

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF NEW ZEALAND

RECORDS

Vol. 1. No. 3

Pages 63-79

November 27th, 1975

A REVIEW OF THE EXTINCT RAILS OF THE NEW ZEALAND REGION (AVES: RALLIDAE)

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ABSTRACT

- 1. The subfossil rail Rallus hodgeni, which in the past has been referred to its own genus (Pyramida) and also to Capellirallus, is shown to be a flightless derivative of the Australian gallinules of the subgenus Tribonyx and becomes Gallinula (Tribonyx) hodgeni.
- 2. Gallirallus hartreei is considered to be a synonym of Gallinula (Tribonyx) hodgeni.
- 3. The very distinctive subfossil rail Capellirallus karamu, known so far only from the North Island, is further described and illustrated, and its possible relationships discussed.
- 4. The genus Nesophalaris, used for the giant extinct coots of the Chatham Islands (chathamensis) and New Zealand (prisca), is considered a synonym of Fulica F. chathamensis and F. prisca are both shown to have been flightless and of nearly the same size. A lectotype is designated for F. prisca and this taxon is maintained as a subspecies of F. chathamensis, distinguished on the basis of characters of the humerus.
- 5. The distribution and relationships of the Chatham Island rails Gallirallus ("Nesolimnas") dieffenbachii, G. ("Cabalus") modestus, and Diaphorapteryx hawkinsi are briefly discussed.
- 6. Doubt is cast upon the validity of Gallirallus minor, a subfossil species that has never been satisfactorily characterized.

Introduction

In the rich subfossil record of birds in the late Quaternary of New Zealand and the Chatham Islands, are found a number of interesting species of extinct rails. Recent visits to New Zealand museums have enabled me to examine specimens of these forms first-hand and to discover some previously unknown and undescribed elements. The results of these studies are presented here as part of a review of the living and fossil taxa of the family Rallidae. The taxonomy used will follow that of Olson

(1973b). I have purposely excluded from the present study the fascinating genus *Aptornis*, as it is not a rail at all and will be treated in a later paper on the Aptornithidae.

THE IDENTITY OF Rallus hodgeni SCARLETT, 1955, AND Gallirallus hartreei SCARLETT, 1970

Scarlett (1955b) described a small rail from Pyramid Valley Swamp in the South Island, from pelves, leg, and wing bones, designating an incomplete pelvis (CM Av 6197) as the holotype. He determined that hodgeni was larger than Capellirallus karamu Falla, 1954, a

peculiar, long-billed rail from cave deposits in the North Island, and provisionally placed hodgeni "in the broad genus Rallus until the skull is found and its generic affinities are ascertainable."

Later in the same year, Oliver (1955) studied the type material of *hodgeni* and concluded that it belonged to a gallinule "apparently...closely allied to *Tribonyx*." For the species he created the monotypic genus *Pyramida*. The spelling *Pyramidia* also appeared in the same work, evidently through a printer's error since in Oliver's original typescript it was *Pyramida* (MS in NMNZ). The spelling was restricted to *Pyramida* by Dawson (1957).

Scarlett (1970b) reviewed new material of hodgeni and of Capellirallus karamu, listing many new localities for both and showing that hodgeni occurred rather commonly in both the North and South Islands. He concluded that hodgeni and karamu, although different in size, were congeneric, and placed hodgeni in the genus Capellirallus. This treatment is followed in the official checklist of New Zealand birds (Kinsky 1970). However, until now the skull and bill of hodgeni have been unknown, except for two posterior portions of crania, and there were further difficulties in that some of the elements Scarlett ascribed to hodgeni were from other species. Furthermore, those characters of the pelvis that Oliver (1955) used to ally hodgeni with the gallinules are not shared with Capellirallus karamu—a fact that was not brought out by Scarlett (1970b).

In examining some partially sorted subfossil material from the Martinborough Caves in the North Island (see Yaldwyn 1956, 1958, for descriptions of these localities) at the National Museum of New Zealand, I found several crania, rostra, mandibles, and sterna (NMNZ S. 967-973 and unregistered material) of a small gallinule. In this same collection are limb elements (S. 974-785 and unreg. mat.) that are identical to the paratypes of hodgeni from Pyramid Valley. This, coupled with the fact that the pelvis of *hodgeni* shows characters typical of some of the gallinules, leaves little doubt that the crania and sterna from Martinborough are referable to hodgeni. These elements prove conclusively that hodgeni is a flightless derivative of the Australian subgenus Tribonyx in the genus Gallinula, and is not related to Capellirallus. Below, hodgeni is redescribed and compared with the forms of Tribonyx. The subgeneric name will be used throughout to emphasize the Australian relationships of hodgeni. The comparison of hodgeni with Capellirallus in the plates and tables is for economy of space and for the future convenience of those wishing to identify New Zealand fossil material and is not intended to imply an affinity between the two. Discussion of their many differences may be found in the account of Capellirallus.

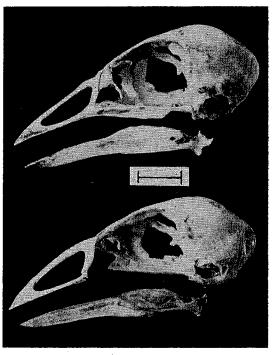


Fig. 1. Top to bottom: lateral view of skull and mandible of *Tribonyx ventralis* (MVZ 143365), *T. hodgeni* (NMNZ S 967; S 969). Scale 10 mm.

