

RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Morphometric variations in the genus *Chrotogonus* Serville, 1838 (Orthoptera: Pyrgomorphidae) from Sindh, Pakistan

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Abstract

We studied inter and intra-specific morphometrical variability across six species/subspecies of *Chrotogonus* Serville, 1838 (Orthoptera: Pyrgomorphidae) consisting on *Chrotogonus homalodemus* (Blanchard, 1836), *C. homalodemus* (Blanchard, 1836), *C. trachypterus trachypterus* (Blanchard, 1836), *C. trachypterus robertsi* Kirby, 1914, *C. trachypterus* (Blanchard, 1836), and *C. turanicus* Kuthy, 1905 from Sindh, Pakistan. The investigation was based on a comparative study of external morphological measurements of the six major body parts including: Antennal segments, length of head, length of pronotum, length of tegmina, length of wings, and total body length. Interspecific morphometric variation showed highest variation as $16.00 \pm 04.33\text{mm}$ in the length of tegmina of *C. homalodemus* and lowest variation $01.98 \pm 00.05\text{mm}$ in length of pronotum of *C. trachypterus robertsi* while intraspecific morphometric variation amongst females was highest than males. The species of *Chrotogonus* are closely similar and no satisfactory field characters exist by which may be distinguished. This study will fill the specific identification gap amongst this taxon.

Key words: *Chrotogonus*, interspecific, intraspecific, variations, dimorphism.

INTRODUCTION

Members of family Pyrgomorphidae, the shorthorned grasshoppers, show great morphological diversity between genera and species (COPR 1982). In this family genus *Chrotogonus* Serville, 1838 is readily recognized by its squat shape, brown, earthy coloration and dull appearance, strongly rugose integument and extremely slant-faced head. Its species are closely similar with each other (Meena, 2020), so, it was very essential to carry its morphometric analysis which is useful tool for the separation and identification of many groups of insects (Daly, 1985; Baylac et al., 2003; Azrizal et al., 2016). Morphometric techniques have been used to assist quantitative measurement and analysis of morphological variation in size and shape of the organisms such as: (Kundu & Mathur, 1963; Chohan, 1960; Digo et al., 2015; Jat et al., 2007; Samejo & Riffat, 2019; Raghavender & Vastrad, 2017; Riffat et al., 2020). Morphometric characters also represent one of the major keys for determining systematic and growth variability (Kovac et al., 1999). The morphological shape and size of the body and wing of insects comprehensively studied to clarify the relationship between closely related taxa and to help in identifying population within and between species of insects (Riva et al., 2001; Villegas et al., 2002; Aytekin et al., 2007; Tuzun, 2009; Riffat et al., 2019). It is reported that the variation in body size is an element of natural populations and has vital

implications for the understanding of the population dynamics and stability of ecological systems (Roonwal, 1981; Filin & Ovadia, 2007). A number of other studies have reported the use of morphometry on Acridoidea for the description of new species using a low number of specimens (Blackith & Albrecht, 1960; Descamps, 1977; Chapman et al., 1977; Amedegnato & Descamps, 1978; Amedegnato & Descamps, 1979; Ademolu & Idowu, 2013; Tajamul & Ahmad, 2016; Tabikha & Adss, 2017). Little is known about morphometric variation in the *Chrotogonus*, therefore this study is designed to determine the difference in various body parts of this group in order to recognize it as correct taxon. It was assumed that increasing wing length and body size are indicative increasing dispersal and reproductive capability respectively. During this study significant variations were noticed.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Field work

During present study a total of 570 mature *Chrotogonus* Serville, 1838 were collected from Sindh, Pakistan. Sample collections were done using random sampling technique based on Guibord, 1969; Riffat & Wagan, 2015. Collected specimens were narcotized with menthol (naphthalene) crystals. All samples deposited in the Entomology and Bio-Control Research Lab, Department of Zoology, University of Sindh, Pakistan.

Morphometric analysis of samples

Morphometric analysis was based on six parameters including length of antennal (LA) and total number of segments (present in an antennae), length of head (LH) (the distance from fastigium of vertex to the posterior end of head), length of pronotum (LP) (the distance from the anterior end to the posterior end of the pronotum, measured along the medial pronotal carina), length of tegmina (LT) (the distance from the base of radius and media to the apex of the tegmina), length of wing (LW) (The distance from axial region to the apex of the wing) and total body length (TBL) (the distance from front of head to terminal region of abdomen) (Figure 1).

Data Analysis

Measurements were arranged in tabular form. Charts Excel (MS Office 2007) has been used to show the variation. Standard deviation error bar charts have been made. To calculate the average of measured values (mm) of different body parameters of different species mean (μ) formula has been applied:

$\mu = \frac{\sum x}{N}$ and the amount of dispersion of values of mean (μ) was calculated by:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \mu)^2}{N}}$$

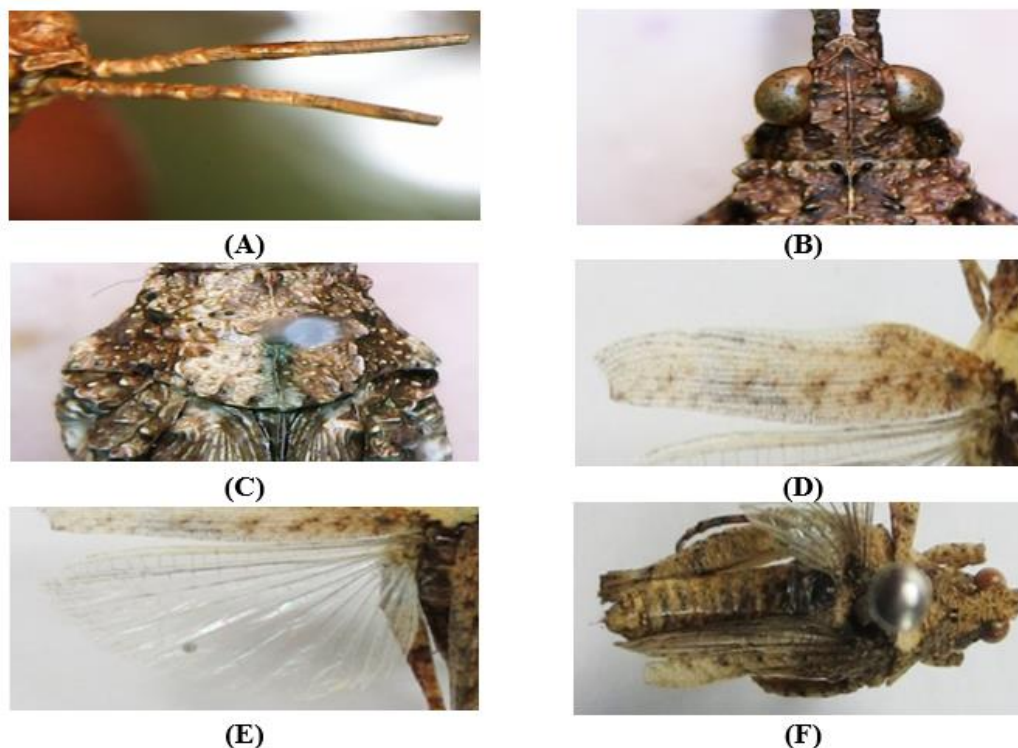


FIGURE 1. Morphometric analysis of various body parts. A) Length of antenna: Total number of segments present in an antenna B) Length of head: The distance from fastigium of vertex to the posterior end of head C) Length of pronotum: The distance from the anterior end to the posterior end of the pronotum, measured along the medial pronotal carina D) Length of tegmina: the distance from the base of radius and media to the apex of the tegmina E) Length of wing: The distance from axial region to the apex of the wing F) Total body length: The distance from front of head to terminal region of abdomen.

RESULTS

These characters were measured in six *Chrotogonus* species consisting: *C. homalodemus homalodemus*, *C. homalodemus*, *C. trachypterus trachypterus*, *C. trachypterus robertsi*, *C. trachypterus*, and *C. turanicus* (Figure 2).

Interspecific variation analyses

Morphometric variations of different body parts were calculated and mean values with standard deviations has shown in Table 1 and 2. Mean and standard deviations of 10 females and 10 males of each species were taken and numbers of antennal segments were also counted. The highest numbers of antennal segments were counted 16 in each antenna of *C. homalodemus homalodemus* and *C. homalodemus* and lowest number of antennal segments were counted 12 in each antenna of *C. turanicus* while *C. trachypterus trachypterus*, *C. trachypterus robertsi* and *C. trachypterus* shows 13 antennal segments in each antenna. Length of head: *C. turanicus* showed the highest variation 01.86 ± 00.66 mm in size of LH whereas *C. trachypterus robertsi* showed the lowest variation 01.77 ± 00.07 mm in size of LH. Length of pronotum: *C. homalodemus homalodemus* showed the highest variation 01.82 ± 00.51 mm in size of pronotum although *C. trachypterus robertsi* showed the lowest variation 01.98 ± 00.05 mm in size of LP. Length of tegmina: *C. homalodemus* showed the highest variation 16.00 ± 04.33 mm in size of LT while in *C. trachypterus robertsi* it was lowest 09.23 ± 00.12 mm in size of LT. Length of Wing: *C. homalodemus homalodemus* showed the highest variation

14.60 ± 03.28mm in size of LW whereas *C. trachypterus robertsi* showed the lowest variation 11.62±00.10mm in size of LW. Total body length: *C. turanicus* showed the highest variation 15.50±02.11mm in size of body whereas *C. trachypterus* showed the lowest variation 14.10 ± 00.59mm in size of body Table 1 and 2.

Intraspecific variation analyses

Among members of same species of both sexes, comparative morphometric statistical analysis of various body parameters has been observed in Figure 3 and 4.

***Chrotogonus homalodemus homalodemus* (♂♀):** Length of head (00.91±00.19 ♂; 01.26±00.19 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and identical variability. ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability was analyzed in ♂ and ♀ indistinguishable. Length of pronotum (01.40±00.17 ♂; 01.82±00.51 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value as well as variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating pronotum as distinguishable characteristic. Length of tegmina (15.60±01.14 ♂; 16.15±03.46 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating tegmina as distinguishable characteristic. Length of wings (14.60±01.14 ♂; 14.60±03.28 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have identical mean value and discrete variability. ♀ has greater variability than ♂ whereas mean value was analyzed in ♂ and ♀ indistinguishable. Total body length (17.30±00.83 ♂; 20.60±01.14 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 3a-b).

***Chrotogonus homalodemus* (♂♀):** Length of head (00.93±00.21 ♂; 01.43±00.20 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as minutely smaller in ♀ as compared to ♂. Length of pronotum (01.44±00.12 ♂; 01.85±00.49 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating pronotum as distinguishable characteristic. Length of tegmina (16.06±01.17 ♂; 16.00±04.33 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has minutely smaller mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as greater in ♀ as compared to ♂. Length of wing (14.60±01.22 ♂; 14.66±03.04 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has minutely greater mean value whereas variability significantly greater in ♀ as compared to ♂. Total body length (18.22±00.91 ♂; 21.71±01.03 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 3c-d).

***Chrotogonus trachypterus trachypterus* (♂♀):** Length of head (02.06±00.08 ♂; 02.41±00.31 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating head as distinguishable characteristic. Length of pronotum (02.62±00.17 ♂; 03.67±00.17 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and identical variability. ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability was analyzed in ♂ and ♀ indistinguishable. Length of tegmina (12.40±00.54 ♂; 16.90±01.34 ♀) in

both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating tegmina as distinguishable characteristic. Length of wing (11.40 ± 0.54 ♂; 16.00 ± 0.41 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating wing as distinguishable characteristic. Total body Length (14.00 ± 0.61 ♂; 20.40 ± 0.51 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 3e-f).

***Chrotogonus trachypterus robertsi* (♂♀):** Length of head (01.05 ± 0.11 ♂; 01.77 ± 0.07 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as smaller in ♀ as compared to ♂. Length of pronotum (01.55 ± 0.11 ♂; 01.98 ± 0.05 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as smaller in ♀ as compared to ♂. Length of tegmina (09.23 ± 0.12 ♂; 12.86 ± 0.24 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as minutely smaller in ♂ as compared to ♀. Length of Wings (08.15 ± 0.11 ♂; 11.62 ± 0.10 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability recorded as minutely smaller in ♀ as compared to ♂. Total body length (13.40 ± 0.25 ♂; 17.30 ± 0.72 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 4a-b).

***Chrotogonus trachypterus* (♂♀):** Length of head (01.12 ± 0.08 ♂; 01.92 ± 0.31 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating head as distinguishable characteristic. Length of pronotum (01.99 ± 0.18 ♂; 02.07 ± 0.18 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and identical variability. ♀ has greater mean value than ♂ whereas variability was analyzed in ♂ and ♀ indistinguishable. Length of tegmina (09.80 ± 0.61 ♂; 12.90 ± 0.34 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating tegmina as distinguishable characteristic. Length of Wings (09.01 ± 0.49 ♂; 11.01 ± 0.23 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating wing as distinguishable characteristic. Total body Length (14.10 ± 0.59 ♂; 17.80 ± 0.23 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 4c-d).

***Chrotogonus turanicus* (♂♀):** Length of head (01.71 ± 0.51 ♂; 01.86 ± 0.66 ♀) in both sex analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating head as distinguishable characteristic. Length of pronotum (01.92 ± 0.21 ♂; 02.39 ± 0.44 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating pronotum as distinguishable characteristic. Length of tegmina (08.98 ± 0.90 ♂; 09.54 ± 0.12 ♀) in

both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed

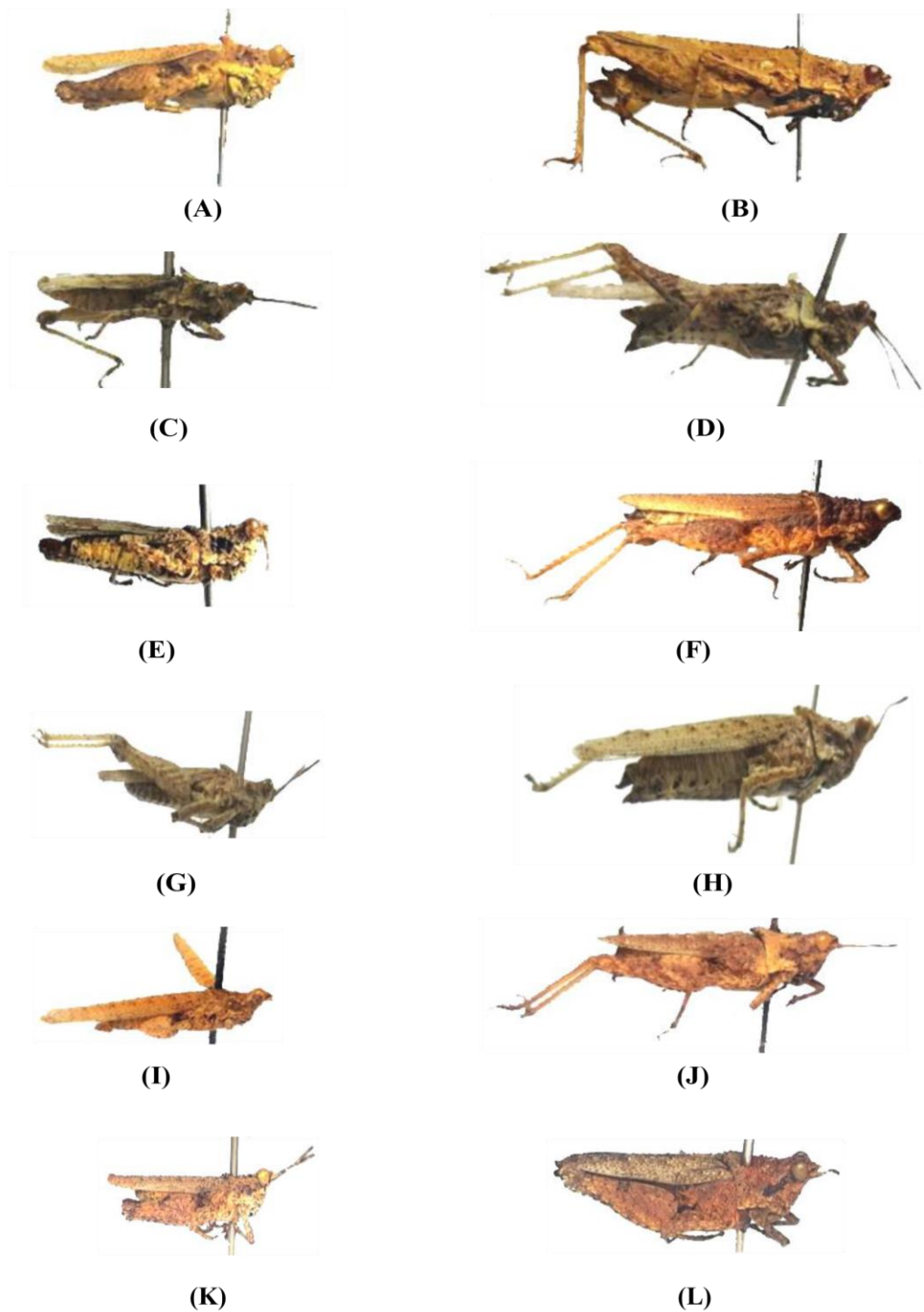


FIGURE 2. *C. (Chrotogonus) homalodemus* (A) ♂ (B) ♀, *C. (Chrotogonus) h. homalodemus* (C) ♂ (D) ♀, *C. (Chrotogonus) trachypterus robertsi* (E) ♂ (F) ♀, *C. (Chrotogonus) trachypterus trachypterus*

(G) ♂ (H) ♀, *Chrotogonus (Chrotogonus) trachypterus* (I) ♂ (J) ♀, *Chrotogonus (Chrotogonus) turanicus*: (K) ♂ (L) ♀

TABLE 1. Morphological traits and measurement (mm) for wild-caught 2019) *Chrotogonus* spp.

BP	Mean ± S.D (mm)					
	<i>C. homalodemus homalodemus</i>		<i>C. homalodemus</i>		<i>C. trachypterus trachypterus</i>	
	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)
AS	16.00 ± 00.00	16.00 ± 00.00	16.60 ± 00.89	16.80 ± 00.83	13.00 ± 00.00	13.00 ± 00.00
LH	00.91 ± 00.19	01.26 ± 00.19	00.91 ± 00.19	01.26 ± 00.19	02.06 ± 00.08	02.41 ± 00.31
LP	01.40 ± 00.00	01.82 ± 00.51	01.40 ± 00.00	01.82 ± 00.51	02.62 ± 00.17	03.67 ± 00.17
LT	15.60 ± 01.14	16.00 ± 03.46	15.60 ± 01.14	16.00 ± 03.46	12.40 ± 00.54	16.90 ± 01.34
LW	14.60 ± 01.14	14.60 ± 03.28	14.60 ± 01.14	14.60 ± 03.28	11.40 ± 00.54	16.00 ± 01.41
TBL	17.30 ± 00.83	20.60 ± 01.14	17.30 ± 00.83	20.60 ± 01.14	14.00 ± 00.61	20.40 ± 01.51

TABLE 2. Morphological traits and measurement (mm) for wild-caught 2019) *Chrotogonus* spp.

BP	Mean ± S.D (mm)					
	<i>C. trachypterus robertsi</i>		<i>C. trachypterus</i>		<i>C. turanicus</i>	
	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)	♂ (n=05)	♀ (n=05)
AS	13.00 ± 00.00	13.00 ± 00.00	13.00 ± 00.00	13.00 ± 00.00	12.00 ± 00.00	12.00 ± 00.00
LH	00.84 ± 00.09	01.24 ± 00.07	02.12 ± 00.08	02.41 ± 00.31	02.81 ± 00.51	03.17 ± 00.66
LP	10.30 ± 00.11	13.26 ± 00.05	02.52 ± 00.18	03.52 ± 00.18	03.22 ± 00.21	03.97 ± 00.44
LT	09.23 ± 00.12	12.86 ± 00.24	11.80 ± 00.61	15.90 ± 01.34	08.21 ± 00.90	09.24 ± 01.12
LW	07.15 ± 00.11	08.62 ± 00.10	11.01 ± 00.49	15.01 ± 01.23	07.19 ± 00.39	08.01 ± 01.52
TBL	13.00 ± 00.00	13.00 ± 00.00	13.50 ± 00.59	17.80 ± 01.23	12.70 ± 00.81	16.20 ± 02.11

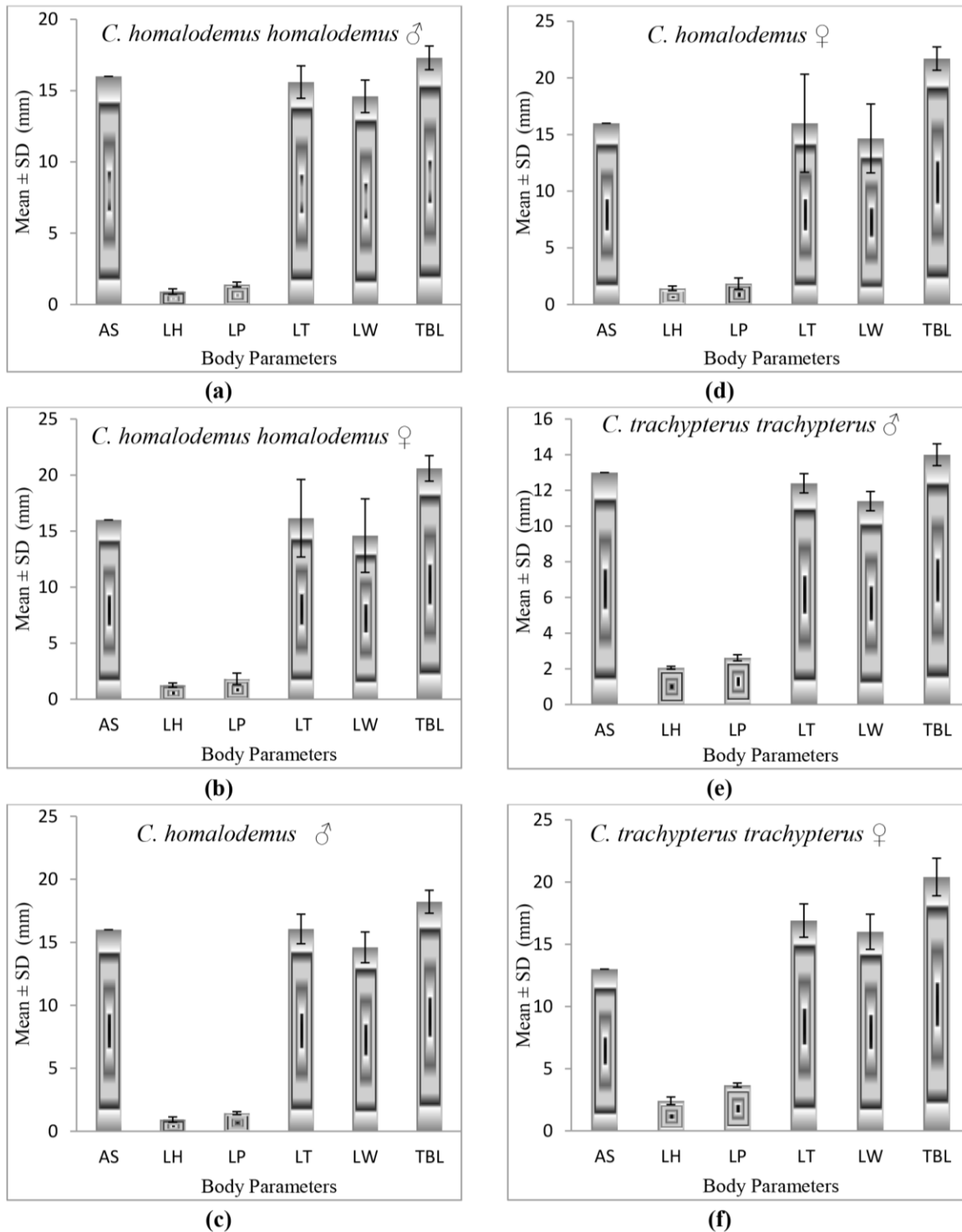


FIGURE 3. (a) *C. homalodemus homalodemus* ♂ (b) *C. homalodemus homalodemus* ♀ (c) *C. homalodemus* ♂ (d) *C. homalodemus* ♀ (e) *C. trachypterus trachypterus* ♂ (f) *C. trachypterus trachypterus* ♀.

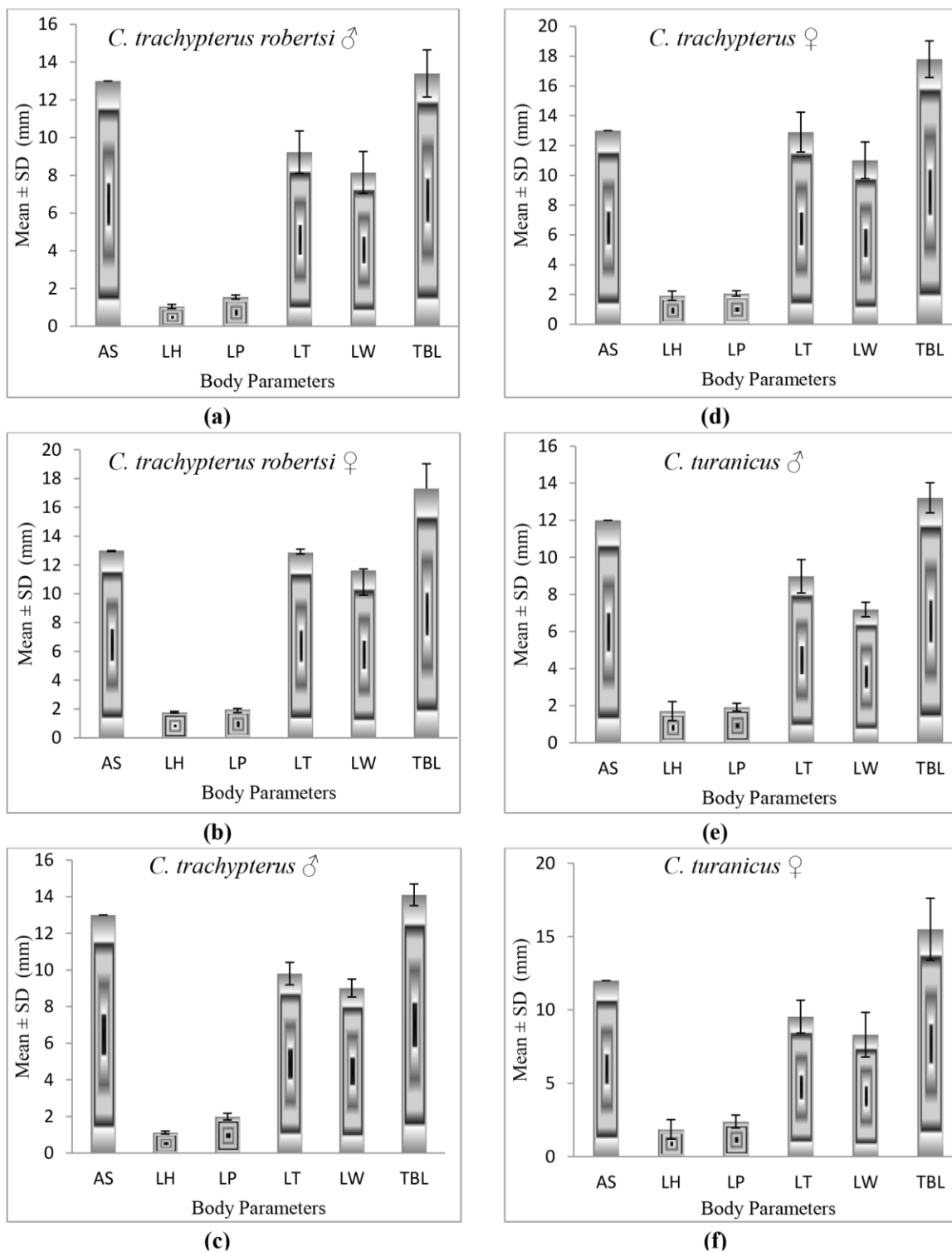


FIGURE 4. (a) *C. trachypterus robertsi* ♂ (b) *C. trachypterus robertsi* ♀ (c) *C. trachypterus* ♂ (d) *C. trachypterus* ♀ (e) *C. turanicus* ♂ (f) *C. turanicus* ♀

that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating tegmina as distinguishable characteristic. Length of wings (07.19 ± 00.39 ♂; 08.31 ± 01.52 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating wing as distinguishable characteristic. Total body length (13.21 ± 00.81 ♂; 15.50 ± 02.11 ♀) in both sexes analyzed as have discrete mean value and variability. It has been analyzed that ♀ has greater mean value as well as variability than ♂ that indicating body length as distinguishable characteristic (Fig. 4e-f).

