sound; tail, short; bill, rather heavy (less so in white-eyed pochards), about as long as head, flattened and, in some, wider at tip; legs, short, with large toes and broadly lobed hind toe, and set well apart far back on body. Netta similar but body longer and narrower, bill narrower, legs longer and more slender. All take-off from water with some difficulty. Aythya clumsy on land; Netta much less awkward, with even more upright stance. Though Netta somewhat less well adapted for diving than Aythya (Delacour & Mayr 1945), all dive with considerable facility, typically without using wings. Sexes differ in tracheal anatomy; as well as showing 1–2 enlargements of tracheal tubes, males have large, rather angular bullae, with several fenestrae, not rounded and evenly ossified as in Anas males. Males, mainly patterned simply: black, brown, or chestnut and white; unstreaked females, varying shades of brown. Broad pale (often white) panel on rear half of upper wing; no metallic speculum. In most species, male eclipse. Females often nest in plumage homologous to non-breeding plumage. Bill, usually slate or bluish but red in two Netta; eyes, red (most pochards of both genera), white (males of white-eyed pochards), brown or yellow (females of scaup), or yellow (male scaup). Juveniles resemble females. Downy young mostly like other Anatinae but head-stripes faint or absent; young of scaups, dark.

Cosmopolitan, but most species Holarctic. Concentrated both as breeders and in winter on standing fresh water of moderate depth, usually 1–15 m; one Holarctic species (Greater Scaup A. marila) marine in winter, partial exception. Tolerate fairly restricted open waters with dense marginal vegetation, even in forest setting. In most areas, suitable sites are not plentiful and vulnerable to desiccation, drainage, and other adverse factors, leading to some instability in distribution and population. Some colonize modern artefacts such as reservoirs, gravel pits, and ornamental waters. All Holarctic species migratory to greater or lesser extent. Species in s. hemisphere have no migration but in Aust. A. australis has irregular and sometimes long dispersal movements with large congregations following rainfall and drought.

Range from chiefly vegetarian (e.g. Netta) to omnivorous; in some species (e.g. A. australis) animal food predominates. Food obtained in water, mainly by diving from surface to bottom. Usually submerge for shorter periods than Merginae. Difference between sexes in preferred depths of diving, and hence in mean duration of dives, recorded in some n. hemisphere species and probably widespread; may be contributory factors in partial winter segregation of sexes in those areas. Most species (especially in Netta) also dabble on surface at times, head-dip, and up-end. Feed mainly in pairs and flocks. Largely gregarious at most times. Repeated Bill-lifting main Pre-flight signal, but Head-flicks also frequent in some Aythya. Monogamous pair-bonds of short seasonal duration typical in Holarctic species. Promiscuous tendencies of males much less marked than in other Anatinae; except in Netta, attempts at forced copulation rare in Holarctic species, and pursuit-flights largely of courtship type. Communal courtship on water much as in other Anatinae though most major displays different. Often nocturnal as well as diurnal. Secondary displays of males are: Head-flick and Upward-shake, though latter infrequent in some species. Typical major displays, usually accompanied by calls, are: Sneak display, Kinkedneck, and Head-throw. Sneak takes two main forms: full version with head along water; incomplete version (or Crouch display) with head inclined forward. Kinked-neck involves sudden horizontal distortion of neck; Headthrow, the vertical posturing of head above centre of back with bill pointed upwards. Other displays include Turn-back-of-head, Neck-stretch, and Coughing, though some confusion in literature whether Neck-stretch and Coughing displays differ or are partly the same. In some species, females perform male-like major displays at times; Inciting display of same functional type as in other Anatinae but differs largely in form. In most species, some displays used by male in communal courtship also used in pair-courtship; others distinct, including unique Courtship-feeding of N. rufina. Displays performed by both male and female, sometimes mutually, include Ceremonial-drinking and Mock-preening. Copulation also part of pair-courtship. Pre-copulatory displays include Bill-dipping and Preen-dorsally; in Netta, also Anas-like Head-pumping. Prone-posture of female differs from that of Anas in that neck stretched diagonally forward not flat on water. Post-copulatory displays include characteristic Bill-down posture by male or both sexes. Calls of males often whirring or cooing and not far-carrying, but some (notably scaups) also whistle. Used chiefly in courtship, of two main types given (1) during Head-throw and Kinked-neck displays and (2) during Coughing display. Females usually not highly vocal; calls mostly growling and harsh, louder than those of males, include Inciting calls but Decrescendo calls lacking in most species. Non-vocal rattling sound produced in Preen-behind-wing display in all or most species.

