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THE LIFE HISTORY,
HABITS AND DISTRIBUTION
OF THE APPLE MAGGOT

THESIS FOR DEGREE OF M. S.
DONALD TIMMERMAN RIES

1926

THEBIS



Apple - Bursaria + post
Apple-maggot



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Entomology

THESIS

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INTRODUCTION

The apple maggot or "railroad worm" (Rhagoletis pomonella, Walsh) during the past few years, has again become a serious problem to the fruit-growers, after an absence or dormancy of about a quarter of a century. The damage in 1925 was not confined to small, isolated spots but was quite generally distributed throughout the apple growing regions of the state. In 1926, however, the more serious ravages seemed to be confined to localized areas.

The economic losses caused by this insect are of particular interest to the fruit grower of Michigan, since this state stands fourth in acreage of bearing trees, being surpassed only by New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio.

The work leading up to the preparation of this paper was done in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master of Science Degree, and was performed under the direction of Professor R. H. Pettit and Miss Eugenia I. McDaniel, to both of whom I wish to express gratitude for their help throughout the work. Thanks are also due to the farmers in the vicinity of Stockbridge, for their cooperation and the use of their orchards.

Besides working out the life-history and possible control measures, much time also was spent in compiling a bibliography of all important published

articles concerning not only apple maggot, but also other fruit-flies.

HISTORY

The apple maggot seems to have been known in many orchards in the northeastern United States for some years before it was described in 1868 by Walsh.

Calvin Ward (1866) says that even previous to 1865, his apple crop had been severely damaged by larvae boring in the apples in all directions.

During the winter of 1866 Walsh (1868) received some pupae from Massachusetts, Connecticut and Long Island. Adult flies emerged from these in July 1867. The flies bred from these pupae were found to be identical with those bred five or six years previously from Haws in Illinois.

Riley (1872) published an account of the maggot and included a letter from J. H. Spatter of Keene, New Hampshire, thus giving the first record from that state. In a later article (Riley 1876) we find the first reference to its occurrence in Maine. While Comstock (1882) first reported the pest from Ithaca, New York, collected in 1881, Several years later Cook (1884) recorded the maggot from Shiawassee County, Michigan and Delavan, Wisconsin. Williams (1889) first reported the pest from New Jersey, but

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adds that it had been doing damage for about twelve years. Osborn (1891) states that during 1890 there were many reports of this insect sent in from Iowa and that it had been introduced from Missouri apparently, although no one had recorded its presence in that state. In 1890 it was also reported by Weed (1891) to be damaging fruit in Delaware County, Ohio. Doctor L. O. Howard (1894) seems to have recorded the maggot's southern limit in apples from Waynesville, North Carolina, while Gillett (1896) found it in apples at Colorado Springs. He supposes that the insect was introduced in eastern apples.

Dr. Fletcher (1897) reported receiving maggot-infested apples in August 1896 from Ontario. In 1902 it was reported plentiful in Prince Edward County where over half the fruit was destroyed in some orchards. In 1905 Dr. Fletcher reported it in Quebec while later (1907) it was reported from New Brunswick.

Professor Washburn (1903) included this insect as an apple pest in Minnesota.

It has also been recorded from California.
(Can. Ent. 51; 2-4, 1914.)

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CLASSIFICATION AND SYNONYMY

The apple maggot (Rhagoletis pomonella) belongs to the order Diptera and to the family Trypetidae. This family formerly contained two genera: Trypeta and Dacus, the two genera being separated by the following characters:

Five segments of abdomen before borer - Trypeta
Four segments of abdomen before borer - Dacus

Dr. Loew in his monograph of European Trypetidae published in 1862, split the genus Trypeta into several subgenera, one being Rhagoletis. However, Coquillett (1899) points out that sometimes these groups were referred to as genera and sometimes as subgenera. Osten Sacken (1878) in his catalog of Diptera of North America terms these groups subgenera, however, the name Rhagoletis is now recognized as a valid genus by Doane (1898) and by Aldrich (1909).

The insect was first described by Walsh in 1867 under the name of Trypeta pomonella, the description having been based on six females bred July 15th to 23rd, from apples, and two females and one male bred July 23rd to 28th from Haws received from Illinois.

It was known by that name until the publication of Doane's paper in 1898 when it was placed in the genus Rhagoletis. From that date it has borne the name Rhagoletis pomonella.

COMMON NAMES

The name "apple maggot" given this insect in 1868 by Walsh is still the one used most generally. In New England it has often been called the "railroad worm", this term being also quite commonly used among the farmers in the middle west. Many people also refer to it simply as the "apple worm", thereby causing considerable confusion.

FOOD PLANTS

The apple maggot being a native insect, it seems probable that its primitive food plants were members of the genus Crataegus, although only Walsh (1868), Comstock (1882) and Cook (1889) reported them as being found in Crataegus. It will be remembered that Walsh, in working up his original description, based it partly on males and females reared from Haws in Illinois. Professor Comstock reported rearing them from species of Crataegus at Washington, D.C., while Professor Cook reported the insect as "well known" in the thornapples of Michigan, Wisconsin and Illinois.

Throughout the earlier manuscripts are reports of the maggots feeding on wild crab-apples, but the only records based on actual observation are those

by Riley (1872) and Fletcher (1906). The latter states that, "although very badly infested, the fruit does not drop, as do other varieties of apples". Comstock (1882) thinks that the insect probably occurs throughout the country wherever hawthorns or crab-apples are found, while Harvey supposed that its original food-plant was the haw and that when civilization moved in and the haws were cut down, the insect migrated to our cultivated apples and made itself "perfectly at home" as so many other of our native insects have done.

In 1889 in Professor Cook's Annual Report, he mentions having received plums and cherries from northern Michigan, that were infested with this insect. However, these records are doubtful, since no adults were reared and it is quite probable that these might have been the larvae of one of the cherry fruit-flies, (Rhagoletis cingulata), which is damaging the cherries of northern and western Michigan to-day. In 1926, I observed adults of R. pomonella resting on sour cherries at Stockbridge, Michigan, but did not observe any ovipositing, nor have I found any evidences of their presence in the few stray cherries still on the trees up to the first of August. I have never observed any flies at all on plums, although there were several plum trees adjacent to infested apple trees.

Harvey (1893) records flies reared from Vermont pears. He also reports them working on pears in Maine.

I have examined a large number of both wild plums and hawthorns, but have seen no evidence of any maggot work in them.

Dr. Britton (1906) reported the apple maggot working on huckleberries in Connecticut in August 1904. He also reared the adult flies. Dr. Smith (1910) also recorded this insect working on the same fruit in southeastern New Jersey and the following season bred the flies from such larvae. This insect was also bred from Snowberry, (Symphoricarpus racemosus) in British Columbia by Downes. The same insect is also found in Maine, infesting blueberries. I believe also it has been reported on huckleberries in northcentral Michigan around Bay City, but no printed data are available. Huckleberries were collected this year in the vicinity of Stockbridge, Michigan, but no evidences of maggots were found.

Cultivated apples are by far its most important food plant. It has been reported as attacking over seventy different varieties of apples. The commoner varieties which I have found infested with maggots are Early Harvest, Yellow Transparent, Red Astrachan, Primate, Maiden Blush, Tolman Sweet, Grimes Golden,

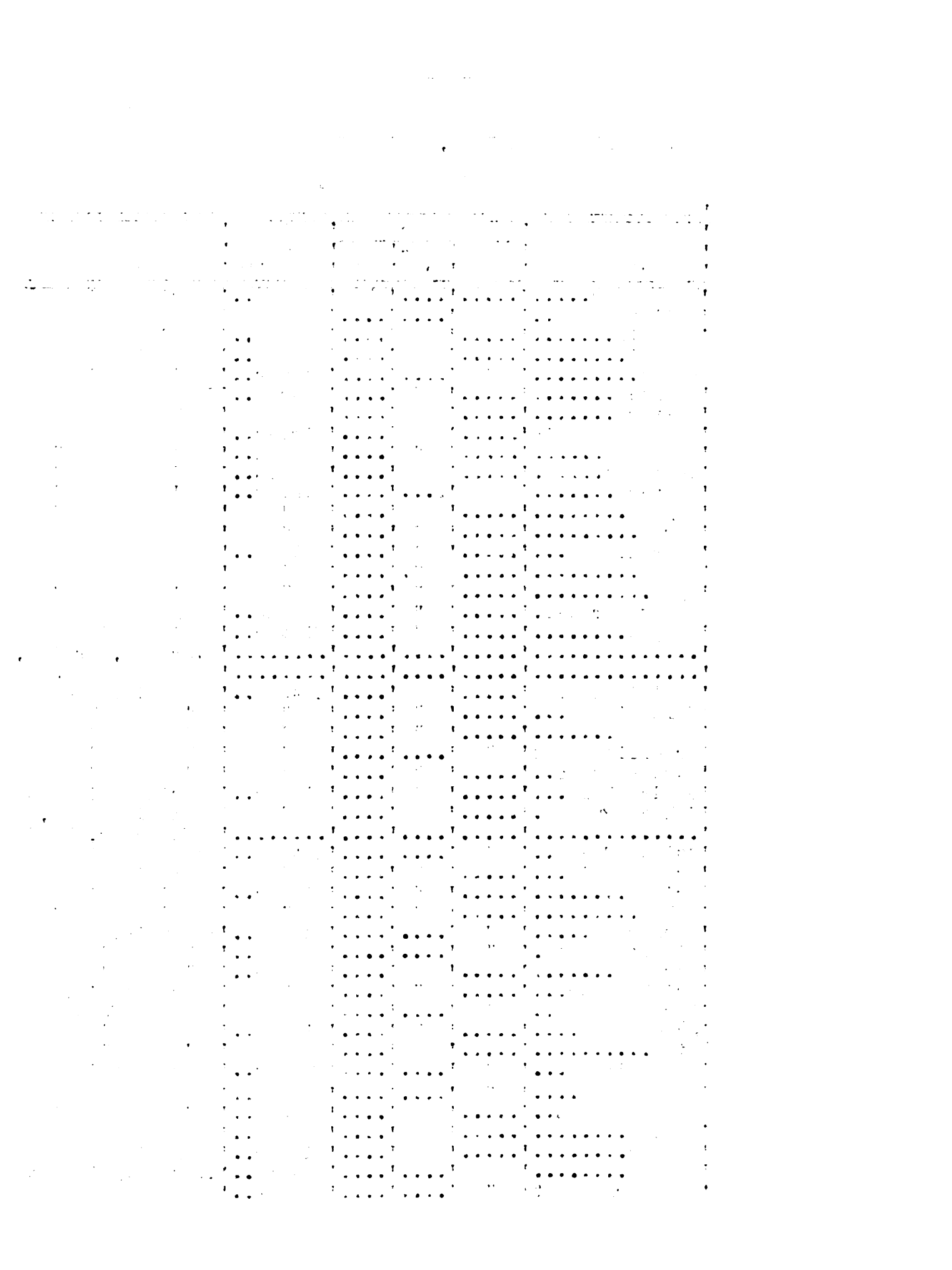
Tompkins King, Winter Sweet Benoni, Pound Sweet, Johathan, Shiawassee Beauty.

