



A molecular phylogenetic approach to the New Zealand species of Enantiobuninae (Opiliones : Eupnoi : Neopilionidae)

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Accessibility

1	A molecular phylogenetic approach to the New Zealand species of Enantiobuninae
2	(Opiliones : Eupnoi : Neopilionidae)
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4	Sebastián Vélez ^{A,B,C} , Rosa Fernández ^A , and Gonzalo Giribet ^A
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6	^A Museum of Comparative Zoology, Department of Organismic and Evolutionary
7	Biology, Harvard University, 26 Oxford Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.
8	^B Current address: Biology Department, Worcester State University, 486 Chandler Street,
9	Worcester, MA 01602, USA.
10	^C Corresponding author. Email:svelez@worcester.edu
11	
12	Running title: Phylogenetics of the New Zealand Enantiobuninae

13	Abstract. We report the first phylogeny based on molecular data for the New
14	Zealand species in the genera Forsteropsalis, Pantopsalis, and Mangatangi, and
15	comment on the taxonomic implications of our results, including the diagnostic viability
16	of important morphological characters. Members of the New Zealand Enantiobuninae
17	constitute some of the most charismatic soil arthropods of the archipelago, and a striking
18	example of sexual dimorphism, with nondescript females but colourful males boasting
19	exaggerated chelicerae many times longer than their bodies. The genera Forsteropsalis
20	and Pantopsalis recently underwent revision, but many questions remained about the
21	validity of many species designations, due to issues of characters of dubious taxonomic
22	value, female specimens designated as holotypes despite the males holding all the
23	diagnostic characters, and the suspected presence of more than one male form within
24	some species. We present the first molecular phylogenetic study of the group, including
25	extensive sampling of fresh material across New Zealand. Our results reject the
26	controversial monophyly of Neopilionidae and comment on the taxonomic implications
27	of the results, including the diagnostic validity of morphological characters traditionally
28	used on the groups.
29	
30	The following taxonomic action is taken: Forsteropsalis nigra is considered a junior
31	synonym of Forsteropsalis inconstans (new synonymy).

32

33 Additional keywords: Monoscutidae, Australia, biogeography, phylogeny

34 Introduction

35	The order Opiliones consists of 6,539 described species (Kury 2013), divided into four
36	suborders, 45 families and about 1,500 genera (Machado, Pinto-da-Rocha et al. 2007;
37	Sharma and Giribet 2011; Sharma, Prieto et al. 2011; Pinto-da-Rocha, Bragagnolo et al.
38	2014), with many new species being described every year. Within Opiliones, the
39	suborder Eupnoi includes the superfamilies Caddoidea and Phalangioidea (Shear 1982).
40	The first group, Phalangioidea, forms a monophyletic assemblage of those eupnoids with
41	long legs and smooth palps (Shultz 1998; Giribet, Rambla et al. 1999; Shultz and Regier
42	2001; Giribet, Edgecombe et al. 2002; e.g., Giribet, Vogt et al. 2010). Phalangioidea is
43	divided into the families (1) Phalangiidae Latreille, 1802, of nearly world-wide
44	distribution, and which includes the cosmopolitan "daddy-longleg" or common
45	harvestman, Phalangium opilio Linnaeus, 1758; (2) Sclerosomatidae Simon, 1879, a
46	speciose family with more than 1,300 species and many more to be described in dense
47	subtropical forests (Machado, Pinto-da-Rocha et al. 2007); (3) Protolophidae Banks,
48	1893 (Cokendolpher 2007b); (4) Monoscutidae Forster, 1948, as prior to Taylor (2011)
49	and as discussed below, from New Zealand and Australia; and (5) Neopilionidae
50	Lawrence, 1931 with a temperate Gondwanan distribution: New Zealand, Australia,
51	South Africa and South America, and diagnosed by the penis morphology (Hunt and
52	Cokendolpher 1991b). The current work is concerned with the last two, Monoscutidae
53	and Neopilionidae.
54	Prior to Taylor (2011) work on Neopilionidae included, among others, the families
55	(1) Neopilionidae, with 8 genera and 15 species from South Africa (including Neopilio

56 *australis*), Australia and South America, and (2) Monoscutidae Forster, 1948 with 5

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57	genera and 32 species found in Australia and New Zealand (Fig. 1). The 8 genera within
58	Neopilionidae were divided into three subfamilies: (1) Neopilioninae Lawrence, 1931,
59	with a single species from South Africa; (2) Enantiobuninae Mello-Leitão, 1931 with
60	four South American species; and (3) the larger group Ballarrinae Hunt & Cokendolpher,
61	1991, which included mostly species from Australia, one from Chile, and one from South
62	America. Monoscutidae was divided into: (1) Monoscutinae Forster, 1948, from New
63	Zealand and having heavy sclerotization and small ozopores; and (2) Megalopsalidinae
64	Forster, 1949, characterized by a smooth carapace, except for small spines in some, e.g.,
65	Forsteropsalis nigra (Forster, 1944) and F. inconstans (Forster, 1944), and by the
66	presence of visible ozopores, and which contained Megalopsalis (Australia and New
67	Zealand), Pantopsalis Simon, 1879, (New Zealand endemic), and Spinicrus Forster, 1949
68	(Australia) (Cokendolpher 2007a; Cokendolpher and Taylor 2007b).
69	The New Zealander and Australian species of Eupnoi also show a striking sexual
70	polymorphism with conspicuously enlarged male chelicerae, and nondescript females
71	(Fig. 2). The long chelicerae in the males can reach up to 10 times the length of the body,
72	comically extending high above the individual, and which in some cases also have
73	grossly enlarged second segments that rival the girth of the main body of the animal, e.g.,
74	Forsteropsalis fabulosa (Phillips & Grimmett, 1932) and Megalopsalis turneri Marples,
75	1944 (Forster 1944b; Marples 1944; Forster 1949b; Forster and Wilton 1968; Forster and
76	Forster 1999; Taylor 2004a; Taylor 2011). This presence of sexual dimorphism, and the
77	dearth of characters in the female chelicerae in Pantopsalis, Forsteropsalis, and
78	Megalopsalis are largely responsible for the taxonomic instability of the species in each
79	genus (Figs. 3, 4). Females in both Pantopsalis and Forsteropsalis have a uniform brown

80	colour, with almost identical markings, so most species descriptions have been based on
81	males, and females have been assigned to species when they are collected in close
82	proximity to an identifiable male, which is not free of error, as it is common to collect
83	specimens of different species in close proximity (see also Fernández et al. submitted).
84	As an example of the confusion this has caused, in 1949 Forster corrected Pocock's
85	(1902a) purported Megalopsalis hoggi female as the male of Spinicrus camelus, although
86	a few years earlier, Forster himself had described Megalopsalis luna from a specimen
87	which Taylor later assigned to a Pantopsalis female (Forster 1944b; Taylor 2004a),
88	something that Forster must have noticed in his original description of the female of
89	Pantopsalis mila, which matches his own description of the Megalopsalis luna male
90	(Forster 1964b). Taylor (2004) also reported that Pocock described a male of <i>Pantopsalis</i>
91	jenningsi as a female of Pantopsalis nigripalpis, something that Pocock himself corrected
92	a year later (Pocock 1903a; Taylor 2011). In addition to sexual dimorphism, male
93	dimorphism has also been reported, with some species purportedly having distinct broad-
94	chelicerae and a long-chelicerae male forms, which have been dubbed the 'normal' and
95	'effeminate' forms (Forster 1964b; Taylor 2004a). In light of this, and in apparent
96	frustration, Forster (1965) spelled out the rampant taxonomic confusion brought by
97	sexual dimorphism, with what he saw as different authors describing species
98	independently from males and females, and ended the description of several new species
99	with a note that he would not attempt a key for Monoscutidae of New Zealand until the
100	issue of assigning males to females had been resolved (Forster 1962b). Lacking breeding
101	experiments or molecular studies (but see Fernández et al. submitted), it is unknown if
102	the forms belong to the same species, and if they do, how many species have either or

both forms, or if the forms are in discrete categories or occupy a range of sizes and

104	variants, as reported by Kauri (1954) for Spinicrus minimus. If true, this could mean that
105	the current designations are just an artefact from poor sampling from a highly
106	polymorphic population.
107	
108	Although the phylogeny of the order Opiliones has received substantial attention
109	in the past decades (Giribet, Rambla et al. 1999; Giribet and Wheeler 1999; Shultz and
110	Regier 2001; Giribet, Edgecombe et al. 2002; Giribet and Kury 2007; Giribet, Vogt et al.
111	2010), only recently Giribet et al. (2010) published the first molecular sequences that
112	included members of the new Enantiobuninae (former Monoscutidae), although the
113	sampling and analysis was only in the context of the broader phylogenetic relationships
114	of the whole order Opiliones. Here we report the first comprehensive molecular
115	systematics study of the New Zealand species currently assigned to Enantiobuninae,
116	based on freshly collected material from New Zealand, Australia and South Africa, and in
117	context with previously published molecular data for South American Enantiobuninae,
118	Sclerosomatidae, Phalangiidae, and Caddidae. We examine the congruence between our
119	molecular results against the current and historical species designations based on
120	morphology, including the assignment of females to species based on molecular data.
121	Additional population-level work is presented in an accompanying paper dealing with
122	species delimitation (Fernández et al., submitted). We also analyse our data and comment
123	on the monophyly of the current genera and the validity of historical diagnostic
124	characters.

125

103

126 Materials and methods

127 Specimen sampling

128 Our sampling included 92 fresh specimens, 11 from Australia, 2 from South Africa and

129 79 from New Zealand, collected from 2002 to 2014 (Table 1 and Fig. 5). Specimens were

130 collected by hand and preserved in 96% ethanol and stored at -80 °C for long-term

131 preservation of DNA. Sequences from GenBank belonging to the family Caddidae were

132 used to root the trees (Table 1). A specimen of *Phalangium opilio*, also collected in New

133 Zealand, was used along GenBank sequences from other studies including Phalangiidae,

134 Sclerosomatidae, Vibone, Thrasychirus, Hesperopilio, Ballara and other Neopilionidae to

test the monophyly of Enantiobuninae, Neopilionidae, and Monoscutidae as presently

136 defined (Giribet, Vogt *et al.* 2010; Hedin, Tsurusaki *et al.* 2012; Groh and Giribet 2014).