Holarctic species strictly seasonal breeders; probably similar for species in our region. Nests sited over shallow water or on ground never far from water; usually in thick cover. Well dispersed or grouped, sometimes close together. Shallow depressions with rim of available material, lined with down plucked by female. Building by female only. Eggs oval, green-grey or pale buff; smooth. Clutches usually 5–12; multiple laying common in some species. Single-brooded; replacements laid after loss of eggs. Eggs laid at 24-h intervals. Incubation by female only. Incubation period 24–28 days (Kear 1970; Todd 1979). Young cared for by female only. **Distraction** display, in form of 'injury-feigning', occurs (at least in *Aythya*) but less common than in other Anatinae. No true crèching but broods sometimes amalgamated. Young independent at or before fledging in most species. Mature in first year.

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Nesonotta aucklandica G.R. Gray, 1844, Gen. Birds, 3: [627], plain pl. [169], fig. 4 (head) — Auckland Islands.

Specific name after type-locality.

MONOTYPIC.

FIELD IDENTIFICATION Very small dark-brown duck with conspicuously short wings, encountered on shores or in streams of Auckland Is. Similar to Brown Teal A. chlorotis but darker and flightless.

DESCRIPTION ADULT MALE. White round eye, prominent. However note that head faintly glossed green; lacks indistinct white neck band; speculum, less obvious but still clearly defined, being green edged with pale cinnamon, and white; breast, dark brown; abdomen brown intermingled

with white feathers; black undertail has dull-white spot at base. Bill, legs and feet, dark. Iris, dark brown. ECLIPSE PLUMAGE. Obvious; resembles female and loses almost all trace of tail spot; very difficult to distingiush from female at this stage. ADULT FEMALE. Generally dark sepia, similar to Brown Teal. Head lacks obvious gloss but is slightly purplish on crown. Chin, throat and foreneck, more distinctly mottled with white than male and belly feathers sepia edged with white. No vermiculations on flanks and no tail spot. Otherwise rest of

body similar to male. For non-breeding female, see Plumages. DOWNY YOUNG. Covered with dark olivaceous brown down, fading to pale fulvous-brown on throat and foreneck and dull fawn on breast and abdomen (Oliver). JUVENILE., see Plumages.

Apparently remain in pairs throughout year in territories on edges of peaty streams and ponds or boulder-strewn shoreline. Rarely in small flocks, single birds common. Flightless but wings used when skittering over water surface, scrambling up ledges or leaping from waves to rocks or ledges. By day mostly camp under cover or in petrel burrows. Feed by night, seiving peaty ooze, or picking shoreline invertebrates from rotting seaweed on rock platforms or from among rocks at sea-edge. Voice of male, series of whistle-like notes similar to Brown Teal: wheezy *pee-dit* and low trill in threat; that of female, high-pitched quacking. Both sexes have quiet feeding calls.

HABITAT Restricted to subantarctic Auckland Is, inland or coastal. On Enderby I., resident inland along peaty creeks and pools draining moorland and rata *Metrosideros umbellata* forest. On Rose, Ocean and Ewing Is, where little running water, birds occupy pools on coastal platforms vegetated with tussock *Poa foliosa*, Antarctic Cabbage *Stilbocarpa polaris* and sedge *Carex trifida*; also forage in wind-rowed bladder-kelp (*Macrocystis*) and other algae on boulder-strewn and sandy beaches, and swim among kelp beds in calm inshore waters (Weller 1975; Williams 1986). Cliff-lined shores may be used if contain caves at sea-level (Scott 1971).

Breed and roost in dense cover near water. Flightless. At sea, observed diving only in water >3 m deep (Weller 1975).