The early varieties seem to be worst infested although in 1925 the late summer and winter apples were all literally riddled in the vicinity of Stockbridge. In the case of the late apples, the injury was not apparent when they were picked.

Harvey (1889) published a list of apple varieties showing their relative infestation in Maine. Illingworth (1912) brought this list up to date and this revised list is given below. The varieties marked with asterisk have been found to be infested in Michigan.

VARIETIES OF APPLES, WITH RELATIVE INFESTATION BY
THE APPLE MAGGOT

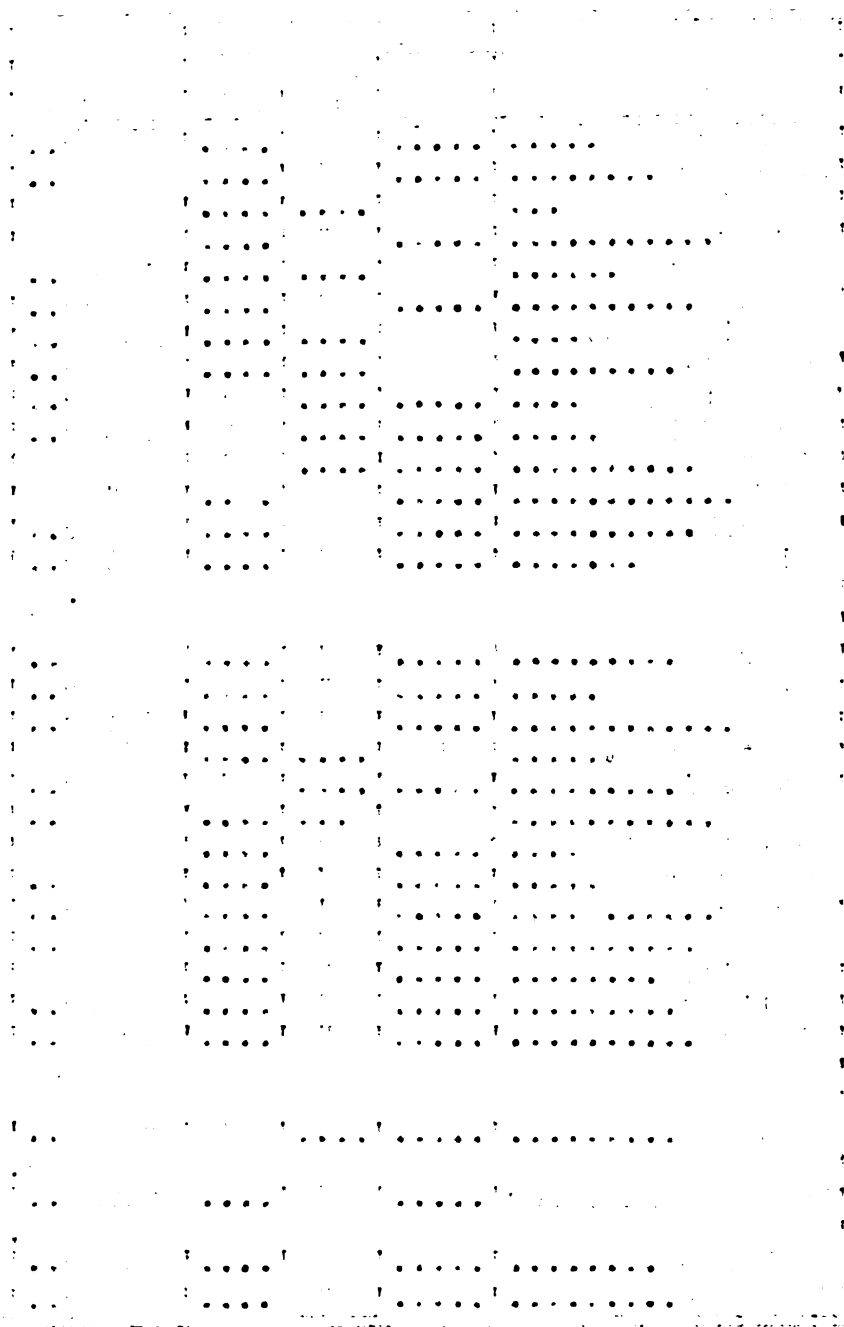
Variety	Flavor			Time of Maturity	Remarks
	Sweet	acid	'Acid		
'Alexander.....			"	'Autumn..	'Springly infeste
'Bailey Sweet..	"			"	"
*Baldwin.....		"		'Winter..	"
*Benoni.....		"		'Autumn..	'Badly infested
*Bough.....	"			'Summer..	"
'Bullock.....		"		'Autumn..	'Springly infeste
'Calvert.....		"		"	"
'Canada Baldwin		"		'Winter..	"
'Catshead.....		"		'Autumn..	"
'Chenango.....		"		'Autumn..	"
'Danvers.....	"			'Winter..	"
'Dayton.....		"		"	"
'Derby.....		"		"	"
'Detroit Red...		"		'Autumn..	"
'Diana.....		"		"	"
'Dyer.....		"		"	"
*Early Harvest.		"		'Autumn..	'Badly infested
'Esopus.....		"		'Winter..	"
'.....					Vermont, Perkins,
'.....					1893
'Fall Jenneting		"		'Autumn..	'Badly infested
*Fall Pippin...		"		"	"
'Fameuse.....		"		"	"
'Franklin Sweet	"			"	"
'Garden Royal..		"		"	"
'Golden Ball...		"		'Winter..	'Springly infeste
'Golden Russet.		"		"	'Badly infested,
'.....					Fletcher, 1896
'Golden Sweet..	"			'Autumn..	'Springly infeste
'Gravenstein...		"		"	'Badly infested
*Grimes.....		"		'Winter..	'Springly infeste
'Halcy.....		"		"	"
'Henderson.....	"			'Autumn..	'Badly infested
'Hightop Sweet..	"			'Summer..	"
'Hurlbut.....		"		'Autumn..	"
'Irish Peach...		"		"	'Springly infeste
'Jersey Sweet..	"			"	'Badly infested
'Jewett Red....		"		'Winter..	"
*King.....		"		"	"
'King Pippin...	"			'Summer..	'Springly infeste
'Lady Sweet....	"			'Winter..	"
*Maiden Blush..		"		'Autumn..	"
'Mexico.....		"		'Autumn..	"
'Mother.....		"		'Winter..	'Badly infested
'Munson.....	"			'Autumn..	'Springly infeste
'New York Sweet	"			'Summer..	'Badly infested



VARIETIES OF APPLES, WITH RELATIVE INFESTATION BY
THE APPLE MAGGOT (Continued)

Variety	Flavor			Time		Remarks
	'Sweet'	'Sub-'	'Acid'	'Acid'	'Maturity'	
'Northern Spy.....		"		'Winter..	'Badly infested	
'Oldenburg.....		"		'Autumn..	"	"
'Paradise Sweet....	"			"	"	"
'Porter.....		"		"	"	"
*Pound Sweet.....	"			'Winter..	"	"
*Primate.....		"		'Summer..	"	"
*Pumpkin Sweet....	"			'Autumn..	"	"
'Ramsdell.....	"			'Winter..	'Sparingly infe	
*Red Astrachan....			"	'Summer..	'Badly	"
'Rhode Island.....			"	'Winter..	'Sparingly	"
'Ribston.....			"	"	"	"
'Rolfe.....		"		"	"	"
'Russell.....		"		'Summer..	'Badly infested	
*Shiawassee.....		"		'Winter..	"	"
Como. Que. Fletcher, (1903-1904)						
'Somerset.....		"		'Autumn..	'Sparingly infe	
'Sops of Wine.....		"		'Summer..	'Badly	"
'Swaar.....		"		'Winter..	'Sparingly	"
'Sweet Russet.....	"			"	"	"
'Tetofski.....			"	'Summer..	'Badly infested	
*Tolman.....	"			'Winter..	"	"
*Tompkins King....		"		"	'Sparingly	"
*Twenty Ounce.....		"		'Autumn..	'Badly	"
'Wagner.....		"		'Winter..	"	"
*Wealthy.....		"		'Autumn..	"	"
'Westfield.....		"		"	'Sparingly	"
'Williams.....		"		'Summer..	"	"
'Winesap.....		"		'Winter..	'Badly	"
Canada, Fletcher, 1896						
*Winthrop.....		"		'Autumn..	'Badly infested	
Canada, Fletcher, 1896						
*Yellow Bellflower'.....	"			'Autumn..	'Badly infested	
Canada, Fletcher, 1896						
*Hubbarsen.....		"		'Autumn..	'Sparingly infe	
*Jonathan.....		"		'Autumn..	"	"

* Have been used during observation in Michigan.