137 Most specimens were collected from the vegetation, walking about, or from the underside

138 of fallen logs and rocks, and were most abundant during night time. Specimens were

deposited at the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University, Cambridge,

140 Massachusetts, USA (MCZ) the Zoological Museum, Natural History Museum of

141 Denmark (NHMD), and the Museum of New Zealand/Te Papa Tongarewa, Wellington,

142 New Zealand (TPT). All DNA isolates from new material were deposited at the MCZ

143 except for *Pantopsalis snarensis*, which was deposited at TPT.

144

145 *Molecular sequences*

146 Total genomic DNA was isolated from one leg from each specimen with the DNeasy®

147 Tissue Kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, California, USA). We sequenced the a 540 fragment of

148 the 18S rRNA gene and a 2.2 kb fragment of 28S rRNA nuclear ribosomal genes, and a

149	745 bp fragment of the protein-encoding mitochondrial gene cytochrome c oxidase
150	subunit I (COI), all which have been recently used for the estimation of phylogenetic
151	relationships within arthropods, particularly the order Opiliones (Edgecombe, Wilson et
152	al. 2000; Giribet, Edgecombe et al. 2001; Prendini, Crowe et al. 2003; Boyer and Giribet
153	2004; Prendini, Weygoldt et al. 2005; Boyer, Baker et al. 2007; Boyer, Clouse et al.
154	2007; Boyer and Giribet 2007; Sharma and Giribet 2009; Murienne, Edgecombe et al.
155	2011)
156	COI was PCR amplified using the primer pair LCO1490 (Folmer, Black et al.
157	1994) and HCOoutout (Prendini, Weygoldt et al. 2005; Schwendinger and Giribet 2005);
158	18S rRNA using primer sets 1F-4R, 4F-18Sbi, and 18Sa2.0-9R (Giribet, Carranza et al.
159	1996; Whiting, Carpenter et al. 1997) and 28S rRNA with primer sets 28S1F-28Srd4b,
160	28Sa-28sb, and 28Srd4.8a-28Srd7b1 (Park and Ó Foighil 2000; Schwendinger and
161	Giribet 2005; Edgecombe and Giribet 2006). PCR products were visualized in 1%
162	agarose gel electrophoresis, and purified PCR products with the Millipore MultiScreen
163	PCRµ96 filter plate system (Millipore, Waltham, MA). For the sequencing reaction we
164	used the BigDye (Applied Biosystems) and cleaned unincorporated primers and dye with
165	Performa DTR Plates (Edge Biosystems; Gaithersburg, MD). We analysed the labelled
166	fragments with an ABI Prism 3730xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems), and edited
167	the resulting .ab1 files using SEQUENCHER 4.7 (Gene Codes Corporation 2007; Ann
168	Arbor, MI). We visually inspected all fragments, sequenced using both primers, to
169	ascertain ambiguous base calls or detect possible contamination. All sequences were
170	deposited in GenBank and accession numbers are provided (Table 1).
171	

172 Phylogenetic analysis

173	All file format manipulations were performed with Mesquite (Maddison and Maddison
174	2010), and sequence alignments for the maximum likelihood analyses were performed
175	with MUSCLE 3.7 (Edgar 2004). For the maximum likelihood estimation of
176	phylogenetic trees we used RAxML (Stamatakis 2006). jModeltest (Posada 2009) was
177	used to select the best-fit evolutionary model under the Akaike information criterion
178	(AIC) (Akaike 1974): GTR + gamma + invariant sites (Yang 1993). Bootstrap support
179	values were calculated from 100 replicates. The direct optimization method (Wheeler
180	1996; Wheeler, Aagesen et al. 2006) as implemented in POY (Wheeler, Lucaroni et al.
181	2014) was used to evaluate trees under the parsimony criterion. The data were partitioned
182	in a priori segments to avoid clustering of sequences with missing ends. One of the
183	equally-parsimonious trees was selected for measuring nodal support, and jackknife
184	support was calculated by resampling the data 100 times with a 0.36 probability of
185	deletion. Consensus trees were calculated with the Consense program in the PHYLIP
186	package (Felsenstein 1989), and trees reorganized in FigTree (Rambaut 2011).
187	

188

189 **Results and discussion**

190 Monophyly of Neopilionidae

191 Our results from both the parsimony and the maximum likelihood criteria (Figs. 6, 7)

- 192 reject Neopilionidae sensu Šilhavý (1970) and sensu Taylor (Taylor 2011; Taylor 2013b),
- 193 as it includes the two representatives of the genus *Hesperopilio* Shear, 1996, formerly in
- 194 Caddidae (Shear 1996) but recently transferred to Phalangioidea (Groh and Giribet 2014).

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195	These results are relevant as they are the first molecular evidence of the paraphyly of
196	Neopilionidae in the long and complicated history of the family.
197	The family Neopilionidae (sensu Ballarinae + Enantiobuninae + Neopilioninae,
198	see Fig. 1) has had an interesting, if also very unstable history. In 1931, Lawrence erected
199	the subfamily Neopilioninae Lawrence, 1931 for a new South African species, Neopilio
200	australis Lawrence, 1931. Also in 1931, Mello-Leitão described the subfamily
201	Enantiobuninae Mello-Leitão, 1931 using material from South America, but later in that
202	same year he synonymized it with Neopilioninae (Mello-Leitão 1931). In 1948 Forster
203	created the subfamily Monoscutinae Forster, 1948 for two New Zealand species:
204	Acihasta salebrosa Forster, 1948 and Monoscutum titirangiensis Forster, 1948. Forster
205	characterized this New Zealander group of Eupnoi by not having dorsal opisthosomal
206	segmentation (Forster 1948b). A year later, Forster erected Megalopsalinae Forster, 1949
207	to accommodate Megalopsalis Roewer, 1923, Spinicrus Forster, 1949 and Nodala
208	Forster, 1949, all from Australia (Forster 1949a). Kauri (1961) described the genus
209	Vibone Kauri, 1961 and elevated Neopilioninae to family, as Neopilionidae Kauri, 1961.
210	By this time, even as the classification of the family matured, in 1962 Forster still
211	considered the New Zealand genera Megalopsalis and Pantopsalis part of Phalangiinae
212	(Forster 1962a), unrelated to his other material designated as Monoscutinae, and even
213	still in 1964 still listed Pantopsalis under Phalangiidae (Forster 1964a). Šilhavý (1970)
214	provided a historical account of Neopilionidae and divided the family into geographical
215	groups, with Neopilioninae for the South African genera, with a reduced palpal tarsal
216	claw, Megalopsalinae for the Australian and New Zealand genera (although not

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2	17	mentioning Acihasta Forster, 1948), recognizing variation in the palpal tarsal claw, and
21	18	Enantiobuninae for the South American species in the genus <i>Thrasychirus</i> Simon, 1884.
21	19	
22	20	Work continued in 1970 with the addition of Megalopsalidinae (Megalopsalinae [sic]
22	21	which then included the genus Monoscutum Forster, 1948) (Martens 1976a), into an
22	22	sextended Neopilionidae by Šilhavý (1970) (Fig. 1). Later Martens (1976b) raised
22	23	Megalopsalinae to family level and corrected the name to Megalopsalididae. Two
22	24	decades later, Hunt and Cokendolpher (1991a) erected the taxon Ballarrinae for Vibone

225 Kauri, 1961 (from South Africa) with four new genera: *Ballarra* Hunt & Cokendolpher,

226 1991, Plesioballarra Hunt & Cokendolpher, 1991 and Arrallaba Hunt & Cokendolpher,

1991 (southern Australia), and *Americovibone* Hunt & Cokendolpher, 1991 (southern

228 South America). However, their cladistic morphological analysis did not support

229 monophyly of Neopilionidae (Fig. 1). Monoscutinae and Megalopsalidinae, however,

continued to be recognized by subsequent authors, e.g., Hunt (1990b), Hunt and

231 Cokendolpher (1991a), and Taylor (2004b), although the monophyly of Monoscutidae

was still based on a single character, the presence of paired lateral bristle groups on the

233 penis at the shaft or glans articulation (Hunt and Cokendolpher 1991a) (of importance is

to note that Monoscutidae has previously been incorrectly referred to as

235 Megalopsalididae, before Crawford (1992b) pointed out that the subfamily Monoscutinae

had priority over Megalopsalidinae).

