The conformation of the male palpal organs of Linyphiid spiders, and its application to the taxonomic and phylogenetic analysis of the family (Araneae: Linyphiidae)

A. F. Millidge<br>Little Farthing,<br>Upper Westhill Road, Lyme Regis, Dorset DT7 3ER

## Summary

The palpal conformations, as herein defined, of species from most of the European genera of the family Linyphiidae have been analysed. The genera, both erigonine and linyphiine, have been grouped according to their conformations, and inferences have been drawn concerning the relationships between both the groups themselves and the individual members of the groups. Based on the results of the analyses, and on the assumption that the plesiomorphous (primitive) form of the linyphiid palp was simple, and that the apomorphous (derived) forms are more complex, a partial phylogenetic classification of the Linyphiidae has been drawn up. The scheme proposed indicates that the family should not be split into the traditional subfamilies Linyphiinae and Erigoninae, but that both linyphiine and erigonine forms have arisen from more than one part of the phylogenetic tree. Provisional proposals are made for a number of taxonomic changes, and a short list of new synonyms is appended.
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## A. Introduction

The work described in this paper originated during a study of the erigonine spiders of Europe; most of the species and examples of all of the currently used genera have been examined. The results obtained prompted a similar study of the linyphiine spiders, but the work carried out in this area so far has been much more limited in scope. In consequence, the greater part of the paper is devoted to the erigonine spiders. The terms "erigonine" and "linyphiine" are used as convenient labels for spiders of the family Linyphiidae which have certain characteristics summarised by Locket and Millidge (1953), Wiehle (1960) and Merrett (1963); these terms are to be regarded as descriptive only, and to have no phylogenetic significance, i.e. it is not to be assumed that the erigonines and linyphiines are 2 distinct subfamilies. The object of the paper is to discuss briefly the problems inherent in any attempt to erect a phylogenetic system for this family, and to propose a new approach to the use of the male palpal organs as indicators of phylogenetic relationships.

The taxonomy of the Linyphiidae (and particularly of the erigonines) is made exceptionally difficult by the close similarity in the somatic characters of all the species. There has consequently been a strong tendency among arachnologists (the author being equally culpable! ) to create many monotypic genera for the erigonines, or to include in a genus
only a few closely related (sibling) species. It would certainly be better (if it were possible) in this homogeneous group if kinship relationships could be made evident in the binomial species names by fusing together some of these multitudinous genera, within which sub-genera or species groups could be used to indicate the smaller branches of the phylogenetic tree. In order to do this, it will be essential to find better means for establishing relationships (in the phylogenetic sense) between the species. The formation and continued use of large numbers of small genera will serve merely to obscure relationships, and it should be the aim of the taxonomist to use the genus to show relationship rather than to indicate difference.

To produce a classification of the Linyphiidae which can legitimately be regarded as phylogenetic is obviously a formidable problem. Palaeontological evidence is completely lacking; virtually nothing is known at this time about their comparative ethology, physiology, embryology or genetics. The ecological preferences of these mainly ground-living species are probably of little significance for taxonomy, particularly as many species seem to be fairly adaptable and may show different habitat preferences in different parts of Europe. Hence at the present time there is no alternative but to base the taxonomy exclusively on morphological characters, and indeed almost exclusively on external morphological characters.

Numerous attempts (summarised by Merrett, 1963) have been made to classify the Linyphiidae into groups or subfamilies, on the basis of selected morphological characters, but none of these attempts makes any pretence of leading to a classification which can be regarded in any way as phylogenetic. In addition, there is no agreement amongst arachnologists on the question of the dividing line (if such exists) between the erigonines and the linyphiines, nor on the question of the position of certain transitional genera. Both Jackson (1932) and Bristowe (1938) expressed the opinion that the grouping of linyphiid species into genera and higher taxa would eventually be based on the structure of the sex organs, presumably on the basis that these organs, which do not appear until the final moult and are then used solely for copulation, should have been but little subject to selection by environmental factors.