Tribonyx hodgeni is closest in size to, although somewhat smaller than, the Blacktailed Water Hen (Native Hen), T. ventralis (Gould), of Australia (Table 1) and is therefore much smaller than the flightless Tasmanian Water Hen, T. mortierii Du Bus. The extremely short, wide bill, and particularly the very short premaxilla (Figs 1 and 2) is a marked characteristic of the subgenus Tribonyx and demonstrates that hodgeni belongs with that group rather than with the typical moorhens of the subgenus Gallinula. Most of the skull dimensions of T. hodgeni are slightly smaller than those of T. ventralis, except for the width of

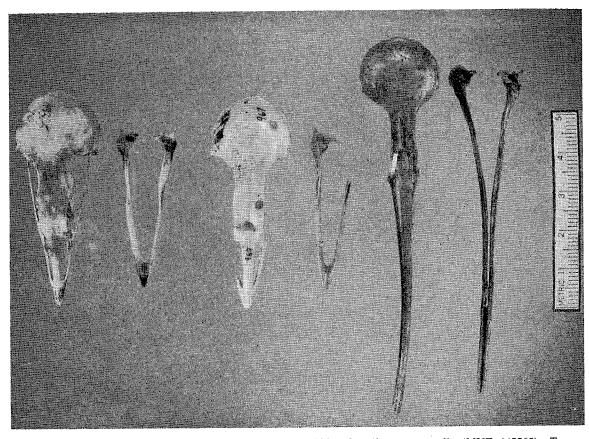


Fig. 2. Left to right: dorsal view of skull and mandible of *Tribonyx ventralis* (MVZ 143365), T. hodgeni (NMNZ S 967; S969), Capellirallus karamu (CM Av 20615).

the interorbital bridge. The narrowing of this bridge in *ventralis* appears to be correlated with better-developed supraorbital salt-excreting glands. The skull and mandible of *hodgeni* are generally similar to those of *ventralis*, but in the relatively shorter and broader bill tip and mandibular symphysis, the shorter and higher nostril, and the heavier, more arched culmen (Fig. 1), *hodgeni* more closely resembles *T. mortierii*.

Compared to those of ventralis the elements of the wing and pectoral girdle of hodgeni are greatly reduced (Figs 4 and 5; Table 1) in the manner characteristic of flightless rails. These modifications are rapidly evolved and are not of generic value (Olson 1973a). Scarlett's (1970b) description of the sternum of hodgeni (CM Av. 21,763I) may be disregarded as it was based on a wide sternum of Capellirallus karamu (see below). In the sternum of hodgeni (Fig. 5) the carina is even more reduced than

in T. mortierii and although the sternal plate is shorter than in ventralis, it is nearly as wide as in that species. The ventral manubrial spine is virtually absent in hodgeni whereas it is present in flying forms (including ventralis) and strangely enough persists in T. mortierii. In dorsal aspect the sternum of hodgeni is remarkably concave and boatlike, much more so than in its congeners. The sterno-coracoidal processes are angled farther anteriorly and are less perpendicular to the long axis of the bone than in either ventralis or mortierii. In all respects the sternum of hodgeni is more divergent from ventralis than is that of mortierii, although the conformation of the sternum in flightless rails is of little taxonomic significance (Olson 1973a).

The shape of the head of the coracoid of hodgeni (Fig. 5) is approximately intermediate between that of ventralis and mortierii, and the procoracoid and sterno-coracoidal processes are

		<u>T</u> . <u>ventralis</u>	alis			T. hodgeni	eni			C. karamu	ашп	
·	¤	range	пеап	s.d.	¤	range	теап	s.d.	ជ	range	пеап	s.d.
Width cranium	72	20.6- 22.2	21.2	.64	3	19.9-20.6	20.3	.29	ო	19.8-20.2	20.0	.16
Length cranium from naso-frontal hinge	5	33.2- 35.3	34.1	.72	7	32.5-34.4	33.5	66.	П		30.9	
Length bill from naso-frontal hinge	7	25.4- 27.9	26.9	86.	н		24.2		н		70.5	
Length nostril	4	13.5- 15.0	14.4	.57	3	12.1-13.3	12.7	.51	щ		52.1	
Length bill tip from nostril	4	7.6- 8.4	8.1	.29	3	6.7-7.2	6.9	.21	H		18.2	
Width interorbital bridge	2	5.5- 6.6	6.1	.43	2	6.5- 7.2	6.9	.35	-		6.1	-
Length mandible	Ŋ	41.4- 47.4	43.8	2.11	П		41.7		1		83.9	
Length mandibular symphysis	rΟ	6.7- 9.5	8.0	.91	2	5.9- 6.5	6.2	.30	Н		26.2	
Length coracoid	· IO	29.1- 32.0	30.7	1.22	17	17.8-21.5	19.9	.93	7	13.8-15.9	15.3	69.
Length scapula	Ŋ	50.1- 56.7	53.5	2.67	н		40.2		Н :		28.0	
Width sternum across sulci	5	15.0- 17.4	16.5	.80	Н		16.2	1	П		15.4	
Depth carina through manubrium	5	17.5- 18.8	18.1	.61	Н		8.1		Н		2.4	
Depth carina from sternal plate	5	13.6- 15.8	14.6	76.	7	4.5- 4.8	4.7	.15	Н		0.8	
Length humerus	5	56.8- 63.4	59.4	2.29	30	32.4-43.2	40.4	2.52	13	21.8-28.0	25.9	1.56
Length ulna	5	48.8- 56.4	52.0	2.59	10	27.4-32.4	29.4	1.53	2	15.6-16.9	16.3	.65
Length radius	2	44.7- 52.3	48.3	2.49	н		24.7		1		15.4	
Length carpometacarpus	2	37.0- 43.0	39.7	1.95	13	19.0-21.5	20.5	1.29	2	9.3-10.9	10.1	.80
Length femur	5	52.4- 60.5	55.3	2.91	99	52.1-63.6	57.9	2.56	21	43.0-50.0	46.5	1.63
Length tibia from cnemial crest	4	87.6-102.4	92.9	5.78	25	72.9-79.3	75.9	1.83	10	62.8-72.9	68.3	3.29
Length tibia from articular surface	4	84.6- 99.2	89.4	5.94	35	69.2-77.9	73.5	2.02	11	61.2-70.7	66.5	2.80
Length tarsometatarsus	2	56.2- 66.3	0.09	3.84	20	39.1-48.0	42.9	2.10	10	38.6-43.1	40.4	1.72
Width pelvis through antitrochanters	5	25.2- 29.3	27.5	1.43	4	24.8-25.8	25.2	.38	Ŋ	17.5-19.3	18.3	.75

Table 1. Size comparison (in mm) of Tribonyx ventralis, T. hodgeni, and Capellirallus karamu.

more reduced than in either of these species. The humerus (Fig. 4) is small and slender, agreeing with those of many flightless rails and differing from that of *ventralis* in having the head lower and flattened and the deltoid crest reduced. The ulna (Fig. 3) is short and stout, although not quite as heavy as in *T. mortierii*. The olecranon is better-developed and not squared as in *mortierii*. The carpometacarpus (Fig. 4) is not as slender and elongate as in *ventralis* and is similar in proportions to that of *mortierii*.