Disappearance from main island may have been caused by introduced cats and pigs. Feral cattle and rabbits on Enderby I. probably decreased suitable habitat inland by grazing and trampling wetland vegetation (Weller 1975; Williams 1986).

DISTRIBUTION AND POPULATION Endemic to subantarctic Auckland Is: Adams, Disappointment, Dundas, Enderby, Ewing, French, Ocean, Rose, perhaps Green, formerly Auckland. Has always been known from several islands, although quickly exterminated by introduced animals on

Auckland I. Total population unlikely to exceed 600.

MOVEMENTS Flightless and essentially sedentary.

FOOD Apparently marine crustaceans with some freshwater and terrestrial invertebrates and algae. BE-HAVIOUR. In freshwater and ponds feed by filtering peaty ooze; along shore, probe among rotting seaweed and in rock-pools, picking out items of food. At sea, dive with some flapping, apparently to depths of at least 1.5 m or dabbles, particularly for plankton, sweeping the head from side to side with neck outstretched. Also catch larger items by pecking at surface. Feed both day and night, favouring an ebbing tide. Commissural point of bill, hardened and may be used for disarming spiny isopods and effectively increases size of gape while maintaining narrowness of form needed to probe among rocks (Weller 1975).

ADULT. On **Ewing I.** (three male gut contents; Weller 1975) molluscs 2.4, 100 (snail 0.6, 67, clams 1.8, 67, 15–18 mm); crustaceans 97.4, 100 (amphipods 43.2, 67, isopods 35.2, 67, 15–18 mm, copepods 13.2, 33, <1 mm, crabs 5.9, 67), insects 0.2, 33 (kelp flies). Also seen eating algae *Ulva*, *Porphyra*.

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION Based mainly on study on Ewing I., Dec. 1972-Jan. 1973 (Weller 1975) and information supplied by M.J. Williams. Apparently remain in pairs and maintain territories all year; largely nocturnal. Difference in territorialism from chlorotis probably best viewed as adaptation to ensure that breeding opportunities in restricted environment, once secured, firmly held; ensures that an individual pair not denied breeding opportunity for lack of territory. Mostly seen paired on water's edge, flocks seldom seen. Flocks reported by Oliver on shores; by Weller (1975), at Rose I. and at one site on Ewing I., as also did Williams (1986); in last two observations, mostly males; whether non-breeding or unsuccessful breeding birds, not known. Such flocks move together from resting to feeding ground (Weller 1975). Single birds often seen but not known whether unattached prebreeders or separated adults. When feeding, always most numerous on boulder-beaches with much bladder-kelp and other algae in wind-rows.

merly Auckland. Has always been known from several islands, although quickly exterminated by introduced animals on bation and during rest of breeding period; probably sustained



or permanent (Weller 1975). Nesting may not start till Dec. Both parents guard young, although sometimes only one adult may be actively feeding or in attendance with brood.

BREEDING DISPERSION Resident pairs nest in territories usually near coast (Weller 1975; Williams 1986). Boundaries appear clearly defined and male defends both shoreline and parts of forest used by pair (Weller 1975). On Ewing I., pairs held small territories which extended for about 20 m along shore but up to 100-150 m back into adjacent forest. On Enderby I., recorded away from coast, in streams and ponds; on larger streams, two or three pairs recorded, each spaced well apart, occupying exclusive sections; on one large pond, three pairs had partitioned area of water (M.J. Williams). In territories away from coast, pairs probably do not pass through neighbour's territory to reach shore, which suggests that feeding and other requirements fully met within these territories of streams and pond (Williams 1986). Weller (1975) observed adjacent territories apparently overlapped with favoured feeding area of several birds. Presence of moulting birds occupying and defending territories implies territories held throughout year.