DISCUSSION

Statistical analysis of the morphometry in the size of the different body parts of *Chrotogonus* species revealed significant differences in studied species. Significant highest variation was seen in the length of tegmina of *C. homalodemus* and lowest variation in length of pronotum of *C. trachypterus robertsi*. Present study suggests adult body size is affected by seasonality, temperature, and food availability. Food availability for primary consumers in food webs relies on plant primary production, which strongly depends on precipitation regimens (Gibert, 2019). Other studies recommend that changes in phenotypic characters and food web connectance may decrease in the number of trophic levels and impacts on feeding interactions respectively (Brose, 2012; Petchey, 2010). Bai et al. (2016) carried work on geometric morphometric differences in wing shape and size of *Trilophidia annulata* among 39 geographical populations in China and suggested that the size of the forewing and hind-wing were significantly different among populations; the shape of the forewing among populations can be divided into geographical groups, however hind-wing shape are geographical overlapped, and populations cannot be divided into geographical groups. During this study we have found that total body length of *C. trachypterus robertsi* female indicated the largest and Length of pronotum of *C. trachypterus robertsi* ♀ smallest morphometric variation in different specimens of both sexes of the same species. Length of tegmina of *C. trachypterus* female indicated the largest and Length of pronotum of *C. trachypterus* male smallest morphometric variation in different specimens of both sexes of the same species. Total body length of *C. turanicus* female indicated the largest and Length of pronotum of *C. turanicus* male smallest morphometric variation in different specimens of both sexes of the same species. Body size testified by Whitman (2008) relates to many aspects of an organism's biology, such as local adaptations to different climatic conditions, female fecundity and male mating success. Present study also agreed with Whitman (2008) observation. However, Yom-Tov & Geffen (2006) and Brandt & Navas (2011) described that morphology of *C. aquaticum* varies with sex, geography, host plant, and isolation. Sex interacts with geography and with host plant to influence body size. The sub-species *C. h. somalicus* Kevan 1959 the only one overlapping *C. hemipterus* or *C. senegalensis* in distribution usually has lightly infuscate hind wings and tegmina at least as long as the femora. The nominate sub-species over most of its range does not overlap other species and always has clear hind wings. *Chrotogonus trachypterus* distinguished from other *Chrotogonus* species which it overlaps in central and E. India by the wings being always developed and longer than the hind femur and the hind wing hyaline of fecintly tinged yellow.

The present finding provides morphometrical evidences for phenotypic interspecific and intraspecific variation among *Chrotogonus* species. Quantitative analysis of wing variation/ body length in grasshoppers can help us to understand how environmental heterogeneity affects the phenotypic patterns of insects. Nevertheless, further studies are needed to answers the following questions: (1) how do the size and shape of wings change in *Chrotogonus*, (2) does the morphological variation of *Chrotogonus* along an environmental gradient meet certain eco-geographical rules; and (3) which environmental factors may contribute to the variations in wings would be study in detail. This study has significant valued to differentiate the various pest species of *Chrotogonus*. It may inflict damage on cotton, frequently causing such heavy damage to seedling

that the crop has to be resown (Pruthi 1969). Many of the records of damage to other plants recorded below refer to attack on seedling or young plants, attack on older plants being less common or less important. In field trails, cowpea was found to be very susceptible, cluster bean almost as much, and pearl (bulrush) millet not attacked.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Systematics and distribution of the genus *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823 (Sauria, Scincidae): A review

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Abstract

A review of the Snake-eyed Skink *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823 is presented. The specific character of *Ablepharus* involves a lack of movable eyelids, with the lower eyelid fused to the upper one, forming a transparent spectacle covering the eye. The genus *Ablepharus* occurs in southeastern Europe, southwest Asia, and Central Asian Republics (from the Mediterranean Sea coasts to northwest India), including 11 valid species: *A. anatolicus* Schmidtler, 1997, *A. bivittatus* (Ménétries, 1832), *A. budaki* Göçmen, Kumlutas & Tosunoglu, 1996, *A. chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, *A. darvazi* Eremchenko & Panfilov, 1990, *A. deserti* Strauch, 1868, *A. grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872), *A. kitaibelii* Bibron & Bory St-Vincent, 1833, *A. lindbergi* Wettstein, 1960, *A. pannonicus* (Lichtenstein, 1823), and *A. rueppellii* (Gray, 1839). For identification of species of *Ablepharus*, we used additional scalation and molecular features, used anatomical survey (e.g. osteological and hemipenial characters), and species distribution models. Of the genus *Ablepharus*, *A. bivittatus*, *A. chernovi*, *A. grayanus*, and *A. pannonicus* occur in Iran.

Key words: *Ablepharus*, Scincidae, Systematics, Distribution, Iran.

INTRODUCTION

The family Scincidae Oppel (1811) encompasses more than 25% (1,579 species) of all living genera and species of lizards (Uetz et al., 2021) with a nearly worldwide distribution (Vitt and Caldwell, 2013). Based on morphological characteristics the family Scincidae consists of four subfamilies Acontinae, Feylininae, Lygosominae, and Scincinae (Greer, 1970), but based on molecular analysis it only includes three subfamilies Acontiinae, Scincinae, and Lygosominae (Pyrone et al., 2013). According to main evidence from molecular phylogenies and morphological characters the Scincomorpha consist of nine families as follows: Acontidae (26 spp.), Ateuchosauridae (2 spp.) Egerniidae (58 spp.), Eugongylidae (418 spp.), Lygosomidae (52 spp.), Mabuyidae (190 spp.), Ristellidae (14 spp.), Sphenomorphidae (546 spp.), and Scincidae (273 spp.), but usually grouped in a single family, Scincidae (Hedges, 2014).

According to a molecular phylogenetic study the genus *Ablepharus* is nested within Lygosominae and is the sister taxon of the central and East Asian *Asymblepharus* (Pyrone et al., 2013). The genus *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823 contains 11 valid species: *A. anatolicus* Schmidtler,



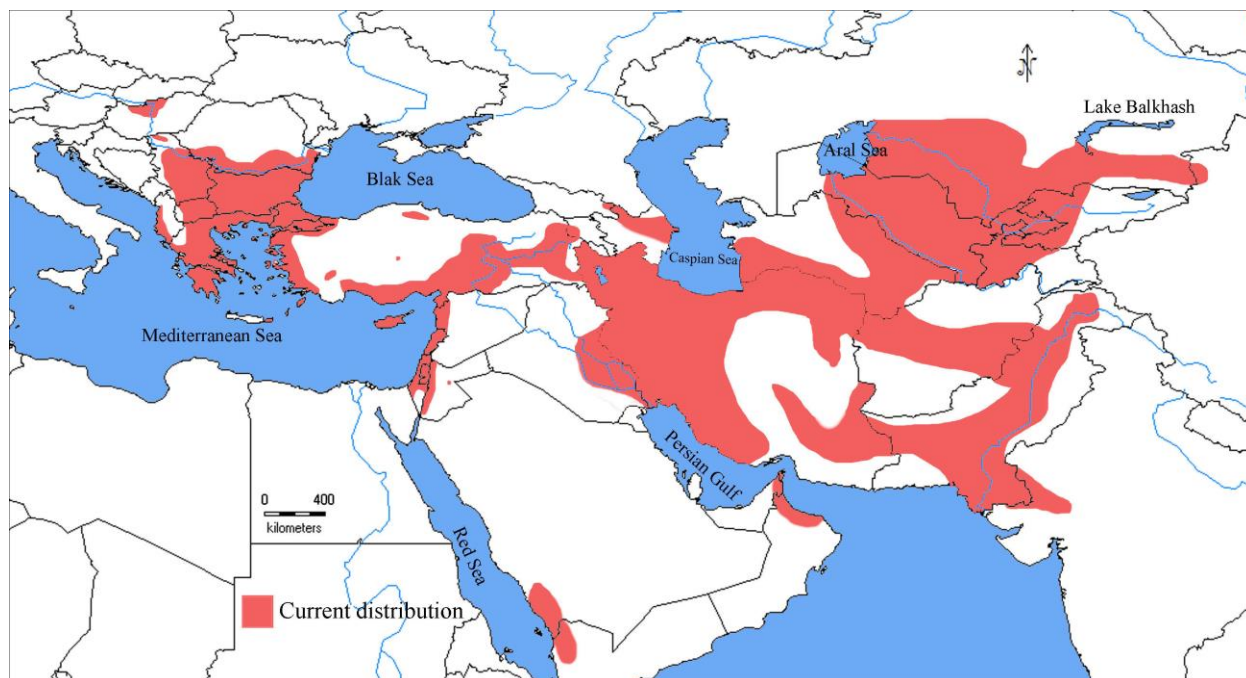


FIGURE 1. Distribution of the genus *Ablepharus*.

1997, *A. bivittatus* (Ménétries, 1832), *A. budaki* Göçmen, Kumlutas & Tosunoglu, 1996, *A. chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, *A. darvazi* Eremchenko & Panfilov, 1990, *A. deserti* Strauch, 1868, *A. grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872), *A. kitaibelii* Bibron & Bory St-Vincent, 1833, *A. lindbergi* Wettstein, 1960, *A. pannonicus* (Lichtenstein, 1823), and *A. rueppellii* (Gray, 1839) which are distributed in southern Europe, Transcaucasia (Armenia, south-east Azerbaijan), Turkey, Syria to Egypt, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, United Arab Emirates, Pakistan and NW India (Fühn, 1969a, b; Anderson, 1999; Khan, 2002; Ananjeva et al., 2006; Vyas, 2011; Rastegar-Pouyani et al., 2008; Šmíd et al., 2014) (Fig. 1).

The morphological characteristics in the genus *Ablepharus* are as follows: small lizards; pentadactyl limbs relatively weakly developed. immovable eyelids, lower eyelid is fused with upper, forming transparent membrane covering eye; outer ear opening small or hidden under the skin; supranasal scales absent; 18-26 rows of smooth scales around middle of body; oviparous (Fühn 1969b; Eremchenko and Szczebak, 1986; Anderson 1999; Ananjeva et al., 2006). Also, the genus *Ablepharus* has particular elements in the cranial osteology as following: no posterior projecting process of palatines separating pterygoids bone; pterygoids not in contact; no recurved process of pterygoids; nine pleurodont teeth on premaxillary bone (Fig. 2) (Fühn, 1969a).

In his monograph on the genus *Ablepharus*, Strauch (1868) mentioned nine pentadactyle species (*A. pannonicus*, *A. bivittatus*, *A. brantii*, *A. deserti*, *A. nigropunctatus*, *A. wahlbergi*, *A. boutonii*, *A. lineo-ocellatus*, *A. anornalus*) distributed in Africa, Eurasia, East Indies, Australia and Polynesia as belonging to a single genus, *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823, and allotted the forms with reduced fingers to other genera. Boulenger (1887), based on the reduction of digits and toes grouped eight genera (*Lerista* Bell, 1833; *Cryptoblepharus* Wiegmann, 1834; *Menetia* Gray, 1844; *Miculia* Gray, 1844; *Morethia* Gray, 1844; *Panaspis* Cope, 1868; *Blepharosteres* Stoliczka, 1872; *Phaneropsis* Fischer, 1881) and 16 species in the genus *Ablepharus*, characterized by having immovable eyelids, and a transparent shield covering eyes. Smith (1937) showed that transparent disc on the eyes of *Ablepharus* is not intact, having a small palpebral slit hidden under the supercilium or the vestige of the upper lid, while several genera of Scincidae have a transparent window in the lower eyelid.

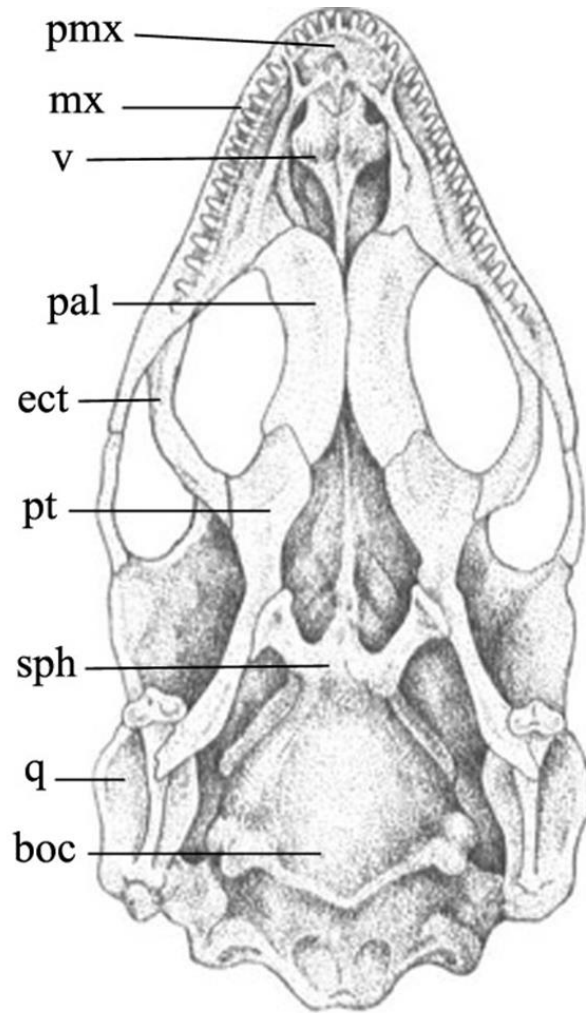


FIGURE 2. Ventral view of skull of *Ablepharus kitaibelii*. Abbreviations: boc, basioccipital; ect, ectopterygoid; mx, maxilla; pal, palatine; pmx, premaxilla; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; sph, sphenoid; v, vomer (modified from Fühn, 1969a).

Smith's opinion was accepted by De Witte (1936), and Mittleman (1952). Fühn (1969b) in the revision of the genus *Ablepharus*, based mainly on osteology of the skull (absence of recurved process of the pterygoids, and of posterior projecting process of the palatines) restricted the genus *Ablepharus* only to Eurasian species (i.e., *bivittatus* (*A. b. bivittatus*, *A. b. linddbergi*, *A. b. alaicus*), *deserti*, *kitaibelii* (*A. kitaibelii fitzingeri*, *A. k. kitaibelii*, *A. k. stepaneki*, *A. k. fabichi*, *A. k. chernovi*), and *pannonicus* (*A. p. pannonicus*, *A. p. grayanus*)). Subsequently, based on detailed morphological and molecular analyses, some modifications have occurred in the taxonomic rank of each species and subspecies (Poulakakis et al., 2005). A comprehensive morphological revision of all Snake-eyed Skinks is needed because these fundamental studies were carried out some decades ago. In this study systematics and distribution of the genus *Ablepharus* are discussed.

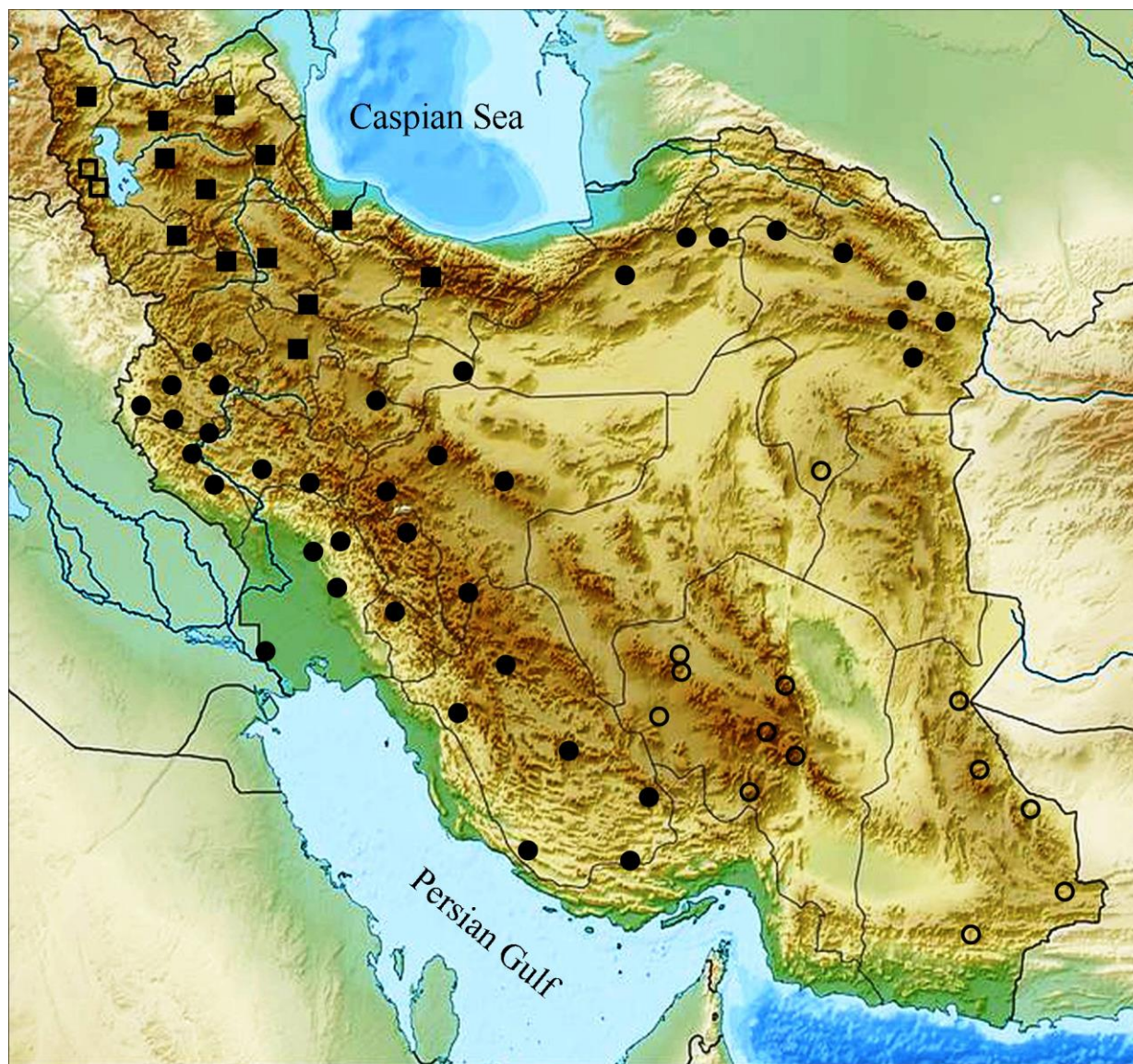


FIGURE 3. Distribution of the genus *Ablepharus* in Iran: solid square = *Ablepharus bivittatus* (Ménétries, 1832), hollow square = *A. chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, solid circle = *A. pannonicus* (Lichtenstein, 1823) and hollow circle = *A. grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872).

***Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823**

The Snake-eyed Skinks of the genus *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823 occur in southeastern Europe, southwest Asia, and Central Asian Republics (Anderson, 1999). These skinks lack movable eyelids, with the lower eyelid fused to the upper, thereby forming a transparent spectacle covering the eye. The genus *Ablepharus* based on scalation characters consists of 11 recognized species as follows: *A. anatolicus*, *A. bivittatus*, *A. budaki*, *A. chernovi*, *A. darvazi*, *A. deserti*, *A. grayanus*, *A. kitaibelii*, *A. lindbergi*, *A. pannonicus*, *A. rueppellii*, of which *A. bivittatus*, *A. chernovi*, *A. grayanus*, and *A. pannonicus* occur in Iran (Anderson, 1999; Sindaco and Jeremčenko 2008; Karamiani et al., 2015; Karamiani et al., 2018a) (Fig. 3). Recently Vergilov et al. (2017) used anatomical hemipenial characters for recognition of some species of *Ablepharus* (i.e. *A. kitaibelii* and *A. budaki*).

Systematic Account

***Ablepharus anatolicus* Schmidtler, 1997**

Ablepharus anatolicus was regarded as a subspecies of *A. budaki* from southern Anatolia by Schmidtler (1997). *Ablepharus budaki anatolicus* was elevated to species level as *A. anatolicus* based on morphological and genetic data (Skourtanioti et al., 2016; Bozkurt and Olgun 2020).

***Ablepharus bivittatus* (Ménétriés, 1832)**

The Two-streaked Snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus bivittatus* was described as *Scincus bivittatus* from Perimbal, Talysch Mountains, Azerbaijan by Ménétriés 1832. Wettenstein (1960) described a subspecies of ablepharine skink from upland Afghanistan and Punjab as *A. bivittatus lindenbergi*. Eremchenko and Szczerbak (1986) reviewed the genus *Ablepharus* and regarded *A. lindbergi* as a distinct full species. Elpatjevsky (1901) described a new ablepharine skink from Kirghiz, northeastern Tadjikistan, southeastern Kazakhstan, and western Xinjiang, China as *A. alaicus*. Later on, this species was regarded as a subspecies of *Ablepharus bivittatus* by researchers (e.g., Wettenstein, 1960; Fühn, 1969b). Eremchenko and Szczerbak (1986) assigned *alaicus* to a new genus *Asymblepharus*. The two-streaked snake-eyed skink *A. bivittatus* (Fig. 4A) is distributed in Azerbaijan, Armenia, eastern Turkey, and northwestern Iran (Baran and Atatür, 1998; Anderson, 1999; Ilgaz et al., 2007). Based on morphological characters, females are larger than males. In the other words, sexual differences are female-biased (Karamiani et al., 2017). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern (IUCN, 2021).

***Ablepharus budaki* Göçmen, Kumlutas & Tosunoglu, 1996**

The Budak's snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus budaki* was introduced from Northern Cyprus as a subspecies of *A. kitaibelii* based on morphological characters as follows: the ventral side coloration of the trunk and tail, the number of the vertical rows of scales between the masseteric and ear opening, and the size of the ear openings (Göçmen et al., 1996). Poulakakis et al., (2005), based on molecular data, changed its taxonomic status into a distinct species from *A. kitaibelii*. *Ablepharus budaki* is distributed in Turkey, Cyprus, Syria, Lebanon (Hraoui-Bloquet et al., 2002; Baier et al., 2009; Özkan et al., 2019). According to anatomical investigation hemipenis is leaf-shaped in *A. budaki*, folds are also deeply bilobed and the two branches of each hemipenis are equally long and symmetrical, with thick labia surrounding the sulci (Fig. 5; Vergilov et al., 2017). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.

***Ablepharus chernovi* Darevsky, 1953**

The Chernov's Skink, *Ablepharus chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, was regarded as a subspecies of *Ablepharus kitaibelii* Bibron & Bory St-Vincent, 1833 from the vicinity of the settlement Tkhit, Ashtarak region, middle current of the river Razdan, Armenia. *Ablepharus chernovi* (Fig. 4B), which had previously been accepted as a subspecies (Fühn, 1969b; Baran, 1977), is considered a species. A molecular phylogenetic study confirmed *A. chernovi* to represent a genetically distinct species (Poulakakis et al., 2005). *Ablepharus chernovi* is distinguished based on having a hidden tympanum (versus ear-opening visible in *Ablepharus kitaibelii*) and having two supraocular scales, without supraciliary granular scales between eye and supraocular scales (versus three supraocular scales, a row of supraciliary granular scales between eye and supraocular scales in *Ablepharus bivittatus*) (Arakelyan et al., 2011; Karamiani et al., 2018a) (Fig. 6). *Ablepharus chernovi* is distributed in Razan River valley Armenia, northern Syria and southern and central parts of Anatolian Turkey, and Urmia of West Azerbaijan Province, Iran (Baran & Atatür 1998; Ananjeva et al. 2006; Sindaco & Jeremčenko 2008; Arakelyan et al., 2011; Karamiani et al., 2015). Of the four described subspecies, *A. c. chernovi* occurs in Armenia, *A. c. eiselti* (Adana province), *A. c. isauriensis*, and *A. c. ressi* (Mersin Province) described by Schmidtler 1997 are from southern Turkey (Gemel et al., 2019). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.



FIGURE 4. Adult specimen of (A) *Ablepharus bivittatus* (Ménétriés, 1832), (B) *A. chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, (C) *A. grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872), and (D) *A. pannonicus* (Lichtenstein, 1823).

***Ablepharus darvazi* Eremchenko & Panfilov, 1990**

The Darvaz Snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus darvazi* was described from Darvaz mountain range, Tadzhikistan by Eremchenko & Panfilov (1990). So far, the species is known only in Darvaz and Khozratishoh mountains and inhabits bushes and montane forest habitats. In other words, it is endemic to the Badakshan Mountains but it is likely to occur in nearby regions of Afghanistan, Pakistan, and northwestern India (Ananjeva et al., 2006; Sindaco and Jeremčenko 2008). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Data Deficient.

***Ablepharus deserti* Strauch, 1868**

The Desert Lidless Skink, *Ablepharus deserti* was described from Settlement Ak-Mechet, Kazakhstan by Strauch (1868). The desert snake-eyed skink is distributed in southern Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, northern Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and eastern Turkmenistan. As well, isolated populations occur in southern Turkmenistan, central Tien Shan, and southeastern Kazakhstan (Kolbintzev et al., 1999; Ananjeva et al., 2006). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.

***Ablepharus grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872)**

The Minor Snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus grayanus* was first described as *Blepharosteres grayanus* from Waggur District, northeast Kutch, India (Stoliczka, 1872). Later, it was regarded as a subspecies of *A. pannonicus* (Fühn, 1969b). *Ablepharus grayanus* (Stoliczka, 1872) (Fig. 4C) is distinguished based on having a hidden tympanum and 18-20 scales around midbody (versus a small ear opening and 20-22 scales around midbody in *A. pannonicus*), which is distributed in north and west India, through Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Iran (Leviton and Anderson, 1970; Khan, 2002; Venugopal, 2010; Vyas, 2011; Rais et al., 1997; Karamiani et al., 2015). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is "Not Listed".

***Ablepharus kitaibelii* Bibron & Bory St-Vincent, 1833**

The Snake-eyed Skink, *A. kitaibelii*, distributed in southeastern Europe and west and central Turkey (Schmidtler, 1997), is represented by four subspecies as follows: *A. k. fitzingeri* Mertens, 1952 in southern Slovakia, northern Serbia, and Hungary, *A. k. stepaneki* Fühn, 1970 in Romania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Bosnia, and Albania, *A. k. kitaibelii* (Bibron & Bory, 1833) in Greece, including the Ionian and Aegean islands and *A. k. fabichi* Stepànek, 1937 in the Greek islands of Mikronisi, Amathia, Kasos, and Karpathos (Fühn 1969b; Pasuljević, 1977; Göçmen et al., 1996; Gruber, 1981; Tomović et al., 2001; Ljubisavljević et al., 2002; Herczeg et al., 2004; Kumlutas et al., 2005). Poulakakis et al. (2005) inferred phylogenetic relationships between populations of the *A. kitaibelii* indicated that *A. kitaibelii* is paraphyletic, as the populations on the Kastelorizo Archipelago (Greece, off the Lycian coast of southwestern Turkey) is distinct, nesting at the base of the ingroup. Moreover, the remaining populations of *A. kitaibelii* consist of two clades, one involving the populations inhabiting continental Greece and the west Aegean (the Cyclades and Kithira) and Ionian (Leukada) islands, and the other including populations that inhabit the East Aegean Islands and Turkey. Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.