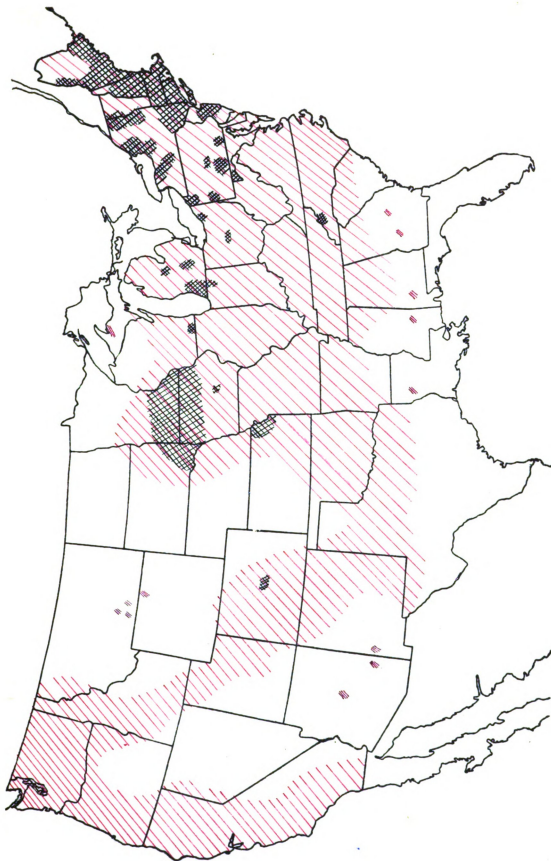


Maggots resembling R. pomonella have been collected in huckleberries, chokeberries, wild grape, plum and haw, but no adults have as yet been reared from this material.

DISTRIBUTION

This insect is a native to this country. From available data it would seem that its first appearance was in the east and northeastern part of the United States. Its range was gradually increased to the westward until to-day we find it quite abundant throughout the northern United States from Maine to the Dakotas and south to Maryland and Kansas. An isolated record in North Carolina and another in Colorado are believed to have been caused through the importation of infested eastern apples.

O'Kane published a distribution map in 1915, but as this seemed too general and covered too much territory, inquiries were made, by letter, of entomologists in the apple growing states in order to work out a new distribution map. This 1926 distribution data will be taken up by states. The accompanying map shows the approximate distribution of the apple maggot in the United States and Canada to date.



DISTRIBUTION OF APPLE CROP



APPROXIMATE DISTRIBUTION OF

RHAGOLETIS POMONELLA - 1927

25-7-34



Illinois - Although early papers reported that the adults of apple maggot had been reared from haws in Illinois, Dr. W. P. Flint, State Entomologist, advised me that they had no records whatever of the occurrence of the apple maggot in Illinois.

Pennsylvania - Mr. T. L. Guyton reports that the insect is quite generally distributed throughout Pennsylvania and their records show its presence in Perry, Franklin, Adams, Cumberland, Lancaster, Beaver, Butler, Lawrence, Erie, Philadelphia and Union Counties.

New York - It is found quite generally distributed throughout the state's apple growing regions with the exception of the western part.

New Jersey - In this state it is found quite generally distributed, although part of its ravages are recorded upon blueberries.

New England - This insect is very common throughout this section of the country and does much damage to unkept and unsprayed orchards.

Ohio - As far as records are obtainable, only two counties, Delaware and Lorain, are the only places infested by this insect.

Maryland - There is one locality from which this insect is recorded in Maryland, namely, Garret County in the extreme western part of the state.

North Carolina - One record is found of its occurrence in the western part of North Carolina. This

1. The first step is to identify the problem.

2. The second step is to define the problem.

3. The third step is to analyze the problem.

4. The fourth step is to develop a solution.

5. The fifth step is to implement the solution.

6. The sixth step is to evaluate the solution.

7. The seventh step is to monitor the solution.

8. The eighth step is to maintain the solution.

9. The ninth step is to improve the solution.

10. The tenth step is to document the solution.

11. The eleventh step is to communicate the solution.

12. The twelfth step is to review the solution.

13. The thirteenth step is to update the solution.

14. The fourteenth step is to close the solution.

is probably due to accidental dispersal.

Virginia - Although Virginia grows quite a large acreage of apples and stands fifth in trees of bearing age, it does not record the maggot.

Indiana - Professor J. J. Davis in a personal communication, states that Goshen is the only place where the maggot has been recorded in the state.

Michigan - Practically all the apple growing area of the state is infested by this insect, although it seems to be more injurious in the southern counties, particularly the southern parts of Ingham, Washtenaw and Shiawassee Counties.

Wisconsin - One locality is recorded by Professor A. J. Cook. It was found near Delavan, but recent reports from that state do not indicate its presence.

Minnesota - Reports it fairly well distributed throughout the apple growing regions which are in the southern part of the state.

Iowa - Dr. Fenton reports this insect scattered throughout the orchards in the northern part of the state.

South Dakota - Dr. Severin in a personal communication enclosed a map showing the distribution of the insect in the southeastern corner of the state.

Colorado - Gives us one isolated record made quite a number of years back, but Professor Gillette informed me that none had been found since.

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1911-12

1912-13

1913-14

1914-15

1915-16

1916-17

1917-18

1918-19

1919-20

1920-21

1921-22

1922-23

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1926-27

1927-28

1928-29

1929-30

1930-31

1931-32

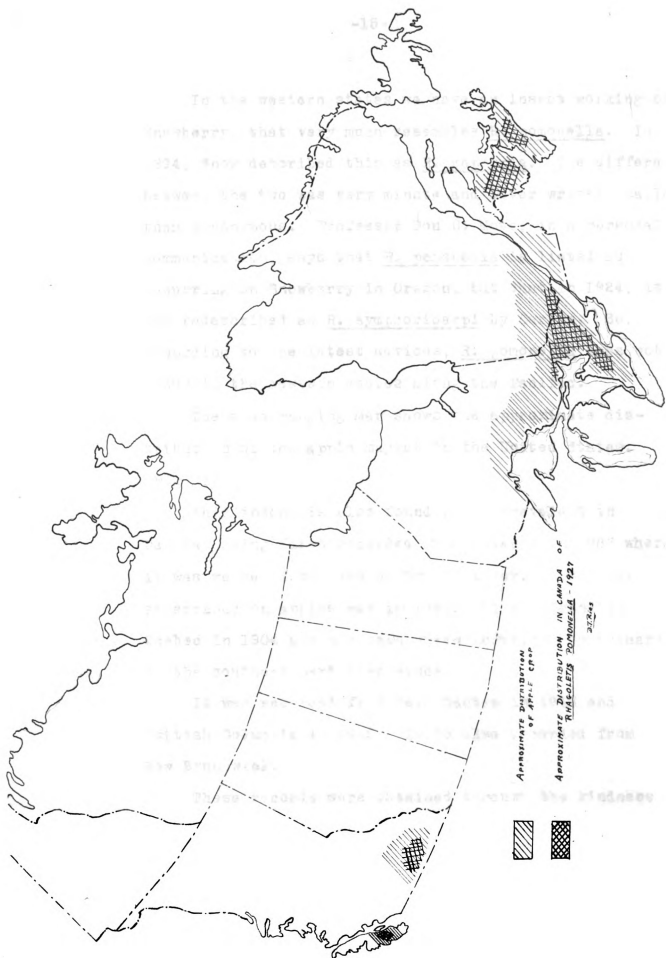
1932-33

1933-34

1934-35

1935-36

1936-37



In the western states we have an insect working on Snowberry, that very much resembles R. pomonella. In 1894, Snow described this as R. zephyria. The difference between the two was very minute and later writers called them synonymous. Professor Don C. Mote, in a personal communication, says that R. pomonella is listed as occurring on Snowberry in Oregon, but that in 1924, it was redescribed as R. symphoricarpi by Curran. So, according to the latest advices, R. pomonella does not occur in the western states along the Pacific.

The accompanying map shows the approximate distribution of the apple maggot in the United States. (Fig. 1).

This insect is also found quite prevalent in Canada, being first recorded from Ontario in 1887 where it was reared from haws by Dr. Fletcher. Its first appearance on apples was in 1896. It was found in Quebec in 1904 and has been quite injurious to orchards in the southern part ever since.

It was recorded from Nova Scotia in 1913 and British Columbia in 1916. It is also recorded from New Brunswick.

These records were obtained through the kindness of Mr. J. M. Swaine who said it was reared from Snowberry in British Columbia as well as apples and haws, but there are no records of it attacking blueberries. (Fig. 2)

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1990; 263: 1025-1026.

TECHNICAL DESCRIPTION *

The female (Fig.4)

General color shiny black, marked with white; length, maximum 6.5 mm., minimum 5mm., average 6.25 mm.; spread of wings, average 12 mm.

Head. - Light brown above, blending into pale lemon-yellow on lower face; sides of face and hind margin of eyes white. Eyes bright green, with rich brown and sometimes steel-blue reflections, in life; but dull, dark green, with purplish reflections, in pinned specimens. Antennae orange, .5mm. long. Prominent black hairs border the distal front margin of the first segment, and cover the inner face and outer distal margin of the second; the third segment is flattened on its inner face and rounded without, pubescent; arista dark brown, two-jointed, slender, with fine pubescence. The usual frontal bristles present; all black except a small, yellowish white, erect pair (postvertical) located behind the ocelli. Mouth large, broad; proboscis and palpi lemon-yellow, both covered with a yellowish pubescence; palpi short, not extending outside the anterior edge of the mouth.

Thorax. - Shiny black; a white strip extending along each side from the humeral callus to the base of the wing and the white alula. The dorsum marked with four silvery gray longitudinal stripes, arranged in pairs, confluent in front and very slightly divergent posteriorly; the pairs separated by a median broad space

* Illingworth (1912).

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of the proposed system on the performance of the system.

The study is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the system architecture, Section 3 describes the experimental setup, Section 4 describes the results, and Section 5 describes the conclusions.