Pairs rest within territory probably ROOSTING throughout year. Although some birds to be seen feeding during daylight, most active and feed at night. On shore-line, feed near shore, spending much of day holed up under cover nearby in clumps of Carex or Poa, petrel or shearwater burrows, or holes under fallen trees and protected from aerial predators. Scott (1971) noted use of caves for resting on Enderby I. Often spend entire day in concealment; one bird with single duckling noted to spend all day in petrel burrow; another spent all day hiding in clump of Carex; also many records of Stilbocarpa, providing suitable daytime retreat (Weller 1975). Rarely sleep in open but when do so perch on rocks surrounded by water. Often break off feeding to preen and occasionally sun before resuming feeding. Feeding partially depends on tide; non-breeding birds commonly loaf on large boulders and feed at low tide. (Weller 1975).

SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR Based mainly on study on Ewing I. Dec. 1972 — Jan. 1973 (Weller 1975) and information supplied by M. Williams. Males produce series of whistle-like notes essentially similar to those of *chlorotis* and possibly given in similar circumstances. Sun themselves with slightly spread primaries, usually on exposed isolated rocks. Weller (1975) noted in flock of nonbreeding males that, when one bird moved from loafing rocks to feeding ground, usually

all were prompted to feed.

AGONISTIC BEHAVIOUR Male defends territory, thus gives most aggressive displays. THREAT and territorial defence call of male, highly directional trill given with bill open and lifted 30° above horizontal and back of head low; one or both opposing males may retreat when given. Male intruder may attract rapid skittering pursuit by territorial male. Aggressive male usually calls after encounter, chased male stays silent. Chest-to-chest FIGHTING. occasionally occurs among territorial males. If female present, Rape Chases may follow where female dives, biting and pecking (Weller 1975). Rape Chases occurred regularly on Rose I. where territories appeared to overlap with favoured feeding area used by small flock; four males constantly harrassed two females; males may have been non-breeding first-year birds (Weller 1975). ALARM. Though showing little or no fear of humans, constantly vigilant, being specially concerned about presence or approach of skuas. Whenever latter flies overhead, birds on

edge of shore immediately take to water while those on land skitter beneath suitable vegetation and hide. Nocturnal habits and other protective behaviour may have evolved from this fear of predators. Chief alarm call of male, whistle, given in response to human intruders and during or following scare by skua; once when skua approached breeding male, he skittered to open water, perched on kelp, faced skua, which was c. 5 m away, and stood giving alarm call for c. 25 min until skua flew away. ESCAPE by swimming underwater and surfacing well out in open, then, sometimes Sneak further away. Apparently alerted by warning calls of Silver Gulls Larus novaehollandiae, Blackbirds Turdus merula and Richard's Pipit Anthus novaeseelandiae (Weller 1975).

SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR COURTSHIP. Male gives trill call. Female Incites male in way of most other Anas ducks and associated call is high-pitched quacking. PAIR-MAINTEN-ANCE. Pairs usually stay together and maintain contact by calling (Scott 1971). Pair quietly call while feeding; male's call, whistle-like; female's, with quacking resonance. COPULATION within territory. Pre-copulation display consists of quiet vocalization and Prone Posture by female. After copulation, male gives trill call, then pair wing-flap and bathe (Weller 1975).

RELATIONS WITHIN FAMILY GROUP In one nest, female very broody and male regularly within 4 m of nest. Broods favour dense vegetation or wetlands close by for escape cover, where young remain very quiet. Ducklings seen with male only, or with female only, or alone; said to call when lost (Weller 1975, 1980). Unlike *chlorotis*, in which birds moult in flocks at roosting sites, pairs appear to remain on territories and defend them during wing-moult; tendency for pair to moult simultaneously.

VOICE Based almost entirely on Weller (1975). Male produces series of whistle-like notes essentially similar to those of *chlorotis* and possibly given in similar circumstances.

ADULT MALE (1) Main call, series of low whistle-like notes, forming trill; given with bill open and lifted to 30° above horizontal, back of head low onto mantle. Said to be highly directional. Given as Threat Call and Territorial Call. (2) Wheezy di-syllabic whistle note, recorded as pee-dit sometimes given after an encounter between squabbling males. Also identified as Alarm Call. Male heard giving trill call after copulation followed by pee-dit (Weller 1975).

ADULT FEMALE High-pitched quacking given with Inciting posture. Both sexes have quiet Feeding (Contact) Calls that seem to function as simple communication; male's is whistle-like, female's with quacking resonance

(Weller 1975).