FIGURE 5. Inflated hemipenes of (A) *Ablepharus budaki* Göçmen, Kumlutaş & Tosunoğlu, 1996 and (B) *A. kitaibelii* (Bibron & Bory Saint-Vincent, 1833); Scale bar = 1 mm (Vergilov et al., 2017).

***Ablepharus lindbergi* Wettstein, 1960**

The Lindberg's Twin-striped Skink, *Ablepharus lindbergi* Wettstein, 1960, was regarded as a subspecies of *A. bivittatus* (Ménétries, 1832) from the steppes east of Herat, western Afghanistan. Having a widespread distribution within the Hindu Kush Mountains (Wagner et al., 2016), it is endemic to Afghanistan (Sindaco and Jeremčenko 2008), Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.

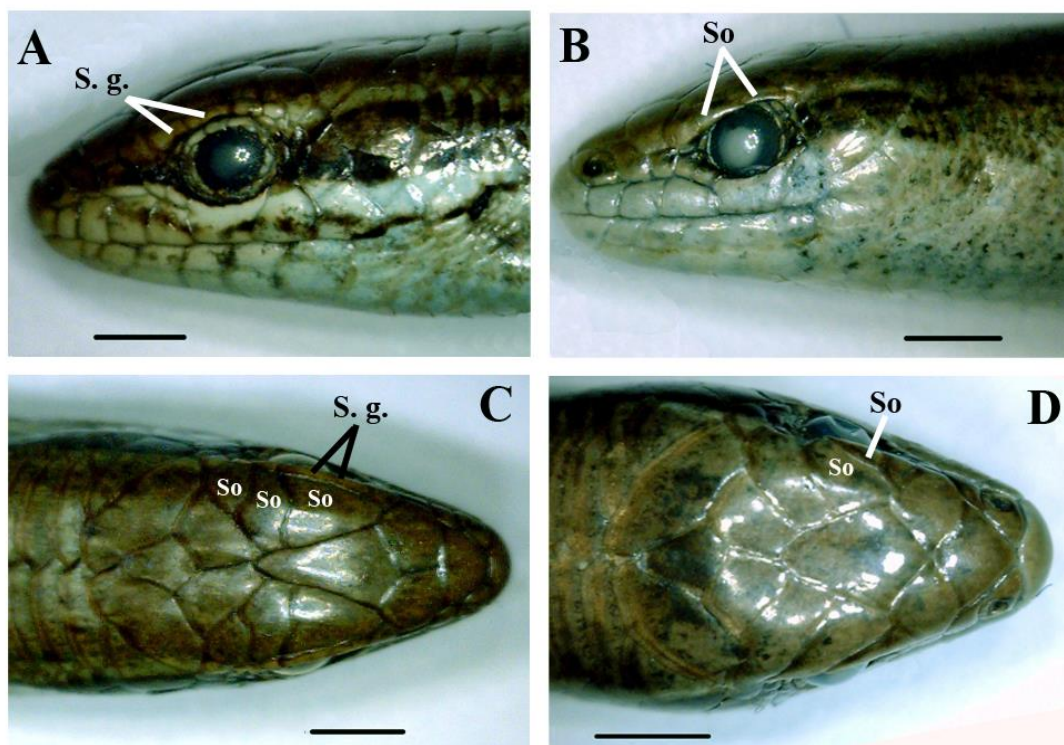


Fig. 6. Lateral (A) and dorsal (C) views of the head scalation of *Ablepharus bivittatus* (Ménétriés, 1832), (RUZM SA10.5, from near Tabriz, East Azerbaijan Province, NW Iran), and lateral (B) and dorsal (D) views of the head scalation of *A. chernovi* Darevsky, 1953, (RUZM SA30.2, from near Urmia, West Azerbaijan Province, NW Iran); So: Supraocular scales, S.g: Supraciliary granules (Karamiani et al., 2018a).

***Ablepharus pannonicus* (Lichtenstein, 1823)**

The Asian Snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus pannonicus* was initially described as *Scincus pannonicus* by Lichtenstein (1823) from Bukhara Province, Uzbekistan. During 1868 to 1907 some species including *A. brandtii* Strauch 1868 (Samarkand, Turkestan), *A. pusillus* Blanford 1874 (Bussora = Basra, Iraq), *A. brandti* var. *brevipes* Nikolsky 1907 (Dech-i-Diz and Karun River, Iran), and *A. persicus* Nikolsky 1907 (Schachrud =Shahrud, Semnan Iran) were introduced based on morphological characters which all were synonymized later with *A. pannonicus* (Fig. 4D) by Anderson (1999). The Asian Snake-eyed Skink is the most widely distributed species of the genus *Ablepharus*, occurring in Yemen, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Syria, Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, south of Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, southern Turkmenistan, southeast Georgia, Azerbaijan, and northwestern India (Anderson, 1999; Ananjeva et al., 2006; Karamiani et al., 2018b). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is "Not Listed".

***Ablepharus rueppellii* (Gray, 1839)**

The Rüppell's Snake-eyed Skink, *Ablepharus rueppellii* was initially described as *Riopa ruppellii* by Gray (1839) from Arabia Petrea (Jordan). For a long time, it was considered to be a subspecies of *Ablepharus kitaibelii* but was raised to species rank by Schmidtler (1997). *Ablepharus rueppellii* is distributed from southern Syria and Lebanon, western Jordan to Sinai Peninsula of Egypt (Sindaco et al., 1995; Saleh, 1997; Disi et al., 2001; Modrý et al., 2004; Al-Quran, 2009; Disi, 2011; Handal et

al., 2016). Conservation status in the IUCN Red List categories and criteria for the species is Least Concern.

Key to the species of *Ablepharus* in Iran (Modified from Leviton et al., 1992; Anderson, 1999; Khan, 2002).

- 1a. Prefrontals usually forming a median suture; frontoparietals divided2
 1b. Prefrontals separated; a single frontoparietal 3
 2a. Three supraocular scales, a row of supraciliary granular scales between eye and supraocular scales (Fig. 6A & C) *A. bivittatus*
 2b. Two supraocular scales, without supraciliary granular scales between eye and supraocular scales (Fig. 6B & D) *A. chernovi*
 3a. Hidden tympanum; having 18-20 scales around midbody *A. grayanus*
 3b. Small ear opening; 20-22 scales around midbody *A. pannonicus*

Table 1. The main morphological characters in various species of the Snake-eyed Skink *Ablepharus* Fitzinger, 1823: Number of scales around mid-body (AMS), frontoparietal scales (FS), Prefrontal scales (PS), Supraciliary granular scales (SG), Tympanum status (TS) (Strauch, 1868; Fühn 1969a; Göçmen et al., 1996; Kumlutas et al., 2005; Karamiani et al., 2015; Karamiani et al., 2018b; Özkan et al., 2019).

	AMS	FS	PS	SG	TS
<i>A. bivittatus</i>	22-24	paired	in contact	present	obvious
<i>A. budaki</i>	18-20	single	usually in contact	present	obvious
<i>A. chernovi</i>	18	paired	in contact	absent	obvious
<i>A. darvazi</i>	-	paired	in contact	-	-
<i>A. deserti</i>	20-22	paired	in contact	present	obvious
<i>A. grayanus</i>	18-20	single	separated	absent	hidden
<i>A. kitaibelii</i>	18-20	paired	rarely in contact	present	obvious
<i>A. lindbergi</i>	26-27	paired	in contact	present	obvious
<i>A. pannonicus</i>	20-22	single	separated	absent	obvious
<i>A. rueppellii</i>	18	paired	in contact	present	obvious

DISCUSSION

The genus *Ablepharus* is restricted in distribution to the western Eurasian region, encompassing the following species: *A. anatolicus*, *A. bivittatus*, *A. budaki*, *A. chernovi*, *A. darvazi*, *A. deserti*, *A. grayanus*, *A. kitaibelii*, *A. lindbergi*, *A. rueppellii*, and *A. pannonicus*. Such characters as prefrontals status, the number of frontoparietal scales, tympanum status (hidden or obvious), supraciliary granular scales (present or absent), and the number of scales around midbody are important key characters for the identification of various species within the genus (Table 1). Additional pholidosis features and anatomical survey (Vergilov et al., 2017), molecular study (Poulakakis et al., 2005), and species distribution models (Karamiani et al., 2018b) can result in delimitation of the species of *Ablepharus*. Sanchooli (2016) modeled range distribution of *A. bivittatus* and showed that it is restricted to the northwest and some isolated areas in the central Elburz and Kopet Dag Mountains. Karamiani et al. (2017) extended the range distribution of *A. bivittatus* from northwestern regions of Iran to Hamedan Province, western Iran. In an investigation Karamiani et al., (2016) showed variations in erythrocyte and nucleus sizes among *A. bivittatus* and *A. pannonicus* with larger sizes for former species. During recent years, the range of *A. chernovi* extended from Turkey to southwestern Iran by Karamiani et al. (2018a). In another

study, Karamiani et al. (2015) rediscovered *A. grayanus* from two different localities in Sistan and Baluchestan and Kerman Provinces, southeastern Iran, formerly mentioned by Fühn (1969b), Leviton and Anderson, (1970), and Nikolsky (1900) without providing exact localities. A modeling study showed that *A. grayanus* and *A. pannonicus* are confined to specific habitats in distinct geographical areas, which can be good indicators for assessing the effects of climatic changes on the distribution range of vertebrate organisms (Karamiani et al., 2018b). Phylogenetic relationships among the Snake-eyed Skinks found in Iran (i.e., *A. bivittatus*, *A. chernovi*, *A. grayanus*, and *A. pannonicus*) need a more comprehensive survey, now being conducted by the senior author and his colleagues.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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First record of the genus *Paraimene* Javed & Ahmed, 1988 (Crustacea: Isopoda: Sphaeromatidae) from Iranian coast of the Gulf of Oman, with a revised diagnosis to the genus

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Abstract

Paraimene tuberculata Javed & Ahmed, 1988, the type species of the genus is redescribed, photographed and illustrated, based on material from the Gulf of Oman. This species is distinguished from all other species of the genus by pereonites 2–4 bearing 3 rounded tubercles, pereonites 5–7 with 3 rounded and 2 elongated tubercles, and a pleotelson with 7 elongated tubercles on dorsal surface. This species is the only known member of the genus that occurs Indian Ocean from Pakistan coasts to the Iranian coast of the Gulf of Oman. A revised generic diagnosis is provided for the genus *Paraimene*.

Key words: Isopoda, Sphaeromatidae, *Paraimene*, Gulf of Oman, Iran.

INTRODUCTION

The isopod fauna of the Gulf of Oman is poorly known. Only sporadic studies have been carried out along the Iranian coasts of the Gulf of Oman, and there are only a few records of Isopoda from this region (Hobbins & Jones, 1993; Khalaji-Pirbalouty et al., 2015; Khalaji-Pirbalouty 2016, 2018). *Paraimene* Javed & Ahmed, 1988 is a small genus of five described species (Boyko et al. 2008 onwards), known from the tropical Western Indian Ocean and North Atlantic Ocean. While the type species *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988 was described from the rocky intertidal zone of Cape Monze, Karachi, Pakistan (Javed and Ahmad, 1988), the remaining four species occur in the North Atlantic Ocean. Three species are known from Cuba: *P. ibarزابالae* Kensley, Ortiz & Schotte, 1997 from Punta Frances; *P. tumulus* Kensley, Ortiz & Schotte, 1997 from Cayo Frances; and *P. danieli* Ortiz, Winfield & Cházaro-Olvera, 2012 from Cojimar Bay. The last species, *P. charlesae* Kensley & Schotte, 1994, is reported from Grand Bay, Dominican. The aim of this study was to redescribe *P. tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988 from the Iranian side of the Gulf of Oman, and add an updated generic diagnosis for the genus based on all reported species.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Specimens for this study were collected from intertidal habitats along the Iranian coastline of the Gulf of Oman during 2013–2015. The material was deposited in the Zoological Museum,



Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran. Drawings were made using a camera lucida mounted on a compound microscope (Olympus BX 51). Line drawings were made from pencil drawings using Corel Draw (version X6) and Adobe Photoshop (version CS5). A Zeiss AxioCam ERc5s camera mounted on a Zeiss Stereomicroscope (Stemi 508) equipped with an imaging system was employed to obtain color images of the specimens.

RESULTS

Taxonomy

Family Sphaeromatidae Latreille, 1825

Genus *Paraimene* Javed & Ahmed, 1988

Abbreviated synonymy. *Paraimene* Javed & Ahmed, 1988:371.— Kensley & Schotte, 1994: 494.— Kensley, Ortiz & Schotte, 1997: 89.— Ortiz, Winfield & Cházaro-Olvera, 2012: 976.

Type species: *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988; by original designation.

Generic diagnosis. Body length about two times as long as greatest width. Head dorsal surface smooth; rostral point slightly visible in dorsal view; epistome anteriorly broadly rounded. Pereonite 1 smooth, longest; pereonites 2–7 without coxal plate sutures, with or without tubercles or transverse carina. Pleon posterior margin with two separate sutures on either side, smooth or with 1 or 2 pairs of rounded tubercles. Pleotelson markedly domed, with 4–8 protuberances, edges of pleotelson folding ventrally to form vertical slit. Antennula with broad basal article; flagellum of 6–10 articles. Antenna subequal in length to antennula, peduncle articles 3 and 5 shortest and longest, respectively. Maxilla with four curved pectinate robust setae on middle and lateral endites. Pereopods 1–7 increasing in length posteriorly, inferior margins of merus, carpus, and propodus bearing dense fine setae fringe. Penial processes short, separated, close together, distally rounded. Appendix masculina elongate, extending well beyond apex of endopod. Pleopod 3 exopod with transverse suture in distal fifth. Pleopods 4 and 5 rami bearing thickened transverse ridges; pleopod 5 exopod with 3 scale patches (2 distally and 1 proximal to transverse suture). Uropodal rami lamellar, subequal, and extending well beyond pleotelson apex.

Paraimene tuberculata Javed & Ahmed, 1988

Type locality: Cape Monze, Karachi, Pakistan.

Material examined: Pasabandar, Sistan and Baluchestan Province, Iran, Gulf of Oman, 25° 4'15.93"N, 61°24'32.76"E; 1 ♂ (3.5 mm); 1 ♀ (3.1 mm), 20 May 2013, coll. V. Khalaji-Pirbalouty (ZMSU 1048). Ramin, Sistan and Baluchestan Province, Gulf of Oman, 25°16'08.46"N, 60°45'03.83"E, 2 ♂ (3.1, 2.6 mm), 1 ♀ (3.1 mm), 19 May 2013, coll. V. Khalaji-Pirbalouty (ZMSU 1049). Bahl Village, near Jask, Hormuzgan Province, Iran, Gulf of Oman, 25°40'48.95"N, 57°51'13.36"E, 1 ♂ (3.2 mm); 28 June 2013, coll. V. Khalaji-Pirbalouty (ZMSU 1050).

Redescription. (Based on specimens from Gulf of Oman)

Body about 1.6 times as long as greatest width, widest at pereonite 6 (Fig. 1 A). *Head* with small rostral point. *Pereonite 1* smooth, pereonites 2–4 with 3 tubercles, *pereonites 5–7* with 3 round medial and 2 elongated lateral tubercles (Fig. 1 A, B). *Pleon* posterior margin with 2 median tubercles. *Pleotelson* about 2.3 times as long as width, markedly domed, dorsal surface bearing two pairs of elongated tubercles followed by a single median elongated tubercle on apex and flanked on either side by a single longitudinal elongated tubercle (Fig. 1 A, B). *Antennula* (Fig. 1 C) not extending to posterior of pereonite 1; first peduncle article 1.3 times as long as article 2; peduncle article 3 subequal to article 2; flagellum with 7 articles, articles 2–6 bearing aesthetascs. *Antenna* peduncular articles all collinear, articles 2 and 4 subequal, article 5 longest; flagellum with 9 articles. *Pereopod 1* (Fig. 1 E) basis about 2.3 times as long as greatest width; ischium, merus, carpus, and propodus inferior margins fringed with dense fine setae; ischium superior margin with 3 long

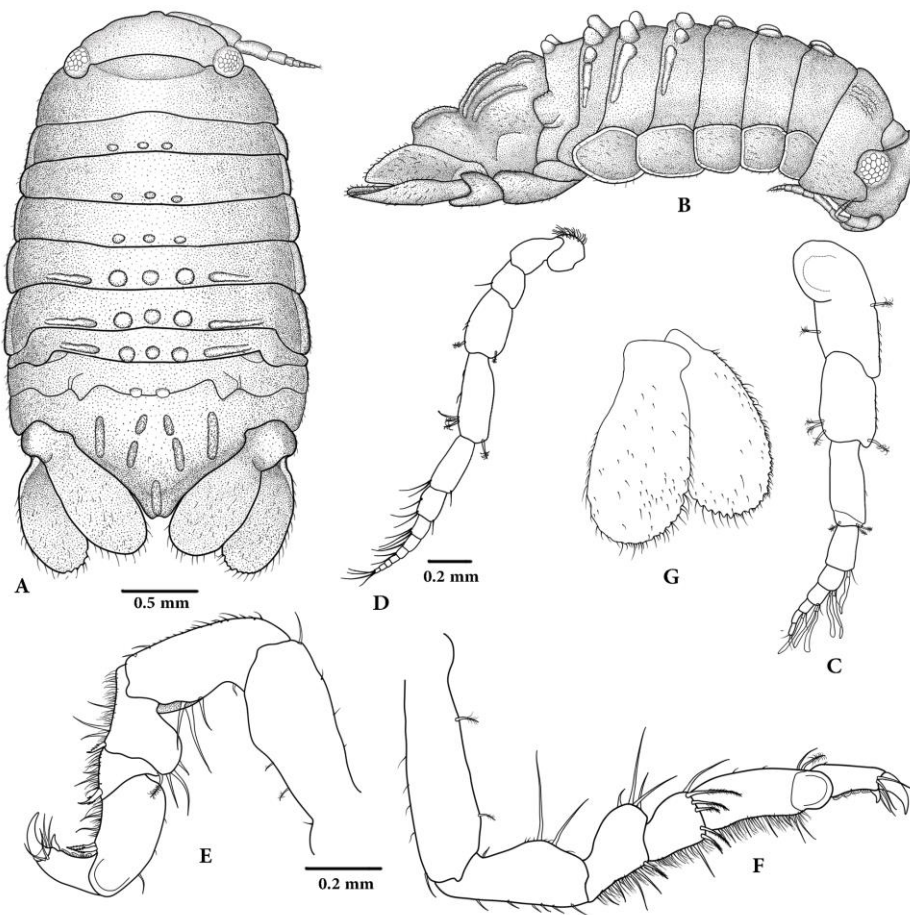


FIGURE 1. *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988: A. dorsal view; B. lateral view; C. antennula; D. antenna; E. pereopod 1; F. pereopod 7; G. uropod.

simple setae; inferior margin fringed with some small fine setae; merus superodistal corner with 3 long simple and 1 single sensory palmate seta, inferodistal angle with 1 biserrate robust seta; carpus triangular, inferodistal angle with 1 biserrate robust seta; propodus about 2 times as long as wide, inferodistal angle with 2 biserrate robust setae; dactylus bearing a small secondary unguis, inferior margin with cuticular scales. *Pereopod 7* (Fig. 1, F) basis about 5 times as long as greatest width, ischium, merus, carpus, and propodus inferior margins fringed with dense fine setae; ischium superior margin with 2 long simple setae; merus superodistal corner with 4 long simple setae, inferodistal angle with 1 biserrate robust seta; carpus distal angle with 5 biserrate robust setae; propodus about 2.7 times as long as wide; dactylus bearing a small secondary unguis, inferior margin with cuticular scales. *Uropodal rami* (Fig. 1, G) lamellar, subequal, extending well beyond pleotelson apex, fringed with dense small marginal setae. *Penial processes* (Fig. 2, A) smooth, unfused but close together, each about 2.4 as long as basal width. *Pleopod 1* (Fig. 2, B) exopod and endopod with 20 and 14 plumose marginal setae respectively, endopod shorter than exopod; sympodite mesial margin with 3 coupling hooks.

Pleopod 2 (Fig. 2, C) exopod and endopod subequal in length, with 22 and 18 plumose marginal setae respectively; *appendix masculina* arising basally, proximally slightly swollen, distally

narrowing, extending well beyond endopod by about 1.45 as long as endopod, most of surface bearing cuticular setules; sympodite mesial margin with 3 coupling hooks. Pleopod 3 (Fig. 2, D) exopod shorter than endopod, with 20 and 8 plumose marginal setae respectively; sympodite mesial margin with 3 coupling hooks. *Pleopod 4* (Fig. 2, E) both rami subequal in length, with transverse folds. *Pleopod 5* (Fig. 2, F) both rami with transverse folds, exopod with 3 scale patches (2 distally and 1 proximal to transverse suture), lateral margin with slender simple marginal setae.

Female: Similar to male with the exception of the sexual characters.

Remarks. *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988 is distinguished from all other species of the genus by pereonites 2–4 with 3 rounded tubercles, pereonites 5–7 with 3 rounded and 2 elongated tubercles, and a pleotelson with 7 elongated tubercles on dorsal surface. Whereas, *P. tumulus* and *P. charlesae* have no ornamentation on dorsal surface of pereonites 2–7, and *P. ibarzabalae* has low carinae on pereonites 5 and 6. *Paraimene tuberculata* is most similar to *P. danieli* from Cuba, as both species have a pleotelson with elongated tubercles. However, *P. danieli* is distinguishable by a pelon with 2 pairs of rounded tubercles on posterior margin and a pleotelson with 4 rounded and 4 elongated tubercles.

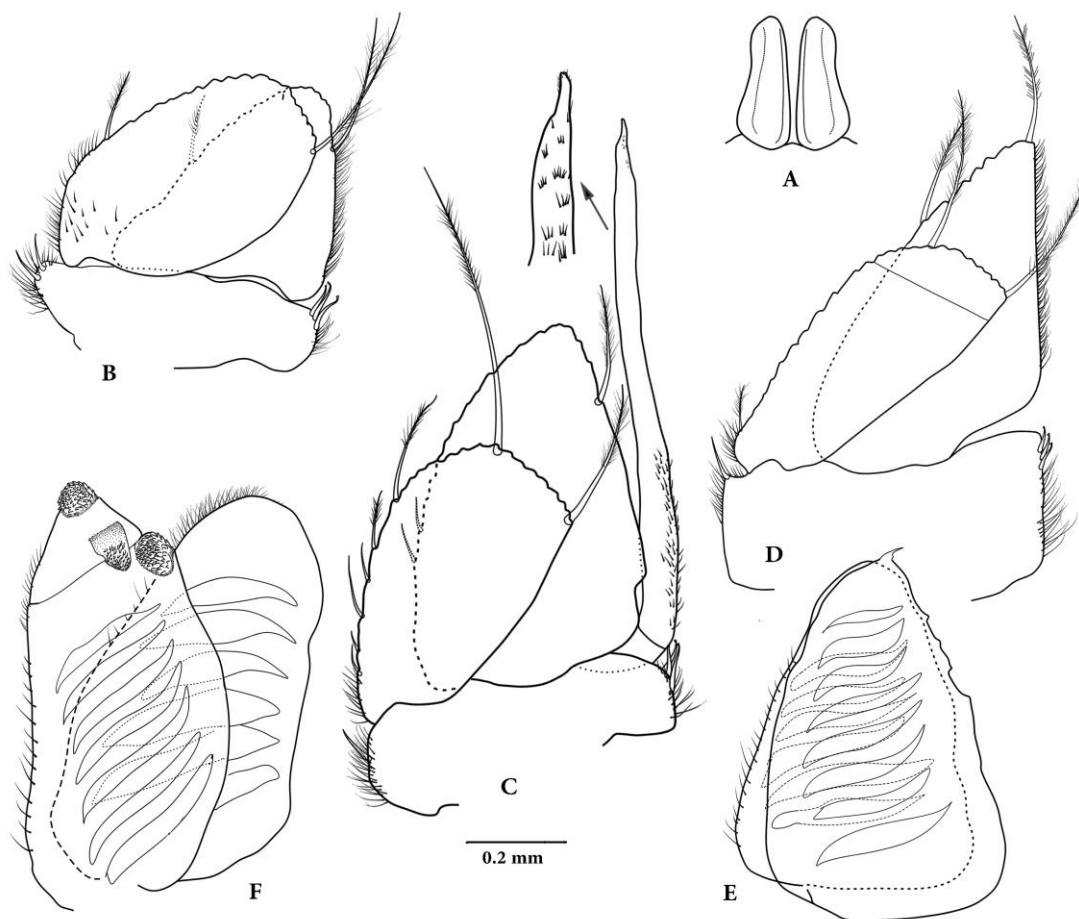


FIGURE 2. *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988: A. penes; B–F, pleopods 1–5.



FIGURE 3. *Paraimene tuberculata* Javed & Ahmed, 1988: A. dorsal view; B. lateral view.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Identifying closely related species of the genus *Gammarus* (Crustacea, Amphipoda) using geometric morphometrics

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Abstract

Landmark-Based Geometric Morphometric Methods were used for the first time to quantitatively assess shape variations of the third epimeral plate (Ep3) of six *Gammarus* species (*G. lordeganensis*, *G. parthicus*, *G. pretzmanni*, *G. pseudosyriacus*, *Gammarus* sp1 and *Gammarus* sp2.) from five different localities in Iran. Two landmarks and 10 semi-landmarks on the posterior, anterior and inferior margins of the Ep3 were digitized on 78 adult male specimens. Shape diversity of samples and discrimination of all species were analyzed with Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Canonical Variates Analysis (CVA). The results strongly supported the distinction in the posterior margin of Ep3 shape of the six species, while the inferior margin clearly showed similar morphological structure. A remarkable separation of *G. lordeganensis* as a distinct group from the rest of the species was found in both CVA and PCA analyses of anterior margin of Ep3 shape, while other species had overlaps with each other. Based on these findings, geometric morphometric data, could be used to identify diagnostic morphological traits. The shape of the Ep3 could be used as an appropriate character for separating closely related amphipod species of the genus *Gammarus*.

Key words: *Gammarus*, third epimeral plate, geometric morphometrics, shape variation

INTRODUCTION

Geometric morphometrics is an efficient technique to analyze the variability of the biological structures and specify the exact nature and position of the morphological shape differences since the late 1980s (Hennessy & Stringer, 2002; Rosas & Bastir, 2002). Landmark-based geometric morphometrics captures shape information and geometry of the object effectively to study population variations through a powerful and comprehensive statistical analysis (Rohlf, 1999; Cadrin, 2000). Also, semi-landmarks describe information on curves and outlines in this method (Gunz & Mitteroecker, 2013). Consequently, Geometric morphometrics provides not only large amounts of significant shape information that previously was unattainable through traditional morphometric approaches, but also is cost-effective, quick, and accurate. (Zelditch *et al.* 2004, 2012; Grinang *et al.* 2019).

Crustaceans are a suitable group for using geometric morphometrics technique due to their tough integument and easily identifiable homologous landmarks (Rosenberg, 2002; Rufino *et al.* 2004; Riedlecker *et al.* 2009; Hampton *et al.* 2014). In this group, amphipods are a good model for the application of this methodology and the geometric study of the anatomical shapes (Curatolo *et al.* 2013). Among the various amphipod genera, *Gammarus* Fabricius, 1775 has the highest diversity and till now 18 valid species of genus *Gammarus* have been identified from the different freshwater regions of Iran (Zamanpoor *et al.* 2011). The Ep3 as a specific morphological characteristic of the genus *Gammarus* was selected for this analysis because this anatomical piece has various forms and consistent variations among different species, and it optimizes the taking of photographs and geometric morphometric analysis (Curatolo *et al.* 2013).

