that Snow Buntings migrating through coastal areas in the subarctic where spring melt has occurred are not only granivores, but also herbivores.

I thank Fred Cooke for permission to use the Snow Bunting data from the La Pérouse Bay Bird List (1980 to 1984), and for commenting on the manuscript. I also wish to thank Euan Dunn, Peter Ewins, Bob Jefferies, and Peter Kotanen for providing valuable comments, and Thomas Custer who reviewed the manuscript. This work was carried out while the author was supported by a Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada Postgraduate Scholarship.

LITERATURE CITED

- BAZELY, D. R. 1984. Responses of salt marsh vegetation to grazing by Lesser Snow Geese. M.Sc. thesis, Univ. of Toronto, Canada.
- CARGILL, S. M., AND R. L. JEFFERIES. 1984. The effects of grazing by Lesser Snow Geese on the vegetation of a sub-arctic salt marsh. J. Appl. Ecol. 21: 669–686.
- CUSTER, T. W., AND F. A. PITELKA. 1975. Correction factors for digestion rates for prey taken by Snow Buntings (*Plectrophenax nivalis*). Condor 77:210– 212.
- JEFFERIES, R. L. 1977. The vegetation of salt marshes at some coastal sites in Arctic North America. J. Ecol. 65:661-672.
- KOTANEN, P., AND R. L. JEFFERIES. In press. The leaf and shoot demography of grazed and ungrazed plants of *Carex subspathacea*. J. Ecol.

- Løvenskiold, H. L. 1964. Avifauna Svalbardensis. Norsk Polarinstitutt, Oslo.
- MATTSON, W. J. 1980. Herbivory in relation to plant nitrogen content. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 1:119– 61.
- MILLER, P. C., P. J. WEBBER, W. C. OECHEL, AND L. L. TIESZEN. 1980. Biophysical processes and primary production, pp. 66–101. *In J. Brown*, P. C. Miller, L. L. Tieszen, and F. L. Bunnel [eds.], An arctic ecosystem: the coastal tundra at Barrow, Alaska. U.S. IBP Synth. Ser. 12. Dowden, Hutchinson and Ross, PA.
- NETHERSOLE-THOMPSON, D. 1966. The Snow Bunting. Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh.
- PARMELEE, D. F. 1968. The Snow Bunting, p. 1652– 1675. In O. L. Austin [ed.], Life histories of North American Cardinals, Grosbeaks, Buntings, Towhees, Finches, Sparrows and allies. U.S. Nat. Mus. Bull. 237.
- POLUNIN, N. 1940. Botany of the Canadian Eastern Arctic Part I: Pteridophyta and Spermatophyta. National Museum of Canada Bulletin #92 in Biological Series #24, Ottawa.
- PORTENKO, L. A. 1973. The Birds of the Chukotsk Peninsula and Wrangel Island. Vol. 2. Leningrad. [Russian].
- ROBBINS, C. T. 1983. Wildlife feeding and nutrition. Academic Press, New York.
- WATSON, A. 1957. Birds in the Cumberland Peninsula, Baffin Island. Can. Field-Nat. 71:87-109.

The Condor 89:192-194 © The Cooper Ornithological Society 1987

THE POSSIBLE SIGNIFICANCE OF LARGE EYES IN THE RED-LEGGED KITTIWAKE¹

ROBERT W. STORER

Museum of Zoology and Department of Biology, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109

Key words: Arctic gulls; kittiwakes; vision; eye size; adaptation; sclerotic rings.

The Red-legged Kittiwake (*Rissa brevirostris*) differs conspicuously in leg color and bill length from its congener, the Black-legged Kittiwake (*R. tridactyla*). These well known characters serve as the bases for the species' English and scientific names, respectively. In contrast, a third difference, the much larger eye and opening in the sclerotic ring of the former species has not, to my knowledge, been reported in the literature.

This difference can be seen by comparing skulls of the two species (Fig. 1), but is more conspicuous when comparing the sclerotic rings (Fig. 2). The mean diameters of the openings within the sclerotic rings are 11.8 mm and 10.0 mm in the Red-legged and Blacklegged kittiwakes, respectively. (For distribution of measurements, see Fig. 3.) This difference is even greater proportionally because the former species is smaller than the latter. (Mean humerus length of 6 Red-legged Kittiwakes is 81.3 mm as opposed to 88.6 for 10 Blacklegged Kittiwakes—sexes equally represented.)

Large eyes are considered an adaptation for noctur-

¹ Received 21 April 1986. Final acceptance 29 September 1986.