The pelvis of hodgeni (Fig. 5) is generally similar to that of ventralis, but is smaller and narrower. As Oliver (1955) noted, it agrees with Gallinula, Tribonyx and Fulica in having the dorsal edge of the anterior ilium nearly free of the median dorsal ridge of the sacrum, being fused for only a millimeter or two of its length. In lateral view the posterior ilium angles more ventrally than in ventralis or mortierii, the ilio-ischiatic fenestra is slightly more vertical, and ventral to it is a distinct depression in the ischium.

In the proportions of the hindlimb (Fig. 7), hodgeni is considerably different from either ventralis or mortierii. Compared to ventralis in both absolute (Table 1) and relative (Table 2) measurements, hodgeni has a longer femur, shorter tibiotarsus, and much shorter tarsometatarsus. A slight tendency toward these proportions is seen in mortierii, but that species is much nearer ventralis in this respect.

The femur (Fig. 7) of hodgeni is similar to the shorter femur of ventralis, although not as heavy through the head and trochanter. The tibiotarsus (Fig. 7) differs mainly in having the shaft shorter and stouter and the outer cnemial crest thicker. The short, heavy tarsometatarsus (Fig. 7) of hodgeni looks very different from the long, slender tarsometatarsus of ventralis. The ends of the bone are more expanded, the trochleae are heavier, the inner trochlea is displaced more distally and expanded farther laterally, and the distal foramen is more rounded. In most details the bone is approached by that of mortierii, but as mentioned above, it is proportionately shorter and also has the inner trochlea somewhat lower.

Scarlett (1970b) has implied that there may be size differences between the North and South Island populations of *T. hodgeni*, specifically that ulnae from the South Island are

larger. However, ulnae identified as hodgeni included in the material from Pyramid Valley at the Canterbury Museum are much too heavy for that species and I believe they are referable to the dubious form known as Gallirallus minor, to be discussed later. Although there are few specimens from the South Island, it can be seen from Table 3 that there is very broad overlap in the size of bones from the North and South Islands. If anything, there is a tendency for smaller averages in the South Island measurements but it is impossible to differentiate between the two populations on the basis of size.

Another small rail, Gallirallus hartreei, was named by Scarlett (1970a) from a cave deposit about 30 miles from Napier, North Island. The holotype (CM Av. 18,475) consists of the femora, left tibiotarsus, right tarsometatarsus, and humeri of a single individual. Two additional femora and a tibiotarsus from the same locality were also referred to this species. Scarlett (1970a) repeatedly noted that G. hartreei was difficult to distinguish from hodgeni. Measurements (in mm) of the type material are as follows: femur 59.2, 53.8; tibiotarsus from cnemial crest 75.1, tarsometatarsus 41.7; humerus 41.7. Thus it is identical in size to T. hodgeni (Table 1). Likewise it is identical in form. Careful comparison of the type material of G. hartreei with the paratypes of T. hodgeni failed to disclose any differences between the two that may not be attributed to intraspecific variation. The holotype tibiotarsus of hartreei is stouter than those of many individuals of hodgeni but there are examples of the latter from Pyramid Valley that are even heavier. I therefore regard Gallirallus hartreei as synonymous with Gallinula (Tribonyx) hodgeni. The synonymy of hodgeni is then as follows:

Rallus hodgeni Scarlett, 1955b, p. 265 Pyramida [hodgeni]: Oliver, 1955, p. 595 Pyramidia hodgeni: Oliver, 1955, p. 596 (lapsus)

Capellirallus hodgeni: Scarlett, 1970a, p. 71; 1970b, p. 304

Capellirallus lodgeni: Scarlett, 1970b, p. 306 (lapsus)

Gallirallus hodgeni: Scarlett, 1970a, p. 71 (lapsus)

Gallirallus hartreei Scarlett, 1970a, p. 68
Pyramidula [hodgeni] C. A. F[leming] 1975, p. 90 (lapsus)

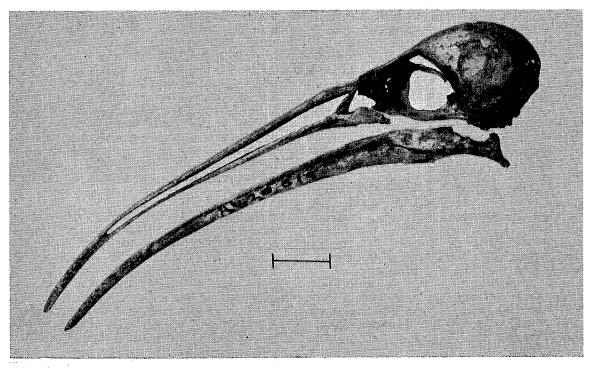


Fig. 3. Skull and mandible of Capellirallus karamu (CM Av 20615). Scale = 10 mm. Some of the droop in the tip of the bill is due to warping.

Gallinula (Tribonyx) hodgeni: Olson, this paper.

There is nothing in the structure of T. hodgeni that will allow it to be separated from Tribonyx at the generic level. The species undoubtedly evolved from a volant Tribonyx ancestor that colonized New Zealand from Australia. It is interesting to note that T. ventralis has reached New Zealand on more than one occasion in recent times (Kinsky 1970). Although flightless insular species of rails may have their ancestors in existing volant mainland species (Olson 1973a), there are grounds for believing that T. ventralis is not directly ancestral to T. hodgeni. It is now known that T. mortierii also occurred on the mainland of Australia in the Quaternary (Olson 1975) and probably evolved there. Consequently it is not a direct Tasmanian derivative of ventralis as it might previously have appeared to be. In the greater reduction of the pectoral apparatus and modified hindlimb proportions, hodgeni is even more divergent from *ventralis* than is *mortierii*. Furthermore, the skull characters of hodgeni are more like those of *mortierii* than *ventralis*. This suggests that *hodgeni* may have been derived from an ancestor closer to the parental stock that gave rise to both *ventralis* and *mortierii*, rather than being a direct descendent of *ventralis*.

THE NEW ZEALAND SNIPE-RAIL, Capellirallus karamu, Falla, 1954

Falla (1954) founded a new genus and species, *Capellirallus karamu*, for a highly distinctive, very long-billed rail from cave deposits in the North Island. His original material included no bones of the wing or pectoral girdle but he suggested that the bird was probably

Tables 2-4 (opposite)

Table 2. Hindlimb elements of three species of *Tribonyx* expressed as percent of total hindlimb length.