There are no studies to apply the geometric morphometrics technique as a powerful tool for examining the Ep3 shape variation and discrimination of different *Gammarus* species. So, this study aims to analyze the Ep3 shape variation as a diagnostic character using a geometric morphometric method for the first time in the genus *Gammarus* to discriminate different *Gammarus* species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The samples were collected from different five locations in Chaharmahal-Va-Bakhteyari, Markazi, and Fars provinces between 2016 and 2017. Characteristics of sampling areas are presented in Table 1 and figure 1. In the laboratory, the specimens were classified according to sex and maturity, and only mature and male *Gammarus* species were used in this study. Several keys to the *Gammarus* were used to identify these species (Karaman & Pinkster, 1977; Stock *et al.* 1998; Khalaji-Pirbalouty & Sari 2004, 2006).

Thirteen adult males *Gammarus* specimens from each populations were used for geometric morphometrics analysis. We examined a total of 78 Ep3s from all five locations in this study. Digital images of the Ep3s were captured using ZEISS Axiocam ERc 5s camera, mounted on a Carl ZEISS microscope. Anterior, posterior and inferior margins of Ep3s were separately analyzed through landmark-based morphometric methods. The digital images were processed with MakeFan6 software. MakeFan6 software was used to draw parallel lines at equal distances along a curve for placing semi-landmarks on digital images (Sheets, 2003; Curatolo *et al.* 2013).

Then the coordinates of two landmarks and 10 semi-landmarks were digitized separately on each of the anterior, posterior, and inferior margins of Ep3s digital images (Fig. 2A-C) using TpsDig2 v. 1.11 software (Rohlf, 2004; Curatolo *et al.* 2013). Subsequent analyses of the landmark data were conducted using Paleontological Statistics (PAST) software (Hammer *et al.* 2001). A generalized Procrustes analysis (GPA) was applied to remove the variations not related to the form such as position, orientation, rotation, and scale (Rohlf, 1999, Zelditch *et al.* 2004). Shape variation of samples was analyzed with Principal Components Analysis (PCA) followed by Canonical Variate Analysis (CVA) using the PAST v. 3.04 software for simplifying the description of differences between groups (Hammer *et al.* 2001). Also, PCA was performed to determine the variation explained by each principal component (PC). The total variability by principal component axis and canonical variate axis were included in figs. 3-5.

TABLE 1. Sampling locations of *Gammarus* species.

No	Locality	Coordinates	species
1	Charmahal va bakhteyari, Borujen, Bizhgerd spring	31°45'56.63"N, 1°10'19.76"E	<i>Gammarus</i> sp1.
2	Charmahal va bakhteyari, Farsan , Pir-Ghar spring	32°13'1.32"N, °32'38.66"E	<i>Gammarus</i> sp2.
3	Fars, Eghlid, Rasoul spring	30°53'27.61"N 52°40'18.31"E	<i>G. pseudosyriacus</i>
4	Charmahal va bakhteyari, lordegan, Barm spring	31°30'32.57"N 50°49'28.68"E	<i>G. lordeganensis</i>
5	Markazi, Shazand, Sarab abbas abad spring	33°54'37.78"N 49°25'29.82"E	<i>G. pretzmanni</i> , <i>G. parthicus</i>

RESULTS

The Geometric morphometrics analyses were conducted to obtain Ep3 shape variations between different species of genus *Gammarus*. The digital images of 78 third epimeral plates were compared using PCA and CVA.

The PCA performed on 13 Ep3 posterior margin shape coordinates of two landmarks and 10 semi-landmark from the six studied species resulted in 24 principal components, with the first two components explaining 94.78 % of the total variation (PC1 82.30 %, PC2 12.48 %) (Fig 3). To get a clearer picture of the segregation of species, CVA performed on the same dataset revealed that

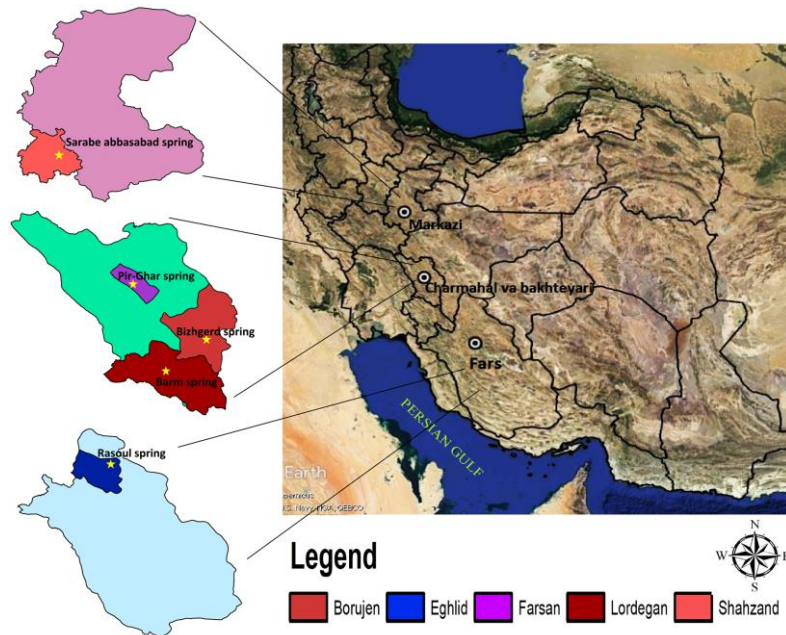


FIGURE 1. Map showing surveyed areas in Iran between 2016 and 2017.

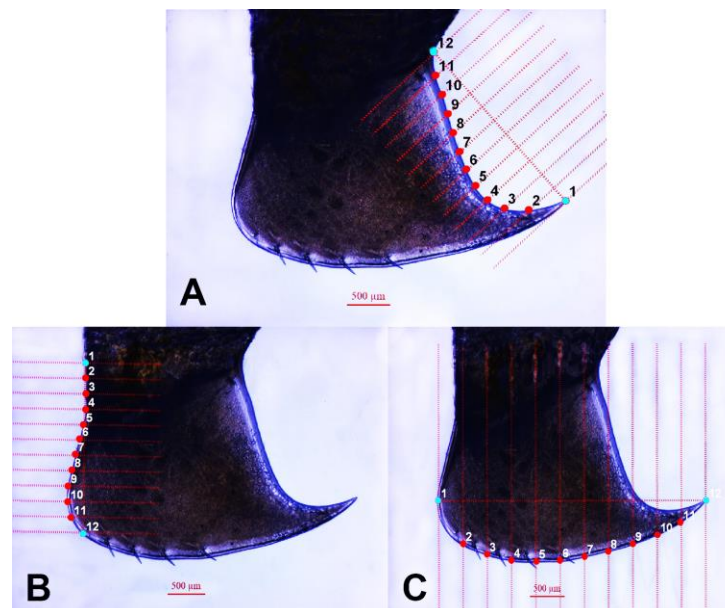


FIGURE 2. Position of the landmarks and semi-landmarks on the third epimeral plate for geometric morphometric analysis. The landmarks (points 1 and 12) and the semi-landmarks (points 2 to 11). (A) Posterior margin of third epimeral plate; (B) anterior margin of Ep3; (C) inferior margin of Ep3.

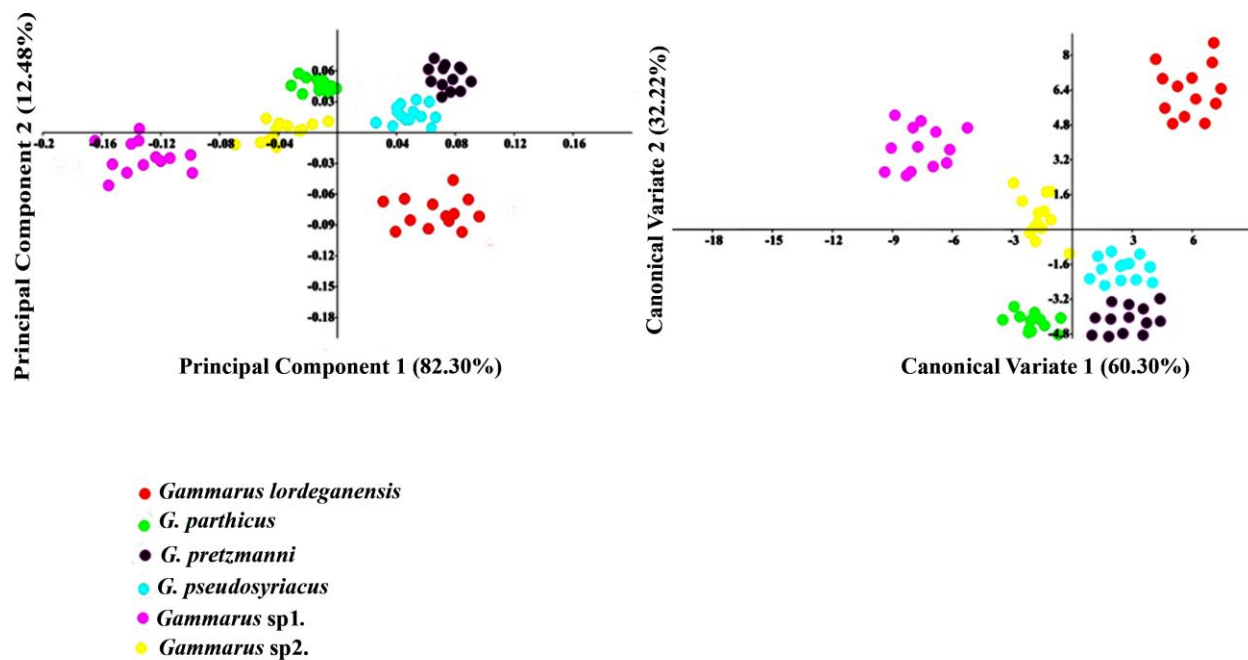


FIGURE 3. PCA and CVA showing significant difference in the shape of the posterior margin of Ep3 between different species of genus *Gammarus*.

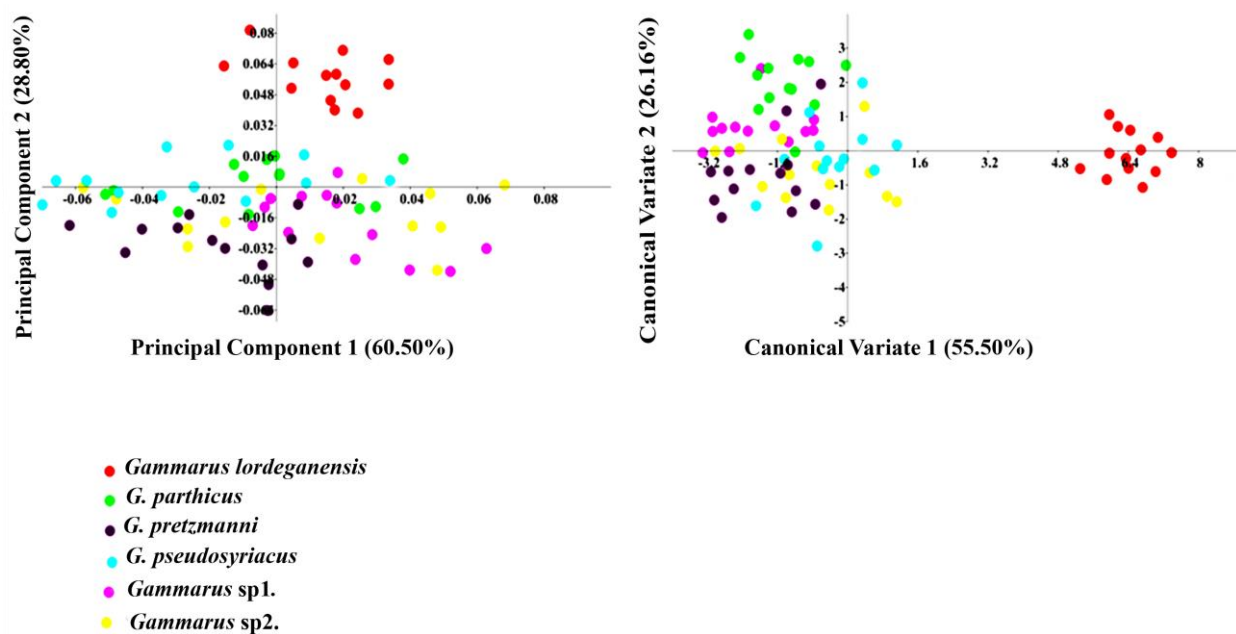


FIGURE 4. PCA and CVA showing insignificant variations in the shape of the anterior margin of Ep3 between different species of genus *Gammarus* except *G. lordeganensis* that is clearly distinguished from the rest species.

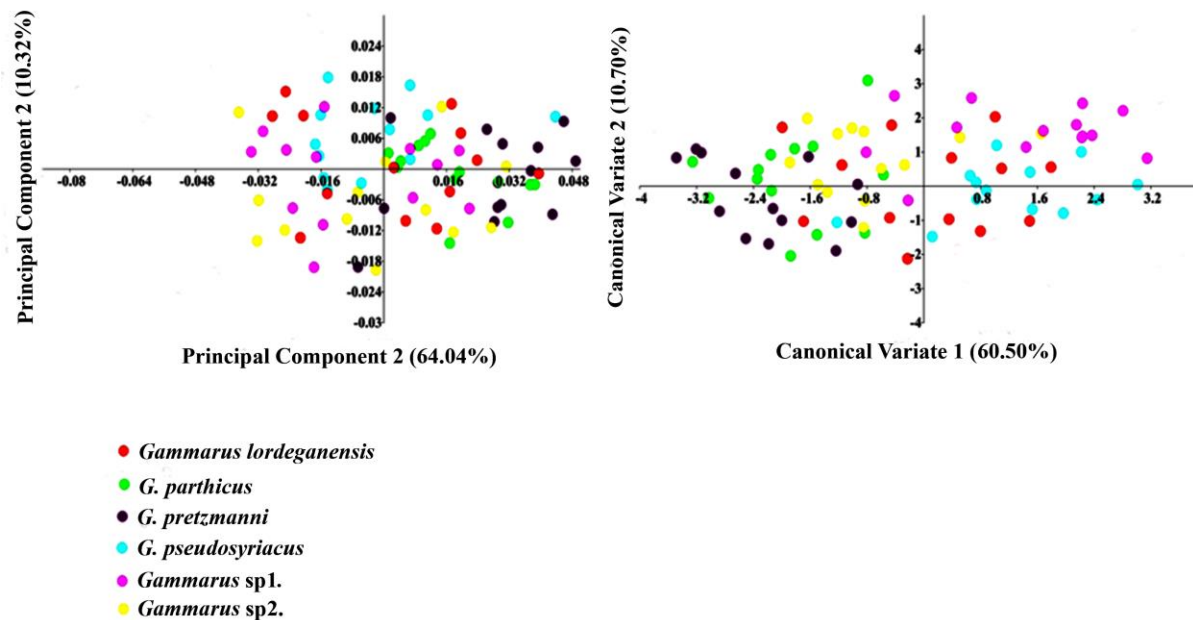


FIGURE 5. PCA and CVA showing insignificant variations in the shape of the inferior margin of Ep3 between different species of genus *Gammarus*.

the first two Canonical Variates (CV1 60.30 %, CV2 32.22 %) explained 92.52 % of the total variation (Fig. 3). So, significant morphometric differentiation in the posterior margin of Ep3 shape between different species of genus *Gammarus* were evident. These populations were completely separate and no overlap occurred among them. Over 88% of the anterior margin of Ep3 shape variation was described by principal components 1 and 2. PC1 and PC2 represent 60.5% and 28.8% of the variation, respectively (Fig. 4). This result is confirmed by CVA. The two first Canonical Variates (CV1 and CV2) explained 81.66 % of the total variation. The CV1 and CV2 explained 55.5% and 26.16% of the total variation between the groups, respectively (Fig 4). Results of the multivariate analyses clearly show that variation in the anterior margin of Ep3 shape is insignificant ($P > 0.05$). There is only a significant difference between *G. lordeganensis* with other groups ($P < 0.05$). A remarkable separation of *G. lordeganensis* as a distinct group from the rest of the species was found in both CVA and PCA analyses. Other species have overlap with each other. PC1 and PC2 depict 64.04% and 10.32% of the variance in the shape of the Ep3 inferior margin between the groups, respectively. Results of PCA are supported by CVA. The first canonical axis and the second canonical axis explained 60.5% and 10.7% of the total variation between the groups, respectively (Fig. 5). Multivariate analyses clearly show that variation in the inferior margin of Ep3 shape is insignificant ($P > 0.05$). All specimens were widely overlapped in the scatter plots.

DISCUSSION

This investigation is the first study to utilize the geometric morphometric technique to quantify Ep3s morphological variation for differentiation of *Gammarus* species. In our study, landmark-based geometric morphometric technique has been used to analyze differences in the posterior, anterior, and inferior margins of Ep3 shape of six *Gammarus* species and species discrimination. The results of the posterior margin of Ep3 shape analyses clearly showed that all species were completely distinct and different from each other. The posterior margins of the Ep3 shape of each species have different and various forms. The posterior margin of the Ep3 of *Gammarus* sp1 is very acuminate. The form of the Ep3 of the *G. lordeganensis* is convex posteromedially, while the shape of Ep3 of *G. parthicus* is weakly pointed posteroventrally. Ep3 shape of the *G. pretzmanni* has a

rectangular posteroventral corner. The posterodistal corner of *G. pseudosyriacus* Ep3 is slightly pointed and the Ep3 posterodistal corner of *Gammarus* sp2. is sharply pointed.

These results confirm previous studies on the Ep3 posterior margin shape of the genus *Bathyporeia* (Amphipoda, Bathyporeiidae). The Ep3 shape especially the postero-ventral tooth of the Ep3 was used as a diagnostic character to identify *Bathyporeia* species (Bellan-Santini, 1989; d'Udekem d'Acoz & Vader, 2005). The geometric morphometrics technique has also been conducted on the Ep3s of the Mediterranean *Bathyporeia guilliamsoniana* (Spence Bate, 1857) to assess intra-specific variations (Curatolo *et al.* 2013). It was found that *B. sunnivae* and *B. megalops* are morphotypes with *B. guilliamsoniana* and that the geometric morphometrics method helps to identify and discriminate species (Curatolo *et al.* 2013).

A considerable separation of *G. lordeganensis* as a distinct group from the rest of the species was observed in both CVA and PCA analyses of Ep3 anterior margin shape. The differentiation of *G. lordeganensis* from the other species is due to the different form of the anterior margin of Ep3 shape which is lobbed antero-inferiorly. Other species overlapped with each other due to having similar forms of the anterior margins of Ep3s which are not lobbed antero-inferiorly. Geometric morphometrics analysis of the inferior margin of Ep3 clearly shows that all specimens were entirely overlapped in the scatter plots due to their same morphological structure. These findings revealed that the shape of the third epimeral plate, particularly its posterior margin, is a better characteristic to diagnose species in the genus *Gammarus* (Fig 6).

This technique was used successfully in amphipods by Riedlecker *et al* (2009) on the second gnathopod propodus to discriminate native and non-native species of Caprellidae. Moreover, the geometric morphometric technique was effectively performed on species of the genus *Bathyporeiidae*, to assess the 'cryptic' variation in the Ep3 shape and species identification (Curatolo *et al.* 2013). In addition, this method was used in another group of amphipods by Layeghi *et al* (2019) for investigating of sexual dimorphism of taxonomic characters. In their study, sexual dimorphism of gnathopods 1 and 2 and uropod 3' shapes in *Parhyale darvishi* was successfully described using geometric morphometric method (Layeghi *et al.* 2019). Application of geometric morphometrics in the present study proved to be a very valuable tool for shape analysis, separating species and studying morphological variation in this group of amphipods. Ep3 shape makes amphipods, especially those of the genus *Gammarus* good models for identifying species using the geometric morphometrics method.

Several previous studies have confirmed the applicability of the geometric morphometric technique in crustaceans to identify species and morphological discrimination of various species, differences of anatomical shapes, revealing sexual dimorphism, shape and size variation, and identifying taxonomic key characteristics of species (Giri & Collins, 2004; Zimmermann *et al.* 2012; Ligios & Gliozzi, 2012; Bissaro *et al.* 2013; Marchiori *et al.* 2014; Diawol *et al.* 2015; Karanovic *et al.* 2016; Grinang *et al.* 2019). Research by Bagheri *et al* (2020) confirmed that geometric morphometric technique combined with statistical methods on the variation of carapace shape of blue swimming crab *Portunus segnis* (Forsk., 1775) along the Iranian coasts of the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea are useful in separating *Portunus* species (Bagheri *et al.* 2020). Recent studies on pattern of shape variation in isopods have received much attention. A landmark geometric morphometric approach was applied on dactylus shape of cymothoid isopods to investigate size allometry and shape variations. The results revealed that geometric morphometric method is an effective tool for uncovering complex patterns from simple outline shapes like dactyli (Baillie *et al.* 2019). Geometric morphometric method was able to show the seasonal shape variations in terrestrial isopod *Porcellionides pruinosus* as well as shape sexual dimorphism (Ismail, 2021). 2D landmark-based geometric morphometrics was effectively applied to study of interpopulation size of a Microcerberid Isopod and pleon sensilla, and male pleopod II endopodite shape variations. It was

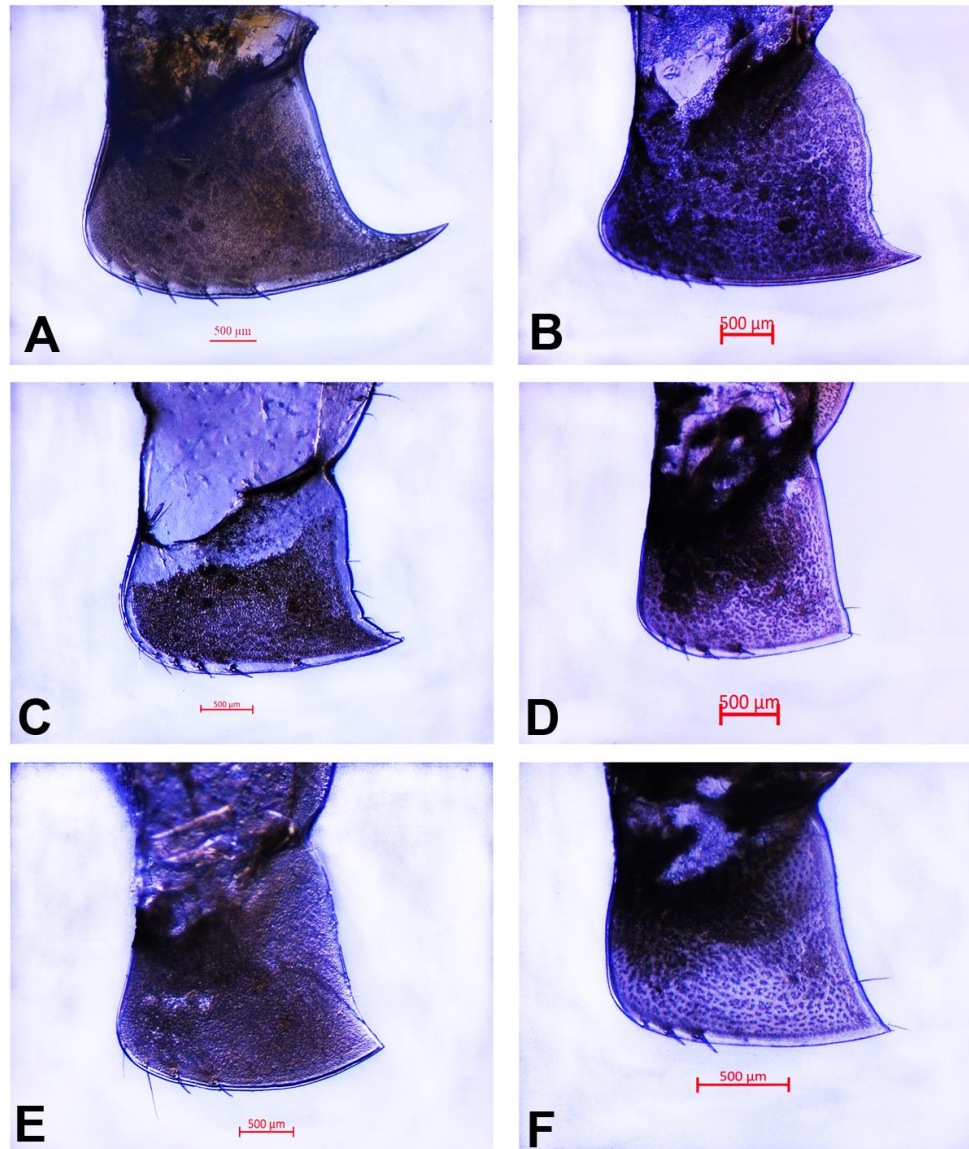


FIGURE 6. The third epimeral plates of different species of genus *Gammarus*. A. *Gammarus* sp1. B. *G. lordeganensis*, C. *Gammarus* sp2. D. *G. pretzmanni*, E. *G. pseudosyriacus*, F. *G. parthicus*

found that this method as a novel approach provides new insight to intrapopulation shape variations and ontogenetic variation (Kim *et al.* 2021).

All of the above studies in different groups of crustaceans as well as this research confirmed that 2D landmark-based geometric morphometric method is able to show shape variations and species discrimination

CONCLUSION

This study represents the first attempt to utilize the geometric morphometrics method for morphological analysis of the third epimeral plates in the genus *Gammarus*. Based on our geometric morphometrics analyses, Ep3 shape particularly its posterior margin across the species can be the best characteristic for species discrimination in the genus *Gammarus*. Thus, the geometric morphometrics method can be a precise tool for shape analysis of *Gammarus* species. Moreover,

Amphipods especially those of the genus *Gammarus* are appropriate for the geometric study of the anatomical shapes.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open access

Evaluation ecological niche between *Platyceps rhodorachis* and *P. karelini* (Serpentes: Colubridae) in Iran

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Abstract

Platyceps rhodorachis (JAN, 1863) and *P. karelini* (BRANDT, 1838) are both members of the *P. rhodorachis* complex species, which is widely distributed in Iran and includes many local populations in the country. These two species are molecularly and to some extent morphologically valid. However, hybrids between *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis* have been described, but so far their ecological differentiation have not been evaluated. In this study, the ecological niche models was predicted for these two members of the *P. rhodorachis* complex using bioclimatic layers and geographical coordinates. Possible habitat models show the distribution density of these two species in the southern (including some islands in the Persian Gulf) regions, and some areas in northeastern Iran. The results of niche similarity tests (identity and niche overlap tests) based on the criteria of environmental species, in order to assess the degree of species differentiation, indicate the degree of differentiation between these two sister species and raises the possibility of a hybrid belt in southern Iran.

Key words: *Platyceps*, Common Cliff Racer, Ecological niche modeling, Niche differentiation, Snake.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of species delimitation has become a contentious issue over the last half century (De Queiroz, 2007). Biologists believe that the delimitation of species depends on the identification of biological diversity at the species level (Carstens *et al.*, 2013). Numerous operational techniques based on molecular or phenotypic data have been designed to aid the understanding of biological species, however in some cases post- or pre-zygotic barriers are broken (Mayr 1978; Tobias *et al.*, 2010). Because selection acts on phenotypes and any mutualistic units, the concept of ecological species is proposed as a solution to describe species boundaries (Van Valen, 1976). Interest in describing, understanding, and predicting geographic and environmental distributions of species is very old (Grinnell, 1917; Wallace, 2016). According to Dobson (1995), "Biodiversity is the diversity and variability of living organisms and ecological complexes and the sum of the different types of organisms that inherit an area". Understanding how climate change affects the distribution of different animal species has always been one of the main challenges for conservation biologists (Root

& Schneider, 2006). A set of techniques commonly called species distribution model (SDM) (Guisan & Zimmermann, 2000; Guisan & Thuiller, 2005), and the related Ecological Niche Modeling has experienced significant growth over the past decade and serves as one of the fundamental strategies for determining potential species habitats (Peterson, 2006). The fundamental importance of identifying species distribution areas as a biogeographical and ecological concept and the myriad applications that can be used through these methods explain the growing interest in this field (Peterson *et al.*, 2011). Bioclimatic envelope models is one of the neutral terms that has been developed to use these models (Araújo & Peterson, 2012).