YOUNG Said to give soft calls even when lost (Weller 1980).

BREEDING Little known; based on Weller (1975) and information supplied by M.J. Williams.

SEASON Nesting probably does not start till Dec. and little laying after mid-Jan., judged by records of broods early Jan.-late Feb. (M.J. Williams).

SITE One nest well hidden among ferns; another below a tussock (Weller 1975; M.J. Williams).

EGGS Elliptic, slightly smaller at one end; smooth, not polished; cream to light tan.

MEASUREMENTS.: 64.2 (1.5; 61–65.7; 8) x 44.5 (1.0; 43–46; 8)

mm (Oliver; Weller 1975).

CLUTCH-SIZE Said to be 3-4 eggs but four is only recently authenticated record (Weller 1975). Recorded sizes of broods: 1x3, 1x4, 14x '1 or 2' (M.J. Williams).

SUCCESS Probably low: of 68 pairs in Feb.-Mar., only 27 (44%) had broods, average 1.8 (n=21) (M.J. Wil-

liams).

PLUMAGES

ADULT BREEDING MALE Age of first breeding unknown. Plumage probably attained second year (Buller 1894). HEAD AND NECK. Crown and lores, black-brown (119); crown narrowly tipped light brown (223C); lores and forehead, fringed buff (124); concealed bases of feathers, light grey-brown (119C). Hindneck feathers, dark brown (119A), narrowly tipped light brown (223C). Narrow eye-ring of short white feathers; may faciliate visual contact (Weller 1980). Sides of head, dark brown (119A), narrowly tipped brown (119B); in some lights, feathers at ear-coverts, upper margins at sides of neck and hindneck, glossy dark-green (162A). Chin to base of foreneck, dark brown (119A), narrowly tipped white; tips broader at chin. UPPERPARTS. Mantle, dull glossy darkgreen (162A), fringed brown (223B) to brown (121B); fringes become broader from upper to lower margins of mantle; concealed bases, brown (119B). Back, rump and upper tail-coverts, dull glossy dark-green (162A) narrowly fringed dark brown (119A); dull glossy dark-green (162A) feathers, particularly obvious on back and rump. In poor light, all dull glossy dark-green (162A) feathers appear black-brown (119). Outermost scapulars, dull glossy dark-green (162A), vermiculated brown (121C); less vermiculation on innermost. TAIL, dark brown (119A), narrowly edged light brown (223D) on webs; rachis, black-brown (119); in some lights, outer webs have dull dark-green (162A) gloss. UPPERWING. Primaries, dark brown (119A); p1-p6 have very narrow dark-brown (121A) edge on outer web; rachis, dark brown (219A); alula and greater primary coverts, similar. Tertials, dark brown (121) basally and on inner web, outer web glossed dull dark-green (162A), edged brown (223B); edges progressively become light brown (223C) towards innermost; secondaries, tipped pink-buff (121D): tips become narrower towards s1; outer webs of secondaries similar to tertials, and form speculum. Marginal coverts, dark brown (121), fringed brown (119B). In some lights, fringes dull glossy dark-green (162A). Lesser and median coverts, dark brown (121); feathers, narrowly fringed dark brown (121A); distal quarter of webs, glossy dull darkgreen (162A). Greater coverts, dark brown (121), edged dark brown (121A), edge broadening to pink-buff (121D) at tip. When worn, fringes on upper wing-coverts largely lost. UN-DERPARTS. Upper breast-feathers, brown (37), merging to light brown (39) at lower breast, narrowly tipped dull white; concealed bases, light grey-brown (119C). Each feather has subterminal centered dark-brown (119A) spot on webs; spot c. 5 mm wide at middle of breast. Towards lower breast, spot becomes progressively larger, and more exposed. Feathers on lower breast to abdomen, brown (119B), narrowly barred white along length of feather, tipped white; feathers have progressively broader white tips from breast to abdomen. Flankfeathers, broad; concealed basal half, dark brown (119A), merging to black-brown (119) and finely barred (c. 1 mm wide) light brown (223C) distally. Under flanks, concealed patch of loose dark-brown (119A) semiplumes. Thighs, brown (119B), minutely mottled dull white. Feathers, round vent, dark brown (119A), vermiculated white. Rest of vent-feathers, brown (119B) basally, merging to black-brown (119) and finely