Table 3. Size comparison (in mm) of North and South Island populations of *Tribonyx hodgeni*.
*From cnemial crest. **From articular surface.

Table 4. Size comparison (in mm) of three forms of Fulica. *From cnemial crest.

2	Femur	Tibia	Tarsus	ෆ		South	h Island			North Island	sland	
T. ventralis	26	45	29			n range	mean	ı s.d.	ជ	range	mean	s.d.
T. mortierii	27	77	28	Humerus		2 37.1-40.5	.5 38.8	3 1.70	28	32.4-43.2	40.5	2.57
T. hodgeni	33	43	24	Femur	П	11 52.1-59.3	.3 55.8	3 2.21	45	54.8-63.6	58.4	2.39
				Tibia*		6 73.2-79.3	.3 75.4	4 2.31	19	72.9-78.8	76.0	1.66
				Tibia**	П	10 69.2-77.9	.9 72.3	3 2.39	25	70.5-76.8	74.0	1.59
				Tarsus		4 39.7-42.4	.4 41.1	1 1.09	97	39.1-48.0	43.0	2.10
4		. с.	c. prisca			F. c. chath	chathamensis			F. atra	.1	
	¤		теап	s.d.	ц	range	пеап	s.d.	¤	range	пеап	s.d.
Width pelvis	. 5	34.7- 38.4	.4 35.9	1.32	21	31.7- 37.2	34.3	1.54	13	21.2- 24.7	22.6	1.11
Length femur	10	78.4- 89.8	.8 83.2	3.57	22	77.7- 89.5	83.1	3,63	13	53.6- 60.7	9.99	2.32
Length tibla	9	143.7-162.3	.3 150.7	6.36	29 i	152.0-168.0	160.8	4.66	13	97.1-112.9	104.0	4.40
Length tarsus	7	82.1- 95.9	.9 88.9	3.83	28	88.1-102.8	93.6	4.05	13	54.6- 63.8	59.0	2.49
Length coracoid	4	43.6- 45.2	.2 44.6	. 59	16	43.0- 48.8	45.2	1.81	13	32.8- 38.3	35.7	1.73
Depth carina	4	20.3- 21.0	.0 20.7	.27	12	20.2- 22.1	21.0	.64	12	19.8- 23.3	21.5	1.10
Length humerus	7	87.1- 98.3	.3 90.7	3.64	19	90.5- 99.7	6.46	3.05	13	71.0- 80.7	76.5	2.92
Length ulna					16	74.3-81.9	78.4	2.46	13	63.5- 73.0	67.9	2.76
Length carpus		1		-	12	47.1- 52.3	49.5	1.72	13	39.1- 45.0	42.1	1.87
Width cranium		1		; 	18	25.4- 28.4	27.2	.97	12	21.2- 23.5	22.4	.93
											-	

flightless and this was later confirmed by Scarlett (1970b) who described these elements and also noted a number of new localities for the species (the femur CM Av 20,878 from Tom Bowling Bay, Northland, however, is too large and stout to be from C. karamu and must pertain to some other rail). In most deposits C. karamu is less common than Tribonyx hodgeni and it has not yet been found in the South Island.

In its cranial morphology, Capellirallus is one of the most specialized and peculiar of the Rallidae. For its size it has the longest bill of any rail (Figs 2 and 3). The bill is angled markedly downward and is flexible, with a blunt flattened tip equipped with sensory pits. The bird was evidently highly adapted for probing; Falla's allusion in the generic name to its being snipe-like is apt. The braincase is distinctly broad, flattened, and rounded posteriorly (Fig. 2), and the naso-frontal area has a strong downward slope (Fig. 3) probably correlated with the steep angle of the bill.

The specialized structure of Capellirallus tends to obscure its possible relationships. However, a tendency towards a long, slender, down-angled bill and sloping cranium is expressed in the extinct flightless rail Gallirallus ("Cabalus") modestus (Hutton) of the Chatham Islands. While it is certain that G. modestus and Capellirallus were derived independently, it seems possible that Capellirallus may have evolved earlier from a Gallirallus (sensu lato) ancestor and proceeded even further along the same lines as taken later by "Cabalus". The wing and pectoral elements of Capellirallus are too modified to permit useful comparison with other taxa, but the pelvis and hindlimb are quite similar to those of Gallirallus: the tarsometatarsus in particular is a near duplicate of that of the extant New Zealand Weka, G. australis (Sparrman), although on a smaller scale.

The following brief descriptions will augment those of Falla (1954) and Scarlett (1970b) and will aid those identifying New Zealand avian subfossils in separating *C. karamu* from *Tribonyx hodgeni*.

No one could confuse the bills of *C. karamu* and *T. hodgeni*. The cranium of *T. hodgeni* is not flattened and sloped in the peculiar manner

of *C. karamu*, but is higher and narrower, the scars for the attachment of M. pseudotemporalis superficialis on the posterior wall of the orbit are smaller and extend farther dorsally on the external side, and the interorbital bridge is wider.

The wing and pectoral girdle of Capellirallus (Figs 4 and 5) are so much more reduced than in T. hodgeni that these elements of the two species may be distinguished on size alone (Table 1). There is probably no other rail with such small wing elements for its size. The humerus (Fig. 4) has a peculiar shape—wide at the proximal end and greatly reduced distally. The head is even with or lower than the internal tuberosity. The ulna and carpometacarpus (Fig. 4) are minute, the latter with its proximal end disproportionately large. The coracoid (Fig. 5) of C. karamu is smaller than in T. hodgeni and of an entirely different shape, with a large head, very slender shaft, and the sternal end not expanded, lacking the sterno-coracoidal process.

The sternum in Capellirallus (Fig. 5) is flattened and virtually without a keel, the carina being only a slight ridge beginning at about the level of the posteriormost costal facet. It differs further from T. hodgeni, which has a better-developed carina, in having a broad U-shaped notch between the coracoidal sulci. There appears to be considerable individual variation in the sternum of C. karamu. The sternum that Scarlett (1970b) depicted as that of T. hodgeni is actually that of a large individual of C. karamu and his illustration thus gives some idea of the amount of variation to be expected within this species.