Occasional attempts have been made by arachnologists to base erigonine taxonomy on some feature of the male palpal organs (particularly Crosby and Bishop in numerous papers on the N. American species; and Wiehle, 1960), and in recent years special emphasis has been laid on the structural forms of the "embolic division" and the "median apophysis" as seen in the expanded palp, for both erigonine and linyphiine species (Merrett, 1963). (Note: the author prefers the term "suprategulum" as proposed by Saaristo (1971) to replace the term "median apophysis", on the ground that this avoids confusion when discussing the apophysis ("suprategular apophysis") which arises from the forward end of the suprategulum). Within apparently well-defined genera (and particularly in the erigonines) the embolic division (ED) can show quite wide variations in shape, and the embolus can vary considerably in length; the variations in the suprategular apophysis (SA) are often less pronounced. In consequence of this intrageneric variability of the ED and the SA it has been difficult or impossible to infer that any particular form of these component parts, as seen in the expanded palps, is uniquely characteristic of a group of species which could rank as a taxon of generic or higher order. In practice, therefore, it has almost always been necessary when assigning an erigonine species to a genus to rely to a marked extent on somatic characters. Linyphiine genera have also been based largely on somatic characters, though attempts have been made in recent years to define some genera on the structure of the sex organs (e.g. Merrett, 1963; Saaristo, 1971, 1972, 1973(1), (2), 1974).

The use of somatic characters for genus delineation is of course in no way unusual or undesirable, but in the Linyphiidae the problem is to find somatic characters which appear to be stable enough within what experience indicates to be good (i.e. probably monophyletic) genera. In order to be able to deduce that a group is monophyletic, it is necessary (Hennig, 1966) to identify at least one apomorphous (derived) character (no matter how "trivial") which is common to all members of the group (synapomorphous character). Because of the paucity of good morphological characters available in the Linyphiidae, and in the erigonines particularly, and because of character plasticity, it has usually not been possible to pinpoint such synapomorphous characters for a genus or
a fortiori for the higher taxa.
In the past, taxonomists have relied heavily on the use of such characters as the spacing, curvature and size of the eyes, the cheliceral teeth, and the form of the male head, when dealing with the erigonines. The eyes and cheliceral teeth normally show too much individual variation, and are often too difficult to measure accurately, to be of much value, at any rate above species level. The male head seems to be a volatile character (e.g. in Walckenaera), and in general is of value only at the species level; it may occasionally, however, offer a confirmatory indication at a higher level. Examples of other characters which have often been employed in the taxonomy of the erigonines are abdominal scuta, tarsal claws, and the chaetotaxy. Abdominal scuta are found, usually only in the male, in a number of genera, and it seems almost certain that scuta have been developed more than once in the family; but why only in certain small erigonines (at least in Europe) is obscure. The extent of the scuta can be variable within a species and within the species of a genus (e.g. Pelecopsis); within Mecopisthes the species silus has a distinct scutum in the male, while its sibling peusi has no scutum. Nevertheless the presence of abdominal scuta may sometimes offer indications which are useful for phylogenetic analysis. Lehtinen and Saaristo (1969) have suggested that the pattern of sclerotisation may be important.

In several genera (e.g. Walckenaera, Gonatium, Tapinocyba) the tarsal claws (particularly on legs I and II) are equipped with long comb-like teeth. This character can be useful in diagnosis, but it seems probable either that it has been developed on several separate occasions in the family, or (perhaps more probably) that it is a primitive character which has been retained in some cases. It is perhaps of significance that the small theridiids Robertus and Enoplognatha have similar pectinate claws. Despite its erratic occurrence, this character may sometimes offer useful indications for phylogenetic analysis.

One of the most useful characters for erigonine and linyphiine taxonomy has been the chaetotaxy. The tibial spinal formula, the presence or absence of a trichobothrium on metatarsus IV, and the position of the metatarsal trichobothria are characters which are often reasonably reliable at the generic level; but they are not completely reliable. Even with current generic
limits (which are probably set too narrowly in many cases) there appear to be occasional variations in the spinal formula (e.g. Araeoncus praeceps Holm 1962; Erigone svenssoni Holm 1975). If some of the generic limits were widened, then the spinal formula within genera could become less constant. There are a number of cases where well-defined genera (e.g. Entelecara) contain species both with and without the 4th metatarsal trichobothrium, and hence this character, though often useful as a practical tool, cannot be considered as reliable for genus delineation. There are even a few examples where the 4th metatarsal trichobothrium appears in a species where it is normally absent (Erigone longipalpis: Murgatroyd, 1954, Murphy, 1974(1); Micrargus herbigradus: Murphy, 1974(2)), indicating perhaps that in these species the trichobothrium has not long been lost. The position of the metatarsal trichobothria (indicated by the expression Tm I, etc. (Locket and Millidge, 1953)) within a species is somewhat variable, perhaps usually by ca. $\pm 10 \%$ (Wunderlich, 1972, Palmgren, 1976); but this variation will almost certainly follow a normal statistical distribution about a mean value, with the majority of specimens showing a variation of probably $\pm 5 \%$. (Note: in this paper, the values given for TmI are for the adult 9 ). Despite this inherent variability, the values of TmI are often useful, in conjunction with the tibial spinal formula, for indicating the possible generic affinities of a species; within a few genera, however (e.g. Walckenaera), the position of the trichobothria is far from constant from species to species (but see Section C10 p. 32). An additional chaetotaxic character which is used in Sections C and D is the number of trichobothria on the dorsal side of the male palpal tibia; this number varies from 1-5. Most of the typical erigonine species have 1 or 2 , while the genera which appear to be more primitive have 3 or more; the typically linyphiine species normally have 3 or 4 .