237 Up to this point, Monoscutidae thus contained two distinctive subfamilies,

- 238 Monoscutinae and Megalopsalidinae, Monoscutinae containing three monotypic genera
- (1) Monoscutum Forster, 1948, (2) Acihasta Forster, 1948, and (3) Templar Taylor, 2008,

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240	the latter only recently added (Taylor 2008a), and an undescribed species of an uncertain
241	genus from New South Wales, Australia (Hunt 1990b; Hunt and Cokendolpher 1991a).
242	Megalopsalidinae contained three genera: (1) Megalopsalis (13 spp.), (2) Pantopsalis (11
243	spp.), and (3) Spinicrus (8 spp.) (see Taylor, 2004 for a checklist). In 2011 Taylor
244	synonymised Monoscutidae with Neopilionidae using results from a morphological
245	cladistic analysis that showed Monoscutidae to be nested within Neopilionidae (Neopilio
246	+ (Ballara + Monoscutidae)), and which positioned the Chilean Thrasychirus Simon,
247	1884 (Neopilionidae: Enantiobuninae) within Monoscutidae, which, as we have
248	discussed, was up to then a group otherwise wholly constrained within New Zealand and
249	Australia (Taylor 2011). This conclusion, based on a few morphological characters, was
250	not supported in the unweighted parsimony tree, and thus awaited the inclusion of more
251	samples from Neopilionidae and the addition to the analysis of more characters,
252	molecular and morphological (see Taylor 2013 for another analysis with monophyly of
253	Neopilionidae). However, regardless of the sister vs. nested relationship between
254	Neopilionidae and Monoscutidae, the inclusion of <i>Thrasychirus</i> within Monoscutidae
255	changed the name of the family or subfamily, wherever a final taxonomic revision lands
256	the ranking, to Enantiobuninae, which has priority (Taylor 2011; Taylor 2013a).
257	This new Enantiobuninae (sensu Thrasychiroides + Thrasychirus + former
258	Monoscutidae, see Fig. 1), lacks consistent synapomorphies and diagnostic characters,
259	and in the field they are normally identified as being the only group of Opiliones within
260	New Zealand and Australia with long legs, save for the synanthropic species Phalangium
261	opilio (Phalangiidae) and Nelima doriae (Sclerosomatidae) and the endemic but small
262	Acropsopilio neozelandiae (Acropsopilionidae) (Forster 1948a; Taylor 2011).

263	White (1849a) described the first member of what was to become the Eupnoi of
264	New Zealand and Australia, Phalangium listeri from New Zealand, which would later be
265	transferred to the genus Pantopsalis as its type species (Simon 1879a). The holotype,
266	however, has been reported as lost (Taylor 2004a; Taylor 2013a), and the original
267	description had no specific locality information as to where within New Zealand the
268	specimen was collected, and lacked diagnostic characters (White 1849a; Simon 1879a;
269	Taylor 2004a). Taylor (2004) first declared the species a nomen dubium and later
270	reinstated it (Taylor 2013a) after examination of associated material purportedly used by
271	Simon in the original description of the species. Neotypes were then assigned, however,
272	while reporting variation within the specimen lot on the morphology of the enlarged
273	chelicerae of the males, quite possibly the most important character for species
274	identification in the family. Colenso (1882b) later described Phalangium cheliferoides,
275	which was later transferred to Pantopsalis (Nicholls, Sirvid et al. 2000). Taylor (2004),
276	however, reported a deteriorated type and no other specimens with good characters to
277	distinguish it from other species, and declared it a nomen dubium. Although he later
278	reestablished the species, the diagnostic characters remained unclear: e.g., although the
279	presence of a medial stripe on the opisthosoma was presented as diagnostic, this character
280	state is shared by other related species, and is missing in one of the specimens assigned to
281	the species in the same study (Taylor 2013a).
282	Sørensen (1886) described the first Australian Eupnoi, Macropsalis serritarsus,
283	which was later changed to Megalopsalis because Macropsalis was pre-occupied by a
284	bird genus (Roewer 1923). The description of Megalopsalis included a first attempt at
285	characters for inter-generic diagnosis: (1) spines on the ocularium, (2) abdomen shorter

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286	than cephalothorax, (3) tibia and patella of palpus of unequal length in <i>Pantopsalis</i> , (4)
287	tibia II with pseudoarticulations, and (5) a ramous bifurcation in the patella of the palpus
288	in Megalopsalis. All of these, except for the patella of the palpus, were considered
289	plesiomorphic states by later authors (Taylor 2004a; Taylor and Hunt 2009) (but see
290	below for further discussion on the cladistic value of the patella). Pocock (1902b) added
291	Macropsalis hoggi Pocock, 1902, Pantopsalis albipalpis Pocock, 1902, P. nigripalpis
292	Pocock, 1902, and P. nigripalpis spiculosa Pocock, 1902, and later (1903a) P. coronata
293	Pocock, 1903, Pantopsalis trippi Pocock, 1903 and Pantopsalis jenningsi Pocock, 1903,
294	followed by Hogg (1909) with Macropsalis chiltoni Hogg, 1909, and Pantopsalis
295	tasmanica Hogg, 1909. Roewer (1911) attempted a first taxonomic grouping with other
296	long-legged Opiliones by including Megalopsalis and Pantopsalis within the African and
297	Holarctic Phalangiinae, a classification which was quickly discarded by subsequent
298	authors. Species descriptions continued in that century with Hogg (1920) adding
299	Pantopsalis wattsi Hogg, 1920, P. pococki Hogg, 1920, P. grayi Hogg, 1920 and P. halli
300	Hogg, 1920. Roewer (1923) added Pantopsalis continentalis Roewer, 1923, and later
301	Macropsalis (Megalopsalis) fabulosa Grimmett & Phillips, 1932 was also described.
302	Forster (1944b) made the first attempt at a complete revision of the New Zealand and
303	Australian Eupnoi genera, adding several species to Megalopsalis without apparently
304	looking into the many species already described in Pantopsalis. Despite expressing
305	doubts about the cladistic value of the only remaining diagnostic character separating the
306	Megalopsalis from Pantopsalis, the ramous patella of the palp, Forster added
307	Megalopsalis chiltoni Forster, 1944, M. chiltoni nigra Forster, 1944, M. inconstans
308	Forster, 1944, M. tumida Forster, 1944, M. triascuta Forster, 1944, M. luna Forster, 1944,

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309	M. marplesi Forster, 1944, and M. grimmetti Forster, 1944. Forster also later made the
310	first conjectures about phylogeographic relationships among the described species, and
311	noted the probable close relationship between the New Zealand and Australia opilionid
312	fauna (Forster 1947). A year later, Forster (1948c) also established Monoscutinae
313	(although joined by plesiomorphies), and added two monotypic genera with Acihasta
314	salebrosa Forster, 1948 and Monoscutum titirangiensis Forster, 1948. In the first
315	comprehensive treatment of the Australian monoscutids, Forster (1949b) established
316	Megalopsalinae (as per our historical overview above, later corrected for spelling and
317	upgraded to the family level Megalopsalididae (Martens 1976a).) However, from a
318	family status, Megalopsalididae was later downgraded again under Monoscutidae (Hunt
319	1990a; Hunt and Cokendolpher 1991b; Crawford 1992a). Forster subsequently raised the
320	genus Spinicrus Forster, 1949 to distinguish the Australian and New Zealand species,
321	adding S. camellus Forster, 1949, S. stewarti Forster, 1949, and transferring from
322	Pantopsalis both S. tasmanica (Hogg 1909) and just based on the published description,
323	S. continentalis (Rower 1923). Kauri (1954) and later Hickman (1957) added S. minumus
324	Kauri, 1954, S. porongorupensis Kauri, 1954, S. thrypticum Hickman, 1957, and S.
325	nigricans Hickman, 1957. Back in New Zealand, and again despite doubting the
326	diagnostic value of the palpal patellar character on which the whole classification rested,
327	Forster added Pantopsalis johnsi Forster, 1964, P. mila Forster, 1964, P. distincta
328	Forster, 1964, P. snaresensis Forster, 1964 and P. rennelli Forster, 1964. In one of the
329	last chapters or the taxonomic history of the group, Taylor revised Pantopsalis, adding P.
330	phocator Taylor, 2004, synonymizing P. nigripalpis and P. jenningsi (with P. albipalpis),
331	P. trippi (with P. coronata), P. mila (with P. johnsi), and making the following generic

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332	transfers: Pantopsalis wattsi, P. grayi, P. distincta to Megalopsalis, and Megalopsalis
333	luna to Pantopsalis. In 2008 Taylor (2008b) added Megalopsalis linaei Taylor, 2008,
334	which he later (Taylor 2011) transferred to a new genus, <i>Tercentenarium</i> Taylor, 2011.
335	Taylor (2009) then went on to erect the new genus Neopantopsalis Taylor, 2009, in an
336	attempt to reorganize Spinicrus from geography-based to cladistics, using the following
337	characters for <i>Neopantopsalis</i> : raised bumps in the dorsal prosomal plate (only in 'major'
338	males), the presence of hyperthophied spines on leg I ('major' males again), and oblong
339	dorsoventrally flattened glans of the penis; kept Megalopsalis defined with the character
340	of the patellar ramification, and added for Spinicrus the characters of dorsal margin of the
341	prosoma horizontal rather than sloping, and flattened glans of the penis. Taylor (2009)
342	also added Neopantopsalis quasimodo Taylor, 2009, N. pentheter Taylor, 2009, N. psile
343	Taylor, 2009 and <i>N. thaumatopoios</i> Taylor, 2009, while noting that probably none of the
344	Australian genera of Monosctutidae, as listed then, formed monophyletic groups. The
345	same reorganization was done for the New Zealand Megalopsalis, and all species in the
346	country where either declared nomina dubia, synonymized, or transferred to a new genus,
347	Forsteropsalis Taylor, 2011, to which one species was subsequently added,
348	Forsteropsalis pureroa Taylor, 2013 (Taylor 2011; Taylor 2013a). Left standing were
349	thus: Forsteropsalis chiltoni (Hogg, 1910), F. distincta (Forster 1964), F. fabulosa
350	(Phillipps & Grimmett, 1932), F. grayi (Hogg, 1920), F. grimmetti (Forster, 1944), F.
351	inconstans (Forster, 1944), F. marplesi (Forster, 1944), F. nigra (Forster, 1944), F. wattsi
352	(Hogg, 1920) and F. pureroa Taylor, 2013; with a new Australian species added to
353	Megalopsalis based on the patellar character: M. epizephyros Taylor, 2011, M. eremiotis
354	Taylor, 2011, M. leptekes Taylor, 2011, and M. pilliga Taylor, 2011.