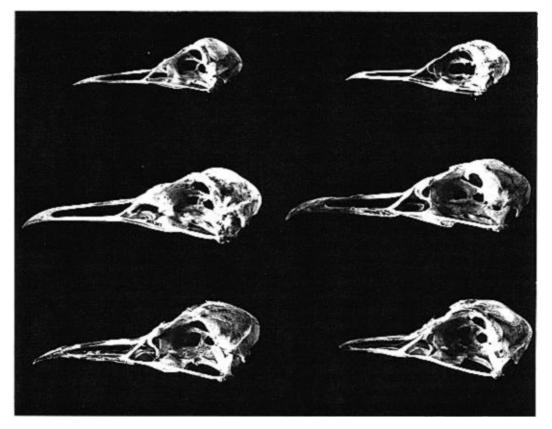


FIGURE 1. Skulls of migratory gulls (left column, top to bottom: Bonaparte's Gull, Ring-billed Gull, Blacklegged Kittiwake) and of gulls wintering in the Arctic (right column, top to bottom: Ross' Gull, Ivory Gull, Redlegged Kittiwake).

nal or crepuscular vision (Walls 1942); yet I can find no evidence that the Red-legged Kittiwake is crepuscular or nocturnal like the Swallow-tailed Gull (Creagrus furcatus) of the Galapagos (Snow and Snow 1968). Furthermore, Gabrielson and Lincoln (1959) remark that "it is a common sight to see mixed companies of the two species [of kittiwakes] working on schools of small fish or on concentrations of other marine life." The two species are broadly sympatric only during the breeding season when days are long and extending the feeding period may not be important. On the other hand, the major wintering ground of the Red-legged Kittiwake is within the Bering Sea (Gabrielson and Lincoln 1959). Here, nights and twilight periods are long, and I suggest that extending the foraging period through greater visual sensitivity during these periods could bestow a strong selective advantage on birds with larger eyes.

To test this hypothesis, skulls and sclerotic rings of two other gulls that winter in the Arctic, Ross' Gull (*Rhodostethia rosea*) and the Ivory Gull (*Pagophila eburnea*) were compared with those of migratory gulls of similar size, Bonaparte's Gull (*Larus philadelphia*) and the Ring-billed Gull (*L. delawarensis*), respectively. Skulls of these are shown in Figure 1, in which the relatively large orbits of the two Arctic gulls can be seen. This is corroborated by the larger size of the openings in the sclerotic rings of these species (Fig. 3). As in the case of the kittiwakes, this difference is proportionally greater because the Arctic-wintering species are smaller than the migratory ones with which they are compared. (Mean humerus lengths: Ross' Gull, 59.8

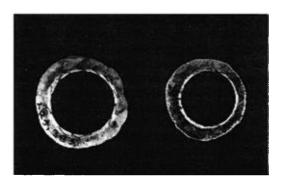


FIGURE 2. Sclerotic rings of the Red-legged Kittiwake (left) and the Black-legged Kittiwake.

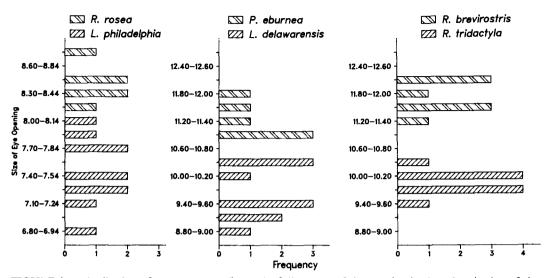


FIGURE 3. Distribution of measurements (in mm) of diameters of the opening in the sclerotic ring of six species of gulls. In each graph, the measurements for the Arctic-wintering species are greater than those of the somewhat larger species wintering to the south. ("Frequency" is the number of specimens.)

[n = 8]; Bonaparte's Gull, 66.4 [n = 10]; Ivory Gull, 91.2 [n = 6]; and Ring-billed Gull, 99.1 mm [n = 10].)

From these data, it is evident that the three gulls wintering in the Arctic have relatively larger eyes than those wintering farther south. A detailed study of the morphology of the eyes of these species and comparisons with the eyes of gulls wintering at lower latitudes should prove interesting.

I thank Declan Troy of LGL Ltd. for providing specimens, David Bay for preparing the photographs, Philip Myers for preparing the graphs, Allan J. Baker, Henri Ouellet, and Richard L. Zusi for making available specimens in the Royal Ontario Museum, the National Museum of Natural Sciences, Ottawa, and National Museum of Natural History available to me, Douglas Bell and Ned K. Johnson for providing measurements of specimens in the Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, and William R. Dawson, Steven M. Goodman, Michael D. Kern, Storrs L. Olson, Robert B. Payne, and Richard O. Prum for offering helpful suggestions on the manuscript.

LITERATURE CITED

- GABRIELSON, I. N., AND F. C. LINCOLN. 1959. The birds of Alaska. Stackpole Co., Harrisburg, PA, and Wildlife Management Inst., Washington, DC.
- SNOW, B. K., AND D. W. SNOW. 1968. Behavior of the Swallow-tailed Gull of the Galapagos. Condor 70:252-264.
- WALLS, G. L. 1942. The vertebrate eye. Cranbrook Inst. Sci. Bull. 19.