Despite the practical value of chaetotaxy in erigonine taxonomy, it has seemed to some authors (Lehtinen and Saaristo, 1970) that such meristic/numerical characters can have little value in phylogenetic analysis, because of the probability that there has been parallel development within the family of such simple characters. Nevertheless, the work reported in the present paper indicates that the position of the metatarsal trichobothria does probably
have some phylogenetic significance, when taken in conjunction with the palpal conformation.

This brief review of some of the characters commonly used by taxonomists seems to show that not one is acceptably reliable, on its own, for the delineation of genera or higher taxa; i.e. the identification of reliable synapomorphous characters for the higher taxa in the Linyphiidae seems rarely if ever to have been achieved. This is perhaps not surprising in view of the paucity of available characters on the one hand, and the large number of species involved on the other. Whether additional characters yet to be investigated, e.g. the fine structure of hairs or cuticle by electron microscopy, will improve this situation remains to be seen.

## B. Palpal Conformation

It is the chief aim of this paper to draw attention to a morphological character which, though perhaps an obvious one, does not appear to have been studied in detail nor used explicitly to indicate relationships at generic and higher levels in the erigonine or linyphiine spiders. This is the "conformation" of the male palpal organ, which is defined as the spatial arrangement or organisation of the unexpanded palpal organ as a whole, i.e. the holomorphology of the palpal organ. Palpal conformation is therefore concerned as much or more with the arrangement of the individual parts of the palp as with the detailed shapes and forms of the parts. In emphasising the importance of conformation, the author does not intend in any way to underestimate the value of the earlier work carried out on the expanded palp (particularly by Merrett, 1963); but while expansion of the palp is often necessary to discern the full details of the component parts, it must be emphasised that the expanded palp may sometimes give a misleading picture of the conformation.

This concept of palpal conformation (referred to hereafter simply as conformation), though never described as such, has in fact been used intuitively to some extent by a few arachnologists in their taxonomic studies. The majority of the figures of palps so far published have not however been detailed or accurate enough to show the detailed conformations which will be discussed in this paper.

The author has observed that, despite considerable variations which may occur in the ED and (to a lesser extent) in the SA within apparently well-based erigonine genera, the conformation appears to remain essentially constant within these genera. For this and other reasons which will become clear in this paper, the author puts forward the view that comparative analysis of conformations, in conjunction with other characters, should prove to be of greater significance in exploring phylogenetic relationships than consideration of the structures of the ED and SA alone.

In this paper, the palp is considered as directed forwards from the head of the spider, and the side which is outside is described as the lateral side, while the side which is inside is described as the mesal side; the distal end of the palp is thus the anterior end. The figures of the palps are of the right palp viewed from the inside and rather below (i.e. meso-ventrally) unless otherwise stated. The palps were immersed in clove oil and examined by transmitted light under a monocular microscope to observe the route of the seminal duct.