2. System Architecture

The system architecture is shown in Figure 1. The system consists of a client and a server.

The client is responsible for sending requests to the server and receiving responses from the server.

The server is responsible for processing requests and returning responses to the client.

The system is designed to be scalable and flexible, allowing for the addition of new components and the modification of existing components.

The system is implemented using a distributed architecture, allowing for the distribution of components across multiple machines.

The system is designed to be secure, protecting data and resources from unauthorized access.

The system is designed to be reliable, ensuring that data and resources are available when needed.

The system is designed to be efficient, minimizing the use of resources and maximizing the performance of the system.

The system is designed to be easy to use, providing a simple and intuitive interface for users.

The system is designed to be extensible, allowing for the addition of new features and the modification of existing features.

The system is designed to be maintainable, allowing for the easy management and updating of the system.

The system is designed to be portable, allowing for the easy deployment of the system to different environments.

The system is designed to be robust, ensuring that the system can handle a wide range of inputs and outputs.

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that shows the shiny black of the rest of the thorax; the two stripes of each pair separated posteriorly by a very narrow, similar, black interval, in which is a prominent black bristle near the posterior end of the inner stripe, which is considerably shorter than the outer one; the silver-gray appearance of the stripes is due to a snow-white pile, this making a sharp contrast with the rest of the thorax which is black. The scutellum prominent, raised, bearing the usual two pairs of black bristles; top flattened and pearly white, sides and base black.

Legs. - Middle pair longest, about 4.5 mm.; femora and tibiae about equal, 1.5 mm.; tarsi somewhat shorter, 1.3 mm. Front pair shortest, about 3.8 . Femora black with lighter ends, the front pair often lighter; tibiae and proximal segments of tarsi, straw color; distal segments covered with black hairs, giving the feet a black appearance.

Wings. - Length 4.5 to 5.5 mm.; width 2 to 2.5 mm.; the smaller sizes being from wings of males and dwarfed females. Four irregular dark bands cross the hyaline membrane of the wing; the first lies near the base of the wing and joins the second near the posterior margin; the last three are connected near the middle of the anterior margin of the wing and diverge widely toward the posterior margin. Professor Harvey has suggested that these markings resemble the picture of a turkey: the end nearest the body representing the head, with

1. The first group of people who are interested in the results of the study are the researchers themselves. They want to know if the study was successful in achieving its objectives and if the data collected is reliable and valid. They also want to know if the study has contributed to the existing knowledge in the field and if it has any practical implications.

2. The second group of people who are interested in the results of the study are the participants. They want to know if the study was fair and if they were treated with respect and dignity. They also want to know if the study has any implications for their lives and if it has helped them to understand themselves and the world around them better.

3. The third group of people who are interested in the results of the study are the stakeholders. They want to know if the study has any implications for their organization or community and if it has any practical implications for their work or lives.

• The importance of the results of the study

1. The results of the study are important because they provide information about the world around us and help us to understand ourselves and the world better. They also provide information about the effectiveness of different interventions and help us to make decisions about what to do next.

2. The results of the study are important because they provide information about the needs and interests of different groups of people and help us to understand the world from their perspective. They also provide information about the strengths and weaknesses of different groups of people and help us to make decisions about how to support them.

3. The results of the study are important because they provide information about the progress of research in a particular field and help us to understand the state of the world in that field. They also provide information about the challenges and opportunities in that field and help us to make decisions about how to address them.

• The limitations of the study

1. One of the limitations of the study is that it was a cross-sectional study, which means that it only looked at one point in time. This means that we cannot know if the results of the study are due to a change in the world or if they are due to other factors.

2. Another limitation of the study is that it was a self-reported study, which means that the data was collected from people who reported on their own experiences and feelings. This means that the data may be biased or inaccurate.

3. A third limitation of the study is that it was a small study, which means that the results may not be generalizable to other groups of people or to other situations.

4. A fourth limitation of the study is that it was a descriptive study, which means that it only described what was happening and did not try to explain why it was happening.

a clear spot usually present for the eye, the second band the body, the third the legs, and the fourth the tail, which reaches nearly to the tip of the wing. The entire wing is covered with a very fine pubescence, which is white in the hyaline parts and black in the bands. The entire margin of the wing, and the vein R_1 on the upper surface, are armed with small black bristles, as is characteristic of the genus.

Abdomen. - Shiny black; four rather uniform white bands bordering the posterior margins of the second, third, fourth, and fifth tergites; the scattered pile of the first of these bands is white, that of the rest black as on other parts. The abdomen without the ovipositor is a little longer than broad; it is composed of seven segments; the tergites of the first and second are so closely fused in this family that they were formerly considered as a single segment (Loew, 1873), although the sternites are clearly defined. The first two segments rapidly widen to the third, which is the broadest; the fourth, fifth, and sixth narrow abruptly to the seventh, which is in the form of a truncate cone, with no indication of the union between the tergite and the sternite, the two being so closely fused as to form a solid, chitinous protection for the ovipositor, and also to act as a firm attachment for the several sets of muscles which manipulate this organ and support the egg-tube within. At first this seventh segment was

thought to be the ovipositor (Loew, 1873), which is described as "very broad but short" and having a black pubescence; the real ovipositor being observed and described later (Harvey, 1889).

Ovipositor. - This organ is very slender and terminates in a sharp point. When not in use it is entirely retracted within the last abdominal segment. The general structure is horn-like, hard, and chitinous, with a groove on the lower surface which is covered by two chitinous rods or flaps extending from the sheath about half way to the tip. These flaps are attached at the sides to the main body of the ovipositor by thin, transparent membranes, their function being to guide the egg in its passage downward. The sheath is a thin membrane that attaches the ovipositor to the last abdominal segment. It bears many triangular, chitinous projections on its surface; these are arranged in definite rows that extend backward each way from a median line, above and below, the lower surface being the more beautiful. There is a triangular space on each side, at the base of the sheath, with no tubercles. When the ovipositor is retracted it carries the sheath with it, as in pushing in the end of the finger of a glove - the whole sheath and ovipositor being finally concealed within the seventh abdominal segment.

The Male (Fig. 4)

As shown in Fig. 16, the male has the same general appearance as the female but is considerably smaller. Length, 4 to 5 mm.; the principal difference in length is in size of abdomen, which shows only five of the seven segments, the sixth and seventh being retracted beneath the fifth, and white bands terminating only the second, third, and fourth tergites.

Harvey states that there are only five segments in the male, but he evidently overlooked the two terminal segments. The sixth segment is usually entirely covered by the fifth, and the seventh tergite can barely be seen extending behind the caudal margin of the fifth. The sixth tergite is very unsymmetrical, on the left side extending downward and meeting the sternite, while on the right there is only a small, triangular part at the top, chitinized, due to the position of the coiled penis which rests against that side. The seventh segment bears a pair of chitinous appendages, which aid in copulation. Extending from the caudal end of the seventh segment is the rectum, which is covered with stiff hairs and remains outside the body at all times; it can be seen as a noticeable light-colored speck in even the living flies. Within the sixth and seventh segments is a chitinous framework which supports the very long, chitinous penis - an organ which extends in almost a complete circle around the caudal end of the body, to the back, when partly uncoiled. Ordinarily

the penis remains in a tight coil in a pocket under the fifth tergite, just to the right of the median line. The spiral, chitinous rod in the penis makes it difficult to straighten out when the fly is dead, and causes the soft margin on the inner part of the circle to pucker, forming overlapping folds. Near the end is a rectangular part with a chitinous center, and terminating the penis is a spiral brush with numerous, somewhat stiff hairs. The other markings are as in the female.

Internal Genitalia of Female

Careful dissections were made of the reproductive system, in order to determine the time of development and the number of eggs. The ovaries are spherical masses made up of numerous egg-tubes, as is common among flies. The egg-tubes are surrounded by connective tissue and are tied together by closely anastomosing tracheae; the oviducts are short and lead into the vagina, which also receives the ducts from the three spermathecae and the pair of accessory organs on the dorsal surface. The vagina has a cluster of tiny papillae also on the dorsal surface, the function of which the writer has been unable to determine. Two sets of muscles extend from the sides of the vagina to the chitinous walls of the seventh abdominal segment,

1. *Chlorophyll a* and *Chlorophyll b* were determined by the method of Arar and Collins (1971).

entirely surrounds this organ and holds it firmly in place. Another set of muscles, similarly attached, controls the movements of the ovipositor. The vagina gradually narrows and seems to unite with the intestine just before it passes into the chitinous covering of the ovipositor. Whether these two tubes actually unite or are only fastened together very closely with the connecting tissue, the writer is unable to state from the dissections made. This condition does not exist in other flies; although the two organs often open to the outside very near together, they have separate openings in all cases known to the writer.

The Egg

The mature egg is pearly white when taken from the ovary, but shows a distinct cream color after being in the fruit for a short time. The shape is fusiform, almost four times as long as wide; the pedicellate end being gently rounded, the other end more pointed. The pedicel is short, not much, if any, longer than wide. The eggshell around the pedicel is covered with reticulate markings having the appearance of cells, with raised papillae extending from their margins giving a spinose appearance. The markings and papillae are distinctly darker near the pedicel and

extend for only about one fourth of the total length of the egg, where they are gradually lost in the smooth surface of the remainder of the shell. Measurements of a large series show the following sizes: length, .8 to 1 mm.; width, .8 to .3 mm.; the shorter eggs usually having the greater width. The developing larva can be clearly seen within the egg; the black rasping apparatus, or head, being in the pointed end of the egg, the posterior part toward the pedicel.

