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- Dickinson 2003). The modified spelling “*v-nigrum* Gray, 1856” is used by the American Ornithologists’ Union (AOU 1998) and Goudie et al. (2000).
- Bruce and McAllan (1990), however, have shown (see also International Commission of Zoological Nomenclature [ICZN] 2003) that Gray’s (1856) *v-nigra* is the most junior of the four names established for the taxon within a span of less than four months; they listed: (1) *Somateria v. nigrum* Bonaparte, “not earlier than Oct. 22,” 1855, *Comptes Rendus de l’Academie des Sciences, Paris* 41:665 [“665” was an error for 661]; (2) *S[omateria]*. *V. nigrum* Gray, 1 December 1855, *The Athenaeum* 1466:1404; (3) *Somateria V. nigrum* Gray, 22 December 1855, *The Literary Gazette* 2031:819; and (4) *Somateria V-nigra* Gray, 5 February 1856, *Proceedings of the Zoological Society, London* [PZS] 1855:212.
- It is apparent that Gray’s communication at a meeting of the Zoological Society of London on 27 November 1855 was reported in three different British periodicals (with three different spellings). Gray had discussed details of his proposed new species with Bonaparte during the latter’s visit to the British Museum earlier in 1855 and, as a consequence, Bonaparte’s (1855) report antedated all the published accounts of Gray’s communication to the Zoological Society.
- For the next 100 years, however, Bonaparte’s name went unreported in print inasmuch as it is buried at the very end of a paper where he made extensive comments on Gray’s newly published *Catalogue of Genera and Subgenera* (Gray 1855). Although numerous earlier works covering the history of the name and its authorship (invariably Gray) could be cited, we are mostly concerned here with confusion in recent usage. The name of the Pacific Eider was thus cited from Gray (1855 or 1856, in PZS), either verbatim (as *v-nigra* or *V-nigra*) or modified to “*v-nigrum*” (e.g., Salvadori 1895, AOU 1931, Peters 1931, Hellmayr and Conover 1948a, Dement’ev and Gladkov 1967, Livezey 1995). Moreover, Bonaparte (1856) later contributed to the oversight of his senior name by using “*v. nigrum* Gr.” This subsequent action also demonstrates that Bonaparte was not trying to pre-empt Gray’s name, but it merely happened to appear first in his report to the French Academy of Sciences in Paris.
- The name “*v. nigrum* Bonaparte, 1855” has priority and is not an unused senior synonym after 1899 (ICZN 1999, art. 23.9.1). AOU (1955) announced that “*Somateria mollissima v-nigra* Gray, 1856 is to be listed as *Somateria mollissima v. nigra* Bonaparte, from *Somateria v. nigrum* Bonaparte, *Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. (Paris)*, vol. 41, no. 17 (not earlier than Oct. 22), 1855, p. 661”; the name was carried by AOU (1957) and further corrected to “*v-nigra*” by AOU (1973). It is obvious that the proposed change was founded on the then unpublished annotations contained in “*Richmond’s Index*,” given that AOU (1955, 1957) repeat the exact wording used by Richmond (1992)

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Spelling, authorship, and date of the name of the Pacific Eider (*Somateria mollissima v-nigrum*).—The name “*v-nigra* Gray, 1856” is commonly used in most recent comprehensive works for the Pacific Eider, a subspecies of the Common Eider (*Somateria mollissima*) that ranges from eastern Siberia to northwestern North America (Johnsgard 1979, Carboneras 1992,

(*vide* A. P. Peterson). This explains why later works, such as Johnsgard (1975), Palmer (1976), and Godfrey (1986), used "*v-nigra* Bonaparte." In addition, Vaurie (1965) cited Bonaparte's "*v. nigrum*" and used "*v. [-] nigrum*," and Cramp and Simmons (1977), as well as Stepanyan (1975, 2003), also used "*v-nigrum* Bonaparte." However, Johnsgard (1979) used "*v-nigra* Gray 1856," with the result that this citation in such an influential work has caused some confusion, but we have failed to find a published justification for the subsequent reuse of Gray's name. Perhaps this action was based on Delacour (1959, the standard work on waterfowl at the time), who cited Gray, presumably following Peters (1931).

Furthermore, the results of our research demonstrate that the publication date of Bonaparte's *v. nigrum* is actually 29 October 1855, a date that still awards it seniority. We also have concluded that authorship must be attributed to Bonaparte and Gray.