The concept of ecological species, as mentioned before, has a lot to do with the climate and ecosystem of the species distribution region, so the study of species biodiversity in Iran is very important due to the existence of different formations in geological, climatic and soil arrangement (Agapow *et al.*, 2004; Jowkar *et al.*, 2016). Habitat loss is the greatest threat to reptile and amphibian populations, and climate change due to human activities is exacerbating it (Fisher *et al.*, 1968; Devos & Wiles, 1973; Ashrafzadeh *et al.*, 2019). Detection of the protective status of reptiles is faced with a lack of information for various reasons. Modern computer processing and modeling methods with the integration of mechanical models and distribution data of the target species make it possible to gain a better understanding of species limiting factors (Root & Schneider, 2006; Yousefkhani, 2019; Ghelichy Salakh *et al.*, 2020). The MaxEnt principle is one of the most popular methods for modeling species distribution, which is based on ecosystem data and species presence area. The high power of presence prediction, low cost and ease of use have attracted many researchers to use the method (Hijmans *et al.*, 2005; Warren & Seifert, 2011).

Colubrid Snakes make up about two-thirds of the world's snakes (Dessauer, 1967). Racer snakes of the genus *Platyceps* distributed from SW Croatia to Central Asia (Kyrgyzstan), Himalayas (probably westernmost Nepal) and parts of North and Northeast Africa (Schaetti *et al.*, 2014; Sinaiko *et al.*, 2018). So far, 29 species of this genus have been described, of which six species are distributed in Iran (Schaetti *et al.*, 2014; Rajabizadeh, 2018). Among Iranian representatives, *P. karelini*, *P. ventromaculatus* and *P. rhodorachis* are defined as complex species (Schätti & McCarthy, 2004). *Platyceps ventromaculatus* (Gray, 1834) is somewhat isolated from *P. rhodorachis* complex in terms of distribution range, but the separation of the distribution range of the other two species has not been considered so far (Yildiz, 2011). All research on *P. rhodorachis* complex has so far focused on taxonomic and phenotypic studies and no study has been done on the extent of distribution and habitat suitability (Perry, 1985; Khan, 1997; Schätti & McCarthy, 2004; Schaetti *et al.*, 2014; Sinaiko *et al.*, 2018).

In this study, we examined the current distribution of two species (*P. rhodorachis* and *P. karelini*) using ecological niche criterion, to examine the degree of ecological differentiation between the two sister species. Also, modeling was used to predict the potential distribution of both species in Iran and the degree of niche space overlap between them. Finally, it is predicted that despite the overlap in the distribution range, the focus area of these two species are different from each other and we will discuss the effect of non-living environmental factors (temperature, precipitation, altitude and slope) on the extent of this separation. Also, we will determine the potential hybridization region by using niche modeling.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

More of the occurrence records are related to the field studies of the research team of Imam Hossein University and Hakim Sabzevari University between 2003 and 2008, which include 126 points. Otherwise, the rest are obtained from the literatures (Schätti *et al.*, 2012; Schaetti *et al.*, 2014). In total, 158 records of presence belonging to both species (50 records for *P. karelini* and 108 records for *P. rhodorachis*) (Appendix 1) were used in this study. The current 19 bioclimatic variables were loaded from WorldClim (www.worldclim.org) with an accuracy of 30 seconds and used to model both

species (Fick & Hijmans, 2017). The slope layer was created using ArcGIS 10.6.1 from the original altitude layer in 30 arc-second resolution and all layers were cut using ArcGIS 10.6.1 for Iran. Correlation matrix for bioclimatic variables was obtained using ENMtools v1.3 software and Pearson correlation coefficient was obtained using ENMTools V 1.3 software and variables with Pearson correlation coefficient higher than 0.75 were removed due to high correlation. (Benesty *et al.*, 2009; Warren *et al.*, 2010). Finally, three bioclimatic variables and two geographical variables were selected for analysis as follows: BIO6 (Min temperature of coldest month of the year (°C), BIO11 (Mean temperature of coldest quarter of the year (°C), BIO18 (Precipitation of warmest quarter of the year (mm), altitude and slope.

The species potential distribution model was implemented using the maximum entropy method in Maxent v3.4.4 (Elith *et al.*, 2011). The ENMeval package in R v4.0.4 was used to obtain the optimal Maxent settings (Muscarella *et al.*, 2014). Maximum 500 iterations, convergence threshold was set to the lowest (0.01) due to the wide range of species distribution, regularization multiplier 0.5 and 15 replicates with cross-validation method (Heidari, 2019). The area under receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) were considered as accuracy criteria between 0 and 1, the amount of lower than 0.5 represents the random model, and a value closer to 1.0 shows high accuracy of the predicted model (Townsend Peterson *et al.*, 2007).

To measure habitat differentiation between species, niche overlap and identity test were measured using ASCII files on ENMTools 1.3 (Nakazato *et al.*, 2010). In these tests, two required criteria were measured, namely Schoener's D (Giannini & Goloboff, 2010), and Hellinger's-based I (Schoener & Gorman, 1968). Schoener's D calculates the suitable range based on the probability of occupied grid cells, whereas Hellinger's-based I refers to the probability of ecological niche models (Warren *et al.*, 2010). Identity tests were conducted for each species based on 100 pseudoreplicates. Finally, Schoener's D and Hellinger's-based I indices of true calculated niche were compared with the null distribution of 100 pseudoreplicates (Warren *et al.*, 2008; Gholipur, 2018). These indices ranged between 0 (no overlap) and 1 (complete overlap).

RESULTS

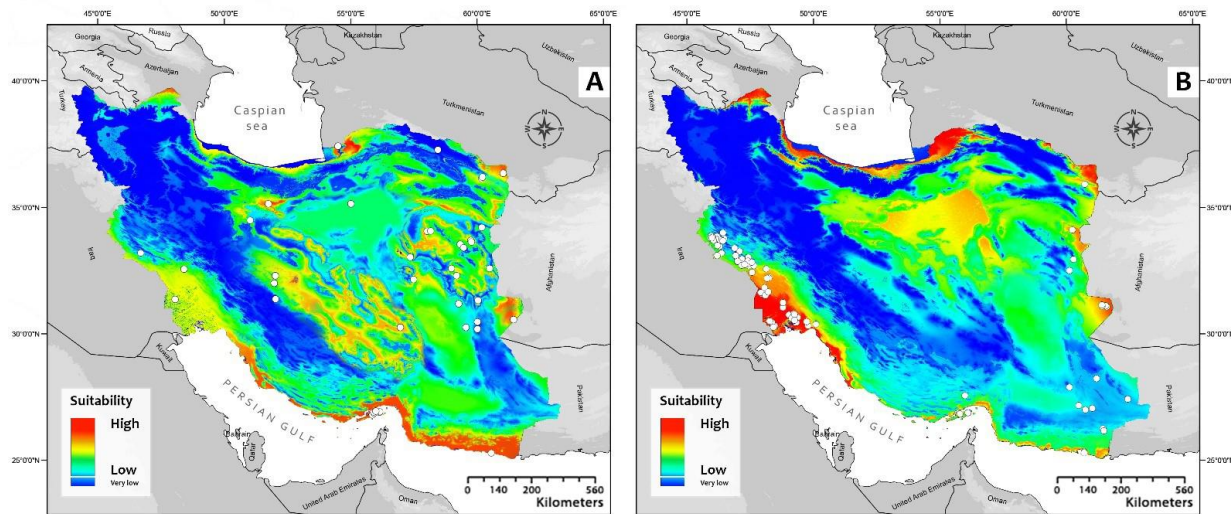
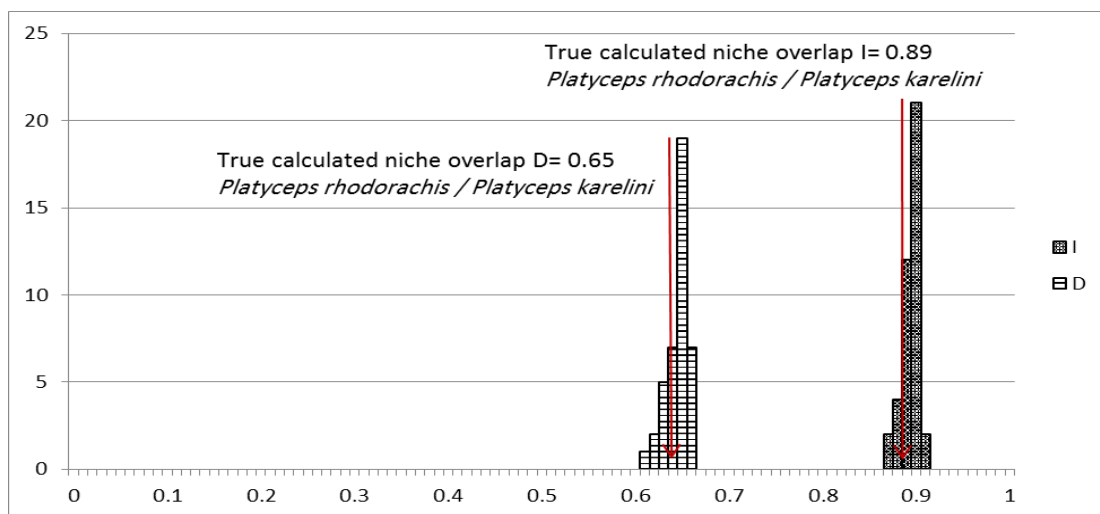
Ecological niche modeling results

Based on the literature and records, the distribution range of both species; *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis* overlaps, and there are reports of hybridization among their different populations (Туниев, 2000; Schätti *et al.*, 2012). To evaluate the performance of the Maxent model, the area under the curve (AUC) was used. The area under the curve (AUC) is a quantitative indicator to show the efficiency and accuracy of the model prediction (Elith *et al.*, 2006). The AUC values for *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis* are 0.812 ± 0.166 (mean $\pm$ standard deviation) and 0.845 ± 0.255 respectively, which is acceptable considering the occurrence records. The potential distribution model for *P. karelini* shows the high distribution suitability of this species throughout Iran, except the Zagros and northwestern heights of the country; The main distribution for *P. karelini* is in the southeastern in Sistan and Baluchestan Province and to some extent eastern and northeastern of Iran (Figure 1: A). For *P. rhodorachis*, the Niche distribution model shows a high density in the southern coast strip of Iran, Khuzestan and western Golestan province (Figure 1: B); both species are mainly distributed in coastal strip in the south. BIO6 (Min Temperature of Coldest Month) in *P. karelini* and altitude in *P. rhodorachis* are the most important factors determining the forecasting model (Table 1).

Niche overlap between *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis* indicated that their niche similarity was upper than 0.5 (Hellinger's-based I = 0.89 and Schoener's D = 0.65) however, due to the hybridization between these two sister species, this amount is a significant difference. Identity test showed the expected ecological niche interference between two sister species. The results are visible in the diagram in Figure 2. The results of the identity test ($i = 0.89$, $D = 0.65$) show the relative separation of the distribution for these two species, this separation can also be seen in the range of the obtained prediction model (Figure 1).

TABLE 1. Permutation importance and Percent contribution of variables used in MaxEnt model for two species of *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis*.

Variables	Description of variables	Percent contribution		Permutation importance	
		<i>P. karelini</i>	<i>P. rhodorachis</i>	<i>P. karelini</i>	<i>P. rhodorachis</i>
BIO6	Min Temperature of Coldest Month of the year (°C)	51.8	20.00	37.4	7.30
BIO11	Mean Temperature of Coldest Quarter of the year (°C)	19.7	32.4	45.7	32.1
BIO18	Precipitation of Warmest Quarter of the year (mm)	0.40	0.50	0.00	1.70
Altitude	Height above sea level (m)	26.5	45.6	16.9	58.8
Slope	Land slope	1.60	1.50	0.00	0.00

**FIGURE 1.** Predicted potential distributions of *P. karelini* (A) and *P. rhodorachis* (B) using MaxEnt, Habitat suitability is shown on the map using a gradient and the white circles indicate specimens collecting sites.**FIGURE 2.** Results of the identity test. Red arrows refer to the actual niche overlap as calculated by ENMTools (D and I). The bars (with two different patterns) are calculated by replicates with identity test mode.

DISCUSSION

Review of recent papers suggests that ecological theory is rarely explicitly considered (Austin 2007). Species distribution models (SDMs), which are commonly used to obtain hypotheses about the distribution or realization of species potential, has grown significantly since 1995, when this field came into focus. Current linkages between SDM practice and ecological theory are often weak, hindering progress. What is clear is that the use of SDM is essential for applications such as bioprotection planning and uncertainty in SDMs arises from data deficiencies (eg, samples of species occurrences that are small, biased or lacking absences) (Barry & Elith, 2006). Although the conservation status of Colubrid snakes has not been studied due to their widespread distribution and the least concern for this group has been predicted, but due to the overlap of the distribution range in the most suitable habitats of this group with human activities, this group may be considered as "endangered" in the not too distant future (Petros Lymberakis *et al.*, 2009). Recently, new studies have been performed on the *P. rhodorachis* complex and this group was revised and new species recommended (Perry, 2012; Schaetti *et al.*, 2014). *Platyceps rhodorachis* (Jan, 1865) has the highest range of distribution in this genus and overlaps with most congeners and there are significant cases of crossbreeding with them, especially with *P. karelini* (Khan, 1997; Туниев, 2000; Sinaiko *et al.*, 2018). Based on the literature and records, the distribution range of both species; *P. karelini* and *P. rhodorachis* overlaps, and there are reports of hybridization among their different populations (Туниев, 2000; Schätti *et al.*, 2012), our results confirm this and the range of distribution obtained is very similar to reports and literatures. *Platyceps karelini* (BRANDT, 1838) has three subspecies, all three of which are distributed in Iran. There is no report in the literature on the distribution of this species in southern Iran and no comprehensive study of the distribution of this species has been done so far in Iran. The available studies are limited to the initial faunistic studies and checklists of snakes in this area, which due to the observed variations in this genus, there is a possibility of misidentification of the species (Rastegar-Pouyani *et al.*, 2011). Comparison of ecological niches among different populations can show the niche differentiation and also detect distinct groups along the whole distribution range within the species complex (Cayuela *et al.*, 2009; Guisan *et al.*, 2013). The predicted distribution pattern in both species has a high overlap with their reported distribution range, however areas of the predicted model are reported for the first time. In *P. karelini*, Ardabil and Hormozgan provinces, and especially Sistan and Baluchestan, have been identified as compatible areas for the distribution of this species (Figure 1: A). In *P. rhodorachis*, Ardabil province and southwest of Khuzestan province have been identified as areas with high compatibility for distribution that Ardabil province had not been reported before (Figure 1: B). Altitude is the most important factor determining the likely distribution of *P. rhodorachis*, while in *P. karelini* the minimum temperature of the coldest month has the greatest effect on the prediction model (Table 1).

In the coastal areas of Sistan and Baluchestan province, the temperature is always above zero and due to the high evaporation volume is always sultry and higher than the temperature of the province. The same situation is observed in the coastal areas of Hormozgan province, but due to less monsoon winds, its intensity has decreased. These conditions justify the desirability of *P. karelini* distribution in these areas (Figure 1) (Chaichitehrani & Allahdadi, 2018). *Platyceps rhodorachis* distribution prediction model indicates the high importance of altitude factor, according to the prediction model, this species has the highest distribution merit at low altitudes and close to sea level. The precipitation seasonality in Hormozgan province affects the type of vegetation in the region (Abolhasan & Maryam, 2013; Nohegar *et al.*, 2015), and this issue directly affects the distribution of this species in this area. Probably the distribution of this species in this area is seasonal and reports of hybrids between *P. rhodorachis* and *P. karelini* in this area confirms this argument (Schätti *et al.*, 2012).

The general rule is that the new application of ecological niche modeling greatly facilitates species identification, and thus helps to identify additional species diversity and newer species

speciation events, it also provides a way to identify the possible hybridization region between the two sister species and to explain overlapping distribution patterns. We expect this approach to create new opportunities to identify potential distribution areas and protected areas.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Male and female genital allometry in *Habrobracon hebetor* (Hymenoptera: Braconidae)

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Abstract

This is particularly apparent within the insects that show high variations in genitalic form between closely related species. Static allometry is one of the effective approaches for quantification of such variation. Despite the crucial roles of the parasitic Hymenoptera in the ecosystems, little is known about the sexual selection in this order, compared with other insect orders. We examined the allometry of different morphological traits in 35 males and 35 females of *Habrobracon hebetor* (Say, 1836) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) from a laboratory colony reared in Mashhad city, for the first time. The aim was the investigation of allometric relationships of different body traits as a way for quantification of the natural selection impacts on the different body parts. 12 genitalic and non-genitalic body parts of *H. hebetor* males and females were photographed and measured. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to explore the variance of the traits and two regression analysis methods to obtain the allometric slopes. All the non-genitalic traits in male and female wasps showed isometry except pterostigma width in male wasps which showed positive allometry. In male genitalia, two traits showed strong negative allometry and one trait showed isometry. Our findings showed that in this species males with an average size of genitalia were more successful in generating viable offspring than males with relatively smaller or larger genitalia sizes and this is irrespective of the overall body size. Our results showed for the first time that such stabilizing sexual selection might operate on genital size in the braconid wasps.

Key words: Insect's evolution, Sexual selection, *Habrobracon hebetor*, Intraspecific variety, Morphology.

INTRODUCTION

Extraordinary variation of genitalia structures in animals and its function in the natural selection and speciation is highly considered and discussed, lately. Sexual selection is discussed as the primary force driving such enormous variation (Leonard & Córdoba-Aguilar, 2010; Cao et al. 2019). Static allometry, which is defined as the size relationship of a specific body part with the whole body in a population of a particular species, is one of the effective approaches for quantification of the natural selection impacts on the different body parts and their performance in an organism (Hosken, & Stockley, 2004; Ohno et al. 2003). This relationship is revealed by the slope attained in log-log regression of the size of a given body trait on an indicator of total body size (Eberhard, 1985). According to the selection hypotheses, relative size of different body parts is



examined by using an index for the overall body size. Several studies on genital allometry used a single somatic trait as the indicator of body size (e.g. pronotum length, elytra length and head width), although the use of a different body-size indicator may give rise to different results (Green, 1999). A slope over 1.0 (positive allometry) indicates advantage of relatively larger traits in the larger individuals of the population. Slope around 1.0 (isometry) shows relatively constant size of the trait across the population. Allometric slopes lower than 1.0 (negative allometry) are the indicator of relatively smaller trait expression in larger individuals (Eberhard, 2009).

Presumably, natural selection can adjust allometric slopes and consequently, affects the traits performance (Eberhard et al. 1998). Stabilizing selection is one of the main ways that selection can affect animals. In this type of selection, individuals with intermediate trait size will be favored in the population instead of exaggerated trait size which will be favored in the disruptive selection phenomena (Hosken & Stockley, 2004).

According to the selection hypotheses, when trait size increases faster than overall body size, there is a positive allometric relationship, as seen in insect's weapons. An isometric relationship exists when selection pressure is equal on the trait and overall body size, like most somatic traits in insects (Eberhard et al. 1998). If the selection pressure favors intermediate values of the trait regardless of body size, it causes negative allometry (Hosken & Stockley, 2004). Apparently, this relationship is common in male genital structures of insects and spiders (Eberhard et al. 1998; Eberhard, 2009). Conversely, Bolanos et al. (2014) found an exception to the previous findings. They interpreted isometric relationship of some genital traits in the damselflies as effect of sexual conflict situation that could change scaling pattern of genitalia in these insects. Also, some similar exceptions to the general pattern proposed by Eberhard et al. (1998) were previously found (Johnson, 1995; Cayetano et al. 2011). These findings showed that genital traits may evolve under different kinds of scaling patterns in different species. Moreover, different selective pressures which genitalia may confront during different sexual selection mechanisms need further investigations.

Eberhard et al. (1998) proposed the one-size-fits-all hypothesis based on their study of allometric relationships of genital and non-genital morphological traits in many species of arthropods including insects. They indicated that all morphological traits in the male genitalia have allometric slopes significantly lower than 1.0 and lower than the slopes for non-genital body traits. Their finding means that sexual selection within the arthropod populations acts through stabilizing selection and males with the average genital sizes are more favored for gene transfer to the next generations. According to this hypothesis, female morphology is relatively invariable so that the consistency of male genital morphology is an adaptation to this situation. Subsequently, several studies on different orders of insects and spiders have confirmed their findings for male genital size (e.g., Schmitz et al. 2000; Iwahashi, 2001; Tatsuta et al. 2001; Eberhard, 2002; Tschinkel et al. 2003; Hosken et al. 2005; Mutanen & Kaitala, 2006; Rabieh et al. 2015; Cao & Hayashi, 2019). Eberhard et al. (1998) found that genitalia traits of the studied females have lower allometric slopes than the median allometric slope for non-genital traits but this difference was not significant. According to these results, they proposed that female genitalia may show the same patterns of variation as male genitalia. But they reported less variability for female genitalia than those of non-genital traits (Eberhard et al. 1998; Eberhard, 2009). Afterward, a few studies (e.g., Funke & Huber, 2005; Rabieh et al. 2015; Cao & Hayashi, 2019) confirmed their findings. Although, Nava-Bolaños et al. (2012) found that genital traits did not show negative allometry in two Odonata species, in both sexes.

Despite the crucial roles of the parasitic Hymenoptera in the ecosystems and the high diversity of mating systems, little is known about sexual selection and sexual conflict in this order, compared with other insect orders. Although, the mating systems of this diverse taxonomic group are studied in-sight of how population structure influences sex allocation strategies and how to

encourage their attack and control of pest populations as one of the main groups of biological control agents in the applied research (West, 2009; Boulton et al. 2015).

Allometric relationships of different body traits including genitalic parts are poorly studied in the Hymenoptera species and most allometry studies are focused on allometric relationships of non-genitalic traits, especially in the case of sexual dimorphisms investigations (e.g., Perrard et al. 2012; Benítez et al. 2013; Polilov & Makarova, 2017; Quezada-Euán et al. 2019). To determine whether genitalic parts are coordinating with the stabilizing selection prediction of strong negative allometry of genitalic structures, in Braconid wasps, this paper examined the allometry of different genitalic and non-genitalic morphological traits in males and females of *Habrobracon hebetor* (Say, 1836) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae). This species is a polyphagous and gregarious ectoparasitoid wasp which is widely used in integrated pest management programs. This species is mass-reared for control of the larvae of some important and well-known Lepidoptera pest species (Borzoui et al. 2016). The present paper also examined CV (coefficient of variation), CV' (degree of dispersion of points around the allometric line) and SEE (standard error of estimate) that are other sources of information about the trait's variation. The results are discussed in evolutionary frameworks.

Material and Methods

Insects

A laboratory stock colony of *Habrobracon hebetor* was established from individuals collected from tomato fields during spring 2018 around Mashhad, Khorasan-e Razavi province of Iran. Rearing was done in the laboratory conditions at 25 ± 1 °C, 65 ± 5 % RH, and a photoperiod of 16:8 (L:D) on fifth-stage larvae of *Ephestia kuehniella* for at least 10 generations for obtain to adequate population reared on the host at these conditions (Borzoui et al. 2016). 35 adult males and 35 adult females of *H. hebetor* were selected, randomly, from the laboratory stock colony and killed in Ethanol 70% solution.

E. kuehniella, were provided according to Borzoui et al. (2016) at the above-mentioned laboratory conditions. Examined materials were deposited in the Insect Collection of Birjand, Plant Protection Department, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Birjand, Iran.

Preparation and Measurements

Body parts of *H. hebetor* males and females were dissected. In each individual, the antenna, forewing, foreleg and hind leg were removed and cleaned to eliminate redundant tissues. Genitalia of both sexes were removed from the softened surrounding tissues of the abdomen and preserved in Ethanol 70% solution for only some minutes prior mounting. All mentioned parts were mounted on Canada balsam fixative. After preparation, all body parts were photographed through a microscope using a C-5050ZOOM digital camera (Olympus). 15 (three genitalic and 12 non-genitalic) traits in males and females were examined. For prevention of errors due to body asymmetry, only the right body parts were examined in all traits. The 12 measured non-genitalic traits in both sexes were the lengths of the following body parts: forewing, pterostigma, fore femur, fore tibia, spine of fore tibia, mid femur, mid tibia, hind femur, hind tibia, pedicel and the width of forewing and pterostigma (Fig. 1). The lengths of valva and ovipositor and the width of valva in the females and the lengths of the gonoforcep and penisvalva and the width of penisvalva in the males, were the measured genitalic traits (Fig. 1). TPSDIG, version 2.16 (Rohlf, 2015) was used for all the measurements. To minimize the measurement error, each trait was measured by the same person three times. Estimated measurement error for all studied traits showed relatively repeatable measurements (Table 1). Therefore, the average of the three measurements was used for further analyses.

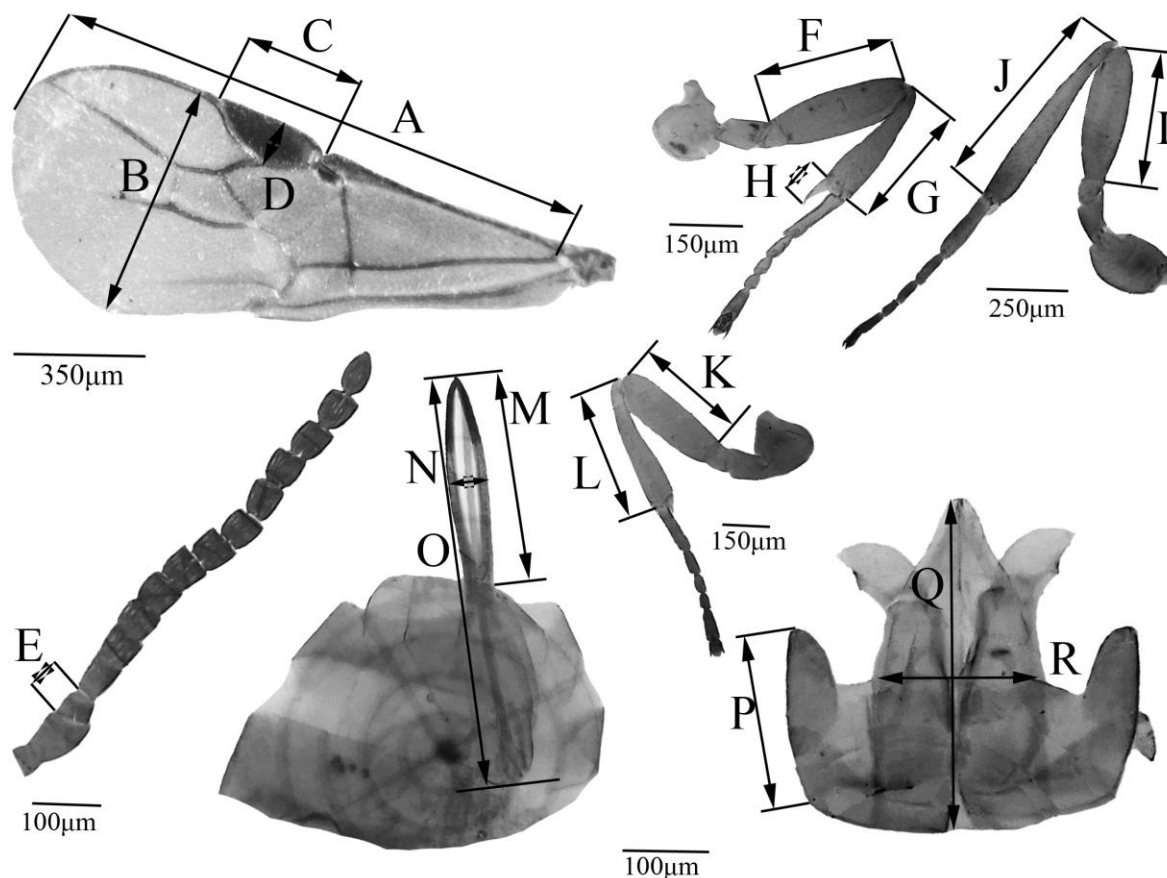


FIGURE 1. Genitalic and non-genitalic traits in male and female *Habrobracon hebetor*. A: Forewing length; B: Forewing width; C: Pterostigma length; D: Pterostigma width; E: Pedicel length; F: Fore femur length; G: Fore tibia length; H: Fore tibia spine length; I: Hind tibia length; J: Hind femur length; K: Mid femur length; L: Mid tibia length; M: Valva length; N: Valva width; O: Ovipositor length; P: Gonoforcep length; Q: Penisvalva length; R: Penisvalva width.