vermiculated white at middle, or all over distal halves. Under tail-coverts, black-brown (119); concealed bases, dark brown (119A); outer web, edged light brown (223C); inner web, basally vermiculated dull white but on longest feathers, entire inner web vermiculated dull white. Axillaries, white with brown (119B) to dark-brown (119A) shaft-streaks or white, mottled dark-brown (119A) on webs, with subterminal darkbrown (119A) spot. TAIL, dark brown (119A), narrowly edged light brown (223D) on webs; rachis, black-brown (119); in some lights, outer webs have dull dark-green (162A) gloss: underside of rectrices brown-grey (80). UNDERWING. Greater primary coverts and greater coverts, glossy brown-grey (79), with open pennaceous brown (119B) fringes. Lesser primary coverts, similar, but fringed white. Rest of coverts, dark brown (119A), broadly tipped white.

ADULT NON-BREEDING MALE (Eclipse). Resembles adult female. Differs from adult male breeding in: HEAD AND NECK. Dark-green (162A) gloss on head, largely lost. Throat and foreneck, brown (119B), tipped dark brown (119A); no distinct whitish throat-patch as in adult female non-breeding. Eye-ring, duller. UPPERPARTS, mostly dull glossy dark-green (162A); fringes on mantle, light brown (223C); scapulars lack vermiculations. Generally, upperparts appear darker. UNDERPARTS. Breast-feathers, dark brown (37); subterminal dark-brown (119A) spots, almost blackbrown (119) and appear bolder. Flanks, similar to adult breeding female, but spots on webs larger and light brown (223D);

lack barring.

ADULT BREEDING FEMALE HEAD AND NECK. Crown, black-brown (119), narrowly fringed dark brown (119A). Narrow eye-ring of short white feathers; may faciliate visual contact (Weller 1980). Chin and throat, dark brown (119A), narrowly tipped dull white. Foreneck, similar but tips narrower. Tips on chin and throat give streaked or spotted appearance. Hindneck, dark olive-brown (129); slight dull dark-green (162A) gloss at nape. Malar region and side of head, dark brown (119A), narrowly fringed dull white. UPPER-PARTS. Mantle, scapulars and upper tail-coverts, dark brown (119A), fringed dark brown (121A). Back and rump, blackbrown (119), fringed dark brown (121A). In some lights, all black-brown (119) colour on feathers appears glossy dull darkgreen (162A). TAIL, UPPERWING, similar to adult breeding male, except speculum on upperwing, less distinct. UNDER-PARTS. Upper breast-feathers, dark brown (119A) (concealed), with subterminal dark-brown (121A) fringes, tipped whitewhite tips absent on outer margins; subterminal fringes become brown (121B) at lower breast. Small, 2-3 mm wide subterminal centered dark brown (119A) to black-brown (119) spot on feathers. Towards abdomen, spot becomes progressively larger, paler and more exposed. Abdomen, brown (119B), tipped white; white tips broader towards vent. Thighs. brown (119B), narrowly tipped dull white. Flank-feathers, dark brown (119A) with dark-brown (121A) shade, with small dull-white spot on outer edges of middle of feather. Ventfeathers, similar to upper breast-feathers; under tail-coverts, dark brown (119A), narrowly fringed dull white to light brown (223C); webs, streaked and mottled white. Axillaries, similar to adult breeding male. TAIL, UNDERWING, similar to adult breeding male.

ADULT NON-BREEDING FEMALE Differs from breeding female in: HEAD AND NECK. Chin and throat, whiter. UPPERPARTS. Fringes, narrower and duller. UNDERPARTS. Breast-feathers appear darker and abdomen fringed white, rather than tipped white. Further study required.