The pelvis of *C. karamu* (Fig. 6) is smaller than in *T. hodgeni* and has the anterior ilium fused along most of its dorsal margin to the dorsal median ridge of the sacrum, unlike *T. hodgeni*. The ilio-ischiatic fenestra of *C. karamu* is smaller, shaped differently, and has its long axis at a different angle from that of *T. hodgeni*.

There is virtually no overlap in the measurements of the femur and tibiotarsus between *C. karamu* and *T. hodgeni*, these elements being larger in the latter species (Table 1). The shaft of the femur in *C. karamu* is more slender and the distal end is larger relative to the shaft (Fig. 7). The tibiotarsus (Fig. 7) is somewhat

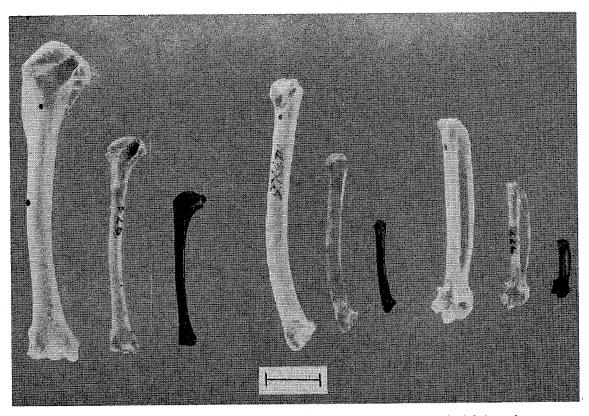


Fig. 4. Humeri, ulnae, and carpometacarpi. Tribonyx ventralis (MVZ 143365) is on the left in each group, T. hodgeni (NMNZ S 974; S 975; S 977) is in the middle, and Capellirallus karamu (CM Av 20615) is on the right. Scale = 10 mm.

more slender in *C. karamu* but could be difficult to separate from *T. hodgeni* if fragmentary. Generally, in proximal view the internal articular surface is more prominent and extends further anteriorly in *T. hodgeni* than in *C. karamu*.

The tarsometatarsi of the two species (Fig. 7) are difficult to distinguish because the measurements of *C. karamu* fall entirely within the lower range of *T. hodgeni* (Table 1). This apparently results from *Capellirallus* having an unusually large, heavy tarsometatarsus relative to the rest of the hindlimb. *T. hodgeni* may be distinguished from *C. karamu* by the more curved and sculptured shaft, the more prominent scar for the hallux, the more excavated internal side of the hypotarsus, and the lower, smaller, and in posterior view, more circular distal foramen. When the hypotarsus is intact, the internal canal is usually closed in *T. hodgeni* and open in *C. karamu*.

THE STATUS OF THE SUBFOSSIL COOTS OF NEW ZEALAND AND THE CHATHAM ISLANDS

Two very large subfossil coots have been named from the New Zealand region, the generic and specific status of which has remained unclear up to the present. In dune deposits on Chatham Island, H. O. Forbes (1892c) found a number of remains of coots. He originally believed that two species were represented, the smaller of which he considered identical with the extinct subfossil species Fulica newtonii Milne-Edwards of Mauritius, and the larger of which he named Fulica chathamensis. In a later report (1893b) he decided that there was only one species in the Chatham material and that it was identical to F. newtonii. For this far-flung "species" he created the genus Palaeolimnas, with newtonii as the type and only species. This genus, however, was based mainly on the skull characters of the Chatham birds. Milne-Edwards (1896) showed that newtonii was distinct from the Chatham

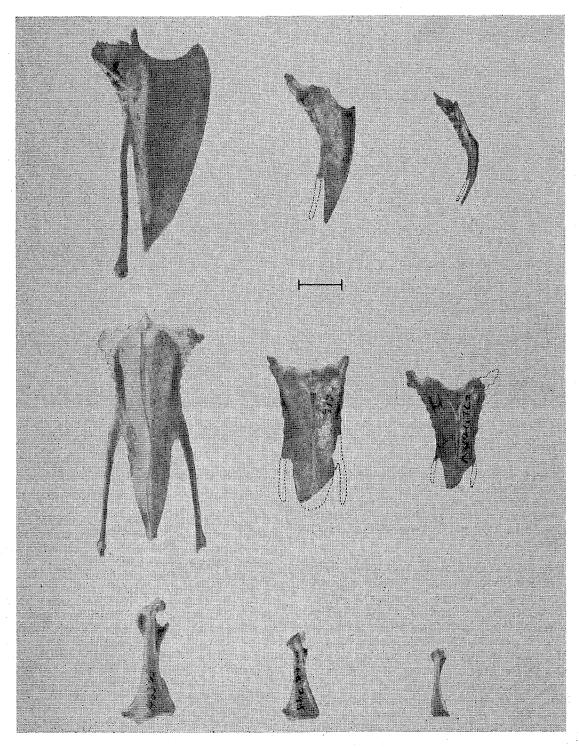


Fig. 5. Top to bottom: lateral view of sternum, ventral view of sternum, ventral view of coracoid. Left, *Tribonyx ventralis* (MVZ 143365); middle, *T. hodgeni* (NMNZ S 973; CM Av 22245); right. Capellirallus karamu (CM Av 21763; Av 21764). Scale = 10 mm.

birds and resurrected the name *chathamensis* for the latter, while maintaining both species in *Palaeolimnas*. Andrews (1896b) provided detailed descriptions and additional illustrations of *chathamensis*.

Meanwhile, Hamilton (1893) had discovered remains of a very large coot in cave deposits at Castle Rocks on the Oreti River in the South Island. He provisionally named it Fulica prisca, believing that it would "be convenient to have a name for this species" in the event it should prove separable from the Chatham and Mauritius coots. He did not compare it with either of those forms, however. Rothschild (1907) said that prisca differed from chathamensis in being volant but he did not state his evidence for this and it is not clear upon what material this opinion was based. Scarlett (1955a) reported that bones of prisca from Pyramid Valley were identical to chathamensis and relegated prisca to synonymy, as did Oliver (1955).

The most recent assessment of the New Zealand coots is that of Brodkorb and Dawson (1962). Believing that Andrews (1896b) had "demonstrated that the Chatham coot differs from Palaeolimnas newtoni, and from Fulica, in every major element of the skeleton, even to the ribs," they proposed a new genus, Nesophalaris, with chathamensis as the type, leaving newtonii as the only species in the genus Palaeolimnas. They also considered the claim that F. prisca was inseparable from chathamensis to be undocumented and maintained prisca as a separate species in Nesophalaris.