The Larva (Fig. 3)

The larva is white or cream-colored unless it is feeding on green pulp from near the skin of the fruit, in which case the food shows through the skin of the larva, giving a greenish cast. The body is made up of fourteen segments; the ninth, tenth, and eleventh are thickest, those from the ninth to the first rapidly tapering to the small, pointed head. From the eleventh segment the body decreases very gradually to the last segment; this has the dorsal half cut off, leaving a sloping surface on which is located the pair of caudal spiracles. Below the sloping part the body ends squarely, giving it the appearance of being cut off. On each side of the dorsal surface, at the union of the third and fourth segments, is a conspicuous outgrowth. By the aid of the microscope this structure

is seen to be made up of a double row of about twenty papillae extending from the margin of a funnel-shaped structure that is attached to a bulb-like enlargement at the base. These structures are the cephalic spiracles, which open into the pair of longitudinal tracheae extending caudad to the last segment of the body, where they end in the caudal spiracles mentioned above. Only two branches connect this pair of longitudinal tracheae, the first at the junction of the fourth and fifth segments and the other just in front of the last segment. When the head is fully extended, the black hooks are clearly seen protruding from the lower surface of the front segment. These hooks are attached to a black or brown framework inside the second, third, and fourth segments. This structure can be clearly seen through the skin by transmitted light, especially when the larva is young. The first three segments of the body are usually withdrawn into the fourth whenever the larva is disturbed; in this condition the cephalic spiracles appear to be at the anterior end of the body and the rasping apparatus cannot be seen. This is the condition seen normally in the anterior part of the puparium. There are two pairs of sensory papillae on the front of the first segment. Length of larva, 7 to 815 mm.; width, 1.75 to 2 mm.

The Pupa (Fig. 3)

As in most flies, the pupal stage is passed within the larval skin, the maggot shortening up and becoming inactive. The shape is a long oval, a little more than twice as long as wide and tapering about equally at the two ends. The head segment being retracted, the cephalic spiracles protrude from the front margin. The posterior end is slightly contracted but not enough to cover the caudal spiracles, which remain exposed. The color, at first light yellow as in the larva, changes in a few hours to a yellowish brown, becoming darker with age. Within two days the real pupa formed inside the larval skin, in all cases observed. Fletcher (1905) states that the pupa forms inside the puparium only a few days before the perfect insect appears the next summer. The pupa, when removed from the puparium, is pure white; the legs and wing buds closely folded toward the ventral side; the head also tipped ventrally so as to economize space. Length of puparia, 4 to 5 mm.; width, 2 to 2.5mm;

1.1

The first part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The third part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The fifth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The sixth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The seventh part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The eighth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The ninth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$. The tenth part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the function $f(x)$ defined by the equation $f(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$. It is shown that $f(x)$ is a constant function, and its value is determined by the initial condition $f(0) = 1$.

INJURIES AND LOSSES

The apple maggot causes two distinct types of injury to the apple. The first results from the oviposition punctures of the female. These show up as small depressions in the mature fruit. The second and most serious is due to the feeding tunnels made by the larvae throughout the pulp of the apple.

The "dimples" (Fig. 5 & 6) that result from oviposition may be confused with the injuries caused by several other insects. One of these is the Redbug, but the depressions caused by this latter insect are somewhat deeper and more pronounced than those of the maggot, they also appear much earlier in the development of the fruit.

Aphid injury, when slight, may also be confused with apple maggot injury, but aphid injury also usually appears on the apples when they are still quite small.

In some parts of its range, we find reports where the depressions are caused by the apple seed chalcid. In the case of this insect, however, the depressions are usually more numerous and more generally grouped around the calyx end of the apple.

The primary injury (Fig. 7,8,9,10) done by this pest is the tunneling of the maggots around through the fleshy parts of the apples. Soon after hatching

the larvae begin to tunnel indiscriminately throughout the apple, causing it to ripen prematurely and usually to drop to the ground. This tunnel soon turns brown and the whole apple finally decays. Very often the small, white, very active maggot will be found imbedded in the pulp near the end of the burrow.

In the lighter colored apples, such as Yellow Transparent or Maiden Blush, the mines (Fig.9) are very often visible through the skin while in the later and darker skinned apples, they may very often be picked and graded as sound apples, only to be found full of dark irregular tunnels, when opened.

A few figures to show the amount of infestation would not be amiss here. A tree of early Harvest apples was used and the drops carefully picked up, examined, and counts made.

'Variety'	'August 12'		'August 25'		'August 31'		'Sept. 8'	
'	'Total'	'In-'	'Total'	'In-'	'Total'	'In-'	'Tot.'	'In-'
'	'	'fested'	'	'fested'	'	'fested'	'	'fested'
'Early'								
'Harvest'	178	163	147	97	97	22	25	8
'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'	'

In 1925 in some orchards there was nearly a 199% loss in the crop from certain trees while the total orchard loss was around 75% to 80%.

In 1926 after the 1925 clean-up, there was a slight decrease in the infestation.

LIFE-HISTORY AND HABITS

These insects hibernate over the winter as puparia, in the ground under their host tree. The adult flies begin emerging in the spring during the early part of July. The first adults collected in 1926 were on July 13th. One male was collected at Mr. Nichol's orchard about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of Stockbridge and one female was observed in Mr. Craig's orchard just southeast of the same place. However, pupae that were collected in September 1925, and placed in an indoor cage, began producing adults as early as June 20th, and continued to do so quite regularly throughout the summer, August 27th being the last emergence record from that cage. When the flies began to emerge in the field, the apples were about one and one-half inches in diameter.

The orchards that were used in the experiments during 1925, were of several different types. The orchard of Orville Jones was a small one of about a dozen trees and although there was tall grass throughout the lanes between the trees, the ground beneath them was cultivated and clear from weeds. Mr. Craig's orchard was divided into two parts, the smaller one on the south side of the road containing about two dozen trees. This place was not cared for and was grown up with grass and weeds until late in the summer when the grass was cut. The other and older part of the orchard was located north of the road. This latter part

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of the

implementation of the new curriculum on the learning outcomes of the students in the primary schools. The study is a quantitative research and the data are collected from the questionnaires and the interviews.

The study is conducted in the primary schools of the district of Ankara. The sample consists of 100 primary school teachers and 1000 primary school students.

The data are collected from the questionnaires and the interviews. The questionnaires are distributed to the teachers and the students and the interviews are conducted with the teachers.

The results of the study show that the implementation of the new curriculum has a positive effect on the learning outcomes of the students. The students' learning outcomes are improved in all areas of the curriculum.

The study also shows that the teachers' attitudes towards the new curriculum are positive. The teachers are satisfied with the implementation of the new curriculum and they believe that it will have a positive effect on the learning outcomes of the students.

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contained all old trees and was not bearing except for the two Tolman Sweets, Yellow Bellflower and one or two other varieties. The third orchard was at Mr. William Nichols. This was an orchard of about three dozen trees and sowed to potatoes and corn. The other orchard observed was that of Mr. Steffie. This was a large orchard and was well cared for and also contained a number of hogs that kept the ground cleaned up and free from windfalls. These orchards will be referred to throughout as Jones, Craig, etc. All of these orchards were quite heavily infested in 1925 with the exception of Mr. Steffie's, where only two trees of Ramblers were infested. One of these was cut down and the other thoroughly cultivated around the base.

The general emergence of the flies began about July 15th and they continued to be abundant in orchards around Stockbridge until August 23rd which was the last date any adults were observed in the field until September 27th when a few adults, probably belonging to the second generation, were found among the apples on the ground under a Maiden Blush tree.

An interesting fact concerning the emergence of the flies is that they do not seem to migrate very far from the place of emergence. The adults seem to fly directly up into the tree from under which they have emerged. If fruit is present they

are almost sure to stay right there. So it would seem that distribution over long distances is not by wing, but by being transported in infested fruit.

During the period that the adults are at large, they are continually feeding, seeming mostly in search of moisture. During the dry spell in July, many of the flies were observed seemingly lapping up the exudation from fire-blight cankers and also around the frass thrown out by codling moth larvae. They were apparently in search of water, as much water seems to be needed. Flies in emergence cages without water die within a few days while those in cages where an abundance of water is available live for several weeks. Early in the morning, or immediately after a shower, the flies were observed drinking the moisture that was still standing in the hollow at the stem end of the apple.

Both sexes do a large amount of feeding, both on the surface of the fruit and also on the surface of the leaves, but mostly on the former. Their methods of feeding are very similar to those of the house-fly, and the structure of the mouthparts is also very similar. At times the fly walks over the surface of the fruit, with the head slightly raised, and at such times a drop of saliva may be seen forced out between the lobes of the labella. The fly then applies this droplet to the surface of the fruit so that it seemed

• *Staphylococcus aureus*

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pyogenes* (group A streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus agalactiae* (group B streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* (group G streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus mitis* (group D streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus salivarius*

• *Streptococcus viridans* (group F streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus thermophilus* (group L streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus faecalis* (group C streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus faecium* (group E streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus bovis* (group H streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus equi* (group I streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus equinus* (group J streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus suis* (group K streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* (group L streptococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae*

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

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• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

• *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (pneumococcus)

to be spread over a small surface by means of the labella. Evidently this fluid acts as a solvent for it is immediately taken up and the process repeated on a nearby spot. Only occasionally have the flies been observed going through this feeding procedure on the leaves. Most of the time spent on the leaves is devoted to rest. While emerging from the cages in the insectary, the flies were supplied daily with small pieces of apple on which they seemed to feed almost constantly.

In the field, the adult flies were nearly always found on the sunny side of the tree and as the sun moved around, the flies moved along with it, always keeping on the warm side.

The mouthparts of this insect, as was stated above, are very similar in structure to those of the house-fly. In view of this fact, I take the liberty of quoting an excellent description of the mouthparts and feeding habits of this insect, taken from Dr. Howard's book -"The House-fly - Disease Carrier" (Page 27), since the structure of mouthparts and method of feeding plays a major role in the control of insect pests.

"The mouthparts are very complicated, but form in the main, a proboscis which is not fitted for piercing, but for sucking. This organ can be retracted and expanded to a certain extent. It is

somewhat complicated in structure and consists of an upper and lower portion, the upper portion bearing two curved bristly lobes. The lower portion or true naustellum expands at the tip into two lobes which are called the oral lobes. On their under surface, they have transverse chitinous bars which are called false tracheae (pseudotracheae). The presence of these hard ridges under the oral lobes fit it to a certain extent for rasping solid food. The orifice to the naustellum occurs between the lobes."