Data analysis

We used Principal Component Analysis (PCA), conducted separately for each sex, to obtain the best component explaining the variance of the traits. We selected forewing as the indicator of body size for allometry studies in male and female wasps. Loading all the measured traits on PC1, this trait showed the strongest correlation among other traits. Then, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated for the correlation between all other morphological traits and the body size indicator.

To estimate the allometric slopes, RMA and SMA regression analysis method was performed for log10-transformed values of the traits on log10-transformed forewing length in each sex according to Rabieh et al. (2015) (Table 2)

Also, CV (coefficient of variation), CV' (degree of dispersion of points around the allometric line) and SEE (standard error of estimate) that are other sources of information about the trait's variation were calculated (Rabieh et al. 2015). The estimated components were compared between genitalic vs. non-genitalic traits by Mann-Whitney U-tests within each species. All statistical data analyses were performed using SPSS version 19.0 (IBM Corp, 2010).

TABLE 1. Measurement error and coefficients of variation (CV) evaluation for all male and female traits in *Habrobracon hebetor*

Trait	Measurement Error (%)	CV (%)
Non-genitalic		
Forewing length	0.78	2.11
Forewing width	1.16	2.66
Pterostigma length	1.25	1.93
Pterostigma width	0.99	3.23
Fore femur length	0.27	2.19
Fore tibia length	0.82	1.5
Fore tibia spine length	2.13	2.31
Mid femur length	1.17	1.64
Mid tibia length	1.4	2.47
Hind femur length	1.55	2.43
Hind tibia length	0.94	1.72
Pedicel	2.21	2.13
Genitalic		
Valva length	1.82	2.25
Valva width	2.01	1.3
Ovipositor length	1.96	2.32
Penisvalva length	2.52	1.68
Penisvalva width	2.71	1.21
Gonoforcep length	2.3	1.12

TABLE 2. Allometry of evaluated morphometric traits in *Habrobracon hebetor* males.

Trait	r(p)	RMA slope	p-Value	SMA slope	SMA slope CI	CV'	SEE
Non-genitalic							
Forewing width	0.92(0.0008)	0.88	< 0.001	0.85	0.74-1.02	1.04	0.0137
Pterostigma length	0.88(0.0001)	0.83	< 0.001	0.77	0.67-1.00	0.92	0.0159
Pterostigma width	0.89(0.005)	1.21	< 0.001	1.03	1.01-2.13	1.35	0.0217
Fore femur length	0.85(0.0001)	0.67	< 0.001	0.89	0.52-1.01	1.15	0.0145
Fore tibia length	0.86(0.004)	0.77	< 0.001	0.81	0.61-1.04	0.77	0.0167
Fore tibia spine length	0.73(0.001)	0.78	< 0.001	0.73	0.52-1.03	1.26	0.0181
Mid femur length	0.92(0.007)	0.74	< 0.001	0.65	0.63-1.22	0.64	0.0117
Mid tibia length	0.87(0.0001)	0.75	< 0.001	0.82	0.6-1.16	1.22	0.0151
Hind femur length	0.90(0.013)	0.84	< 0.001	0.79	0.7-1.31	1.06	0.0145
Hind tibia length	0.83(0.012)	0.75	< 0.001	0.69	0.57-1.12	0.96	0.0178
Pedicel	0.71(0.005)	0.89	< 0.001	0.81	0.57-1.21	1.50	0.0212
Genitalic							
Penisvalva length	0.55(0.003)	0.2	0.006	0.18	0.06-0.34	1.04	0.0141
Penisvalva width	0.42(0.006)	0.61	0.012	0.66	0.14-1.05	1.1	0.0157
Gonoforcep length	0.53(0.05)	0.09	0.46	0.11	-0.16-0.34	0.94	0.0227

-The table shows Pearson correlation coefficient (r) and its *p*-value, ranged major regressions allometric coefficient (RMA slope), the *p*-value obtained from permutations to test if the allometric coefficients differed from zero, standardized major axis allometric coefficients (SMA slope), and their confidence intervals (SMA slope CI), degree of dispersion of points around the allometric line (CV') and standard error of estimate (SEE).

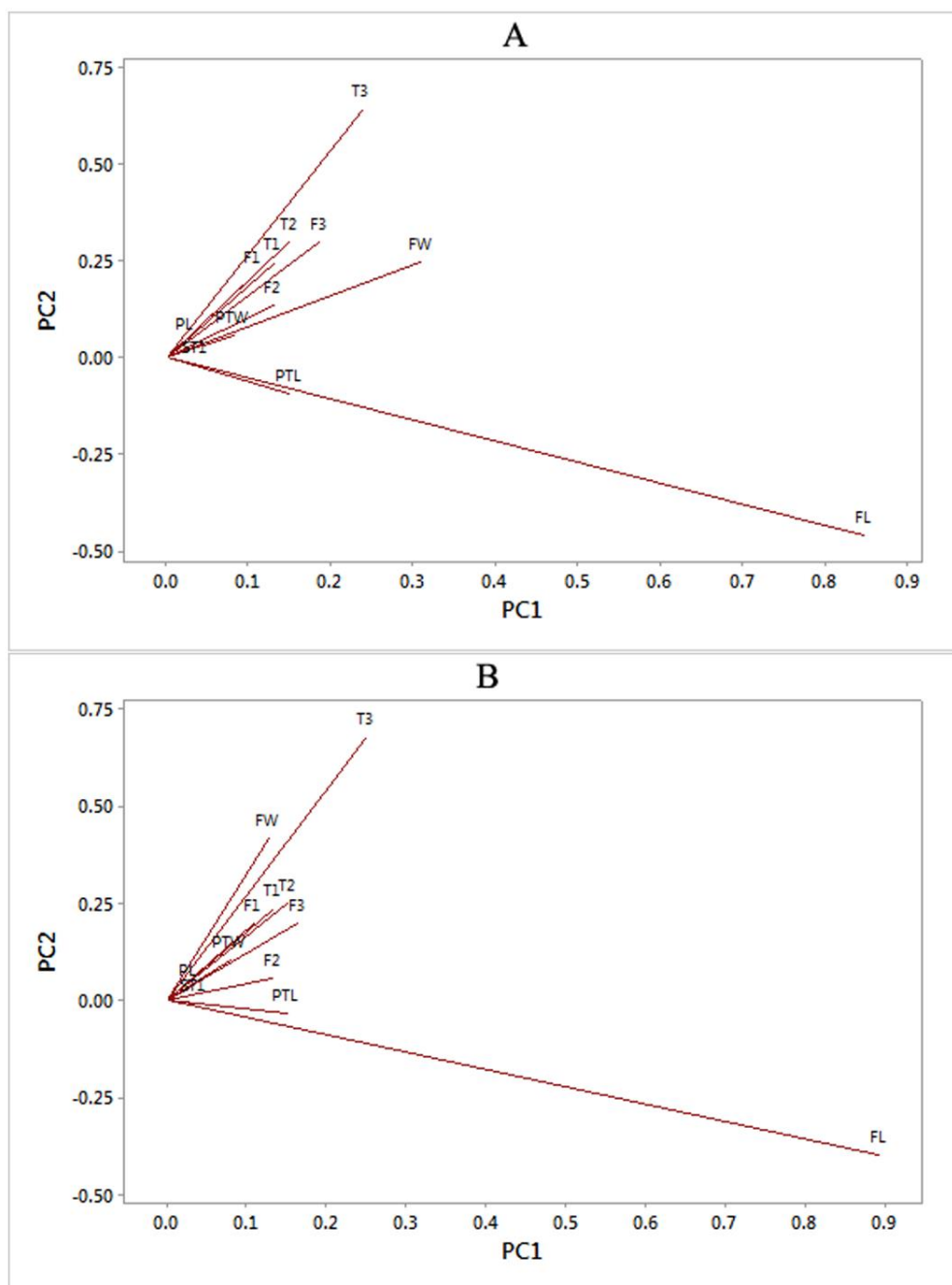


FIGURE 2. Principal component analysis (PCA) plots of trait loadings on PC1 vs. PC2 showing the covariation structure in the trait matrix of the males and females. A: *Habrobracon hebetor* male. B: *H. hebetor* female. FW: forewing width; FL: forewing length; F1: Fore femur length; F2: Mid femur length; F3: hind femur length; T1: Fore tibia length; T2: mid tibia length; T3: hind tibia length; ST1: Fore tibia spine length; PL: length of the pedicel; PTL: pterostigma length; PTW: pterostigma width.

TABLE 3. Allometry of evaluated morphometric traits in *Habrobracon hebetor* females.

Trait	r (p)	RMA slope	p-Value	SMA slope	SMA slope CI	CV'	SEE
Non-genitalic							
Forewing width	0.94(0.0002)	0.84	< 0.001	0.89	0.72-1.00	0.91	0.0142
Pterostigma length	0.89(0.0004)	0.81	< 0.001	0.79	0.71-1.01	0.88	0.0161
Pterostigma width	0.84(0.001)	0.92	< 0.001	0.81	0.55-1.13	1.75	0.0188
Fore femur length	0.79(0.0001)	0.61	< 0.001	0.69	0.63-1.05	1.34	0.0154
Fore tibia length	0.81(0.002)	0.87	< 0.001	0.75	0.58-1.03	0.87	0.0173
Fore tibia spine length	0.82(0.001)	0.6	< 0.001	0.68	0.57-1.01	1.32	0.0189
Mid femur length	0.84(0.003)	0.53	< 0.001	0.52	0.43-1.00	0.88	0.0126
Mid tibia length	0.88(0.0001)	0.68	< 0.001	0.83	0.62-1.12	1.17	0.0132
Hind femur length	0.88(0.001)	0.82	< 0.001	0.77	0.7-1.25	1.15	0.0152
Hind tibia length	0.9(0.002)	0.59	< 0.001	0.64	0.58-1.02	0.74	0.0138
Pedice	0.81(0.004)	0.79	< 0.001	0.85	0.67-1.19	1.2	0.0205
Genitalic							
Valva length	0.48(0.05)	0.47	0.27	0.39	0.1-0.54	1.97	0.0311
Valva width	0.69(0.01)	0.59	0.31	0.65	0.49-1.00	0.94	0.0251
Ovipositor length	0.52(0.002)	0.62	0.01	0.8	0.53-1.01	1.98	0.0323

- The table shows Pearson correlation coefficient (r) and its *p*-value, ranged major regressions allometric coefficient (RMA slope), the *p*-value obtained from permutations to test if the allometric coefficients differed from zero, standardized major axis allometric coefficients (SMA slope), and their confidence intervals (SMA slope CI), degree of dispersion of points around the allometric line (CV') and standard error of estimate (SEE).

DISCUSSION

This study is a comprehensive static allometry investigation on external genitalia and non-genitalic traits within both sexes of a Hymenopteran species. Although, most studies on insect's allometry usually focus on male genitalia traits and lay conspecific female genitalia away from their deduction.

In our results, almost all non-genitalia traits in both sexes of *Habrobracon hebetor* showed isometry (greater than 1.0 in pterostigma width in males). On the other hand, male genitalia traits of *H. hebetor* showed negative allometry except for Penisvalva width which showed isometry. This information confirms that, in *H. hebetor* male genitalia and non-genitalia traits reveal coordination with the one-size-fits-all hypothesis proposed by Eberhard et al. (1998) and further explained in Eberhard (2009). This means that in a given population of this species male individuals with average size of genitalia are more successful in generating surviving offspring than males with relatively smaller or larger genitalia sizes and this is irrespective of the overall body size of them. Our results in terms of the negative allometry of genitalia traits vs. isometry of non-genitalic traits, is in coordinate with the results of other works evaluated static allometry in male genitalia of different insect orders (e.g., Schmitz et al. 2000; Iwahashi, 2001; Tatsuta et al. 2001; Eberhard, 2002; Tschinkel et al. 2003; Hosken et al. 2005; Mutanen & Kaitala, 2006; Rabieh et al. 2015; Cao & Hayashi, 2019). Although, some studies found different results which do not support one-size-fits-all hypothesis, recently (e.g., Nava-Bolanos et al. 2012; Nava-Bolanos et al. 2014). These findings offer consideration on different functions of genitalia parts during copulation and sexual conflicts through different sexual selection mechanisms. For example, male genitalia parts may evolve to access stored sperm of females which leads to positive allometry of aedeagus in males of *Protoneura cara* (Odonata: Protoneuridae) (Nava-Bolanos et al. 2012).

According to our results, there is no significant difference between genitalic and non-genitalic traits in female wasps. This finding is another confirmation for the claim that the shallow

static allometry slopes of male genitalic traits reflect functional roles associated with mating and sexual competition.

In a given species population, larger CV of a specified trait may be due to a higher allometric value or a greater dispersion of points around the allometric line (CV'). The allometric slope is related to genetic structure of the organism which evolves under different selection pressures but the degree of dispersion may be related not only to genetic structure but also to other environmental and internal causes (Eberhard, 1998). In our results, CV' and SEE of genitalic traits have values less than those for non-genitalic traits, in the male wasps. Although, their difference was not significant, this result means that in *H. hebetor* the size of male genitalia is more stable than that of non-genitalic parts against changes in the body size, and the difference in the degree of phenotypic variation between genitalic and non-genitalic morphometric feature is related to the difference in allometric slopes. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies which investigated the allometric slope and the dispersion of points around the allometric line, separately, for male genitalia traits and other body parts (e.g., Eberhard et al. 1998; Ohno et al. 2003; Rabieh et al. 2015; Cao & Hayashi, 2019). It is assumed that sexual selection in arthropods may favor a particular scaling relationship for male genitalia under a developmental-genetic program which appears as allometric slope (Eberhard et al. 1998). Our results showed that such stabilizing sexual selection may also operate on genital size in braconid wasps.

Our results, presented another confirmation of the previous studies which showed that genitalia traits of females have lower allometric slopes than the median allometric slope for non-genitalic traits but this difference was not significant (e.g., Eberhard et al. 1998; Funke & Huber, 2005; Rabieh et al. 2015; Cao & Hayashi, 2019). We found that genitalia traits in *H. hebetor* females have lower allometric slope, CV, CV' and SEE than those for non-genitalic traits which for two last components, the differences were significant. Our findings showed similar allometric patterns among the male and female traits measured. Consequently, as male genitalia parts showed negative allometry and female genitalia, on the other hand displayed isometric relationship, we predict relatively invariability in female morphology of *H. hebetor* so that male wasp could adapt to this by being consistent in genital morphology. While our evidences do suggest the possibility of stabilizing selection in *H. hebetor*, additional experiments would be required to reinforce these claims.

If a non-genitalic trait of a male individual attends as a secondary sexual trait during sexual selection mechanism, it may produce higher mating success when has a larger relative size, conversely, in small individuals, viability costs may limit the size of this trait, resulting in positive allometry (Bonduriansky, 2007). This will be much distinctive when a large number of competitive males exist or the trait produces resolutely more advantage in competitive interactions (Fromhage & Kokko, 2014). In our results, the pterostigma width in *H. hebetor* males showed positive allometry in relation to body size. Conversely, this trait in *H. hebetor* females showed an isometric relationship with body size. This suggests selection for larger pterostigma in large *H. hebetor* males and/or relatively smaller ones in small *H. hebetor* males. Therefore, positive allometry of the pterostigma width in *H. hebetor* may be a result of secondary sexual function. This possibility deserves further investigations.

RESULTS

The first and second components of the PCA explained 94.8% and 3.4% of the total variance in the males and 91.1% and 3.7% in the females, respectively. Therefore, PC1 chose as the best component explaining the variance of the traits for both sexes. Plots of trait loadings on PC1 vs. PC2 showing the covariation structure in the trait matrix of the males and females are presented (Fig. 2). Loading all the measured traits on PC1, forewing length showed the strongest correlation among other traits (Males: $r = 0.989$, p -value < 0.001 ; Females: $r = 0.977$, p -value < 0.001). All the measured traits were significantly related to the overall body size for male and female wasps

(Tables 2 and 3). In most traits, a highly significant relationship (p -value <0.01) was observed in both sexes (Tables 2 and 3). All the non-genitalic traits in male and female wasps showed isometric relationship with the body size indicator (Tables 2 and 3) except pterostigma width in male wasps which showed positive allometric relationship with body size (Table 2). In females, valva length showed strongly negative allometric relationship with body size and valva width and ovipositor length showed isometry (Tables 3). In male wasps, length of penisvalva and gonoforcep have strong negative allometry in relation to body size indicator and penisvalva width showed values which did not differ significantly from one (isometry) (Table 2).

The mean slope for the measured genitalic traits of males was significantly lower than one's for the non-genitalic traits (Mann–Whitney U-test, $P < 0.01$). In female wasps, there is no significant difference (Mann–Whitney U-test, $P = 0.097$) but the mean slope of genital traits was lower than the mean slope for non-genitalic traits. There is no significant difference between results of allometric slopes in the RMA and SMA regression methods (Mann–Whitney U-test, $P < 0.01$).

Genitalic traits of male wasps showed significantly lower CV than non-genitalic traits (Mann–Whitney U-test, $P < 0.01$). Despite the lower mean value for genitalic traits, there was no significant difference between CV for genitalic and non-genitalic traits, in female wasps (Tables 3). Conversely, CV' showed no significant difference between genitalic and non-genitalic traits in male wasps (Mann–Whitney U-test, $P = 0.361$) and it was significantly lower for non-genitalic than genitalic traits in female wasps. Similar situation was seen for SEE which only female wasps have significantly lower non-genitalic traits than genitalic traits (Tables 2 and 3).

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open access

Shell and Radula Morphology of land snails in Urmia city, North-west of Iran

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Abstract

Mollusca are the second-largest phylum of invertebrates after Arthropoda and may play a role as an intermediate host for parasites. To determine the morphological features of land snails (including *Assyriella ceratomma*, *Jaminia isseliana*, *Helix lucorum* and *Euomphalia pisiformis*) from North-west of Iran (Urmia city), the specimens were collected during 2015-2017. After extraction, the radulas were stained using Mallory II and the shell morphology and teeth formula were studied.

A significant correlation was found between the mean length of radula and their body size. In addition, snails with bigger shell size, had a larger teeth size and more lateral teeth. The longest and the shortest central tooth belonged to *Helix lucorum* and *Jaminia isseliana*, respectively. The length of the central teeth in the *Helix lucorum* and *Assyriella ceratomma* differed significantly from other species. Furthermore, the shape of the central tooth in all examined snails was triangular. The lateral teeth in the *Helix lucorum* and *Assyriella ceratomma* species had one mushroom-like cusp with two short sharp cusps. The lateral teeth in *Jaminia isseliana* contained blade like cusps at the middle. *Helix lucorum* snails had more marginal teeth compared to others.

Key words: Iran, Land snails, Morphology, Radula, Shell, Urmia

INTRODUCTION

Both aquatic (freshwater and marine) and terrestrial snails belong to the Pulmonata subclass of Gastropoda, contain a variety of aquatic (freshwater and marine) snails and terrestrial snails (Morton, 1979). Despite the development of molecular biomarkers for identification of different species in recent years (Stothard & Rollinson 1996; Hebert *et al.*, 2003; Akinwale *et al.*, 2015), the morphological features, including shell and radula structure are still widely used to characterize them (Schander & Willassen, 2005). The shape of radula teeth, which composed of a long ribbon of tissue and repeated rows of teeth, is unique to a genus or species (Rumam & Thornton, 1967). Radula teeth consists of transverse rows and one central (C), one lateral (L), and one marginal teeth (M) (Mansourian, 2005). The teeth formula (Ponder & Lindberg, 1996) as well as shape, size and structure of the cusps (Kilburn, 1988; Monzon *et al.*, 1993) of radula as well as shell morphological characters are used to differentiate different snail species (Oso & Odaibo, 2018). In this current study we sought to determine the differences in the shell and radula morphology of four land snail species collected from Urmia city in North-west of Iran.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study area

City of Urmia (Fig. 1) is the capital of West Azarbaijan province in North-west of the country, with an area of approximately 5895 square kilometers and an altitude of about 1312 meters above sea level (longitude of 45 00' to 45 07' E and latitude of 37 29' to 37 34'N). Urmia's climate is temperate with a maximum of 34 °C in August and a minimum of 6.1 °C in January (an average of 8.9 °C). The average annual rainfall is about 370 mm, and its relative humidity sometimes can reach 50%.

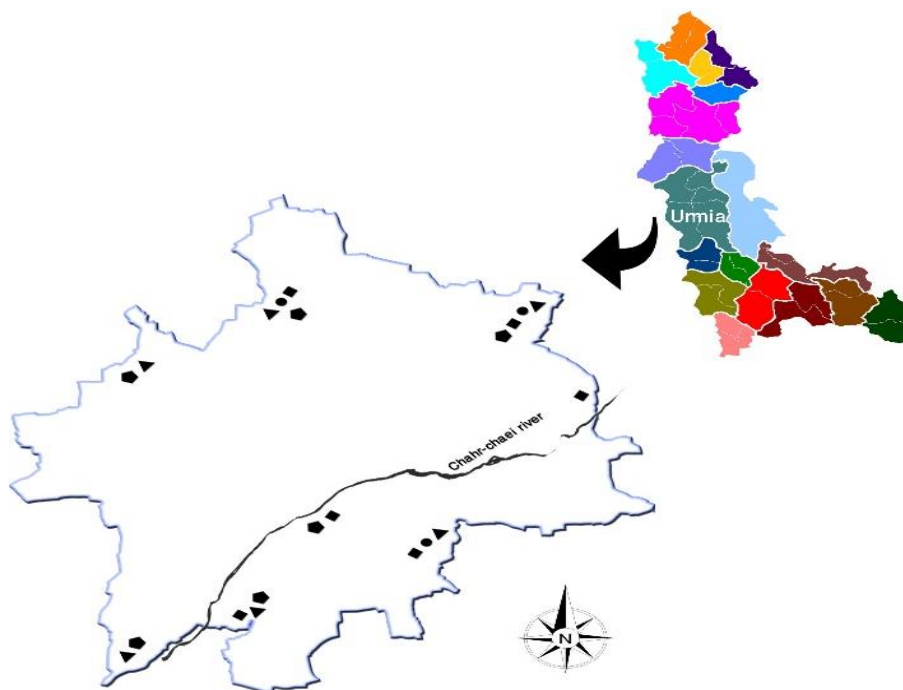


FIGURE 1. Sampling areas in Urmia, west Azerbaijan province, Iran (Trapezium: *Assyriella ceratomma*, Circle: *Jaminia isseliana*; Triangular: *Helix lucorum*; Square: *Euomphalia pisiformis*).

Collection and identification of land snails

A total of 260 snails were collected from soil and subsoil, forage, rock from different parts of Urmia during 2015 – 2017 (Fig 1). In the lab, the specimens were preserved in 70% ethanol and the length of the shells (the distance from the apex to the base of the aperture) were measured before dissection. For morphology examinations, the criteria described somewhere else were used (Burch & Van Devender, 1980; Cameron & Riley, 2008; Cameron & Redfern, 2009).

Firstly, the buccal mass was completely removed as explained previously (Kristensen, 1984) and the surrounding tissues of radulas were dissolved using 7.5% KOH for 24 hours and then stained using Mallory II solution (Mansourian, 1986). To determine the teeth configuration, radulas were mounted on slides using a mounting medium (Canada Balsam). The length of central (C), lateral (L), and marginal (M) radular teeth were measured from apical cusp to the base using an optic microscope. To determine the tooth formulas, the number of rows and the teeth within each row were counted.

Statistical analysis

The Variance (ANOVA) analysis was performed using SPSS v. 21, and the *P values* less than 0.05 were statistically considered significant.



FIGURE 2. Examined Snails: A, *Assyriella ceratomma*; B, *Jaminia isseliana*; C, *Helix lucorum*; D, *Euomphalia pisiformis*.

Results

Morphology of snails

Assyriella ceratomma (Pfeiffer, 1856) (Fig. 2A)

The discus shell large, white, matte, and hard with five whorls. The umbilicus unclear. Shell valve thick, rounded and elliptical. The shell height more than 20 mm.

Jaminia isseliana (Issel, 1865) (Fig. 2B)

A conical cylinder with seven to eight slightly twisted turns. The end twist with a white stripe on the back and slightly raised towards the aperture. Oval Aperture short, almost vertical. The edges of the aperture white and thick.

Helix lucorum (Linnaeus, 1758) (Fig. 2C)

The shell thick, spherical, compact and round. With 4.5 to 5 rounded whorls, last whorl wide. The first whorl lined with distinct spiral striae. The white background irregular with dark brown intersections stripes. Aperture small, oval-shaped with sharply upper edge.

***Euomphalia pisiformis* (Pfeiffer, 1852) (Fig. 2D)**

With discus shell. Shell color white with a brown stripe on the surface of the whorls. With 5.5 to 6 whorls. With small needle-shaped patterns on its surface. The tip sharp, and the spire equal or slightly higher than the valve. The valve rounded. The edge of the valve sharp and thin, partially turned. Shells with narrow umbilicus, partially covered by columella.

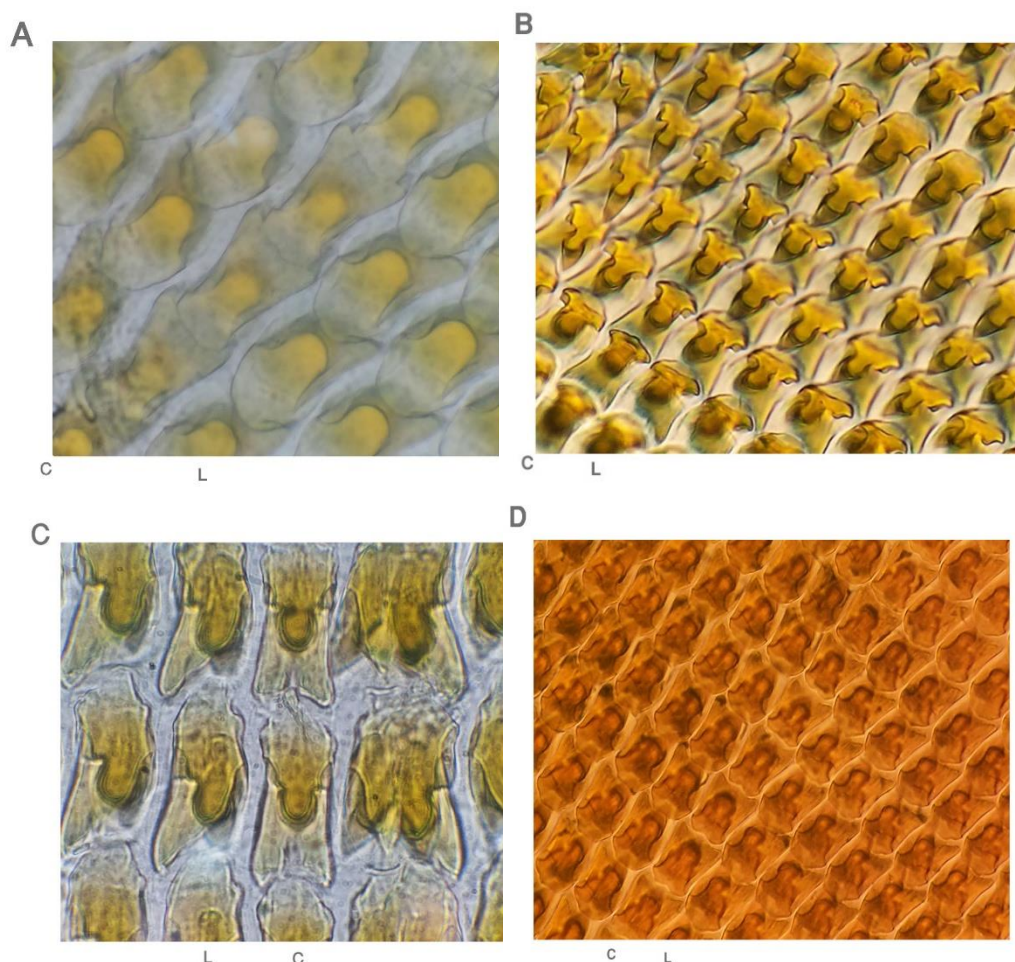


FIGURE 3. The radular central (C) and lateral (L) teeth of: A, *Assyriella ceratomma*, 100×; B, *Jaminia isseliana* 100×; C, *Helix lucorum* 100×; D, *Euomphalia pisiformis* 100×. (Stained by Mallory II).