355	Our results, thus, find no evidence to support either Monoscutidae sensu
356	Crawford (1992b) or sensu Cokendolpher and Taylor (2007b) (Fig. 1). They also support
357	the idea that Hesperopilio (Australia and Chile, formerly in Caddidae (Groh 2014)) is
358	closely related to the now-entirely South American Enantiobuninae, here represented by
359	Thrasychirus gulosus (Hedin, Tsurusaki et al. 2012). Although this represents the first
360	large analysis of Neopilionidae and other related taxa using molecular data (see also Groh
361	& Giribet, 2014), we refrain from proposing any taxonomic changes until a denser
362	sampling, especially of the New Zealand genera Acihasta, Monoscutum, and
363	Australiscutum, additional Australian fauna, the South American Thrasychirus and most
364	important, the South African Neopilio are included in the analyses. However, it is
365	comforting to see another large Opiliones clade with deep biogeographic structure,
366	including a distribution similar to those of the families Pettalidae and Triaenonychidae
367	(Giribet & Kury, 2007), and thus we centre our phylogenetic discussion on the New
368	Zealand species of Enantiobuninae.
369	Taylor's (2011) morphological cladistic analysis found that none of the then-
370	"neopilionid" genera formed monophyletic groups (although, it must be noted, they did
371	form a clade under the weighted analysis) and based on these results, he synonymised
372	Monoscutidae with Neopilionidae. Our sampling does not allow for a complete resolution
373	of this long-standing controversy (e.g., Šilhavý 1970; Hunt and Cokendolpher 1991a;
374	Taylor 2011), as many key genera were not sampled: e.g. Neopilio, some members of
375	Monoscutinae, e.g. Acihata, Monoscutum, or Australiscutum, nor some key genera from
376	Megalopsalidinae: e.g. Tercentenarium. However, our results do show that our clade of
377	Australian/New Zealand species does not include the South African Vibone, originally

378	described in Neopilionidae (Kauri 1961). Although Hunt and Cokendolpher (1991a)
379	transferred Vibone from Neopilioninae to their new subfamily Ballarrinae, our analyses
380	reject this relationship, as Ballarra groups with the Australasian clade that includes
381	Pantopsalis, Forsteropsalis, Spinicrus, Mangatangi, etc., and does not group with its
382	Neopilionidae clade (Hunt and Cokendolpher 1991a; their figure 4A) or with Ballarrinae
383	(their figure 4B). Our results therefore agree with Taylor's (2011) unweighted
384	morphological cladistic analysis, in that it separates Ballarra from the other
385	Neopilionidae (although Vibone was not sampled in that study).
386	
387	Broader relationships among the New Zealand + Australia native eupnoids
388	The internal relationships within the Megalopsalididae are not fully supported in our
389	analysis, although Ballarra (Ballarrinae) shows as the sister group of the remaining
390	genera. Within the New Zealand + Australian native eupnoids, the first division is
391	between the clade with pectinate palpal claws and a clade with smooth palpal claws (Fig.
392	8). The pectinate-claw divides is divided into the New Zealand Mangatangi and the
393	Australian species (probably Megalopsalis); the smooth-claw finds support for a clade of
394	Forsteropsalis, a clade of Pantopsalis and a clade that includes Forsteropsalis pureora,
395	F. wattsi and Megalopsalis turneri, but neither this clade nor its relationship to the other
396	clades is well resolved. Additionally, two other undescribed species, here represented by
397	specimens MCZ 29229 and MCZ 29239 have an unsupported position.
398	
399	The Megalopsalidinae of New Zealand: a taxonomic overview of Pantopsalis and
400	Forsteropsalis

401	The distinction among the genera within the former Monoscutidae has been problematic
402	since the description of each genus (Cokendolpher and Taylor 2007a). For example,
403	when Sørensen (1886) described Macropsalis (now Megalopsalis), he used as diagnostic
404	characters the spines on the ocularium of Megalopsalis vs. smooth in Pantopsalis, but
405	since then, many species that now belong in Megalopsalis have been described with a
406	smooth ocularium, while some Pantopsalis continue to be described with spines (Taylor
407	2004a), and in any case, the character might be variable within species. Another
408	character, that of the opisthosoma being longer than prosoma, has the problem that the
409	opisthosoma is soft and prone to deformation during preservation (Taylor 2004a) and in
410	our observation of freshly collected material from type localities, can vary between molts.
411	The difference in size between the patella and the tibia in <i>Pantopsalis</i> , Sørensen's (1886)
412	"palporum partibus patellari et tibiali sibi longitudine sub aequalibus", is also of
413	doubtful validity since both characters can vary within species (Hickman 1957, see
414	Taylor, 2004). The last remaining characters are the presence of a spiny process in the
415	patella of the palp (between <i>Pantopsalis</i> vs. <i>Forsteropsalis</i> and between <i>Spinicrus</i> +
416	Neopantopsalis and Megalopsalis), the number of brushes in the penis between
417	Forsteropsalis and Pantopsalis, the bowing of the cheliceral claw between Pantopsalis
418	vs. Forsteropsalis, and a 'triangular dorsolateral keel on the glans, with the apex of the
419	triangle at the distal end of the glans' (Taylor 2011), also between Forsteropsalis and
420	Pantopsalis. All of these characters are of suspect validity: for example, from Taylor's
421	(2004) illustrations the scoring of abundance of penis bristles seems to be subjective. The
422	palpal patellar structure, also described as a branch (Sørensen's (1886) "parte patellari
423	non ramosa"), splitting, spur, process (Forster 1944b), or apophysis (Taylor 2004a;

 sole basis in the erection of new genera and in the transfer species between general example, using the patellar process as a character, Taylor (2004) transferred Forster (1964b) <i>Pantopsalis distincta</i> to <i>Megalopsalis distincta</i> even though the purported of the species does not have a patellar process, and the purported male only has a spointed one. In his key, Forster (1944b) used the apophysis to distinguish among the genera, but then used this character to assign a female specimen of what otherwise 	
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430 genera, but then used this character to assign a female specimen of what otherwise	small,
	he two
	•
431 seemed like a typical <i>Pantopsalis</i> female to <i>Megalosalis luna</i> (Taylor 2011). Two	
432 decades later, Forster again described a new species, <i>Pantopsalis distincta</i> , and inc	cluded
433 in the description a female with a "well developed process on the prodistal surface	of the
434 patella of the palp" (Forster 1964b), the exact then-synapomorphy for the sympatr	ic
435 <i>Megalopsalis</i> (now <i>Forsteropsalis</i> for the New Zealand species). Taylor (2004)	
436 continued to use this character throughout his revision of <i>Pantopsalis</i> , making	
437 adjustments as to its shape to assign specimens with a patellar process to <i>Pantopsa</i>	alis.
438 Surprisingly, in Taylor's (2011) own morphology-based cladistic analysis, the pate	ellar
439 process comes as a plesiomorphy. Forster himself had also noted that it might vary	y within
440 molts of the same individual (Forster 1964b). The distinctive shape of the keel of t	the
441 glans, the last character state supporting <i>Pantopsalis</i> together, was reported as abs	ent in
the resurrection of <i>Pantopsalis cheliferoides</i> (Taylor 2013a).	
443 The sequence similarity and subsequent clustering of males and females in	to well-
444 supported clades confirms a wide range of morphological disparity among species	,
445 particularly in the shape, coloration, and size of the male chelicerae, and the preserved	nce of
446 sexual dimorphism (Figs. 6, 7) is consistent with a reduced number of species for	

447 Pantopsalis and Forsteropsalis. For these New Zealand species, identifications were 448 made following Taylor's (2004a; Taylor and Hunt 2009; 2011; 2013a) recent revisions of 449 Pantopsalis, Megalopsalis (now Forsteropsalis for the New Zealand species), and 450 Neopantopsalis, as well as the original descriptions. This reduced number of species, in 451 the context of our extensive sampling within New Zealand (Fig. 5), and the fact that most 452 clades included at least one male, suggests that the same approach could lead to a reduced 453 number of species also for the Australian genera of Spinicrus, Megalopsalis, and 454 Neopantopsalis.

455

456 Mangatangi

457 The genus *Mangatangi* was recently described by Taylor (2013a) based on a male and a 458 female specimens from Mangatangi, Hunua Ra., and a male from Cuvier Is. From this 459 genus, we collected a male in Te Urewera N.P. The genus is easily identified by the 460 pectinate pedipalpal tarsal claw, a character shared with the Australian species of 461 Neopilionidae (Taylor 2004a) (Fig. 8). All the specimens belonging to this genus (n=5) 462 clustered together in a clade. One specimen (MCZ 29239) was identified as *Mangatangi* 463 *parvum*, while the other ones could not be identified at the species level based on the 464 available literature. Our specimen from Te Urewera clusters with other specimens from Queen Charlotte Sound and Kaikoura (South Island), although they probably constitute 465 466 more than one species. Interestingly, in our phylogenetic trees (Figs. 6, 7), Mangatangi 467 forms a clade with the Australian species albeit with low bootstrap support, instead of the 468 New Zealand species, which confirms the importance of the pectinate pediplapal tarsal

469 claw in the higher systematics of the group.

470

471 *The* Forsteropsalis pureora, F. wattsi, *and* M. turneri *clade*.

472 This clade includes species originally described as *Pantopsalis* (P. wattsi Hogg, 1920), 473 Forsteropsalis (F. pureora Taylor, 2013) and Megalopsalis (M. turneri Marples, 1944), 474 but its relationship to the other Pantopsalis or Forsteropsalis remains unsupported. 475 Forsteropsalis pureora Taylor, 2013 (Note: The species is referred to as F. pureroa in the 476 abstract and figure captions of the original description) was described by Taylor (2013a) 477 based on a single male specimen from Waipapa Reserve, Pureora, which matches our 478 specimens from Te Urewera National Park (MCZ 29240), but this species also closely 479 matches the description of another North Island species, *Forsteropsalis inconstans* (Forster 1944b), a species with a problematic history that starts with an original 480 481 description that included specimens from three different species (Forster 1944b; Taylor 482 2011), and a striking similarity to *Forsteropsalis nigra* (Forster 1944) except for a few 483 small red markings on the propeltidium (Taylor 2011). Forsteropsalis inconstans also has 484 the same coloration pattern (the "white" markings in the preserved animals of Forster and 485 Taylor are orange in living specimens), from which Taylor distinguished in "not having 486 the posterior part of the propeltidium and the mesopeltidium heavily denticulate", while 487 also mentioning how F. pureora can be confused with F. distincta, F. chiltoni, F. 488 marplesi and F. wattsi.