"In feeding upon fluid or semi-fluid substances, the oral lobes are simply applied to the surface and the fluid is sucked up. When, however, they feed upon soluble solids, the process is somewhat different. Dr. Graham Smith has carefully watched them feeding upon crystals of brown sugar and has done this through the Zeiss binocular microscope. He states that the oral lobes of the proboscis are very widely opened and closely applied to the sugar. Fluid (saliva) seems to be first deposited on the sugar and then strong sucking movements are made. Dr. Graham Smith watched a fly sucking an apparently dry layer of sputum. It put out large quantities of saliva from its proboscis and seemed to suck the fluid in and out until a fairly large area of the dry layer of sputum was quite moist; then as much as possible was sucked up and the fly moved to another

spot. The same observer noticed that flies which had the opportunity of feeding either on fluid or partly dried milk, often chose the drier portions and states that under natural conditions they can often be seen sucking the dried remains near the top of a milk jug. They constantly apply their mouth-parts to the surface over which they are walking, attempting to suck up some nutrition and under certain conditions, the imprints of their oral lobes can afterwards be made out under the lens."

It was observed that the apple maggot adult also "tastes" the surface of everything. Even when placed in vials or cyanide bottles, they immediately began "tasting" the sides of the glass.

Oviposition was also carefully observed and studied both in the field and with caged adults. On August 2nd. the first females were observed ovipositing and it was very easy to carefully study the process since the insect was very tame and did not object to being scrutinized with a hand lens at close range so long as no sudden movements were made. The female was observed to alight upon the apple and in some cases it turned around several times and sometimes even side stepped once or twice. Then she extended the ovipositor and stroked it with her hind legs. Then after slowly raising it she lowers it and places the tip on the surface of the fruit. Rising

up on her legs, she slowly works it into the flesh of the fruit at an angle of about 45° . The process of cutting the opening and laying the egg requires a little more than a minute, by actual timing one minute and seven seconds. After the ovipositor has been forced in to the desired depth, the fly remains nearly motionless during the last twenty-five or thirty seconds. During this time the egg is passing out into the apple. Once the egg was observed passing by the open space on the side of the sheath that is not protected by tubercles. When the egg was in place, the ovipositor was quickly withdrawn and often she was seen to turn around as if to inspect the puncture, or it might have been to sip up some of the juice that had flowed out through the opening. While oviposition was taking place the wings were held at an angle of about 30° and slightly curved downward at the tip.

When first made, the punctures are inconspicuous, but soon turn dark, leaving a small brown speck on the surface of the fruit. Most of the eggs observed were laid on the sides rather than on the ends of the fruit.

No definite check was made on the number of eggs laid by a single individual during 1926 so I have taken the liberty of quoting Illingworth (1912, p.143) who made an extensive study of the internal anatomy of the adult fly.

"In order that the number of eggs produced during the lifetime of a single individual might be shown with some degree of exactness, careful dissections were made of ovaries of mature females. Masses of tracheae and connective tissue surround these organs, making it rather difficult to separate and extend the egg-tubes so that they can be studied under the microscope. The great number of egg-tubes was at once apparent, there being twenty-four in each ovary. As in flies generally, the nurse cells are contained within the so-called egg, and the egg-tube is composed merely of a terminal filament, a germarium, and a series of eggs gradually increasing in size up to the fully developed form. Surrounding each series is a delicate membrane, so fragile that it is a difficult task to separate the egg-tubes from the entangling tracheae and connective tissue without dislodging the fully developed eggs; only occasionally is an entire series with the terminal mature egg separated. Usually after the tracheae are removed, the ripe eggs are seen scattered about and free from the enclosing membrane of the egg-tube.

The maximum number of eggs observed in an egg-tube was six, although often there were only four or five besides the germarium. Professor Harvy (1889) figures six or seven in the series. However, the total number of eggs produced is in no way dependent

on the number found in the ovaries at any one time, even though a large figure is obtained if five to seven be taken as an estimate for each of the forty-eight egg-tubes. As was discovered in later dissections, the germaria are constantly producing new eggs as long as the flies are active. Again, none of the dissections of flies that had been ovipositing for some time showed shorter egg-tubes, except when the flies were in poor condition through confinement. Hence, the writer would conclude that the flies are able to continue ovipositing during the remainder of their activity after they once begin, three or four hundred eggs being a moderate estimate for each female."

Since the first adult flies were observed on July 13th and the first oviposition was recorded on August 2nd, it would seem to take about two weeks for the ovaries to reach maturity. Although on the date when the first oviposition was observed upon cutting into the fruit, a number of very small larvae, one or two days old, were found. Illingworth also reaches the same conclusion that about two weeks were needed for the maturing of the ovaries. Flies emerging September 28th and 29th, that were placed in cages and fed daily, began mating in October.

Soon after oviposition and about the time that the larvae begin to hatch, the oviposition spots

1. The first step in the process of the development of a new product is the identification of a market need. This is often done through market research, which can be conducted in a variety of ways, including surveys, focus groups, and interviews. The goal is to understand what customers want and need, and to identify any gaps in the current market.
2. Once a market need has been identified, the next step is to develop a concept for a new product. This involves brainstorming ideas and creating a rough sketch of the product. The concept should be based on the market need and should be something that is novel and different from existing products.
3. The third step is to create a prototype of the product. This is a physical model of the product that can be used to test the concept and to get feedback from potential customers. The prototype should be made of a material that is easy to work with and that is inexpensive.
4. The fourth step is to test the prototype. This is done by showing the prototype to a group of people and asking them for their feedback. The feedback should be used to make improvements to the product.
5. The fifth step is to create a business plan for the product. This is a document that outlines the business model, the marketing strategy, and the financial projections. The business plan should be used to attract investors and to guide the development of the product.
6. The sixth step is to manufacture the product. This involves finding a manufacturer and ordering the materials and components needed to make the product. The manufacturer should be chosen based on their reputation, their ability to meet the deadline, and their cost.
7. The seventh step is to market the product. This involves creating a marketing plan and implementing it. The marketing plan should include a target market, a distribution strategy, and a promotional strategy. The promotional strategy should include advertising, public relations, and sales promotion.
8. The eighth step is to sell the product. This involves finding a sales channel and selling the product to customers. The sales channel can be a retail store, a distributor, or a direct sales team.
9. The ninth step is to provide customer support. This involves answering customer questions and solving customer problems. Customer support is an important part of the product development process, as it helps to build customer loyalty and to improve the product.
10. The tenth step is to evaluate the product. This involves assessing the product's performance, its market acceptance, and its profitability. The evaluation should be used to make decisions about whether to continue with the product or to discontinue it.

turn brownish and as the apples develop, may form a dimpled surface. This surface is similar to that produced by the Red-bug and by aphids and may easily be confused with them until one gets to know the difference.

To determine the incubation period of the egg, two methods were used. One of the methods used by Illingworth consisted in placing the egg on a piece of apple in a hollow ground glass slide. Only a few eggs were hatched in this way, but not very good results were obtained. The other method was to mark the apples at oviposition and then place cheese cloth bags over the apples. Eggs were recorded as hatching in from two to seven days, depending upon the variety of apple and the temperature.

Soon after hatching, the maggots begin their tunneling within the apple. At first the maggot may work directly under the skin before going down into the flesh, or it may head directly for the interior of the fleshy part. The tunnels are very irregular and may easily be distinguished from curculio or codling moth work as they are clean tunnels and without the frass of the codling moth or the corkiness and dirtyness of the curculio channels. Besides, the apple maggot nearly always confines the major part of its work to the fleshy

part of the apple and very seldom works around the core as does the codling moth.

The length of time for the maggot to come to maturity varies greatly with the variety of apple. Apples were labeled when oviposition took place and when larvae emerged. These figures are given in table below:

TABLE SHOWING LENGTH OF LARVAL PERIOD

Variety	Date of Hatching (approximate)	Date of Emergence	Larval Period (days)
Yellow Transparent	July 2	July 17	15
	July 8	July 21	13
Early Harvest	July 2	July 19	17
Primate	July 5	July 19	14
MacIntosh	Aug. 20	Sept. 8	20
Pound Sweet	Aug. 20	Sept. 15	27

In Starks Delicious, oviposition was observed on August 23rd. and up to October 9th. no maggots had left the fruit. The same was true with Grimes Golden.

Some of the fruit growers who stored apples over the winter, told me that their Northern Spies, Starks Delicious and Grimes Golden, as well as other winter apples that were placed in storage in the fall and

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1033-1036.

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1039-1043.

1. *Chlorophyll a* and *Chlorophyll b* were determined by the method of Lichtenthaler and Sponholz (1980). The total chlorophyll content was determined by the method of Arar and Johnson (1977). The carotenoid content was determined by the method of Lichtenthaler and Sponholz (1980). The total carotenoid content was determined by the method of Arar and Johnson (1977). The total protein content was determined by the method of Lowry et al. (1951). The total lipid content was determined by the method of Bligh and Dyer (1959). The total carbohydrate content was determined by the method of Dubois and Gilles (1950). The total nucleic acid content was determined by the method of Burton (1956). The total ash content was determined by the method of AOAC (1970). The total water-soluble carbohydrate content was determined by the method of Dubois and Gilles (1950). The total water-soluble protein content was determined by the method of Lowry et al. (1951). The total water-soluble lipid content was determined by the method of Bligh and Dyer (1959). The total water-soluble nucleic acid content was determined by the method of Burton (1956). The total water-soluble ash content was determined by the method of AOAC (1970).

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1033-1036.

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1. *Chlorophyll a* (Chl *a*) and *Chlorophyll b* (Chl *b*) were determined by the method of Arar and Collins (1971) using a Shimadzu UV-160U ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometer. The concentration of Chl *a* and Chl *b* was expressed as $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ of the sample.

which seemed to be perfectly sound when put in, were literally "shot full of holes" when taken out for use in the winter.