Typical chathamensis is known only from Chatham Island. Forbes's type series is in the British Museum (Natural History) (Dawson 1958) and there is abundant material of the species in New Zealand museums and elsewhere. On the mainland, prisca has been recorded from at least 16 localities in the South Island (Brodkorb and Dawson 1962, Trotter 1965) and one in the North Island (Dawson 1962).

Hamilton's syntypes of *prisca* are in the National Museum of New Zealand. They all carry the letters CR (= Castle Rocks) and are registered as DM (now replaced by NMNZ) 379. In addition, each bone in the series has an individual Hamilton catalogue number within the sequence 350-447, written as the numerator in a fractional notation above the number 29

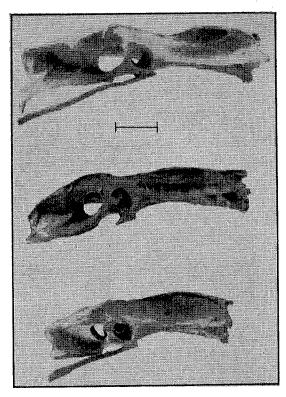


Fig. 6. Top to bottom: lateral view of pelvis of Tribonyx ventralis (MVZ 143365), T. hodgeni (CM Av 5803), and Capellirallus karamu (CM Av 21764). Scale = 10 mm.

as the denominator (believed to be the Hamilton locality number for the Castle Rocks site). With these syntypes is a handwritten list, apparently Hamilton's, of the specimens used in the description of F. prisca. If no errors were made in numbering the bones, it would seem that several bones are missing from the series-2 femora, 3 humeri, 3 coracoids, a cranium, a furcula, a pelvis, between 2 and 5 tarsometatarsi, and 2 to 5 tibiotarsi. Remaining are 8 left and 4 right femora, 10 left and 9 right tibotarsi, 9 left and 8 right tarsometatarsi, 6 left and 8 right humeri, 3 left and 2 right coracoids, 5 sterna, 5 pelves, 3 clavicles, 2 vertebrae, 4 crania, 1 rostrum, and 3 mandibles. In this series, humerus 421/29 is from the extinct duck Euryanas finschi and humerus 417/29 is from the Laughing Owl Sceloglaux albifacies. Since the type series includes more than one species and since part of this series is evidently missing, I designate the right humerus with the Hamilton number 411/29 (re-registered as NMNZ S. 990) as lectotype of Fulica

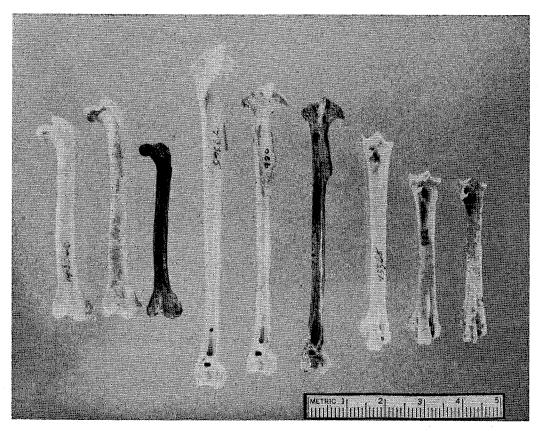


Fig. 7. Femora, tibiotarsi, tarsometatarsi. *Tribonyx ventralis* (MVZ 143365) is on the left in each group, *T. hodgeni* (NMNZ S 985; S 980; S 982) is in the middle, and *Capellirallus karamu* (CM Av 20615; Av 20650) is on the right.

prisca (Fig. 8). Its measurements (in mm) are: length 96.8, proximal width 20.2, shaft width 6.0, distal width 13.6.

No characters are given by Brodkorb and Dawson (1962) for the genus Nesophalaris; they merely cited the fact that Andrews (1896b) pointed out differences between chathamensis and other species of Fulica, including "Palaeolimnas" newtonii. They do not suggest which of these differences are to be considered of generic value and which of only specific value. A careful reading of Andrew's paper reveals that although differences are noted, nearly every element of chathamensis is described as being "very similar to" or "very like" Fulica or "differing only in unimportant details."

In my view, none of the characters of chathamensis or prisca, or of Palaeolimnas for that matter, will allow these forms to be separ-

ated generically from Fulica. They differ from the living Old World Coot Fulica atra Linnaeus in their much greater size (Table 4) and in modifications for flightlessness—neither of which is of generic significance. The skull characters (see below) are highly variable between individuals of the same population, and are likewise of no significance at the generic level. On the other hand, modifications such as the distinctively narrowed pelvis and the shape of the humerus are specializations typical of Fulica (Olson 1973b). It is obvious that chathamensis and prisca are but large flightless forms of Fulica. They are here returned to that genus, Nesophalaris being considered a synonym.

In Table 4 the dimensions of specimens of chathamensis in the National Museum of New Zealand (NMNZ 384, 385) and the Canterbury Museum are compared with Hamilton's type series of prisca. Apart from a tendency for

smaller tibiae and tarsi in the small sample of prisca, the two forms are virtually identical in size, and overlap is nearly complete. Additional measurements of specimens of chathamensis in the British Museum (Natural History) are given in Cracraft (1973) and average somewhat smaller than those in Table 4, thus being even closer to prisca. The two forms clearly cannot be separated on the basis of size. The depth of the carina in chathamensis and prisca is identical, and since this measurement is also the same as in the volant species Fulica atra, which is otherwise much smaller (Table 4), it is almost certain that both of the fossil forms were flightless (contra Rothschild 1907).

In some skulls of *chathamensis*, the supraorbital impressions are very large, while in others they are poorly developed (Andrews 1896b). These impressions accommodate saltexcreting glands, the hypertrophy of which in some individuals of *chathamensis* is an indication that the population was adapting to the salt stress imposed on them by living in the

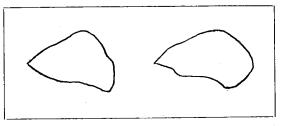


Fig. 8. Diagrammatic outlines of abnormal domed cranium (left) and normal cranium (right) of Fulica chathamensis prisca.

lagoons of Chatham Island. Two of the paralectotypic crania of prisca (Hamilton Nos 441, 443) are peculiarly domed posteriorly (Fig. 8). One of these is of a juvenile and it may be that this abnormal shape is the result of retention of the shape of the juvenile or embryonic cranium. Some individuals of chathamensis also exhibit a tendency towards this domed shape, but not as pronounced. The individual variation in the skulls of prisca and chathamensis is too great to permit one to distinguish even racial differences between the two forms.