DOWNY YOUNG Similar to *chlorotis* although duller. Also differs in: HEAD AND NECK. Supercilium, indistinct. UPPERSIDE. No distinct white patches on rump or outer back; spots, very small and buff (124) to light brown (223D). UNDERSIDE, buff (124).

JUVENILE Similar to adult female breeding. Differs in: UNDERPARTS. Paler, white tips on abdomen broader; darkbrown (119A) subterminal centered spots on breast smaller. TAIL. Rectrices notched.

ABERRANT PLUMAGES Adult skin at NMNZ has white feather on nape and may constitute partial albinistic plumage (R.O'Brien).

BARE PARTS

ADULT Iris, black-brown (119). Upper mandible, dark grey (83); nail, grey-black (82), with rim light grey (85). No data on lower mandible. Legs and feet, light brown (223C); hind-tarsus and webs, dark olive-brown (129). Feet and webs, olive-brown (28).

DOWNY YOUNG Iris, dark brown. Bill, black. Legs and feet, pale brown (NZRD).

JUVENILE No data.

MOULTS Based on skins at NMNZ.

ADULT POST-BREEDING Complete; remiges simultaneous; probably occurs c. Feb.-Mar., birds remain on territories. No moult observed Dec.-Jan. (Weller 1975). Rest unknown.

MEASUREMENTS Adult skins (NMNZ; MV).

| | MALES | FEMALES | |
|--------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| WING | 139.0 | 120.0 (0; 120 120; 2) | * |
| TAIL | 90.0 | 74.0 (4.96; 70-81; 3) | |
| BILL | 38.6 (0.35; 38.2-39.2; 4) | 36.5 (0.53; 35.8-37.1; 3) | |
| TARSUS | 33.0 (0.36; 32.4-33.4; 4) | 31.1 (1.15; 30-32.7; 3) | |
| TOE | 55.0 (1.87; 53.2-57.9; 4) | 53.3 (1.90; 51.4-55.9; 3) | |

Additional measurements in Falla & Stead (1938), Delacour (1954–64) and Weller (1980).

WEIGHT (1) Details not given. (2) Enderby I., juvenile, June, trapped in wild. (3) Ewing I., adults, one of each sex [(2) and (3), Mt Bruce Wildlife Reserve data].

| | MALES | FEMALES | |
|------------|------------|---------|--|
| (1) | 425 480 | 375 | |
| (2) (3) | 620 | 435 | |

No data on seasonal changes.

STRUCTURE Wing, short; flightless, though capable of rudimentary powers of flight (e.g. Scott 1971; Bailey & Sorensen 1962). Ten primaries (Gadow 1902): p6 usually longest, p9 6–8 mm shorter, p8 0–2, p7 0–1, p5 6–9, p4 15–18, p3 25–29, p2 36–39, p1 47–48, p11 minute. P10 slightly emarginated on inner web. Ten secondaries, four of tertial form. Tail, moderately long and pointed. Sixteen rectrices; t1, longest, t8 24–53 mm shorter. Bill varies from narrow to broad; considerable variation in development of lamellae and maxillary flap (Stead 1938). Bill, rather deep at base, with pointed commisural point; illustrated in Weller (1975), where function of bill apparatus also discussed. Interramal space, bare. Legs, short and feet webbed. Outer toe c. 90% of middle, inner c. 69%, hind c. 16%.

RMO

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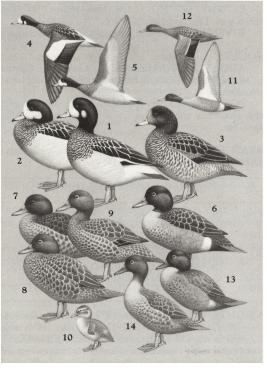
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Volume 1 (Part B), Plate 92

Chiloe Wigeon Anas sibilatrix

1. Adult male
2. Adult female
3. Juvenile
4. Adult male, ventral
5. Adult female, dorsal

Brown Teal Anas chlorotis
6. Adult male breeding
7. Adult male non-breeding
8. Adult female
9. Juvenile
10. Downy young
11. Adult male, ventral
12. Adult female, dorsal

Auckland Teal *Anas aucklandica* **13.** Adult male breeding **14.** Adult female

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