In our analyses, the *F. pureora* specimens appear as the sister group to what we identified as *F. wattsi* (Hogg 1920), another North Island species with the "wide horseshoe belt of bright cream-colour", which was described based on a single specimen from Hawera. Our specimens from Mount Stokes and Hori Bay form a clade, although some specimens match the description of Hogg (1920), including how the horseshoe belt of bright cream-colour has "intervals into the lighter colour".

495 All of the cave-dwelling specimens collected formed a third cluster of specimens 496 members of this larger clade, despite some being collected from opposite sides of the 497 South Island. The majority of the specimens were, however, collected ca. 100 km from the type locality of the South Island endemic Megalopsalis turneri Marples, 1944, and 498 499 formed a clade with a male that matches the original description of *M. turneri*, based on a 500 single dried specimen collected near Lake Manapouri. This species was considered by 501 Taylor (2011) as a probable member of *Forsteropsalis*, but not transferred. It also seems 502 that this is the species discussed in Meyer-Rochow's (1988) work (see discussion below 503 on Forsteropsalis tumida reported from the Waitomo Cave system), since Meyer-504 Rochow's specimens were adapted to living in caves with bioluminescent fungus gnats, 505 and while repelled by sunlight are nevertheless particularly sensitive to the 506 bioluminescent spectra emitted by the insects in these caves. All of the specimens 507 included in this clade from the analysis were collected near bioluminescent fungus gnats. 508 Pantopsalis: The listeri group 509 The remaining samples of *Pantopsalis* constitute a clade including specimens from 510 Southland to Te Urewera N.P. This clade includes dark species (black carapace) with a

511 brown to reddish pigmented pedipalpal femur (from half to most of its length), not pink, 512 the rest of the pediplap being white. It also includes specimens with black opisthosomas 513 or with different degrees of a white-silver strip in the intercalary membrane of the 514 opisthosomal tergites. 515 Our analyses identify two main clades of specimens similar to *P. listeri* (White, 516 1849). Taylor (2013b) provides a redescription and a discussion of this species, based on 517 examination of a neotype from the MNHN, Paris, and uses Simon (1879b) concept of the 518 species, adding the following to the description "Dorsum of opisthosoma with pale 519 silvery, narrow, transverse stripes on posterior margins of segments", illustrated in a live 520 specimen photographed by Simon Pollard (of unspecified precedence). We have 521 observed such transverse stripes with a large degree of variation, from very broad in 522 specimens from Kahurangi N.P. and Arthur's Pass N.P. to less conspicuous in Westland 523 Tai Puitini N.P. and Te Urewera N.P., or totally absent in Mount Aspiring N.P. (see 524 Fernández et al., submitted). Taylor (2013b) also illustrated P. cheliferoides (Colenso 525 1882a), the only *Pantopsalis* reported from the North Island, an animal similar in 526 morphology to some of the "listeri" morphotypes with swollen chelicera, similar to some 527 of our specimens from Kahurangi N.P. and Mount Aspiring N.P.. Many of these localities 528 find astonishing disparity in cheliceral size and shape, or in the banding pattern of the 529 opisthosoma, despite belonging to the same clade. Our two clades of "listeri" include (1) 530 specimens from the North and South Islands: Te Urewera N.P., Wellington, Kahurangi 531 N.P., Arthur's Pass N.P., and a female from Waimate, spanning almost the whole 532 country, which we assign to *P. cheliferoides* following Taylor (2013b); and (2) specimens 533 from Mt. Aspiring N.P., and Westland Tai Puitini N.P., of much more restricted

534 geographical distribution, with smoother ocularium, which we assign to *P. listeri*. The 535 original description of *P. listeri* is inaccurate, and no types or type locality exist, although the species was probably based on specimens from the North Island. However, Simon 536 537 (1879b) designated a neotype from Westland-Tai Poutini, and we follow Taylor (2013b) 538 with respect to the stability of the type of the genus. 539 White (1849b) succinctly described *Phalangium listeri* White, 1849, with New 540 Zealand as its type locality, and Simon (1879b) redescribed the species. Taylor (2013b) 541 interpreted that a possible locality for the species was the Bay of Islands, in the North 542 Island, but designated as a neotype a MNHN specimen, presumably examined by Simon, 543 from 'Ile du Milieu, Filhol', probably referring to its collector, Henri Filhol, who was a 544 member of the 1874 French Transit of Venus expedition to Campbell Island. On his way 545 back from Campbell Island, Filhol made stops at Stewart Island, Christchurch, 546 Wellington and Auckland, and could have picked up the *P. listeri* specimens during his 547 Christchurch stop. 'Ile de Milieu' is the French name for the South Island. Taylor (2013b) 548 appealed to the criterion of stability to assign *P. listeri* to the MNHN specimens 549 examined by Simon from Westland, and thus we use the name *P. listeri* for our restricted 550 clade, including specimens from Westland-Tai Poutini and Mt. Aspiring N.P. 551 *Pantopsalis albipalpis* Pocock, 1903b is another dark species with the clear palps 552 from the South Island, described based on specimens from near Dunedin (Pocock 1903b), 553 including multiple synonymies, such as *Pantopsalis nigripalpis* Pocock, 1903b, P. 554 nigripalpis spiculosa Pocock, 1903b and P. jenningsi Pocock, 1903a; all synonymised by 555 Taylor (2004b). It is unlikely that *P. albipalpis* would remain as a valid species. name for 556 the South Island. Taylor (2013b) appealed to the criterion of stability to assign *P. listeri*

557 to the MNHN specimens examined by Simon from Westland, and thus we use the name 558 P. listeri for our restricted clade, including specimens from Westland-Tai Poutini and Mt. 559 Aspiring N.P. 560 *Pantopsalis albipalpis* Pocock, 1903b is another dark species with the clear palps 561 from the South Island, described based on specimens from near Dunedin (Pocock 1903b), 562 including multiple synonymies, such as *Pantopsalis nigripalpis* Pocock, 1903b, P. 563 nigripalpis spiculosa Pocock, 1903b and P. jenningsi Pocock, 1903a; all synonymised by 564 Taylor (2004b). It is unlikely that *P. albipalpis* would remain as a valid species. While 565 the genetic diversity of *P. phocator* was relatively high, both *P. cheliferoides* and *P.* 566 *listeri* showed a low percentage of pairwise differences (0.5%) and medium to low levels 567 of haplotypic and nucleotidic diversity.

568

569 A discussion of the distinctions between Forsteropsalis and Pantopsalis

570 Although none of the specimens from the *Pantopsalis* clades had a large patellar process, 571 it is not clear that this trait can be used as a diagnostic character. In his last published 572 comment on *Pantopsalis*, Forster (1964b) referred to an unpublished study of the New 573 Zealand species indicating that the patellar process is a secondary sexual character often 574 present in the females but not the males, citing as an example Pantopsalis rennelli, where 575 the males do not have the process but the females do. Furthermore, Forster noted that the 576 patellar process is 'extraordinarily well developed' in early developmental stages but 577 diminishes with every moult. Our data and phylogenetic analyses support this latter view

578 (Fig. 9). However, most females of *Pantopsalis* displayed an hourglass-like mark in their 579 backs, while the *Forsteropsalis* females displayed a box-like mark typical of other 580 Australian and New Zealander eupnoids, such as Spinicrus and Mangatangi (Fig. 10.) 581 582 Forsteropsalis 583 A single male individual from Te Urewera National Park with an unusual palp 584 morphology was collected, MCZ 29239. This species displays the cream-colored 585 prosomal horseshoe, smooth ocularium, but the opisthosoma is brown, with two 586 longitudinal darker bands. Most conspicuous characteristics are the heavily denticulate

587 chelicerae and the elongated palps of uniform brown color, unlike most other species that

588 display shorter palps with the distal segments lightly pigmented. This species was

589 collected together with *Mangatangi parvum*, *Forsteropsalis pureora*, and *F. Nigra*.

590 A member of *Forsteropsalis*, a single specimen (MCZ 29252) differs from all

591 other members of the clade in having a palp mostly without conspicuous colour patterns,

as opposed to its sympatric species *F. wattsi*. It does have "remnants" of the cream-colour

593 horseshoe, but limited to two small marks.

594

595 Forsteropsalis fabulosa

596 We found another clade including just a few specimens, which includes a male and a 597 female of *Forteropsalis fabulosa* (Phillipps and Grimmett, 1932) from Belmont Regional 598 Park, Wellington (the type locality given by Phillipps and Grimmett, 1932 was also 599 Wellington). Forsteropsalis fabulosa is the sister group to a clade that includes 1 female 600 from Kaikoura, and 1 female and 1 small female-looking specimen with enlarged 601 chelicers (probably a male of a species without markerd sexual dimorphism) from 602 Hinewai, in Banks Peninsula. Additional collecting in the northeastern region of the 603 South Island should help clarify these putative species.

604

605 Forsteropsalis chiltoni

606 Forsteropsalis chiltoni (Hogg, 1910) is the only Forsteropsalis species known from 607 Stewart Island (Taylor, 2011) and very similar to F. marplesi (Forster, 1944). We 608 identified a clade of Stewart Island *Forsteropsalis*, which is unfortunately only 609 represented by females, a juvenile, and a single male, with female coloration, a large 610 ocularium, and with smooth large chelicerae that does not correspond to the description 611 of F. chiltoni either from Hogg (1910) or the redescription by Taylor (2011). However, a 612 different female specimen from Stewart Island clusters with a series of females from 613 Southland, the Catlins and Banks Peninsula. The sister group to this South Island/Stewart 614 Island clade is a male from the Otago Peninsula, matching the description of *F. marplesi*. 615 We thus suspect that the *chiltoni* group includes multiple species in the eastern-616 southeastern part of the South Island. We tentatively call the male from Otago F.