The date given by AOU (1955, 1957) of "not earlier than" 22 October 1855 is based on the weekly meetings of the *Académie des Sciences* at which Bonaparte's paper was read. The 26 individual *Compte rendu* (note the singular) of a semester make up the *Comptes rendus* (note the plural) that forms a tome, as indicated by its general title. The head page of each individual *Compte rendu* bears at the bottom an identifier, and that of the meeting of 22 October 1855 (p. 613) is "C. R., 1855, 2^{me} Semestre (T. XLI, No 17.)." In the *Compte rendu* of the meeting held 29 October 1855, the *Académie* (p. 729) acknowledges the receipt of recent publications, the first of which is the *Compte rendu* labeled "2^e semestre 1855; n° 17; in-4°." This information clearly establishes that 29 October 1855 is "the earliest day on which the work is demonstrated to be in existence" (ICZN, 1999, arts. 21.3, 21.5). Accordingly, by accepting this method of dating parts of this journal, which is not a new approach (cf. Richmond 1917), other names may be affected, and a more detailed review is needed of all of Bonaparte's works from this source in the 1850s.

In the case of the paper in question here, Bonaparte (1855) established several other new names in addition to *v. nigrum*, including "*Ninox jardinii*, Bp." (p. 654), "*Ninox theomacha*, Bp." (p. 654) and "Ma *Ninox philippensis*, que je n'ai jamais décrite...[My *Ninox philippensis*, that I have not yet described...]" (p. 655). Bonaparte (p. 660) also related that he obtained details of a new snipe from Jardine while visiting him in Edinburgh, Scotland, and stated that they agreed to name it "*Xylocota jamesoni*, Jard. et Bp." but although this proposed co-authorship by Bonaparte is listed in quotation marks in major works, the subsequent treatment of authorship was attributed to Bonaparte alone (cf. Peters 1934, Hellmayr and Conover 1948b). We propose that the original co-authorship as provided by Bonaparte should be reinstated.

As for *v. nigrum*, the text devoted to it reads, as translated from the French:

Mr. Hardy of Dieppe had brought to my attention an eider of his collection that showed under the chin the characteristic mark of *Somateria spectabilis*. But it was an immature or perhaps even an hybrid!...Very recently in London, in the custody of Mr. Gray, I saw several adult specimens that prove that it belongs to a distinct species. The species inhabits the borealmost parts of America, where before being collected it was sketched from nature through the telescope, with a different duck that escaped capture. I agree with Mr. Gray [that it is a distinct species], and like Linnaeus who has named a butterfly in the same manner, we have named it *Somateria v. nigrum*.

We read then that Bonaparte stated that he agreed with Gray that the material at the British Museum, London, under Gray's custody, represented a new species, and that they were naming it "*Somateria v. nigrum*."

Because the *Comptes rendus* are minutes of meetings, including lengthy papers that were read at the meetings, we therefore recognize that the "person responsible for the name" (ICZN 1999: art. 50.2) encompasses both Bonaparte and Gray as authors of *v. nigrum*. In choosing this combination for co-authorship, rather than "Gray and Bonaparte," we acknowledge that this does not accord with Bonaparte's evident preference, as given for the name of the snipe, but we also note that "we have named it" (p. 661) is as explicit as "My *Ninox philippensis*" (p. 655). Bonaparte did not specify his preference for *v. nigrum* and, thus, Bonaparte, as author of the paper, is the senior author of the name. It could be argued that authorship should be Bonaparte's alone; however, this is an unusual case, in that both authors are associated with the name, as opposed to the more common situation of a new name merely being cited as a previous manuscript name, such as that provided by a collector or a museum worker.

The original spelling, "*v. nigrum* Bonaparte and Gray, 1855," must be corrected to "*v-nigrum*" (ICZN 1999: art. 32.5.2.4.3), and its ending must not be changed to agree in gender with the generic name, because it is a compound noun (arts. 31.2.1, 34.2.1).