Description of radular teeth structures

The morphological differences of radula between different species are shown in Figure 3 (A–D). As shown in Table 1, the land snails with larger shell size had larger teeth size. Accordingly, the mean length of radular teeth increased with increasing of the body size in all examined specimens. The number of lateral teeth was greater in larger snails. The longest central tooth belonged to *H. lucorum* snail (33.34 ± 0.9) and the smallest was found in *J. isseliana* (15.46 ± 0.68). The length of the central teeth in *H. lucorum* and *A. ceratomma* differed significantly from other species ($p < 0.05$). There was an association between the number of teeth rows and the size of the examined snails. *H. lucorum* had the highest numbers of teeth rows (154.69 ± 4.62 ; $P < 0.05$). The number of marginal teeth was higher in *H. lucorum* snails compared to the other species. Interestingly, the teeth formula of *J. isseliana* were found to be almost the same as *E. pisiformis* (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Means and standard deviation (Mean $\pm$ SD) for radular teeth measurements and Radula formula of Land snails in Urmia city, Iran.

Snail species	Radular teeth*						Teeth rows	Shell length	Radula Formula
	Length of Central teeth	Width of Central teeth	Length of Lateral teeth	Width of Lateral teeth	Length of Marginal teeth	Width of Marginal teeth			
<i>A. ceratomma</i>	29.64 $\pm$ 1.86 ^b	15.93 $\pm$ 0.45 ^b	31.87 $\pm$ 1.66 ^a	17.99 $\pm$ 0.42 ^b	21.82 $\pm$ 0.92 ^a	15.43 $\pm$ 0.51 ^a	142.08 $\pm$ 5.60 ^{ab}	26.70 $\pm$ 0.75 ^b	1,17,18
<i>H. lucorum</i>	33.34 $\pm$ 0.90 ^a	17.05 $\pm$ 0.55 ^a	33.45 $\pm$ 1.22 ^a	21.10 $\pm$ 0.57 ^a	22.75 $\pm$ 1.87 ^a	14.36 $\pm$ 0.65 ^a	154.69 $\pm$ 4.62 ^a	39.30 $\pm$ 0.13 ^a	1,19,24
<i>E. pisiformis</i>	15.52 $\pm$ 0.65 ^d	7.52 $\pm$ 0.24 ^f	15.50 $\pm$ 0.39 ^c	8.67 $\pm$ 0.49 ^f	9.20 $\pm$ 0.63 ^c	8.93 $\pm$ 0.27 ^c	107.00 $\pm$ 1.81 ^c	13.52 $\pm$ 0.38 ^d	1,12,15
<i>J. isseliana</i>	15.46 $\pm$ 0.68 ^d	11.29 $\pm$ 0.26 ^{de}	15.37 $\pm$ 0.54 ^c	11.34 $\pm$ 0.19 ^e	10.51 $\pm$ 0.65 ^{bc}	10.93 $\pm$ 0.4 ^b	107.31 $\pm$ 5.10 ^c	7.28 $\pm$ 0.56 ^e	1,11,15

The middle of each row of the radula (the C tooth) is almost triangular with specific cusp shape. The size of lateral teeth was the same as central teeth in all species. The L teeth in *H. lucorum* and *A. ceratomma* species had a mushroom like cusp with two short sharp cusps. The L teeth of *J. isseliana* had the blade like cusps in the middle.

DISCUSSION

Generally, study of shells in snails can provide important taxonomic information. The radular shape and size are used to differentiate the genus or species of Mollusca (Franklin *et al.*, 2007). The radula in each species of Mollusca has a unique morphology and structure (Yakhchali & Jamshidi Deillami, 2012). In several studies have been shown the importance of radula for discriminating of different species (Matthews-Cascon *et al.*, 2005; Haijirawowg *et al.*, 2008; Yakhchali & Jamshidi Deillami, 2012; Tumpeesuwan & Tumpeesuwan, 2015; Medina *et al.*, 2016).

For the first time, the current study used the morphological characteristics to differentiate different radula of land snails in Iran. Consistent with other studies, it has shown that snails with larger shell sizes had larger teeth sizes (Howe 1930; Barker, 2001; Yakhchali & Jamshidi Deilami, 2012; Yakhchali *et al.*, 2013).

The number of cusps were found to be different between species. In our study, the radula of all four land snails were tricuspid as shown previously on *Zidona dufresnei* (Medina *et al.* (2016). In our study, two cusps on outer lateral teeth of studied land snails were found, but in another study, four cusps were reported in *Pterocyclos diluvium* and *Pearsonia lamphunensis* (Tumpeesuwan & Tumpeesuwan, 2015). In addition, A pantacuspis radula has been found in *Thais bronni* and *T. clavigera* (Fujioka, 1985). Similar to other studies, we also found that the central cusp of radular teeth is longer than the lateral cusps (Harasewych & Kantor, 1991; Harasewych & Marshall, 1995).

The median teeth of giant African land snails (Odaibo & Olayinka, 2019) and freshwater snails (Yakhchali & Jamshidi Deilami, 2012) are smaller compared to lateral and marginal teeth, but the size of the lateral and central teeth in all species were found to be the same in our study. As shown by others and in this current study, snails with larger shell size had more teeth rows (Ferreira, 1977; Ocan'a *et al.*, 2004; Yakhchali *et al.*, 2013). Snails with larger shell size also had more marginal teeth. The shell of *H. lucorum* was larger than other species and had the highest marginal teeth too, as shown by another study in *lymnaeid* snails (Yakhchali & Jamshidi Deillami, 2012).

CONCLUSION

The findings from our study demonstrates that morphological characteristics of shells and radulas were useful to differentiate different snail species.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open access

A checklist of the ants (Insecta, Formicidae) of Azerbaijan Republic

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Abstract

In this checklist 128 ant species belonging to 28 genera that have been recorded from Azerbaijan are presented. Data on distribution around the world and in Azerbaijan are given. This study is based on a generalization of all available literature data. *Messor laboriosus* Santschi, 1927 is recorded for the first time for Azerbaijan.

Key words: fauna, *Messor laboriosus*, new record, Azerbaijan

INTRODUCTION

The myrmecofauna of Azerbaijan is not studied well enough. Coverage on this family of insects is very few and far between. Most thoroughly studied are the ants of Talysh (Arnol'di, 1948). Information on some species can be found in the works of Ruzsky (1902, 1905), Karavaiev (1926a, 1926b, 1929a, 1929b, 1932), Arnol'di (1930, 1964, 1968, 1970, 1977a, 1977b), Radchenko (1997). The catalog of Borowiec (2014) contains generalized data on Azerbaijan and lists 70 species of ants for Azerbaijan in his catalog. Some data may also be gathered from the catalog of Dubovikoff & Yusupov (2017), where 4 species are noted directly for Azerbaijan and 79 species for the Caucasus (including Azerbaijan). New information on the ants of Azerbaijan was revealed by Bračko (2019), with data provided on 73 species of ants, 30 of which are new to the fauna of Azerbaijan. The list was provided here is a general checklist of the ants of Azerbaijan, based on all available information. *Messor laboriosus* Santschi, 1927, found by the second author in Absheron, is recorded for the first time for Azerbaijan.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The first checklist of the Azerbaijanian ants was assembled using published records. For each species country distribution and spread around the world is indicated (Fig. 1).

RESULTS

As a result of our work on the checklist of the ants of Azerbaijan, we have revealed the full species composition, summarized information on its distribution within the republic, and have given data on their distribution worldwide.



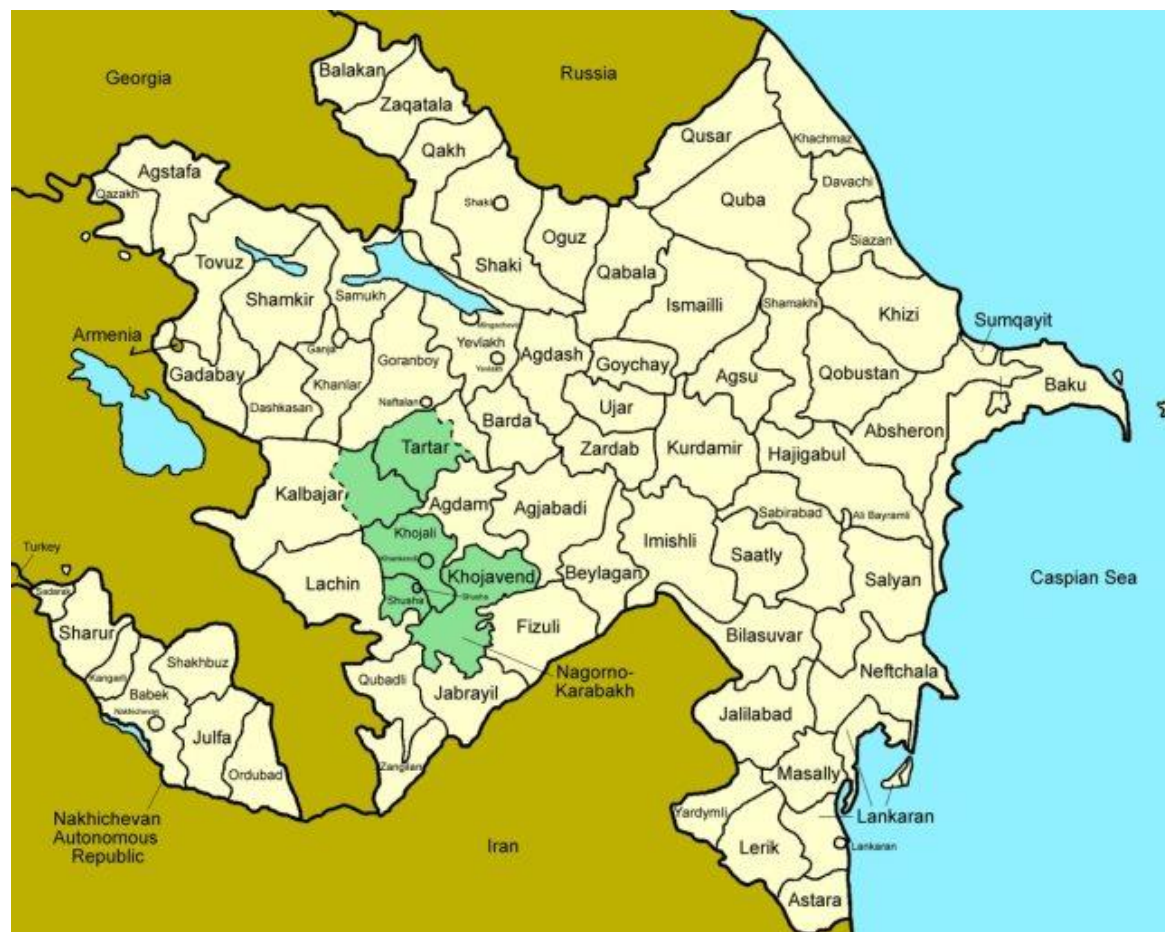


FIGURE 1. Map of regions of the Azerbaijan Republic (ref.).

Superfamily Formicoidea

Family Formicidae

Subfamily Dolichoderinae Forel, 1878

Genus *Dolichoderus* Lund, 1831

1. *D. quadripunctatus* (Linnaeus, 1771)
 Karawajew, 1926b: *Dolichoderus* (*Hypoclinea*) *quadripunctatus* L.: 187
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Dolichoderus* (*Hypoclinea*) *quadripunctatus* (Linnaeus, 1771): 212
 Bračko, 2019: *Dolichoderus quadripunctatus* (Linnaeus, 1771): 170

Records: Aresh (now Agdash), Nukha (now Sheki), Lankaran (Karawajew, 1926), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Khachmaz, Agsu, Ismailly, Zagatala, Gakh and Lankaran (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Monaco, Montenegro, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Tapinoma* Förster, 1850

2. *T. erraticum* (Latreille, 1798)
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Tapinoma erraticum* Ltr.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Tapinoma erraticum* (Latreille, 1798): 167

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Tapinoma erraticum* (Latreille, 1798): 198

Bračko, 2019: *Tapinoma erraticum* (Latreille, 1798): 173

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Samukh, Astara (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Channel Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Aland Islands (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

3. *T. karavaievi* Emery, 1925

Karavayev, 1932: *Tapinoma simrothi* subsp. *azerbeidzhanica* Karavaiev, 1932: 248.

Borowiec, 2014: *Tapinoma karavaievi* Emery, 1925: 167

Bračko, 2019: *Tapinoma karavaievi* Emery, 1925: 173

Records: Ganja (Karavayev, 1932), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Guba, Ismailly, Gakh, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

4. *T. magnum* Mayr, 1861

Bračko, 2019: *Tapinoma magnum* Mayr, 1861: 173

Records: Absheron (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution in the Palaearctic Region: Algeria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Italy (type locality), Morocco, Netherlands, Spain, Tunisia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Subfamily Formicinae

Genus *Camponotus* Mayr, 1861

5. *C. (Camponotus) herculeanus* (Linnaeus, 1758)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Camponotus herculeanus*, Lin.: 5

Records: Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution : Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, North America, Alaska (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

6. *C. (Myrmentoma) atricolor* (Nylander, 1849)

Bračko, 2019: *Camponotus atricolor* (Nylander, 1849): 169

Records: Guba, Khachmaz, Gusar, Khizi, Evlakh, Agstafa, Samukh, Agjabedi, Bilyasuvar, Lankaran, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Austria, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

7. *C. (Myrmentoma) candiotes* Emery, 1894

Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Myrmentoma) candiotes* Emery, 1894: 28

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Greece (type locality), Turkey. (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

8. *C. (Myrmentoma) interjectus* Mayr, 1877
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Camponotus interjectus* subsp. *transcaucasicus* Arnoldi, 1948: 212
 Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Myrmentoma) interjectus* Mayr, 1877: 34
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).
Distribution: Afghanistan, China, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

9. *C. (Myrmentoma) fallax* (Nylander, 1856)
 Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Myrmentoma) fallax* (Nylander, 1856): 30
 Bračko, 2019: *Camponotus fallax* (Nylander, 1856): 169
Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Guba, Ismailly, Gakh, Zagatala (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraines: (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

10. *C. (Myrmentoma) kurdistanicus* Emery, 1898
 Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Myrmentoma) kurdistanicus* Emery, 1898: 35
Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).
Distribution: China, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Russian Federation (type locality), Turkey. (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

11. *C. (Myrmentoma) lateralis* (Olivier, 1792)
 Bračko, 2019: *Camponotus lateralis* (Olivier, 1792): 169
Records: Khizi, Khachmaz, Agsu, Ismailly, Balaken, Lankaran (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Albania, Algeria (type locality), Andorra, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Morocco, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

12. *C. (Tanaemyrmex) turkestanicus* Emery, 1887
 Bračko, 2019: *Camponotus turkestanicus* Emery, 1887: 169
Records: Evlakh, Samukh, Salyan, Absheron, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Afghanistan, China, Georgia, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

13. *C. (Tanaemyrmex) aethiops* (Latreille, 1798)
 Arnoldi, 1948: *C. (Tanaemyrmex) aethiops* Latr: 212
 Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) aethiops* (Latreille, 1798): 25
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *C. (Tanaemyrmex) aethiops* (Latreille, 1798): 199
 Bračko, 2019: *Camponotus aethiops* (Latreille, 1798): 169
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Ismailly, Evlakh, Bilyasuvar, Lerik, Salyan (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula,

Iran, Israel, Italy, Malta, Montenegro, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

14. *C. (Tanaemyrmex) fedtschenkoi* Mayr, 1877

Karavayev, 1932: *Camponotus (Tanaemyrmex) maculatus* F. susp. *fedtschenkoi* Mayr: 191

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *C. (Tanaemyrmex) fedtschenkoi* Mayr, 1877: 199

Records: Aresh (now Agdash), Geoktapa (near Ganja), Pirsagat, Aresh (now Agdash) (Karawajev, 1926), Azerbaijan (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: South Caucasus, Middle Asia, Kazakhstan, Iran (Radchenko, 1997).

Genus *Cataglyphis* Förster, 1850

15. *C. aenescens* (Nylander, 1849)

Ruzsky, 1902 b: *Myrmecocystus cursor* var. *caspius* Ruzsky, 1902 b: 470

Arnoldi, 1948: *Cataglyphis (Monocombus) cursor. aenescens* Nyl.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Cataglyphis aenescens* (Nylander, 1849): 50

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Cataglyphis aenescens* (Nylander, 1849): 199

Bračko, 2019: *Cataglyphis aenescens* (Nylander, 1849): 170

Records: Mugan steppe and Araks, Salyan, Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1902), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Gusar, Samukh, Lerik, Bilyasuvar, Salyan, Gobustan (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Armenia, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Slovakia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

16. *C. cuneinodis* Arnoldi, 1964

Arnoldi, 1964: *Cataglyphis viaticoides* ssp. *cuneinodis* Arnoldi: 1810

Borowiec, 2014: *Cataglyphis cuneinodis* Arnoldi, 1964: 53

Records: Ordubad, Nakhichevan (Arnoldi, 1964), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Iran (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

17. *C. nodus* (Brullé, 1833)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Cataglyphis bicolor nobus* Brulle: 212

Arnoldi, 1964: *Cataglyphis nodus* subsp. *causcasicola* Arnoldi, 1964: 1803

Borowiec, 2014: *Cataglyphis nodus* (Brullé, 1833): 58

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Cataglyphis nodus* (Brullé, 1833): 199

Bračko, 2019: *Cataglyphis nodus* (Brullé, 1833): 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khizi, Evlakh, Agstafa, Samukh, Agjabedi, Absheron, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Croatia, Georgia, Greece (type locality), Hungary, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

18. *C. setipes* (Forel, 1894)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Myrmecocystus viaticus* subsp. *Setipes*, For.: Ruzsky, 1902

Records: Baku, Murovdag, Kelbajar, Kura, Araks (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution: Iran (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Colobopsis* Mayr, 1861

19. *C. truncatus* (Spinola, 1808)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Camponotus (Colobopsis) truncatus* Spin.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Camponotus (Colobopsis) truncatus* (Spinola 1808): 44

Bračko, 2019: *Colobopsis truncata* (Spinola, 1808): 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khachmaz, Oguz, Zagatala, Balaken (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy (type locality), Jordan, Malta, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Formica* Linnaeus, 1758

20. *F. (Coptoformica) fennica* Seifert, 2000

Records: Azerbaijan (Seifert (2019).

Distribution in the Palaearctic Region: Azerbaijan, Finland (type locality), Georgia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

21. *F. (Serviformica) georgica* Seifert, 2002

Bračko, 2019: *Formica georgica* Seifert, 2002: 170

Records: Guba, Ismailly, Sheki, Balaken, Gakh, Goygel, Dashkesan (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Georgia (type locality), Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

22. *F. (Raptiformica) sanguinea* Latreille, 1798

Arnoldi, 1948: *Formica (Raptiformica) sanguinea clarior* Ruz: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Formica (Raptiformica) sanguinea* Latreille, 1798: 79

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Formica (Raptiformica) sanguinea* Latreille, 1798: 200

Bračko, 2019: *Formica sanguinea* Latreille, 1798: 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khachmaz, Ismailly, Evlakh, Lerik (Bračko, 2019),

Distribution: Afghanistan, Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

23. *F. (Serviformica) clara* Forel, 1886

Borowiec, 2014: *Formica (Serviformica) clara* Forel, 1886: 73

Bračko, 2019: *Formica clara* Forel, 1886: 170

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Absheron, Guba, Khachmaz, Ismailly, Gabala, Zagatala, Gakh, Evlakh, Samukh, Lankaran Lerik (Bračko, 2019), Azerbaijan (AntWiki: https://www.antwiki.org/wiki/Formica_clara).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Israel, Italy, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

24. *F. (Serviformica) cunicularia* Latreille, 1798

Bračko, 2019: *Formica cunicularia* Latreille, 1798: 170

Records: Ismailly (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

25. *F. (Serviformica) cinereofusca* Karawajew, 1929

Karawajew, 1929: *Formica cinerea* var. *cinereofusca* Karawajew, 1929: 214

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Formica (Serviformica) cinereofusca* Karawajew, 1929: 200

Records: Kelbajar (Karawajew 1929), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, Georgia, Russian Federation, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

26. *F. (Serviformica) fusca* Linnaeus, 1758

Arnoldi, 1948: *Formica (Serviformica) fusca hyrcana* K. Arn: 212

Arnoldi, 1968: *Formica (Serviformica) fusca* subsp. *hyrcana* Arnoldi, 1968: 1821.

Borowiec, 2014: *Formica (Serviformica) fusca* Linnaeus, 1758: 74

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Formica (Serviformica) fusca* Linnaeus, 1758: 200

Records: Lerik (Arnoldi, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Isle of Man, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

27. *F. (Serviformica) gagates* Latreille, 1798

Ruzsky, 1902: *Formica gagates*, Latr.: 13

Records: Murovdag, Kelbajar (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution: Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

28. *F. (Serviformica) picea* Nylander, 1846

Karawajew, 1926b: *Formica (Serviformica) picea* Nyl: 196

Bračko, 2019: *Formica picea* Nylander, 1846: 170

Records: Istisu, Kelbajar (Karawajew, 1926), Gusar (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Andorra, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Czech Republic, Finland (type locality), Georgia, Greece, Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Kazakhstan, Poland, Russian Federation, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

29. *F. (Serviformica) rufibarbis* Fabricius, 1793

Ruzsky, 1902: *Formica (Serviformica) rufibarbis*, F: 11

Arnoldi, 1948: *F. (Serviformica) rufibarbis* F.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Formica (Serviformica) rufibarbis* Fabricius, 1793: 78

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Formica (Serviformica) rufibarbis* Fabricius, 1793: 201

Records: Gusar (Ruzsky, 1902), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

30. *F. (Serviformica) subpilosa* Ruzsky, 1902

Karawajew, 1926b: *Formica cinera* var. *bipilosa* Karavaiev 1926: 199

Borowiec, 2014: *Formica (Serviformica) subpilosa* Ruzsky, 1902: 79

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Formica (Serviformica) subpilosa* Ruzsky, 1902: 201

Bračko, 2019: *Formica subpilosa* Ruzsky, 1902: 170

Records: Salyan (Karavayev, 1926), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation (type locality), Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Lasius* Fabricius, 1804

31. *L. bombycina* Seifert et Galkowski, 2016

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius bombycina* Seifert et Galkowski, 2016: 170

Records: Guba (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Austria, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Slovenia, Turkey (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

32. *L. illyricus* Zimmermann, 1935

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius illyricus* Zimmermann, 1935: 170

Records: Ismailly, Zagatala, Gakh, Goygel (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Croatia (type locality), Greece, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Serbia, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

33. *L. (Lasius) platythorax* Seifert, 1991

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius platythorax* Seifert, 1991: 170

Records: Gakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Andorra, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Germany (type locality), Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

34. *L. (Lasius) alienus* (Förster, 1850)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius alienus* Forst.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Lasius) alienus* (Förster 1850): 83

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Lasius) alienus* (Förster, 1850): 202

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany (type locality), Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Mongolia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

35. *L. (Lasius) brunneus* (Latreille, 1798)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius brunneus* Latr.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Lasius) brunneus* (Latreille, 1798): 84

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Lasius) brunneus* (Latreille, 1798): 202

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius brunneus* (Latreille, 1798): 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khachmaz (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

36. *L. (Lasius) emarginatus* (Olivier, 1792)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius emarginatus* Ol.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Lasius) emarginatus* (Olivier, 1792): 85

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Lasius) emarginatus* (Olivier, 1792): 202

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland (type locality), Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

37. *L. (Lasius) lasioides* (Emery, 1869)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius lasioides elegantulus* K. Arn: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Lasius) lasioides* (Emery, 1869): 87

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Albania, Balearic Islands, Croatia, France, Georgia, Greece, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy (type locality), Malta, Montenegro, Morocco, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Spain, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

38. *L. (Lasius) obscuratus* Stitz, 1930

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius obscuratus* Stitz, 1930: 170

Records: Khizi, Guba, Gusar, Ismailly, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, China, Georgia, Mongolia, Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

39. *L. (Cautolasius) flavus* (Fabricius, 1782)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius flavus* F.:212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Cautolasius) flavus* (Fabricius, 1782): 86

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Cautolasius) flavus* (Fabricius, 1782): 201

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius flavus* (Fabricius, 1782): 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Gusar, Ismailly, Gakh, Goygel (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Japan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

40. *L. (Cautolasius) myops* Forel, 1894

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Cautolasius) myops* Forel, 1894: 86

Bračko, 2019: *Lasius myops* Forel, 1894: 170

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Algeria (type locality), Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Kyrgyzstan, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

41. *L. (Chthonolasius) bicornis* (Förster, 1850)

Karawajew, 1926b: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) bicornis* Foerster: 1905:195

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) bicornis* (Förster, 1850): 201

Records: Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Georgia, Germany (type locality), Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

42. *L. (Chthonolasius) citrinus* Emery, 1922

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) citrinus* Emery, 1922: 85

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) citrinus* Emery, 1922: 201

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Italy (type locality), Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

43. *L. (Chthonolasius) mixtus* (Nylander, 1846)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) mixtus* Nyl.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Chthonolasius) mixtus*: 87

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark, Estonia, Finland (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian

Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

44. *L. (Dendrolasius) fuliginosus* (Latreille, 1798)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Lasius (Dendrolasius) fuliginosus* Latr.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lasius (Dendrolasius) fuliginosus* (Latreille, 1798): 86

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Lasius (Dendrolasius) fuliginosus* (Latreille, 1798): 201

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014) Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Isle of Man, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Lepisiota* Santschi, 1926

45. *L. caucasica* (Santschi, 1917)

Bračko, 2019: *Lepisiota caucasica* (Santschi, 1917): 170

Records: Khizi, Oguz, Evlakh, Samukh, Absheron (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Caucasus (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

46. *L. frauenfeldi* (Mayr, 1855)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Acantholepis frauenfeldi* Mayr: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Lepisiota frauenfeldi* (Mayr, 1855): 93

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, Georgia, Greece, Iran, Israel, Malta, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Spain, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

47. *L. syriaca* (André, 1881)

Bračko, 2019: *Lepisiota syriaca* (André, 1881): 172

Records: Khizi (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Iraq, Israel, Syrian Arab Republic, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Plagiolepis* Mayr, 1861

48. *P. arnoldii* Dlussky, Soyunov et Zabelin, 1990

Bračko, 2019: *Plagiolepis arnoldii* Dlussky, Soyunov et Zabelin, 1990: 172

Records: Khizi, Khachmaz, Ismailly, Oguz, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan (type locality). (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

49. *P. karawajewi* Radchenko, 1989

Borowiec, 2014: *Plagiolepis karawajewi* Radchenko, 1989: 146

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Greece, Russian Federation, Ukraine (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

50. *P. pallescens* Forel, 1889

Karawajew, 1926 b: *Plagiolepis (Plagiolepis) pallescens* For.: 188

Arnoldi, 1948: *Plagiolepis pallescens* For.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Plagiolepis pallescens* Forel, 1889: 146

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Plagiolepis pallescens* Forel, 1889: 202

Bračko, 2019: *Plagiolepis pallescens* Forel, 1889: 172

Records: Lankaran (Karawajew, 1926), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Gusar, Ismailly, Gabala, Agstafa, Agjabedi, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Armenia, Austria (type locality), Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, France, Germany, Greece (type locality), Hungary, Iran, Israel, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Montenegro, Republic of Korea, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey (type locality), Ukraine (type locality), United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

51. *P. perperamus* Salata, Borowiec et Radchenko, 2018

Bračko, 2019: *Plagiolepis perperamus* Salata, Borowiec et Radchenko, 2018: 172

Records: Absheron, Khizi, Agstafa, Lankaran, Astara (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Greece, Iran, Turkey (Salata et al., 2018).