The form of the male palp is basically similar in almost all erigonines (Merrett, 1963); this is shown semi-diagrammatically in Fig. 1. The tegulum is normally more or less vertical, i.e. the seminal duct runs approximately up and down. The suprategulum, which is always to some extent sclerotised, is located on the mesal side of the palp, and lies along the dividing line between the sub-tegulum and the tegulum; at its distal end the suprategulum carries the suprategular apophysis, which takes a variety of forms ranging from the simple to the complex. The seminal duct runs from the reservoir in the subtegulum by a circular or spiral pathway down through the tegulum on the lateral side and up on the mesal side and along the suprategulum to the embolic division. The connection to the embolic division is made via a membranous stalk (arising from the suprategulum) which carries the duct and which may have a membranous or semi-membranous extension projecting forwards; the extension may be fused to the suprategular apophysis. The embolic division is very variable in form, but consists essentially of a radical part from which arises the embolus and sometimes other apophyses; the embolus may be very long or merely a short stub, and the radical part may extend backwards as a "tail". The linyphiine palp is essen-
tially of the same form, but the embolic division is much larger and more complex, and the suprategular apophysis is usually relatively simple; the tegulum is most frequently more or less horizontal, which is also the case in a few erigonines (e.g. Ceratinella).

The erigonine spiders are all closely similar morphologically, the species differing from each other only in relatively minor respects; it is only in the adult males that startling morphological differences may appear. This close similarity in characters strongly predicates a common ancestry. If, as is nowadays accepted by many arachnologists, the erigonine spiders form part of the Linyphiidae (without making any assumptions on the existence within the family of the two sub-families Linyphiinae and Erigoninae), then both the erigonines and the linyphiines must have evolved from a common ancestor, the stem species of the family. Given a common ancestry, then a consideration of the (at first sight) bewildering variety of palpal forms in the family indicates, as probably the simplest logical hypothesis, that this wide matrix of palpal forms has evolved by elaborative radiation in a number of directions from one relatively simple conformation.

In modern terminology, the plesiomorphous (primitive) conformation in the Linyphiidae is inferred to have been of the simplest form, while the more complex conformations present in most of the present species are the more apomorphous (derived) forms of this character.

The reasons for the increasing complexity of the palpal organs are obscure. There seems to be no good reason to assume in this family that increasing complexity equates with increasing efficiency in copulation. It is scarcely conceivable, for example, that the palp of the common species Pocadicnemis pumila (Bl.), with a long whip-like embolus, can be more mechanically efficient for sperm transfer to the female vulva than the simpler palp of the even commoner Erigone dentipalpis (Wid.) which has a short stub-like embolus. And indeed it is perhaps meaningless to suggest, with reference to species (populations) which exist today, that any one combination of palp/vulva is more efficient than any other; only one thing can be regarded as certain, namely that the reproductive equipment of all current species has been efficient enough to ensure the survival of the
species. The changes (elaborations) in the palpal conformation within the family may therefore have been an unavoidable side effect of genetic changes associated with adaptations to their environment (e.g. Levi, 1961, p.8).

The simplest conformation of the linyphiid type of palp would probably be where the suprategulum has only a rudimentary or small apophysis, and where the seminal duct runs down from the suprategulum to enter directly into the dorsal or lateral side of a small, simple ED, equipped with a short embolus. The conformation of the stem species of the family is not of course known from any direct evidence, but is assumed to be a simple form close to this type; there is no reason to think that the completely plesiomorphous conformation of the linyphiid palp exists in any current species. At some time, and probably fairly. early during the evolution of the family, a phylogenetic branch arose in which the duct entry moved away from this probable primitive position on the lateral or dorsal side (Fig. 8) of the ED to a less direct entry on the mesal side (e.g. Fig. 43). This displacement of the duct entry subsequently went a stage further to give the conformation where the duct passes across the ED, near the base of the embolus, and then loops back into the base of the embolus (e.g. Fig. 45); this is considered to be the most apomorphous form of duct entry (in the European fauna). In species with small ED's, narrow from top to bottom, the change involved between dorsal entry and dorso-mesal entry is obviously small (and perhaps to some extent subjective, since where the stalk ends and the ED begins is not sharply defined), but the change becomes significant when the ED is larger or when the duct entry passes fully over to the mesal side (e.g. Fig. 43). With one or two doubtful exceptions, all the linyphiid species present in Europe today seem to have been derived from one or other of these basic duct conformations. One major branch of the linyphiines has arisen from the conformation with the lateral duct entry, and another major branch from the conformation with the dorsal duct entry; erigonines have arisen from both these conformations. The conformation with mesal entry has given rise almost exclusively to erigonine species, and in particular to the numerous genera with relatively long coiled emboli (Section C9, p. 19). All the palps are derivable from the basic forms by straightforward
morphological elaboration of the ED's and, to a lesser extent, of the SA's, coupled with changes to the tegulum and to the course of the duct in the tegulum.