It seems that not only the ripening of the fruit and temperature, but also the texture of the fruit influences the larval period of this pest. In most cases, it was found that the presence of maggots in the fruit cause the latter to drop through premature ripening. In one case, however, a tree of Greasy Pippins was found infested and emergence holes of the maggots were found in the decaying apples still hanging on the tree. When leaving the fruit, each larva cuts an irregular hole in the skin. This exit hole is about two millimeters in diameter. It was noticed that in early, soft-pulped apples or where several larvae were present, the hole was very ragged, but in the later, hard apples, the hole might be quite clean out.

Soon after the apple drops, the larvae leave and enter the ground to pupate. (Fig. 11 & 12) Several writers have advocated picking up "drops" twice a week in summer in an attempt to keep most of the larvae from entering the ground. This does not always prove effective, however. In the case of several trees of Early Harvest apples, the orchard was visited on Tuesday at which time 178 apples picked up, apples that had fallen since Sunday afternoon. Of these,

163 were found to contain from one to ten maggots apiece and 125 of the 163 contained exit holes, so it would seem that the larvae had left the fruit very soon after the fruit dropped, as no exit holes were found on infested apples still on the tree.

On the other hand, in the case of a number of decaying "drops" examined, pupae were found in the tunnels in the fruit.

Upon leaving the fruit, the larvae burrow into the ground and pupate very soon after reaching the desired depth. Pupa have been dug up from a depth of inches below the surface. These were supposed to have passed the winter as pupa, to emerge the following spring as adults. Records are to be found in literature from other states, of a second brood being found. Experiments were started to find out whether this was true for the state of Michigan.

On August 3, 1926, 137 Yellow Transparent and Early Harvest apples were placed in a cage in the insectary. The records from this cage are as follows:

Sept.	19	-	2 males emerged
"	21	-	1 female emerged
"	22	-	8 males, 2 females emerged
"	26	-	4 males, 5 females emerged
Oct.	3	-	1 male emerged
"	9	-	2 females emerged.

On August, 1926 another cage of 151 apples of the same variety was placed in a cage out of doors. On September 22nd, 3 males and a single female were

found in the cage. These were the only emergences.

On August 23rd, 1926, a cage containing 50 Primates was prepared. By September 10th all the maggots had left the apples with the exception of one or two that pupated within the apple itself. The soil in this cage became dry and when examined on October 11th, all the puparia were dead. It would seem that a certain amount of moisture is demanded in order that the puparia may remain alive.

It would seem likely that about a third of the flies emerge from larvae developed early in the season of the same year, the remainder hibernating over the winter in the ground as puparia to emerge the following spring.

It also seems probable that some of the pupae lay over for two years instead of emerging the following spring. The reason for thinking this is the fact that at Mr. Jones' place every apple was picked up daily during the season of 1925, although this year there has been quite a heavy infestation.

1. Introduction

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various methods which have been proposed for the determination of the rate of reaction of a substance with a reagent. The methods are classified into two main groups: (a) methods based on the measurement of the rate of change of concentration of the reactants or products, and (b) methods based on the measurement of the rate of change of some physical property which is related to the concentration of the reactants or products. The first group includes the methods of initial rates, the method of integrated rate laws, and the method of half-lives. The second group includes the methods of conductance, viscosity, refractive index, and optical density.
2. The second part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various factors which influence the rate of reaction. These factors are: (a) the concentration of the reactants, (b) the temperature, (c) the presence of a catalyst, (d) the surface area of the reactants, and (e) the nature of the reactants. The effect of each of these factors is discussed in detail, and the various laws which govern the rate of reaction are presented.
3. The third part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various theories which have been proposed to explain the rate of reaction. These theories are: (a) the collision theory, (b) the transition state theory, and (c) the steady state theory. The collision theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of collisions between the reactant molecules which have sufficient energy to overcome the activation energy barrier. The transition state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of molecules which are in the transition state at any given time. The steady state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the rate of formation of the transition state.
4. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various applications of the rate of reaction. These applications are: (a) the determination of the activation energy of a reaction, (b) the determination of the order of a reaction, (c) the determination of the rate constant of a reaction, and (d) the determination of the half-life of a reaction. The various methods which are used for the determination of these quantities are discussed in detail.
5. The fifth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various factors which influence the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These factors are: (a) the concentration of the reactants, (b) the temperature, (c) the presence of a catalyst, (d) the surface area of the reactants, and (e) the nature of the reactants. The effect of each of these factors is discussed in detail, and the various laws which govern the rate of reaction are presented.
6. The sixth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various theories which have been proposed to explain the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These theories are: (a) the collision theory, (b) the transition state theory, and (c) the steady state theory. The collision theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of collisions between the reactant molecules which have sufficient energy to overcome the activation energy barrier. The transition state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of molecules which are in the transition state at any given time. The steady state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the rate of formation of the transition state.
7. The seventh part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various applications of the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These applications are: (a) the determination of the activation energy of a reaction, (b) the determination of the order of a reaction, (c) the determination of the rate constant of a reaction, and (d) the determination of the half-life of a reaction. The various methods which are used for the determination of these quantities are discussed in detail.
8. The eighth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various factors which influence the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These factors are: (a) the concentration of the reactants, (b) the temperature, (c) the presence of a catalyst, (d) the surface area of the reactants, and (e) the nature of the reactants. The effect of each of these factors is discussed in detail, and the various laws which govern the rate of reaction are presented.
9. The ninth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various theories which have been proposed to explain the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These theories are: (a) the collision theory, (b) the transition state theory, and (c) the steady state theory. The collision theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of collisions between the reactant molecules which have sufficient energy to overcome the activation energy barrier. The transition state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the number of molecules which are in the transition state at any given time. The steady state theory is based on the assumption that the rate of reaction is proportional to the rate of formation of the transition state.
10. The tenth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the various applications of the rate of reaction in a complex reaction. These applications are: (a) the determination of the activation energy of a reaction, (b) the determination of the order of a reaction, (c) the determination of the rate constant of a reaction, and (d) the determination of the half-life of a reaction. The various methods which are used for the determination of these quantities are discussed in detail.

NATURAL ENEMIES

The natural enemies of Rhagoletis pomonella are very few, in fact, only two are reported from this insect.

The first of these is a small hymenopterous parasite, Anaphoidea conotracheli, Girault. This insect is an egg parasite of the plum and grape curculio as well as of the apple-maggot. Nothing is known of its life-history and as far as data are obtainable, it has only been reared from material collected near Wallingford, Connecticut.

The only other parasite of this insect that has been recorded, belongs to the family, Braconidae. This one is Opius melleus, Gahan (of which Biosteres rhagoletis, Richmond is a synonym). Adults of this species were reared from infested blueberries collected in Washington County, Maine in 1914.

CONTROL MEASURES

The control of the apple maggot in Michigan presents a problem that as yet seems to be unsolved, for which reason the following measures, suggested as possible means of reducing the ravages of the pest, are presented merely as recommendations rather than as proven control practices. The three most important measures suggested are: spraying, - picking up drops, - running hogs or other fruit eating animals in the orchard. It would seem from the study of the feeding habits of this and other fruit-flies that they might be controlled by the use of a poison spray applied to the leaves and surfaces of the fruit in the ordinary way. The adult flies are known to sip dew from leaf and fruit surfaces and many may be killed by the application of arsenical sprays. Such sprays should be applied on the first appearance of the adult flies in order that the flies may be destroyed before the egg laying commences.

SPRAYING WITH ARSENICALS

In other states, fairly satisfactory control is said to have been obtained by the use of an arsenate of lead spray ($\frac{3}{4}$ lb. to 50 gal. of water) applied very lightly. Accordingly, attempts were made to control the fly with such a spray in the vicinity of Stockbridge, but with rather indifferent success.

In the Jones orchard (about 15 trees), the trees were sprayed with arsenate of lead ($\frac{3}{4}$ lb. to 50 gal. of water) and a single Grimes Golden located at a moderate distance from the others received a similar spray differing merely in that an excess of lime was added. These trees seemed to profit by the spray until late in the season. During the latter part of August, the minute tunnels of the maggots appeared quite plentifully in the fruit of the single tree of Grimes Golden. The sprays were put on every week beginning June 23rd until the Yellow Transparents began to ripen late in July. It would appear from these few tests that spraying alone produced little improvement.

In another orchard, that of Mr. Nichols, the trees were sprayed with arsenate of lead ($\frac{3}{4}$ lb. to 50 gal.) with the addition of kayso. This orchard was heavily infested in 1925 and did not show much

improvement in 1926 at which time Yellow Transparents and Baldwins were heavily infested.

In Mr. Steffie's orchard a number of sprays of arsenate of lead were applied and hogs were allowed the run of the orchard throughout the summer. In this orchard a very marked improvement was noted except in the case of a fall Pippin tree located in another field where no hogs were kept.

THE USE OF POISON BAITS APPLIED AS SPRAYS

Experiments in the use of poison baits applied as sprays have been made elsewhere, not only when used against the apple-maggot, but also against other fruit-flies having similar habits. The Olive fruit-fly has been studied in some detail and a bait made as follows, recommended by Berlese (1907):

65	parts	molasses
31	"	honey
2	"	glycerine
2	"	arsenate of soda.

Dr. Berlese reports having obtained excellent results from the use of this spray.

FERROUS SULPHATE

Cartright, in 1904, recommends having tried ferrous sulphate against the larvae and pupae of Trypeta capitata working on oranges. The material was sprinkled on the ground under the trees after which the ground was well watered. No reports as to the effectiveness of this treatment have been recorded.

THE DESTRUCTION OF "DROPS"

For many years, it has been believed that immediate destruction of all apples as soon as they drop to the ground would destroy the larvae therein and control the pest. This treatment should be started early in the season as soon as the first apples begin to drop, since it is known that the maggots leave the fruit very soon after the apples reach the ground. In one orchard in Michigan where the infestation was heavy during 1925, the apples were systematically picked up during that season and a general clean-up was practiced. In this orchard, the infestation of 1926 was markedly reduced.