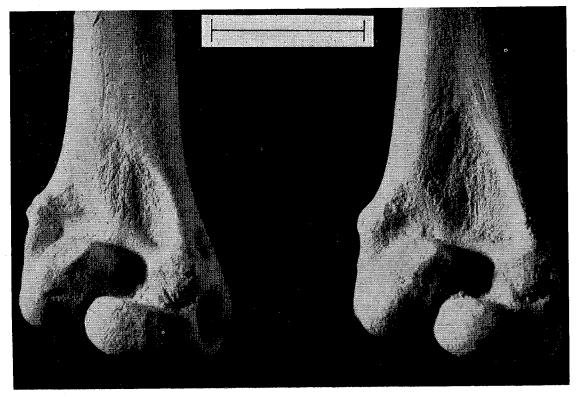


Fig. 9. Palmar view of distal end of right humerus. Left, Fulica chathamensis prisca (Lectotype NMNZ S. 990, Hamilton No. 411/29); right, Fulica chathamensis chathamensis (NMNZ 384). Scale = 10 mm.

I find one consistent difference, however, between prisca and chathamensis, and it is likely that there are others that I have overlooked. In chathamensis the brachial depression of the humerus is always much deeper and more extensive than in prisca (Fig. 9). All humeri may be separated and identified on this basis. I therefore recommend that the two forms be given subspecific status. The Chatham bird thus becomes Fulica chathamensis chathamensis Forbes and the New Zealand bird becomes Fulica chathamensis prisca Hamilton.

It is highly unlikely that F. c. chathamensis arrived at Chatham Island by any method other than flying. Thus it must have been derived from prisca stock before the latter became flightless. The two populations necessarily evolved their flightless conditions independently. Considering this, it is remarkable that they are so similar. The situation somewhat parallels that of Gallinula nesiotis Sclater and G. comeri (Allen), the two nearly identical flightless gallinules of Tristan da Cunha and Gough Island, respectively, in the Atlantic (Olson 1973a), and is a further indication of the ease and rapidity with which flightlessness evolves.

The species *F. chathamensis* probably evolved from *F. atra* stock that colonized New Zealand from Australia. It is interesting that since the extinction of *F. c. prisca*, New Zealand has been recolonized by *F. atra*, the first proven breeding occurring in 1958 (Kinsky 1970).

REMARKS ON THE EXTINCT RAILS OF THE CHATHAM ISLANDS

In addition to Fulica chathamensis, there were at least three other species of endemic rails inhabiting the Chatham Islands. Two of these, Gallirallus ("Nesolimnas") dieffenbachii (Gray) and G. ("Cabalus") modestus (Hutton), although now extinct, survived until the arrival of Europeans and are known from skins as well as subfossil remains. I reviewed some of the literature and history of these two species, which I included in the genus Gallirallus (Olson 1973b), and concluded that no substantial evidence had been presented to document their sympatry—dieffenbachii being

definitely known only from Chatham Island itself and *modestus* only from the islet of Mangare, but possibly from Pitt Island as well. Although this conclusion was perhaps justified on the basis of the evidence then at hand, it appears now that it was not correct. At the time, I was unaware of the great disparity in size of the two species—*dieffenbachii* being much larger. This size difference would be a factor favouring their coexistence.

In the Canterbury Museum there is an anterior end of a mandible (Av. 27,507) from dune deposits on Chatham Island that appears to be of *modestus*, as it is rather small and slender. If *modestus* occurred on Chatham it was certainly much less numerous than *dieffenbachii*, as the latter is very abundant in the extensive collections of subfossil material from that island.

Falla (1960) reported on a small collection of bird bones in the National Museum from Pitt Island, of which Mangare, the known home of *modestus*, is but a small satellite. One rail with a maxilla length of 38 mm and a tibia length of 79 mm was identified as Gallirallus minor, a highly unlikely occurrence. Bones of a second rail (not now available) were said to be "much smaller" than the first species "but the same shape," and their size "fell within the range accorded to R. dieffenbachii." However, the dimensions of the larger specimens exactly match those of some subfossil specimens of dieffenbachii from Chatham Island. Furthermore, in the NMNZ I examined a small lot of unregistered bird remains from Pitt Island containing six bones that are inseparable from those of dieffenbachii (S. 1005-1010). No bones in this lot appear to be referable to modestus. Whether the smaller bones from Pitt reported by Falla are also from dieffenbachii, which the abundant Chatham remains indicate was quite variable in size, or from modestus, has yet to be determined, but it seems unlikely that modestus would have been absent from Pitt.

While the evidence for the actual sympatry of dieffenbachii and modestus is still rather tenuous, it is now clear that the former was present on Pitt Island as well as Chatham Island. It might be suggested that dieffenbachii, which was the least modified of the two species

and obviously the more recent arrival on the Chatham Islands, may have been in competition with the smaller and more specialized *modestus* and had all but replaced it except on the islet of Mangare.

The most distinctive rail of the Chatham Islands was Diaphorapteryx hawkinsi (Forbes), a very large, heavy, flightless species first described from deposits on Chatham Island by H. O. Forbes (1892a), who placed it in the Mascarene genus Aphanapteryx. For his new species he shortly thereafter created the genus Diaphorapteryx (1892d), which he just as quickly rejected to return to Aphanapteryx (1893a). The flurry of closely spaced communications from Forbes tends to obscure the original citations for both the species and the genus, neither appearing correctly in Brodkorb (1967). The original description of Aphanapteryx hawkinsi is a one sentence telegram published in Nature (Forbes 1892a) and is not either of two subsequent notes (Forbes 1892b, 1892c). Brodkorb (1967) erroneously lists a skeleton as the type, but the original description was based on a skull only. Although not mentioned by Dawson (1958), there is a series of skulls of Diaphorapteryx in the Forbes collection at the British Museum (Natural History) (Dawson, pers. comm.). Presumably this series contains the type, although it may not now be identifiable as such. Forbes's original description of the genus Diaphorapteryx is that in the Bulletin of the British Ornithologists' Club (1892d) and not the verbatim reprint in Ibis (1893 Ser. 6, 5:253-254).