It is put forward as a hypothesis that the various conformations present today are the results of separate phylogenetic lines of development; the basis for this postulate is the improbability that a given conformation (a relatively complex, non-adaptive character) has been evolved more than once in the family. The phylogenetic analysis carried out in this paper is on the basis of this hypothesis, and on the assumptions (i) that the primitive conformation of the palpal organs was simple, and that the derived forms are more complex; and (ii) that, in the absence of any evidence to the contrary, any regression from more complex to more simple forms has not occurred, i.e. that the evolution has been essentially in one direction only. In other words, the present-day conformations are transformation conditions of the plesiomorphous conformation, which was present in the stem species but which almost certainly no longer exists, in its entirety, in any contemporary species. Each conformation type is therefore considered to be an apomorphous character, and possession by a group of species of the same or closely similar conformations (synapomorphy) justifies the presumption of monophyly in the group (Hennig, 1966). The theory is developed in this paper by the conformational analysis of most of the European genera of erigonine and linyphiine spiders, (with fewer species studied in the latter case). The erigonine genera are split into a number of groups, on the basis of their conformations, and the possible inter-relationships of the groups are discussed. The linyphiine genera are then analysed on the basis of their conformations, and their probable relationships with some of the erigonine groups are indicated. The phylogenetic picture emerging from the comparative analysis of the conformations is shown schematically in Fig. 200 and discussed in Section E (p. 50).

## C. Conformations of Erigonine Genera

## 1. Leptorhoptrum/Lophomma Group (Figs. 2-9, 12, 179)

In this group the ED is connected to the suprategulum by a clear stalk which comes down on to the dorsal side of the ED (e.g. Figs. 3, 7), and the duct enters the ED more or less on the dorsal side. The species placed in this group are postulated as having arisen, probably by several separate branchings, from ancestors which were close to the stem species. On one side of this group are the more linyphiine forms (e.g. Leptorhoptrum) which are close to Hilaira (Section C 3, p. 8) and to some linyphiine genera, and on the other side are species which are closer to the erigonine genera such as Tapinocyba (Section C 8, p. 15) and Savignya (Section C 11, p. 32).

The current genera included in this group are as follows:

Diplocentria Hull 1911<br>Tiso Simon 1884<br>Zornella Jackson 1932<br>"Gongylidiellum" mediocre Simon<br>Lophomma Menge 1867<br>Notioscopus Simon 1884<br>Troxochrus Simon 1884<br>Leptorhoptrum Kulcz. 1894

The genera Diplocentria (Fig. 2) and Tiso (Figs. 3, 4) have conformations fairly close to those of some Hilaira species, particularly to pervicax Hull and nubigena Hull (Figs. 16, 15). Zornella (Fig. 5) has some similarities in conformation to Tiso, including the fairly strongly developed SA, but it is an anomalous genus in some respects: e.g. it has 5 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia instead of the more usual 1-3.

The species " $G$." mediocre (Fig. 6) has a conformation rather like a simplified Diplocentria or Hilaira; it has tibial spines $2221, \mathrm{TmI} 0.4$, no TmIV, and is

## Figures

All male palps are right palps viewed from inside and rather below, unless otherwise stated. Abbreviations used: $\mathrm{ED}=$ embolic division; $\mathrm{E}=$ embolus; $\mathrm{SA}=$ suprategular apophysis, $\mathrm{T}=$ tegulum.


Figs. 1-8: Male palps. 1 Generalised erigonine palp: SPT = suprategulum, $\mathrm{ST}=$ subtegulum, $\mathrm{D}=$ duct; 2 Diplocentria bidentata (Emert.); 3 Tiso vagans (B1.); 4 T. aestivus (L. Koch); 5 Zornella cultrigera (L. Koch); 6 "Gongylidiellum' mediocre Simon; 7 Notioscopus sarcinatus (Cambr.); 8 Lophomma punctatum (B1.).
not a Gongylidiellum. To avoid the creation of a new genus at this stage it can perhaps be placed provisionally in Diplocentria until its relationships become clearer.

The genera Lophomma, Notioscopus and Troxochrus are closer to the more typically erigonine genera. Lophomma (Fig. 8) has a conformation which is close to that of Tapinocyba (Section C 8, p. 15). Notioscopus (Fig. 7) is similar in conformation to Mecynargus (Rhaebothorax) (Section C 8). Troxochrus (Fig. 9) could, from the form of the ED, represent a precursor of the Savignya group (Section C 11, p. 32).