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617 *marplesi*, its sister group including the specimen from Stewart Island *F. chiltoni*, and the
618 other Stewart Island clade *Forsteropsalis* n.sp.

619

620 Forsteropsalis inconstans

621 One of the most widespread species of New Zealand monoscutids is *Forsteropsalis*

622 *inconstans*. Geographically, specimens from this clade have been collected in the North

623 Island: Tararua Forest Park, relatively near Feilding, the type locality of the species

624 (Forster, 1944), in two localities near Wellington (Karori Wildlife Sanctuary and

625 Wilton's Bush Nature Walk); and in the South Island: Kahurangi N.P., Paparoa N.P.,

626 Haast, Whakapohai Wildlife Refuge, Arthur's Pass N.P., Westland-Tai Poutini N.P., and

627 Mount Aspiring N.P. This clade includes heavily denticulate specimens, including the

628 recently molted female-colored specimens from Kahurangi N.P.

629 Originally *F. nigra* was described as a subspecies of *F. chiltoni*, which had the red

630 markings on the carapace. Forster (1944a) described *Megalopsalis inconstans* Forster,

631 1944 based on a female specimen. In the same paper he described *Megalopsalis chiltoni*

632 *nigra* Forster, 1944, based on two male specimens, a subspecies that was elevated to

633 species by Taylor (2011). Our analyses clearly show that the red markings vary with

634 specimens and thus we consider both names to be co-specific. Since *Megalopsalis*

635 *inconstans* was published as a species and *M. chiltoni nigra* as a subspecies, the former

636 name takes priority. We thus consider *Forsteropsalis nigra* a junior synonym of

637 *Forsteropsalis inconstans* (new synonymy).

638 *Forsteropsalis inconstans* is the sister group to a species represented by a

- 639 specimen (MCZ129520) from Roaring Billy Falls, in the Haast Pass in the West Coast of
- 640 the South Island. The latter specimen + *Forsteropsalis inconstans* are sister to a female
- 641 (MCZ 29253) from Mt. Stokes, in the Northernmost part of the South Island.

642

643 Conclusions

644 Our study is the first to use a molecular data set to study relationships within the New 645 Zealand Neopilionidae. Although we were not able to fully test the monophyly of the 646 New Zealand neopilionids, our data is consistent with the existence of a monophyletic 647 clade of neopilionids from Australia and New Zealand. Our data largely support the current taxonomic revisions for Pantopsalis and Forsteropsalis, and suggest that a 648 649 reduced number of species seems warranted. More data are however needed to solve the 650 intrageneric relationships, as well as the relationships between the New Zealand genera 651 and the rest of the Australian species of Neopilionidae. 652

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653 Figure and table captions

654	Figure 1. (A) Current phylogenetic hypothesis of the internal relationships within
655	Monoscutidae before Taylor's (2011) placement of Monoscutidae (defined as
656	Megalopsalidinae + Monoscutinae) within the Enantiobuninae. (B) Šilhavý's (1970)
657	classification of Neopilionidae, in which the general formed clades concordant with
658	geography. (C) Hunt and Cokendolpher's (1991) competing hypotheses, neither of which
659	found monophyly for Neopilionidae.
660	
661	Figure 2. Examples of <i>Forsteropsalis</i> : (a) <i>Forsteropsalis fabulosa</i> female specimen, for

- which species determination was made by its proximity to a male of this species; (b)
- 663 Forsteropsalis fabulosa male, with the most grossly enlarged chelicers of the genus; (c)
- 664 *Forsteropsalis nigra*, characterized by sclerotization of the carapace; and (d)
- 665 *Forsteropsalis inconstans*. Photos by Sebastián Vélez (a-b) and Gonzalo Giribet (b-d).
- 666
- 667
- 668 Figure 3. Variation of chelicerae among species of *Forsteropsalis*, *Pantopsalis*, and
- 669 Spinicrus. (A) Forsteropsalis fabulosa male; (B) Forsteropsalis fabulosa female; (C)
- 670 Forsteropsalis turneri male; (D) MCZ129520 male; (E) Forsteropsalis nigra male; (F)
- 671 Forsteropsalis nigra male; (G) Forsteropsalis nigra female; (H) Forsteropsalis marplesi
- 672 female; (I) Forsteropsalis wattsi male; (J, K) Pantopsalis chiltoni male; (L) Pantopsalis
- 673 *listeri* male Type I; *Pantopsalis listeri* Type II; (O, P, Q) *Spinicrus* spp. males from
- 674 Australia.
- 675

676	Figure 4. Morphological variation in dentition, claw length, and curvature of female
677	chelicerae of (A) Forsteropsalis turneri, voucher MCZ129521; (B) Mangatangi parvum,
678	voucher MCZ129565; (C) Pantopsalis phocator, voucher MCZ129586; and
679	Forsteropsalis inconstans, voucher DNA129540.
680	
681	Figure 5. Map of New Zealand with sampling points. Each dot represents a unique
682	sampling locality. Some dots were slightly shifted to clarify the illustration, and all exact
683	localities are listed on Table 1. Stars indicate type locality for each particular species.
684	
685	Figure 6. Phylogenetic relationships based on a tree selected under the maximum
686	likelihood criterion, with tree search strategy as implemented in RAxML. Numbers above
687	branches indicate bootstrap support values after 100 replicates. Only bootstrap values
688	>50% are presented.
689	
690	Figure 7. Phylogenetic relationships based on a tree selected under the parsimony
691	criterion, under parameter set 111 for a combined COI + 18S + 28S dataset, as
692	implemented in POY under a dynamic-homology search strategy. Numbers above
693	branches represent jackknife support fractions, 1000 repetitions with 0.36 resampling
694	probability. Only jackknife fractions >0.50 are presented. Squares represent if monophyly
695	was found (black) or not (white) for different indel and transversion:transition cost
696	parameters: left to right 111, 121, 141, 211, and 3221. Parameter set names follow Boyer
697	& Giribet (2007).
698	

699	Figure 8. Comparison of pedipalpal tarsal claw from representative specimens of
700	Mangatangi, Pantopsalis, and Forsteropsalis. (a) Mangatangi parvum. Note the tooth
701	comb on the claw. (b) Pantopsalis sp. (c) Forsteropsalis turneri. (d) Forsteropsalis
702	wattsi.
703	
704	Figure 9. Palpi of representative species of Forsteropsalis, Pantopsalis, and Mangatangi
705	showing the relative length of the tubercule of the patella (Pa), indicated by the arrows.
706	Notice how the size does not correlate with the generic placement of each specimen. (a)
707	Forsteropsalis nigra male. (b) Forsteropsalis nigra female. (c) Forsteropsalis wattsi
708	female. (d) Forsteropsalis chiltoni female. (e) Pantopsalis sp. (f) Pantopsalis sp. (g)
709	Pantopsalis sp. (h) Forsteropsalis turneri female. (I) Forsteropsalis turneri female. (j)
710	Mangatangi sp. female.
711	
712	Figure 10. Dorsal view of species of Forsteropsalis, Pantopsalis, Mangatangi, and an
713	unidentified Australian species: (A) MCZ129517 Forsteropsalis marplesi; (B)
714	MCZ129519 Forsteropsalis nigra; (C) MCZ129542 Forsteropsalis wattsi; (D)
715	MCZ129587 Pantopsalis listeri; (E) MCZ136146 Pantopsalis phocator; (F)
716	MCZ129549 Australian sp.; (G) MCZ129518 Mangatangi sp.
717	
718	Table 1. Voucher, locality and GenBank accession numbers for the sequenced
719	specimens.
720	

721

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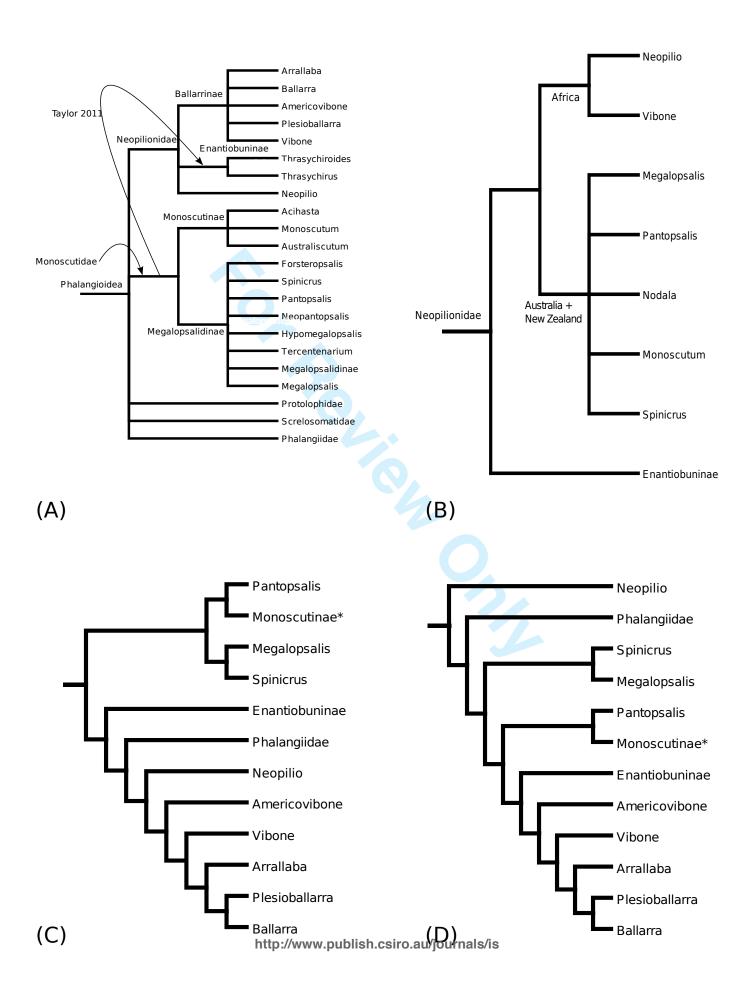
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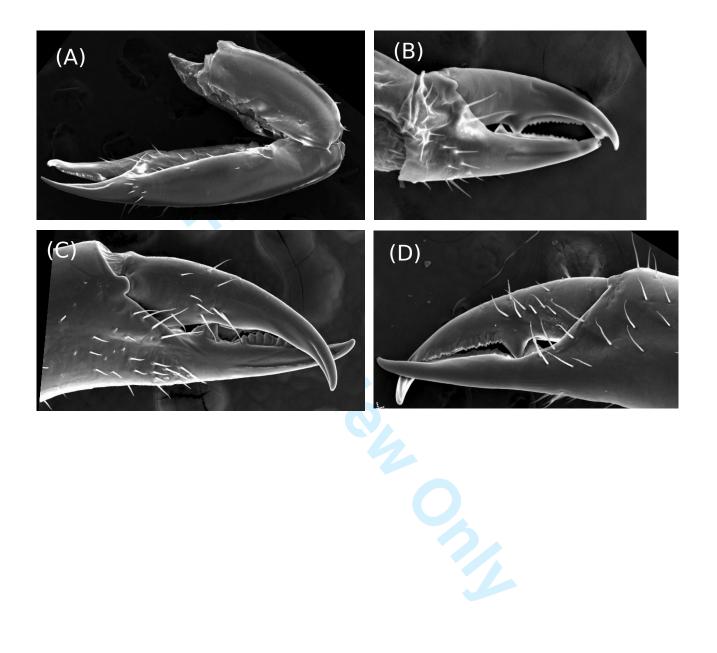