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“Kleptotily”: How the Fork-tailed Palm-Swift Feathers Its Nest.—Birds use a remarkable variety of materials in constructing their nests and almost always employ materials readily available near the nest site. Many species include insulative feathers in the nest lining to improve energy budgets of adults and young (Møller 1991, Winkler 1993, Lombardo et al. 1995). Among the species that incorporate large numbers of feathers in nests is the Fork-tailed Palm-Swift (*Tachornis squamata*; hereafter “palm-swift”) of tropical South America, which uses “fresh body feathers...of middle-sized birds, especially pigeons” (Sick 1948:170), supposedly collected as airborne detritus (Carvalho 1962, Collias and Collias 1984, Chantler 1999). Made of feathers and a small amount of plant matter, the nest is glued with the bird’s saliva to the inside of dead, folded, pendant leaves of the widespread palm *Mauritia flexuosa* (Sick 1948) or, in far northeastern Brazil where *M. flexuosa* is absent, the palm *Copernicia prunifera* (B. M. Whitney pers. obs.). Although palm-swifts have a closely corresponding, wide distribution, few nests have been examined, because these palms tend to grow in swamps and it is difficult to inspect the hanging leaves. Carvalho (1962) provided detailed descriptions of nesting behaviors and chick development of palm-swifts based on observations of several nests constructed on the undersides of live leaves of the palm *Livistona chinensis* in the city of Belém, Pará, Brazil. This palm is exotic in the New World, but possesses leaves morphologically similar to those of the above-mentioned, native palms.

In September 1995, I found two palm-swift nests in a pile of dead *M. flexuosa* leaves gathered on the grounds of the Tropical Hotel in Manaus, Amazonas, Brazil, and noted that, as had been reported (Sick 1948, Carvalho 1962), they were made mostly of contour feathers of several other species of birds. The palm-swift is airborne during most of its life, alighting only inside palm leaves to roost and nest, and it never travels far from palm groves. This led me to wonder how the birds could possibly gather such a large number of small feathers in a circumscribed area. A few hours of observation revealed the answer: palm-swifts attack other species of birds flying near palm groves, forcibly ripping feathers

from their backs (see Fig. 1). Across the palm-swift’s extensive range, its modus operandi appears to be well ingrained: on calm mornings (but also at other times of day), palm-swifts attain heights, often in excess of ~100 m, near their palm grove and circle, waiting. When birds from the size of piping-guans to that of pigeons come by in level flight, or even some smaller species with undulating flight (e.g., some parrots, woodpeckers, flycatchers, and thrushes), the palm-swifts rapidly stoop from above and behind, sometimes in tandem, striking their victim in the middle of the back and tugging at feathers with the bill for about 1–3 s to dislodge a mouthful; the legs are used only to help stabilize the attack. The birds may then play with feathers, allowing some to float free to be picked up in a subsequent pass, or carry them directly to nest sites. Most of the victims react only slightly, but some individuals, perhaps those with prior experience and most small birds, initiate evasive flight behaviors at the first stoop of the palm-swifts or quickly dive to hide in trees.

Most of the attacks I have observed were directed at parrots and pigeons. Two nests I examined near Presidente Figueiredo, Amazonas, Brazil, consisted almost entirely of contour feathers of Dusky Parrots (*Pionus fuscus*) and pigeons (*Patagioenas* spp.), and all other nests described to date have contained feathers mostly from these two families of birds. Pigeons and ground-doves must make especially difficult, perhaps even dangerous, targets for palm-swifts, because they are some of the fastest flyers among Neotropical birds and also roll erratically in the course of flight. Taking feathers from most parrots, on the other hand, is probably relatively uncomplicated, because parrots fly more slowly than most other above-canopy Neotropical birds, and the larger species, in particular, have less erratic flight trajectories and wing movements. Several species of Amazonian columbids, psittacids, and icterids (especially oropendolas) form large evening roosts, commuting in straight-line flight-paths twice daily, with many individuals regularly passing groves of *M. flexuosa*, where they present dependable feather sources for palm-swifts.

The piratic behavior of palm-swifts probably evolved as the most efficient means of predictably obtaining insulative material that increased survivorship of naked nestlings; selective pressure certainly would have been heightened during glacial epochs and is maintained today in southern and central Amazonia by regular austral cold fronts that last for several days. It is noteworthy that the tent-like, pendant leaves of palms that are the exclusive nest sites of palm-swifts are perhaps the most exposed to the elements (especially cold and wind) of any apodine nest sites worldwide (others being inside caves, rock crevices, hollow trunks, chimneys, buildings, elaborate tubes of plant material, etc.). These pendant palm leaves offer the overwhelming advantage,