Leptorhoptrum (Fig. 12) has a simple conformation of the same basic type, but differs from the other members of this group in having the tegulum more or less horizontal. It can be regarded as an offshoot from the Lophomma group, but it may have arisen from close to the stem species. The conformation of Leptorhoptrum is basically similar to that of some linyphiine species (Section D).

Most of the species in this group have not developed marked erigonine characters. Only Troxochrus has a small cephalic lobe in the male; Notioscopus has an elevation behind the eyes, as in some Hilaira species.

## 2. Drepanotylus Group (Figs. 10, 11)

The following current genera/species are included in this group:

## "Tibioplus" arcuatus Tullg. Drepanotylus Holm 1945

The three species concerned are related in conformation to the Lophomma group, and also probably to Hilaira. The species "T." arcuatus (Fig. 11) (which is not a Tibioplus) is rather similar to Tiso, and Drepanotylus (Fig. 10) can be regarded as a further extension of the arcuatus type. Both arcuatus and Drepanotylus have a long forward-directed membranous extension on the stalk; they differ considerably, however, in chaetotaxy. D. borealis Holm has a small pointed apophysis on the base of the radix of the ED which could represent a vestigial "lamella". This small group has presumably arisen by separate branchings from a phylogenetic region close to the Lophomma and Hilaira groups.

## 3. Hilaira Group (Figs. 13-20, 23, 187-188)

In this group, the duct comes down from the suprategulum in a stout stalk and enters the ED on the lateral or dorsal side; the stalk often extends, as a relatively non-sclerotised region, into the ED (e.g. Fig. 14). There is a tendency for the ED to become split into sclerotised areas joined by less sclerotised areas, as in the linyphiine type of ED. None of the species has a true cephalic lobe in the male, but the head is sometimes elevated behind the eyes. The following current genera are included in this group:

## Hilaira Simon 1884

Phaulothrix Bertkau 1885
Erigonidium Smith 1904
Hylyphantes Simon 1884
All the Hilaira species are closely similar in chaetotaxy (tib.spines 2222, lateral spine on tib.I, TmI $0.60-0.70$, TmIV present), but the male palps show fairly wide variations in the ED. H. herniosa (Thor.) (Fig. 13) is clearly congeneric with H. excisa (Cambr.) (Fig. 14) (the type species), the ED being merely an exaggerated form of the excisa type. In nubigena Hull (Fig. 15), pervicax Hull (Fig. 16) and the montigena (L.K.) group (Fig. 17) the margin of the suprategulum is folded over, a character not present in excisa/herniosa; a similar form of suprategulum is present in some linyphiine species. Despite the presence of the long curved embolus arising from the dorsal side of the ED in the montigena group, the general form of the ED is of the same type here as in nubigena and pervicax. There are 3 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia of all the species except nubigena, which has the unusual number of 5 (Fig. 20). Because of the differences in the ED's there must be some question whether nubigena, pervicax and montigena are congeneric with excisa/herniosa, but for the present they can be left in Hilaira as a separate species group.
P. hardyi (B1.) (Fig. 18) has a conformation generally similar to Hilaira, and the embolus is to some extent intermediate between pervicax and montigena. The chaetotaxy is also similar, though the lateral spine on tib. I is absent; the male head is rather like that of excisa. The male palpal tibia has 4 trichobothria. It seems probable that Phaulothrix should be regarded as a synonym of Hilaira (syn.n.), with hardyi


Figs. 9-16: Male palps. 9 Troxochrus scabriculus (Westr.); 10 Drepanotylus borealis (Holm); 11 "Tibioplus" arcuatus (Tullg.); 12 Leptorhoptrum robustum (Westr.); 13 Hilaira herniosa (Thor.); 14 H. excisa (Cambr.); 15 H. nubigena Hull; 16 H. pervicax Hull.