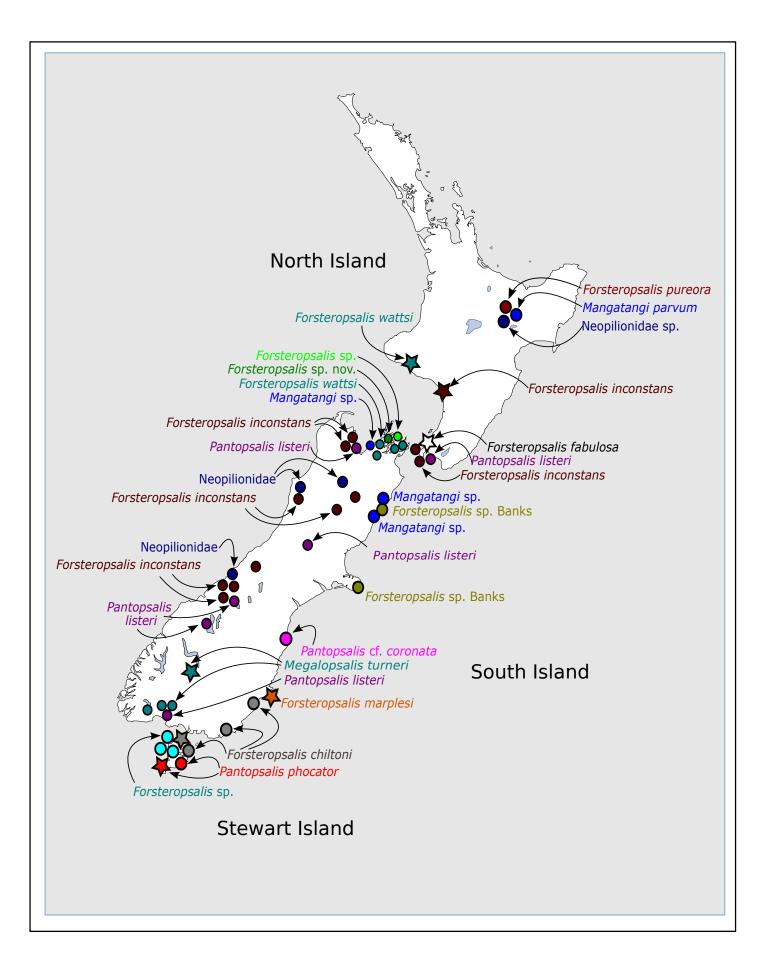


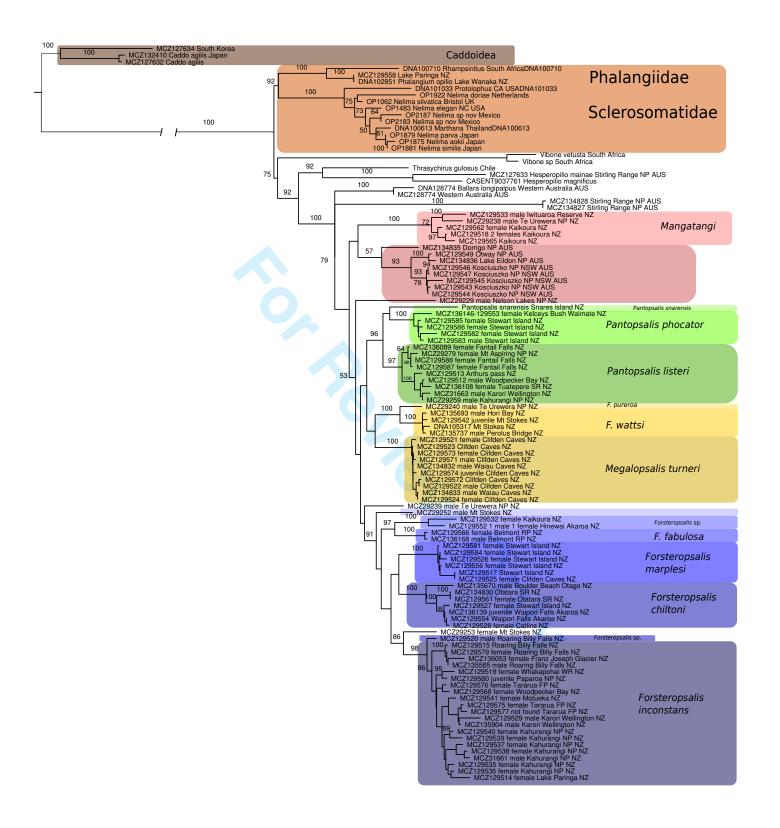


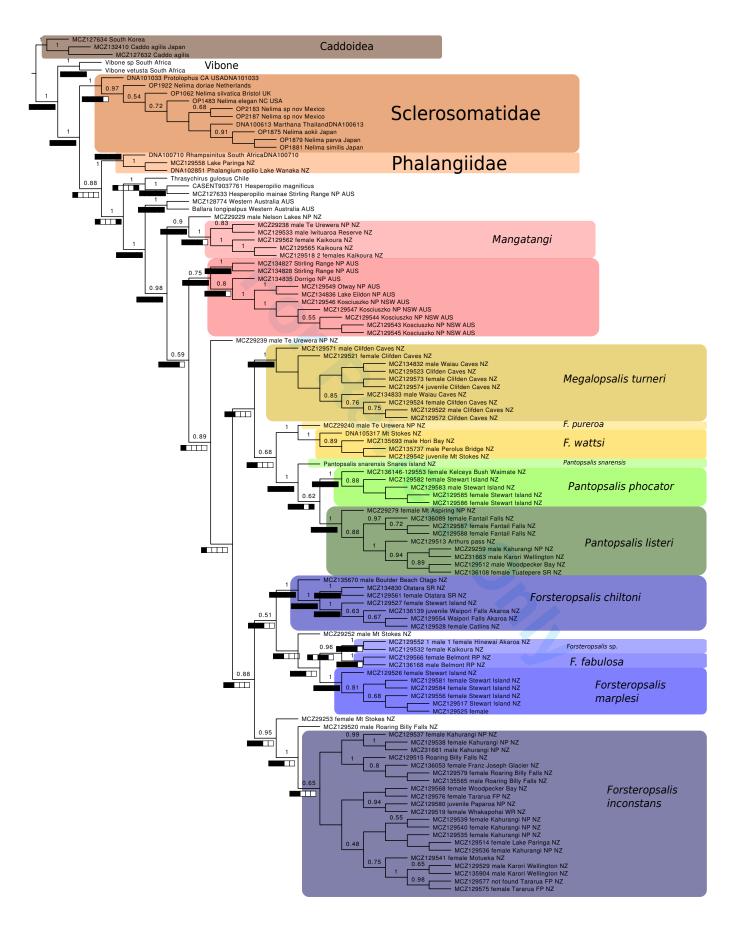
Invertebrate Systematics

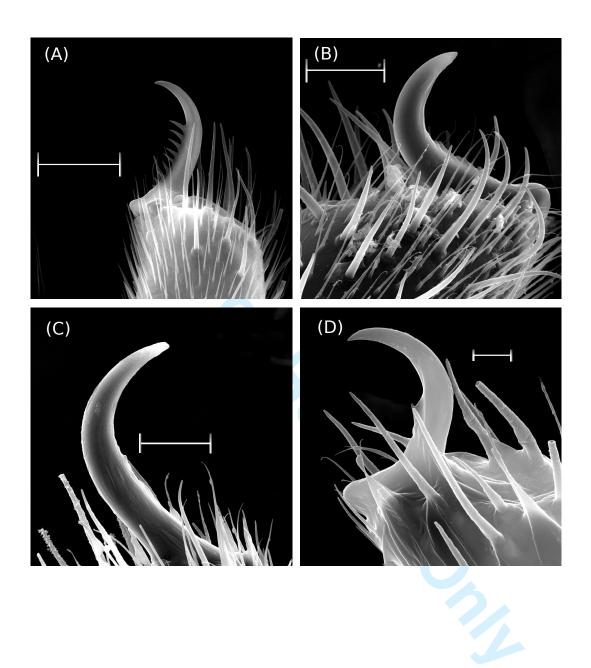


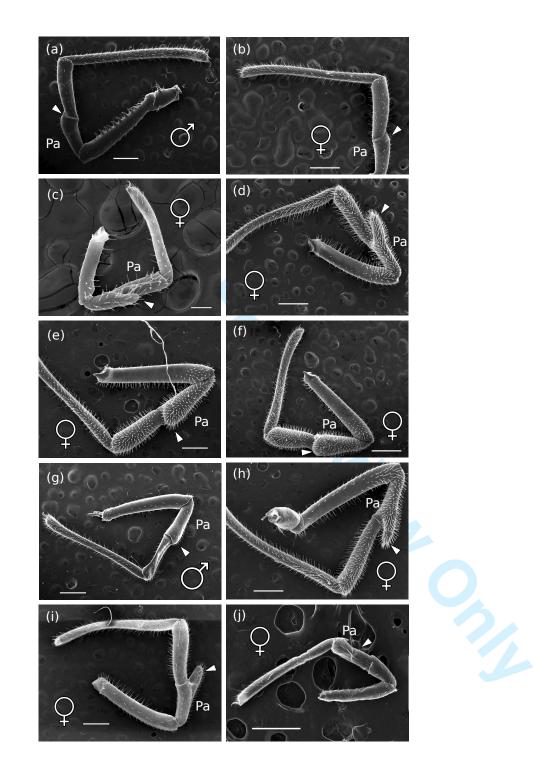


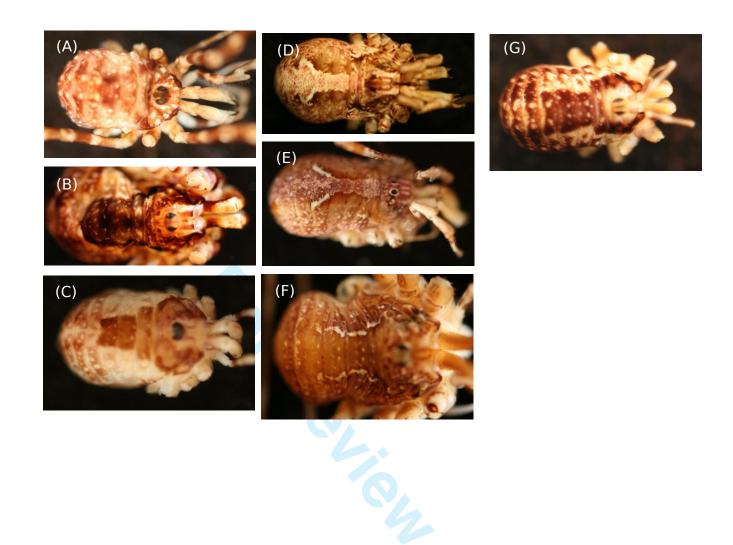












Voucher	Descriptor	Locality	Other catalog number / Reference	Lat	Long
AH.001078	Pantopsalis snar	^r Snares Island, NZ	n/a	-8.0205	166.6113
CASENT-90	Hesperopilio ma	Ignificus	from Giribet and Groh (unpublished)		
MCZ127632	Caddo agilis	unknown	from Giribet and Groh (unpublished)	unknown	unknown
MCZ127633	Hesperopilio ma	v Stirling Range NP	from Giribet and Groh (unpublished)	-34.3750	118.2567
MCZ127634	Caddo pepperell	l South Korea	n/a	35.2758	127.6178
MCZ128774	Ballara sp	Western Australia A	DNA128774	-32.6000	116.2000
MCZ129512	Pantopsalis sp	Woodpecker Bay N	DNA102786	-42.2172	171.3897
			DNA102800	-43.2669	171.7097
MCZ129514	Forsteropsalis s	Lake Paringa NZ	DNA102823	-43.595	169.8247
MCZ129515	Forsteropsalis s	Roaring Billy Falls	DNA102840	-43.2989	169.2881
MCZ129517	Forsteropsalis s	Stewart Island NZ	DNA102882	-46.6647	168.2350
	Mangatangi sp		DNA102921	-42.0539	173.4006
		Whakapohai WR N	DNA105050	-43.56	169.0811
	-	Roaring Billy Falls		-43.2806	169.5097
	-	Clifden Caves NZ		-46.0919	167.4972
	0 1	Clifden Caves NZ		-46.0919	167.4972
	-	Clifden Caves NZ		-46.0919	167.4972
	-	Clifden Caves NZ			167.4972
	-	Clifden Caves NZ		-46.0919	167.4972
	-	Stewart Island NZ		-46.8347	168.5381
	-	Stewart Island NZ		-46.8347	168.5381
	Forsteropsalis s		DNA105197	-46.4128	169.8039
MCZ129529	Forsteropsalis s	Karori Wellington	DNA105355	-41.0661	174.5325
	Forsteropsalis s		DNA104787	-42.8953	173.3422
	-	Iwituaroa Reserve 1			173.2486
		Kahurangi NP NZ		-41.4081	172.4922
	-	Kahurangi NP NZ		-41.4081	172.4922
	-	Kahurangi NP NZ		-41.4081	172.4922
	-	Kahurangi NP NZ		-41.4081	172.4922
	-	Kahurangi NP NZ		-41.4081	172.4922
MCZ129540	Forsteropsalis s	Kahurangi NP NZ	DNA105979	-41.4081	172.4922
	Forsteropsalis s	-	DNA105980	-41.8064	172.3867
MCZ129542	Forsteropsalis s	Mt Stokes NZ	DNA105981	-41.2031	174.2922
MCZ129543	Spinicrus sp	Kosciuszko NP NS	DNA105982	-36.0825	148.7389
MCZ129544	Spinicrus sp	Kosciuszko NP NS	DNA105983	-36.0825	148.7389
MCZ129545	Spinicrus sp	Kosciuszko NP NS	DNA105984	-36.0825	148.7389
MCZ129546	Spinicrus sp	Kosciuszko NP NS	DNA105985	-36.0825	148.7389
MCZ129547	Spinicrus sp	Kosciuszko NP NS	DNA105986	-36.0825	148.7389
MCZ129549		Otway NP AUS	DNA105988	-38.1786	143.7928
MCZ129552	Forsteropsalis s	Hinewai Akaroa NZ	DNA102910	-43.6967	173.7053
	-	Waipori Falls Akar		-45.2983	169.2831