Diaphorapteryx resembles Aphanapteryx mainly in the superficial similarity of the pointed decurved bill. There are a number of striking differences between the two genera, the most noticeable of which is in the tarsometatarsus, which in Diaphorapteryx is very short and stout, while in Aphanapteryx it is long and slender. Other differences were detailed by Andrews (1896a), who concluded that the two genera had evolved quite independently of each other. Concerning the origin and relationships of Diaphorapteryx it is appropriate to turn to the same author's remarks (Andrews 1896a:84), which, particularly considering the period when they were written, can hardly be improved upon: "In the case of Diaphorapteryx this ancestor was most likely some widespread form such as [Gallirallus philippensis] is at the present day, individuals of which from time to time reach New Zealand, Lord Howe

Island, and the Chatham Islands... The modified descendants of these birds are now referred to the genera *Diaphorapteryx*, *Cabalus*, and *Ocydromus*, the most highly modified forms being the outcome of earlier, the less altered of later colonizations." In this regard it may be noted that an approach to the bill shape and deep temporal fossae of *Diaphorapteryx* is seen in the much smaller living species *Gallirallus sylvestris* (Sclater) of Lord Howe Island.

It appears that in the New Zealand region there has been a diverse radiation of rails of a Gallirallus stock that has given rise to Gallirallus australis, G. ("Nesolimnas") dieffenbachii, G. ("Sylvestrornis") sylvestris, G. ("Cabalus") modestus and such divergent forms as Capellirallus and Diaphorapteryx. There is as much diversity in skull morphology in this group as may be observed throughout the rest of the family Rallidae. A comparative study of the skulls of these forms would probably provide as instructive an example of morphological adaptive radiation from a common stock as can be found in any group of non-passerine birds.

On Gallirallus minor

Our knowledge of the rail known as Gallirallus minor is very imperfect and will not be much improved upon here. The species was named in a provisional manner by Hamilton (1893:103) thus: "I had in the first draft of this paper proposed the name of O. [cydromus] minor; but I can hardly venture to inflict a fresh name without a larger series of measurements for comparison." With Hamilton's characterization of a series of bones from Castle Rocks, South Island, as being smaller and more slender than the living Gallirallus australis, his use of minor nevertheless constitutes a valid description. Hamilton's own reservations notwithstanding, the name has been perpetuated, and even though the "species" has never properly been defined or illustrated, it has still been listed from a number of fossil localities in various parts of New Zealand.

The syntypical series of *minor* as listed by Hamilton (1893) consisted of 2 pelves, 7 femora, 6 tibiotarsi, 5 tarsometatarsi, and the anterior portion of a sternum. The two pelves (NMNZ S. 987, S. 988) and the sternum (S. 989) are in the National Museum of New Zealand, together with a note to the effect that

5	n	range	mean	s.d.
Castle Rocks	56	49.3-70.8	61.1	5.61
G. a. scotti	14	50.7-60.5	56.4	3.26
G. a. australis	32	54.4-72.5	63.4	4.95
G. a. greyi	14	57.0-70.5	62.4	4.29
ł .				

Table 5. Tarsal measurements (in mm) of bones of South Island subfossil *Gallirallus* compared with measurements obtained from skins of modern *G. australis*.

they are part of Hamilton's type material and that the remainder of the series is missing.

In handling subfossil material of flightless Gallirallus from New Zealand, one does find specimens that are smaller and more delicate than in any available modern skeletons of G. australis. This may in part be due to a lack of adequate series of recent skeletons. There is considerable individual, sexual, and geographic variation in the size of G. australis. Birds from Stewart Island (G. a. scotti), for instance, are smaller than those from the mainland. Hamilton (1893) gives a tarsus length of 53 mm for minor, which is within the range of variation of G. a. scotti and very nearly within the lower limits of G. a. australis and G. a. greyi (Table 5). In the NMNZ there is an unregistered series of 56 subfossil tarsometatarsi of Gallirallus from various localities in the South Island. Some of these specimens are smaller than modern G. australis. Four are even smaller than the "syntype" tarsus measurement of G. minor given by Hamilton (1893). Yet together, this series averages the same size as modern G. australis (Table 5). When plotted, the measurements appear to fall into two groups, but this is probably due to sexual dimorphism because the dividing line between them is well within the size range of modern australis and there is no point where the smaller individuals of the size of "minor" can be separated from the larger ones.

It is possible that the former populations of Gallirallus australis may have included a greater range of size variation and more smaller individuals than do the modern populations. Introduced predators might then have selected against the smaller individuals, thus eliminating the lower ranges of size variation within the species and leaving the larger forms known

today as Gallirallus australis. I find it difficult to believe that at one time there were two nearly identical species of Gallirallus in New Zealand that differed so little in size. It will be necessary to undertake a detailed study of individual and geographic variation in the subfossil forms before the actual status of G. minor can be determined. Until this is done, the validity of minor can be neither justified nor completely denied, but I am highly sceptical that it will prove to be an entity entirely distinct from G. australis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am much indebted to my friend R. J. Scarlett for assistance, facilities, and specimens provided at the Canterbury Museum (CM), Christchurch. Aid and accommodations in Christchurch were also kindly provided by Mr and Mrs B. A. Chapman. At the National Museum of New Zealand (NMNZ), Wellington, Frank M. Climo and John C. Yaldwyn were unrelenting in their efforts to ensure the success of my visits; their many kindnesses and hospitality are deeply appreciated. Ned K. Johnson, Museum of Vertebrate Zoology (MVZ), Berkeley, and A. R. McEvey, National Museum of Victoria, Melbourne, lent comparative material. John Farrand, Jr., offered valuable comments on the manuscript. My transportation to New Zealand in 1973 was provided by the Office of Polar Programs, U.S. National Science Foundation, through the U.S. National Academy of Sciences, and in 1974 by the Smithsonian Institution. The photographs are the careful work of Victor E. Krantz, Smithsonian Institution, except Figure 8 which was kindly supplied by T. R. Ulyatt, National Museum of New Zealand.

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