Another method of accomplishing the same result consists of allowing hogs or sheep to run in the orchard during the summer months and depending on

these animals to clean up the fallen fruit as fast as it reaches the ground. Hogs are preferable to sheep because hogs do not browse and sheep are liable to injure the lower branches which may be within reach of the ground.

SUMMARY

The apple maggot, Rhagoletis pomonella, a native insect, was first described in 1968 by Walsh, from material received from Massachusetts, Connecticut and Long Island. The first record for Michigan was made by Dr. A. J. Cook in 1884 and its ravages were recorded for several years in that state after which time it is not often mentioned in published reports until 1924 when it again began to be the cause of serious losses in the apple crop. It is now distributed throughout Michigan as well as the north central and northeastern part of the United States as well as Canada. The adults emerge in Michigan during the first two weeks of July and remain at large depositing eggs in the fruit most of the summer. The infested apples fall to the ground and the larvae bury themselves to pupate. Some of these early individuals, at least some of those from early apples (Yellow Transparent and Early Harvest), pupate and emerge in September resulting in a partial second generation. The adults of this second generation oviposit in the late winter apples and the larvae work in these after the apples are placed in storage.

The adult is a small two-winged fly belonging to the family Trypetidae and to the genus Rhagoletis. There are also two very closely related species,

1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of the

temperature on the rate of reaction.

2. Materials and Methods

The reaction was carried out in a beaker of 100 cm³ capacity.

The reactants were weighed accurately.

The temperature of the reaction mixture was measured with a thermometer.

The time taken for the reaction to complete was recorded.

The experiment was repeated at different temperatures.

The results are shown in the following table.

The rate of reaction increases with increasing temperature.

This is because the molecules have more energy and move faster.

Therefore, the frequency of collisions between the molecules increases.

As a result, the rate of reaction increases.

The experiment was carried out at 20°C, 30°C, 40°C and 50°C.

The results are shown in the following table.

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R. zephyria and R. symphoricarpi which occur in the western United States and Canada and which were once thought to be merely varieties of pomonella.

R. pomonella has been recorded from apples, haws, crabapples and blueberries, while similar maggots have been collected from plum, chokecherry and wild grapes, although no adults have been as yet bred from these later hosts.

^{Only two}
~~No~~ parasites apparently have been reared from this insect.

Recommendations for reducing the ravages of the insect are:

1. - Clean cultural methods of picking up and destroying all drops.
2. - Pasturing hogs and sheep in the orchard to clean up drops.
3. - Spraying with arsenate of lead ($\frac{3}{4}$ lb. to 50 gal. of water) immediately after the emergence of the flies.

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1. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of the proposed system on the performance of the system.

The study is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the system architecture, Section 3 describes the experimental setup, Section 4 describes the results, and Section 5 concludes the study.

The system architecture is shown in Figure 1. The system consists of a client and a server. The client is responsible for sending requests to the server, and the server is responsible for processing the requests and returning the results to the client.

The experimental setup is described in Section 3. The system was tested on a variety of different workloads, and the results are shown in Section 4. The results show that the proposed system significantly improves the performance of the system compared to the baseline system.

The results of the study are shown in Figure 2. The figure shows the performance of the system for different workloads. The proposed system consistently outperforms the baseline system across all workloads.

The study concludes that the proposed system is a significant improvement over the baseline system, and it is recommended for use in future systems.

The study is limited by the fact that it only tested the system on a single platform, and future work should investigate the system's performance on other platforms.

The study also found that the system's performance is sensitive to the configuration of the system, and future work should investigate the optimal configuration for the system.

The study is a preliminary study, and future work should investigate the system's performance in more detail.

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and thus serve as resting place for flies.
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food, Crataegus. Spread is slow. One
generation annually. New locality,
Dyberry, Pa.

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the 1990s, the number of people in the world who are under 15 years of age is expected to increase from 1.1 billion to 1.5 billion. The number of people aged 65 and over is expected to increase from 250 million to 450 million. The number of people aged 15 and over is expected to increase from 3.5 billion to 4.5 billion. The number of people aged 15 and over is expected to increase from 3.5 billion to 4.5 billion. The number of people aged 15 and over is expected to increase from 3.5 billion to 4.5 billion.

Figure 1. The effect of the number of trials on the number of correct responses. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses in all cases. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses in all cases. The number of correct responses was significantly higher than the number of incorrect responses in all cases.

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1. The first step in the process is to identify the problem or issue that needs to be addressed. This involves gathering information and understanding the context of the problem.

2. Once the problem is identified, the next step is to define the objectives and goals of the project. This helps to clarify what needs to be achieved and provides a clear direction for the team.

3. The third step is to develop a plan or strategy to address the problem. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller, manageable tasks and determining the resources needed to complete each task.

4. The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the strategy into action and monitoring progress to ensure that the project is on track.

5. The final step is to evaluate the results of the project. This involves assessing the outcomes against the objectives and goals and identifying any areas for improvement.

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5. Finally, the fifth step is to evaluate the results of the project. This involves assessing the outcomes against the objectives and goals to determine the effectiveness of the intervention.

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First examples taken in B.C. Five specimens of this species collected in southern California, 1894, described as R. zephрина, since not found in Ca. but observed in Colorado and eastern border of state of Washington.

[illegible]

• **Prevalence** is the proportion of a population that has a disease at a particular point in time. It is a snapshot of the disease in the population at a particular point in time. It is a measure of the burden of disease in a population.

[illegible]

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It is noted that one of the insects that cannot be reached by such sprays is apple maggot. To exterminate this pest, fallen apples should be picked up, and destroyed, sheep or pigs should be pastured and then a spray is given.

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cluding apple maggot.
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May resemble the work of apple maggot flies.
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1917, Truro, No.3, January 1918, pp.37-41.
Table gives record of emergence of adults
of apple maggot in 1917 for outdoor cages.
It was observed that 30% of the entire
emergence took place in second year, a
habit that would enable insect to live thru
a total failure of its food plants for one
year. Oviposition may take place in as
short a time as four days after emergence.
Percentage of fertility of eggs varies
greatly with variety of host, and the
season. The tests of previous year re-
garding the effect upon the pupae (Review
Ser. A, Vol.IV, p.370 & Vol.V, p.269) were
completed, and confirmed the opinion that
this method of dealing with the pest is
unsatisfactory.

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cheaper, but cannot be used above owing to injury to foliage. The results with dust sprays were again almost as good as those from liquid sprays, though in some orchards examined, the liquid spray produced much cleaner fruit.

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common Snowberry, Symphoricarpos racemosus.
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Opius downesi, from pupae of Rhagoletis
pomonella, Opius richmondi and Opius lectus,
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and may have same host, viz. Rhagoletis
pomonella.
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There may be biological races of this fly,
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PLATES

Figure 3 - Larvae and pupae of Apple
Maggot

Figure 4 - Adult flies of Apple Maggot
Female at left
Male at right



FIG. 3.



FIG. 4.

Figure 5 - Surface of apple showing egg-punctures

**Figure 6 - Enlarged portion of apple showing
eggpunctures.**

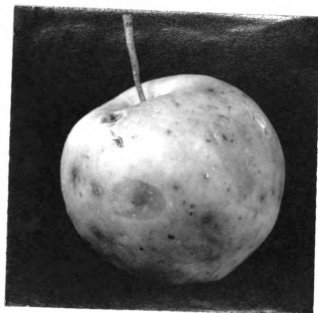


FIG. 5.



FIG. 6.

Figure 7 - Cross section of apple showing the tunnels of maggots, also a maggot emerging from fruit.

Figure 8 - Cross section of apple showing tunnel of maggot, also maggot emerging from the fruit.

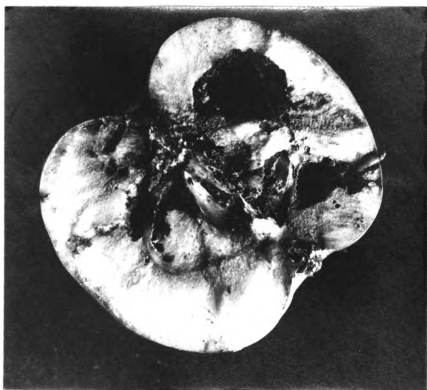


FIG. 7.

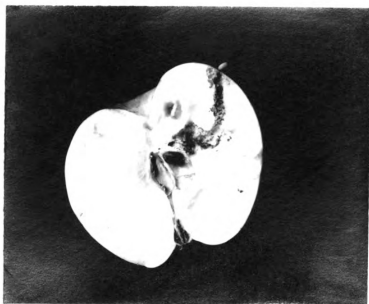


FIG. 8.

Figure 9 - Tunnel of maggot showing through
the skin of a Maiden Blush.

Figure 10 - Cross section of apple showing
tunnels of maggots,



FIG. 9.

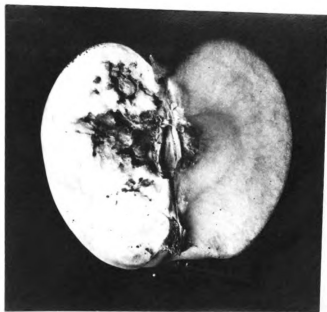


FIG. 10.

Figure 11 - Surface of apple showing emergence
holes of maggots.

Figure 12 - Enlarged portion of apple showing
a maggot emerging.

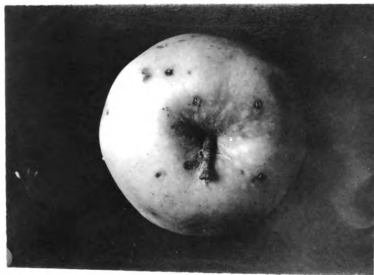


FIG. 11.



FIG. 12.

ROOM USE ONLY