		Stewart Island NZ		-46.9147	168.0017
	-		DNA102825	-43.71	169.4970
	Forsteropsalis s	_	DNA100784	-46.0072	168.0049

			Sheet	-			
MCZ129562	Mangatangi sp Kaikoura NZ		DNA102915			-42.6878	173.7469
MCZ129565	Mangatangi par Kaikoura NZ		DNA102919			-42.8953	173.3422
MCZ129566	Forsteropsalis s Belmont RP N	ΙZ	DNA102929			-41.3492	174.9275
	Forsteropsalis s Woodpecker	-				-42.2172	171.3897
MCZ129571	Forsteropsalis s Clifden Caves	NZ	DNA105147			-46.0919	167.4972
MCZ129572	Forsteropsalis s Clifden Caves	NZ	DNA105148			-46.0919	167.4972
MCZ129573	Forsteropsalis s Clifden Caves	NZ	DNA105145			-46.0919	167.4972
MCZ129574	Forsteropsalis s Clifden Caves	NZ	DNA105151			-46.0919	167.4972
MCZ129575	Forsteropsalis s Tararua FP N	Z	DNA105528			-40.2828	175.8169
MCZ129576	Forsteropsalis s Tararua FP N	Z	DNA105527			-40.2828	175.8169
MCZ129577	Forsteropsalis s Tararua FP N	Z	DNA105526			-40.2828	175.8169
MCZ129578	Forsteropsalis s Mt Stokes NZ		DNA105317			-41.09	174.1381
MCZ129579	Forsteropsalis s Roaring Billy	Falls	DNA105056			-43.2806	169.5097
MCZ129580	Forsteropsalis s Paparoa NP N	Ζ	DNA105029			-42.555	171.5556
MCZ129581	Forsteropsalis s Stewart Island	I NZ	DNA104789			-46.9147	168.0017
MCZ129582	Pantopsalis sp Stewart Island	I NZ	DNA104791			-46.9147	168.0017
MCZ129583	Pantopsalis sp Stewart Island	I NZ	DNA104792			-46.9147	168.0017
MCZ129584	Forsteropsalis s Stewart Island	NZ	DNA104793			-46.9147	168.0017
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	Vibone vetusta South Africa		DNA106709			-33.9856	18.4013
MCZ132935	-		DNA106708			-33.9673	18.9431
	<i>Rhampsinitu</i> s sp South Africa			from Giribet et al :			18.4500
MCZ134827						-34.3803	118.2503
MCZ134828			DNA106784				118.2503
	Forsteropsalis s Otatara SR N		DNA100782				168.1547
	Forsteropsalis s Waiau Caves			from Boyer 2007		-46.0003	167.0123
	Forsteropsalis s Waiau Caves		DNA100785				167.0123
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	Forsteropsalis s Boulder Beac						170.6233
	Forsteropsalis s Hori Bay NZ		DNA105227				173.0136
	Forsteropsalis s Perolus Bridg						173.3761
	Forsteropsalis s Karori Wellin	-					174.1625
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	Pantopsalis sp Waimate NZ		DNA102907			-44.70	170.9675
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MCZ29252	Forsteropsalis s Mt Stokes NZ	, i	n/a			-41.09	174.1382
			D (

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OP1881	Nelima similis	Honshu JAPAN	from Hedin et al 2012		
OP1922	Nelima doriae	NETHERLANDS	from Hedin et al 2012		
OP2183	Nelima sp nov	Oaxaca, MEXICO	from Hedin et al 2012		
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