52. *P. pygmaea* (Latreille, 1798)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Plagiolepis pygmaea* Latr.: 18

Records: Baku, Lankaran, Mugan steppe (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Malta, Montenegro, Morocco, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

53. *P. regis* Karavaiev, 1931

Arnoldi, 1948: *Plagiolepis regis* Kar.: 212

Borowiec, 2014: *Plagiolepis regis* Karavaiev, 1931: 146

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Kazakhstan (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Proformica* Ruzsky, 1902

54. *P. epinotalis* Kuznetsov-Ugamsky, 1927

Bračko, 2019: *Proformica epinotalis* Kuznetsov-Ugamsky, 1927: 172

Records: Gusar, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: China, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

55. *P. nasuta* (Nylander, 1856)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Formica (Proformica) nasuta*, Nyl.: 13

Borowiec, 2014: *Proformica nasuta* (Nylander, 1856): 151

Records: Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1902), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Bulgaria, Canary Islands, China, France (type locality), Georgia, Iberian Peninsula, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Spain, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

56. *P. pilosiscapa* Dlussky, 1969

Dlussky, 1969: *Proformica pilosiscapa* Dlussky, 1969: 228

Borowiec, 2014: *Proformica pilosiscapa* Dlussky, 1969: 151

Records: Talysh (Dlussky, 1969), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Armenia (type locality), Bulgaria, China, Georgia, Iran, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Subfamily Myrmicinae

Genus *Aphaenogaster* Mayr, 1853

57. *A. muschtaidica* Emery, 1908

Bračko, 2019: *Aphaenogaster muschtaidica* Emery, 1908: 169

Records: Khachmaz, Agsu, Zagatala, Evlakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Georgia (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

58. *A. subterranea* (Latreille, 1798)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Aphaenogaster (Attomyrma) subterranea* Ltr: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Aphaenogaster subterranea* (Latreille, 1798): 19

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Aphaenogaster subterranea* (Latreille, 1798): 203

Bračko, 2019: *Aphaenogaster subterranea* (Latreille, 1798): 169

Records: Lerik (Arnoldi, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khizi, Guba, Khachmaz, Agsu, Ismailly, Sheki, Balaken, Gakh, Zagatala (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Malta, Montenegro, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

59. *A. georgica* Arnoldi, 1968

Arnoldi, 1968: *Aphaenogaster (Attomyrma) georgica* Arnoldi, 1968: 1804

Borowiec, 2014: *Aphaenogaster georgica* Arnoldi, 1968: 12

Records: Gazakh (Arnoldi, 1968), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Georgia (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

60. *A. gibbosa* (Latreille, 1798)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Aphaenogaster (Attomyrma) gibbosa muschtaidica* Ruz.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Aphaenogaster gibbosa* (Latreille, 1798): 12

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Aphaenogaster gibbosa* (Latreille, 1798): 203

Records: Lerik (Arnoldi, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Algeria, Andorra, Armenia, Bulgaria, France (type locality), Georgia, Gibraltar, Greece, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Montenegro, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

61. *A. splendida* (Roger, 1859)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Aphaenogaster (Attomyrma) splendida* var. *transcaucasica* Kar.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Aphaenogaster splendida* (Roger, 1859): 19

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Aphaenogaster splendida* (Roger, 1859): 203

Records: Lerik (Arnoldi, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Azerbaijan (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Algeria, Armenia, Croatia, Greece (type locality), Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Malta, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Spain, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

62. *A. kurdica* Ruzsky, 1905
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Aphaenogaster (Attomyrma) kurdica* Ruz.: 211
 Borowiec, 2014: *Aphaenogaster kurdica* Ruzsky, 1905: 14
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).
Distribution: Armenia, Georgia, Iran, Russian Federation (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
- Genus *Aulacopone* Arnol'di, 1930**
63. *A. relict*a Arnol'di, 1930
 Arnoldi, 1930: *Aulacopone relict*a Arnol'di, 1930 c: 140
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Aulacopone relict*a K. Arn.: 211
 Borowiec, 2014: *Aulacopone relict*a Arnol'di, 1930: 21
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).
Distribution: Azerbaijan (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
- Genus *Cardiocondyla* Emery, 1869**
64. *C. brachyceph*s Seifert, 2003
 Bračko, 2019: *Cardiocondyla brachyceph*s Seifert, 2003: 170
Records: Samukh (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Afghanistan, Iran (type locality), Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
65. *C. elegans* Emery, 1869
 Arnoldi, 1948: *Cardiocondyla elegans caucasica* K. Arn.: 211
 Borowiec, 2014: *Cardiocondyla elegans* Emery, 1869: 46
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).
Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria, China, France, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy (type locality), Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
66. *C. sahlbergi* Forel, 1913
 Borowiec, 2014: *Cardiocondyla sahlbergi* Forel, 1913: 48
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Cardiocondyla sahlbergi* Forel, 1913: 203
 Bračko, 2019: *Cardiocondyla sahlbergi* Forel, 1913: 170
Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Gabala, Balaken, Oguz, Gakh, Evlakh, Agjabedi, Lankaran, Astara, Lerik, Gobustan (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Armenia, Georgia, Iran, Israel (type locality), Kazakhstan, Russian Federation, Tunisia, Turkey, Uzbekistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
67. *C. stambuloffii* Forel, 1892
 Bračko, 2019: *Cardiocondyla stambuloffii* Forel, 1892: 170
Records: Agstafa, Agjabedi (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria (type locality), China, Georgia, Greece, Iran, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
68. *C. ulianini* Emery, 1889
 Borowiec, 2014: *Cardiocondyla ulianini* Emery, 1889: 49
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Cardiocondyla ulianini* Emery, 1889: 203
Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Afghanistan, China, Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation (type locality), Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Chalepoxenus* Menozzi, 1923

69. *C. hyrcanus* Dubovikoff et Radchenko, 2010

Dubovikoff, Radchenko, 2010: *Chalepoxenus hyrcanus* Dubovikoff et Radchenko, 2010: 207-208

Borowiec, 2014: *Chalepoxenus hyrcanus* Dubovikoff et Radchenko, 2010: 63

Records: Lankaran, Talysh (Dubovikoff, Radchenko, 2010), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: France, Gibraltar, Iberian Peninsula, Morocco, Portugal, Spain (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Crematogaster* Lund, 1831

70. *C. schmidtii* (Mayr, 1853)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Crematogaster (Arcoelia) scutellaris schmidtii* Mayr: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Crematogaster schmidtii* (Mayr, 1853): 68

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Crematogaster schmidtii* (Mayr, 1853): 204

Bračko, 2019: *Crematogaster schmidtii* (Mayr, 1853): 170

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Khizi, Khachmaz, Aghsu, Ismaili, Oguz, Balaken, Zagatala, Agstafa, Samukh, Lankaran (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Austria (type locality), Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Italy, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

71. *C. scutellaris* (Olivier 1792)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Crematogaster scutellaris*, Oliv.: 31

Records: Garabakh, Murovdag, Kelbajar, Lankaran, Talysh (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution: Andorra, Austria, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, Denmark, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy, Malta, Montenegro, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Tunisia, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

72. *C. subdentata* Mayr, 1877

Bračko, 2019: *Crematogaster subdentata* Mayr, 1877: 170

Records: Absheron, Evlakh, Agjabedi, Bilasuvar (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Armenia, China, Georgia, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (type locality), Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

73. *C. sordidula* (Nylander, 1849)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Crematogaster sordidula*, Nyl.: 31

Arnoldi, 1948: *Crematogaster (Orhtocrema) sordidula mayri* Mayr v. *costi* Ruz.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Crematogaster sordidula* (Nylander, 1849): 69

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Crematogaster sordidula* (Nylander, 1849): 204

Records: Jebail (Ruzsky, 1902), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Albania, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, France, Georgia, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy (type locality), Montenegro, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Messor* Forel, 1890

74. *M. caducus* (Victor, 1839)
Arnoldi, 1977: *Messor caducus* (Victor, 1839): 4638
Bračko, 2019: *Messor caducus* (Victor, 1839): 172
Records: Nakhichevan, Ordubad (Arnoldi, 1977), Gusar, Evlakh, Samukh, Agjabedi, Bilasuvar, Salyan, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Iran, Malta, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Slovakia, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
75. *M. diabarensis* Arnoldi, 1970
Arnoldi, 1948: *Messor structor diabarensis* K. Arn.: 211
Arnoldi, 1970: *Messor diabarensis* Arnol'di, 1970: 75
Arnoldi, 1977: *Messor diabarensis* Arnol'di, 1977b: 1643
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948, 1970, 1977).
Distribution: Azerbaijan (Arnol'di, 1948, 1970, 1977).
76. *M. laboriosus* Santschi, 1927 (Figs. 2-4)
Material: 5 workers, 1 queen, Absheron, 40.40442, 49.87619, leg. C. Shigayev, 14.11.2020.
Distribution: China, Greece, Iran, Israel, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Turkey, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>). This species is indicated for the first time for the fauna of Azerbaijan.
77. *M. melancholicus* Arnol'di, 1977
Karavaiev, 1926a: *Messor structor* ssp. *striaticeps* var. *melancholica* Karavaiev, 1926: 104
Borowiec, 2014: *Messor melancholicus* Arnoldi, 1977: 109
Bračko, 2019: *Messor melancholicus* Arnol'di, 1977: 172
Records: Mugan steppe, Ordubad, Nakhichevan (Karavaiev, 1926), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Lerik (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Armenia, Georgia, Iran, Kazakhstan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
78. *M. minor* (André, 1883)
Arnoldi, 1948: *Messor minor meridionalis* André: 211
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948).
Distribution: Canary Islands, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Italy (type locality), Kuwait, Montenegro, Morocco (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
79. *M. muticus* (Nylander, 1849)
Bračko, 2019: *Messor muticus* (Nylander, 1849): 172
Records: Guba, Ismailly, Balaken, Gakh, Agstafa, Dashkesan, Samukh, Agjabedi, Lankaran, Astara, Bilasuvar, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
80. *M. semirufus* (André, 1883)
Ruzsky 1905: *Aphaenogaster barbara* var. *semirufa* André, 1883: Ruzsky, 1905b: 750
Records: Fizuli (Ruzsky 1905), Lankaran (Karavayev 1926).
Distribution: Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Italy, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
81. *M. structor* (Latreille, 1798)

Borowiec, 2014: *Messor structor* (Latreille, 1798): 112

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Messor structor* (Latreille, 1798): 204

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Hungary, Romania, Slovenia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).



FIGURE 2. *Messor laboriosus* Santschi, 1927: lateral view of the body, worker



FIGURE 3. *Messor laboriosus* Santschi, 1927: face, dorsal view.



FIGURE 4. *Messor laboriosus* Santschi, 1927: alitrunk on the top.

Genus *Monomorium* Mayr, 1855

82. *M. ruzskyi* Dlussky et Zabelin, 1985

Bračko, 2019: *Monomorium ruzskyi* Dlussky et Zabelin, 1985: 172

Records: Khizi, Evlakh, Samukh, Agjabedi, Salyan, Absheron (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: South Caucasus, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan (Dlussky, Soyunov, Zabelin, 1989).

Genus *Myrmica* Latreille, 1804

83. *M. bergi* Ruzsky, 1902

Arnoldi, 1948: *Myrmica bergi iranica* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmica bergi* Ruzsky, 1902: 129

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Myrmica bergi* Ruzsky, 1902: 205

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Azerbaijan (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Austria, Balearic Islands, Belgium, Finland, Germany, Gibraltar, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Romania, Russian Federation, Switzerland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

84. *M. caucasicola* Arnol'di, 1934

Arnoldi, 1948: *Myrmica schencki* nat. *caucasicola* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmica caucasicola* Arnoldi, 1934: 129

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica caucasicola* Arnol'di, 1934: 172

Records: Lerik, Talysh (Arnol'di, 1934), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Guba (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

85. *M. deplanata* Emery, 1921

Arnoldi, 1948: *Myrmica deplanata lulakeranica* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmica deplanata* Emery, 1921: 129

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Myrmica deplanata* Emery, 1921: 205

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014). Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Austria, Bulgaria, China, Czech Republic, Georgia (type locality), Hungary, Iran, Kazakhstan, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Slovakia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

86. *M. hellenica* Finzi, 1926

Arnol'di, 1948: *Myrmica rugulosa caucasica* K. Arn, 1934: 165

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmica hellenica* Finzi, 1926: 130

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica hellenica* Finzi, 1926: 172

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Ismailly, Zagatala, Gakh, Goygel, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Greece (type locality), Iran, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

87. *M. lobicornis* Nylander, 1846

Karawajev, 1926a: *Myrmica (Myrmica) lobicornis* Nyl.: 95

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica lobicornis* Nylander, 1846: 172

Records: Kelbajar (Karawajev, 1926), Gusar (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland (type locality), France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Korea, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

88. *M. ruginodis* Nylander, 1846

Arnol'di, 1948: *Myrmica ruginodis* Nyl.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmica ruginodis* Nylander, 1846: 133

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Myrmica ruginodis* Nylander, 1846: 206

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica ruginodis* Nylander, 1846: 172

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Gusar, Goygel (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark, Estonia, Finland (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

89. *M. rugulosa* Nylander, 1849

Ruzsky, 1902: *Myrmica rugulosa* Nyl.: 30

Records: Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1902).

Distribution: Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

90. *M. salina* Ruzsky, 1905

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica salina* Ruzsky, 1905: 172

Records: Gabala, Evlakh, Agstafa (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Austria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

91. *M. specioides* Bondroit, 1918

Bračko, 2019: *Myrmica specioides* Bondroit, 1918: 172

Records: Guba, Khachmaz, Ismailly, Astara, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belgium (type locality), Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

92. *M. scabrinodis* Nylander, 1846

Ruzsky, 1902: *Myrmica scabrinodis*, Nyl.: Ruzsky, 1902: 30

Karawajev, 1926a: *Myrmica (Myrmica) scabrinodis* Nyl.: 95

Records: Gusar (Ruzsky, 1902), Nukha (now Sheki), Agsu (Karawajev, 1926).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland (type locality), France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Jersey, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

93. *M. rubra* (Linnaeus, 1758)

Ruzsky, 1902: *Myrmica laevinodis* Nyl.: 29

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Myrmica rubra* (Linnaeus, 1758): 206

Records: Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1902), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Japan, Jersey, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mongolia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Myrmecina* Curtis, 1829

94. *M. graminicola* (Latreille, 1802)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Myrmecina graminicola striatula* Nyl.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Myrmecina graminicola* (Latreille, 1802): 128

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark (type locality), France, Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Pheidole* Westwood, 1839

95. *P. koshewnikovi* Ruzsky, 1905
 Bračko, 2019: *Pheidole koshewnikovi* Ruzsky, 1905: 172
Records: Khachmaz, Gusar, Ismailly, Oguz, Balaken, Evlakh, Samukh, Lankaran, Astara, Lerik, Bilasuvar, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Greece, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Montenegro, Russian Federation, Turkey, Uzbekistan (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
96. *P. pallidula* (Nylander, 1849)
 Arnol'di, 1948: *Pheidole pallidula orientalis* Em., 1923: 211
 Borowiec, 2014: *Pheidole pallidula* (Nylander, 1849): 143
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Pheidole pallidula* (Nylander, 1849): 207
Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).
Distribution: Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Croatia, France, Georgia, Gibraltar, Greece, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy (type locality), Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Portugal (type locality), Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Solenopsis* Westwood, 1840

97. *S. fugax* (Latreille, 1798)
 Ruzsky, 1902: *Solenopsis fugax*, Latr.: 31
 Borowiec, 2014: *Solenopsis fugax* Latreille, 1798: 155
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Solenopsis fugax* (Latreille, 1798): 207
 Bračko, 2019: *Solenopsis fugax* (Latreille, 1798): 172
Records: Talysh (Ruzsky, 1902), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Guba, Oguz, Zagatala, Lankaran (Bračko, 2019).
Distribution: Afghanistan, Albania, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, France (type locality), Georgia (type locality), Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, Netherlands, Poland, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, San Marino, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkmenistan, Ukraine (type locality), United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
98. *S. deserticola* Ruzsky, 1905
 Karawajev, 1926b: *Solenopsis orbula* subsp. *oblongior* Karavaiev, 1926 b: 161
 Borowiec, 2014: *Solenopsis deserticola* Ruzsky, 1905: 154
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Solenopsis deserticola* Ruzsky, 1905: 207
Records: Hajigabul (Karawajev, 1926b), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).
Distribution: Armenia, Kazakhstan (type locality), Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).
99. *S. ilinei* Santschi, 1936
 Karawajev, 1926c: *Solenopsis orbula* var. *oculata* Karavaiev, 1926 b: 162
 Dlussky, Radchenko, 1994: *Diplorhoptrum ilinei* (Santschi, 1936): 103
 Borowiec, 2014: *Solenopsis deserticola* Ruzsky, 1905: 154
 Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Solenopsis ilinei* Santschi, 1936: 207

Records: Shemakha (Karawajev, 1926b, Dlussky, Radchenko, 1994), Azerbaijan (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Georgia, Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Stenamma* Westwood, 1839

100. *S. lippulum* (Nylander, 1849)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Stenamma hirtulum* Em.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Stenamma lippulum* (Nylander, 1849): 160

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Stenamma lippulum* (Nylander, 1849): 207

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Azerbaijan (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Israel, Russian Federation (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Strongylognathus* Mayr, 1853

101. *S. rehbinderi* Forel, 1904

Arnol'di, 1948: *Strongylognathus rehbinderi hyrcanus* K. Arn: 211

Arnol'di, 1948: *Strongylognathus rehbinderi diabarensis* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Strongylognathus rehbinderi* Forel, 1904: 164

Bračko, 2019: *Strongylognathus rehbinderi* Forel, 1904: 173

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Astara (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Georgia, Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

102. *S. testaceus* (Schenck, 1852)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Strongylognathus testaceus barnassarensis* K. Arn: 211

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Strongylognathus testaceus* (Schenck, 1852): 207

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Andorra, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Germany (type locality), Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Lithuania, Netherlands, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Strumigenys* Smith, 1860

103. *S. argiola* (Emery, 1869)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Epitritus argiolus* Em.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Strumigenys argiola* (Emery, 1869): 165

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Strumigenys argiola* (Emery, 1869): 207

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Austria, Azerbaijan, Balearic Islands, Bulgaria, Croatia, France, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy (type locality), Portugal, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland, Tunisia (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Temnothorax* Mayr, 1861

104. *T. crasecundus* Seifert et Csősz, 2015

Borowiec, 2014: *Temnothorax crassispinus* (Karavaiev, 1926): 176

Bračko, 2019: *Strongylognathus rehbinderi* Forel, 1904: 173

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Guba, Agsu, Ismailly, Zagatala, Gakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria (type locality), Georgia, Greece, Romania, Russian Federation, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

105. *T. interruptus* (Schenck, 1852)

Bračko, 2019: *Temnothorax interruptus* (Schenck, 1852): 173

Records: Guba, Khachmaz, Gakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany (type locality), Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine (type locality), United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

106. *T. korbi* (Emery, 1924)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Leptothorax korbi* Em.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Temnothorax korbi* (Emery, 1924): 180

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Georgia, Turkey (Borowiec, 2014).

107. *T. nylanderi* (FOERSTER, 1850)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Leptothorax nylanderi* Foerst.: 211

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948).

Distribution: Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, France, Georgia, Germany (type locality), Iberian Peninsula, Jersey, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

108. *T. parvulus* (Schenck, 1852)

Bračko, 2019: *Temnothorax parvulus* (Schenck, 1852): 173

Records: Khizi, Khachmaz, Goygel, Lankaran (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Germany (type locality), Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

109. *T. shelkovnikovi* (Karavaiev, 1926)

Karavaiev, 1926c: *Leptothorax (Leptothorax) shekkovnikovi* Karavaiev, 1926 b: 166

Borowiec, 2014: *Temnothorax shelkovnikovi* (Karavaiev, 1926): 189

Bračko, 2019: *Temnothorax shelkovnikovi* (Karavaiev, 1926): 173

Records: Aresh (now Agdash) (Karavaiev, 1926), Evlakh (Bračko, 2019), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: (Borowiec, 2014).

110. *T. tauricus* (Ruzsky, 1902)

Bračko, 2019: *Temnothorax tauricus* (Ruzsky, 1902): 173

Records: Guba, Ismailly, Balaken, Gakh, Dashkesan (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria, Greece, Russia (Caucasus), Ukraine (Borowiec, 2014).

111. *T. tuberum* (Fabricius, 1775)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Leptothorax tuberum* F.: 211

Arnol'di, 1948: *Leptothorax tuberum acutinodis* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Temnothorax tuborum* (Fabricius, 1775): 192

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Jersey, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden (type locality), Switzerland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

112. *T. unifasciatus* (Latreille, 1798)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Leptothorax unifasciatus* Latr.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Temnothorax unifasciatus* (Latreille, 1798): 192

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Temnothorax unifasciatus* (Latreille, 1798): 209

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, France (type locality), Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy, Jersey, Kazakhstan, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Tetramorium* Mayr, 1855

113. *T. aegeum* Radchenko, 1992

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium inerme laevigatum* Kar., 1948: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium aegeum* Radchenko, 1992: 193

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Azerbaijan, Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

114. *T. caespitum* (Linnaeus, 1758)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium caespitum* L.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium caespitum* (Linnaeus, 1758): 195

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Tetramorium caespitum* (Linnaeus, 1758): 209

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Albania, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canary Islands, Channel Islands, China, Croatia, Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Iran, Israel, Italy, Jersey, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

115. *T. caucasicum* Wagner, Arthofer, Seifert, Muster, Steiner et Schlick-Steiner, 2017

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium caucasicum* Wagner, Arthofer, Seifert, Muster, Steiner et Schlick-Steiner, 2017: 173

Records: Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia (type locality), Georgia (type locality), Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

116. *T. chefketi* Forel, 1911

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium chefketi* Forel, 1911: 173

Records: Gusar (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria, China, Georgia, Greece, Iran, Kyrgyzstan, Republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Turkey (type locality), Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

117. *T. immigrans* Santschi, 1927

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium immigrans* Santschi, 1927: 173

Records: Absheron, Guba, Khachmaz, Agsu, Ismailly, Gabala, Sheki, Balaken, Zagatala, Gakh, Evlakh, Agstafa, Dashkesan, Samukh, Lankaran, Astara, Lerik, Salyan, Sabirabad (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Bulgaria, Turkey (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

118. *T. indocile* Santschi, 1927

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium indocile* Santschi, 1927: 173

Records: Guba, Lerik (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Iran, Kyrgyzstan (type locality), Russian Federation, Spain, Switzerland (type locality), Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

119. *T. inerme* Mayr, 1877

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium inerme* Mayr, 1877: 199

Records: Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Armenia, China, Iran, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Russian Federation, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

120. *T. ferox* Ruzsky, 1903

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium ferox* Ruz.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium ferox* Ruzsky, 1903: 198

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Tetramorium ferox* Ruzsky, 1903: 209

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Armenia, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Kyrgyzstan, Malta, Montenegro, Republic of Macedonia, Romania, Russian Federation (type locality), Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

121. *T. moravicum* Novák et Sadil, 1941

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium moravicum* Novák et Sadil, 1941: 173

Records: Guba, Ismailly (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Italy, Montenegro, Poland, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovenia, Turkey, Ukraine (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

122. *T. punicum* (Smith, F., 1861)

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium punicum caspium* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium punicum* (F. Smith, 1861): 202

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Canary Islands, Georgia, Greece, Iran, Israel (type locality) (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

123. *T. semilaeve* André, 1883

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium semilaeve schmidtii* For.: 211

Arnol'di, 1948: *Tetramorium semilaeve kosmalianicum* K. Arn: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Tetramorium semilaeve* André, 1883: 203

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: France (type locality), Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Malta, Spain (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

124. *T. sulcinode* Santschi, 1927

Bračko, 2019: *Tetramorium sulcinode* Santschi, 1927: 173

Records: Gusar, Evlakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Afghanistan, Kazakhstan (type locality), Kyrgyzstan, Russian Federation, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Genus *Trichomyrmex* Mayr, 1865125. *T. dentigera* (Roger, 1862)

Arnoldi, 1948: *Monomorium (Holcomyrmex) dentigerum* Rog.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Monomorium dentigerum* (Roger, 1862): 118

Records: Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014).

Distribution: Armenia, Georgia, Iran, Israel, Israel, Oman, Syrian Arab Republic, Turkey, Turkmenistan (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

126. *T. perplexus* (Radchenko, 1997)

Radchenko, 1997: *Monomorium perplexum* Radchenko, 1997: 213

Bračko, 2019: *Trichomyrmex perplexus* (Radchenko, 1997)

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Trichomyrmex perplexus* (Radchenko, 1997): 209

Records: Eldar plane (Samukh) (Radchenko, 1997), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Evlakh (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Armenia (type locality), Greece, Iran, Russian Federation (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

Subfamily Ponerinae**Genus *Ponera* Latreille, 1804**127. *P. coarctata* (Latreille, 1802)

Ruzsky, 1905: *Ponera coarctata lucida* Em.

Arnol'di, 1948: *Ponera coarctata lucida* Em.: 211

Borowiec, 2014: *Ponera coarctata* (Latreille, 1802): 148

Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017: *Ponera coarctata* (Latreille, 1802): 209

Bračko, 2019: *Ponera coarctata* (Latreille, 1802): 172

Records: Lankaran (Ruzsky, 1905), Lerik (Arnol'di, 1948), Azerbaijan (Borowiec, 2014), Caucasus (Dubovikoff, Yusupov, 2017), Sheki, Dashkesan (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Balearic Islands, Belgium, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Georgia, Germany, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Israel, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Luxembourg (type locality), Montenegro, Morocco, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, Tunisia, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

128. *P. testacea* Emery, 1895

Bračko, 2019: *Ponera testacea* Emery, 1895: 172

Records: Guba (Bračko, 2019).

Distribution: Austria, Balearic Islands, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France (type locality), Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Montenegro, Morocco, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Switzerland, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (<https://www.antwiki.org>).

DISCUSSION

As mentioned above, the myrmecofauna of Azerbaijan is currently comprised of 128 species in 28 genera. Considering the physiographic location of the republic and the wide variety of physiogeographic zones, a much higher number of species is to be expected, including species new to science. For comparison, the ant fauna of Georgia consists of 142 species from 35 genera (Gratiashvili, Barjadze, 2008), the fauna of Armenia - 119 species in 32 genera (Arakelyan, 1994, Borowiec, 2014). Of the endemics of Azerbaijan, two species should be noted - *Aulacopone relict* Arnol'di, 1930 and *Messor diabarensis* Arnol'di, 1970 (Both found in Lerik). Thus, the provided checklist will be the start of systematic research into the ants of Azerbaijan.

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