Figs. 17-26: Male palps. 17 Hilaira montigena (L. Koch); 18 Phaulothrix hardyi (B1.); 19 Erigonidium graminicola (Sund.); 20 H. nubigena Hull, palpal tibia (above); 21 Gongylidium rufipes (Sund.), ED and SA; 22 Trematocephalus cristatus (Wid.); 23 Hylyphantes nigritus (Simon); 24 Oedothorax apicatus (B1.); 25 Collinsia holmgreni (Thor.); 26 C. distincta (Simon).
placed in a separate species group.
Erigonidium (Fig. 19) seems to be fairly close to H. excisa in conformation, but the ED has a screwlike embolus; the tibial spines have been reduced to 2211. Hylyphantes (Fig. 23) also probably belongs here. It has the same chaetotaxy as Erigonidium, but the ED is somewhat differently formed; nevertheless it seems probable that Erigonidium is a synonym of Hylyphantes, as suggested by Wunderlich (1970). Both species have 3 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia. The genus Hylyphantes (s.lat.) can be regarded as a small side branch from the Hilaira group.

This group has probably arisen from a stock with a conformation of the Lophomma group type, by elaboration of the ED coupled with other minor changes.

## 4. Gongylidium Group (Figs. 21, 22, 24)

The following current genera are included in this group:

Gongylidium Menge 1868
Oedothorax Bertkau 1883
Trematocephalus Dahl 1886
These genera have conformations similar in type to those of some Hilaira group species. The conformation of Gongylidium (Fig. 21) is fairly close to that of H. (Phaulothrix) hardyi (Fig. 18) or H. montigena (Fig. 17), but in Gongylidium the radical part is more distinctly separated from the "embolic part" by a non-sclerotised region. The Oedothorax species have a conformation of similar type; as in Gongylidium, the duct enters on the lateral side of the embolic part, which is separated from the radical part by a relatively non-sclerotised area, but in Oedothorax the embolus is smaller and shorter (Fig. 24). Trematocephalus (Fig. 22) also has a conformation of a similar basic type, though here the ED has become more complex with several distinct parts, the embolus is much longer, and the tegulum has an apophysis anteriorly. The Oedothorax males tend to have the cephalothorax elevated behind the eyes, as in some Hilaira species; the lobe in the Trematocephalus male is similarly placed.

All the species in this group have a similar chaetotaxy (tibial spines 2211 , TmI $0.6-0.75$, TmIV present), all have 3 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia, and all have a tendency to a reddish colour.

Because of the similarities in conformation to Hilaira, as noted above, it is postulated that these genera arose from the Hilaira region of the phylogenetic tree.

## 5. Erigone Group (Figs. 25-33)

The species in this group are related to Hilaira (particularly excisa) - see below. The embolus is usually no more than a short stub on the ED, and the SA is fairly simple in form.

The following current genera/species are included in this group:

## Collinsia Cambr. 1913 <br> Halorates Hull 1911 <br> Islandiana Braendegaard 1932 <br> Erigone Audouin 1826 <br> Eperigone Crosby and Bishop 1928 <br> Anerigone Berland 1932 <br> "Collinsia" hibernica Simon <br> "Centromerus" quadridentatus Wund. <br> Milleriana Denis 1966

The genera Collinsia (Figs. 25, 26) and Halorates (Fig. 27) are similar to one another in conformation; C. spetsbergensis (Thor.) and thulensis (Jacks.) are of the same type. Halorates differs from all the other European species in this group by its chaetotaxy (tibial spines 2222, TmI 0.6-0.7, TmIV present); nevertheless because of its close similarities to Collinsia these two genera should probably be combined (Halorates would have priority), with reprobus in a separate species group to show that it probably represents a side branch within the presumed monophyletic genus. The Halorates/Collinsia type of ED can have been derived from the Hilaira excisa type by a relatively simple transition (cf. Figs. 14 and 27); in distincta the enlargement of the plate of the ED has hidden the stalk which is visible in holmgreni and reprobus. In Islandiana (Fig. 28) the conformation is of exactly the same type but the ED has developed an additional branch.

The genus Erigone has clear and obvious characters which make it probable that it is a monophyletic genus. All the species have the same basic conformation (Fig. 29). The duct runs into the ED via a stout stalk which is sometimes partly visible. The ED is relatively complex in all the European species except vagans Aud. (the type species) (Fig. 30) which never-


Figs. 27-35: Male palps. 27 Halorates reprobus (Cambr.); 28 Islandiana alata (Emert.); 29 Erigone remota L. Koch; 30 E. vagans Aud.; 31 "Collinsia" hibernica Simon; 32 "Centromerus" quadridentatus Wund., ED (left palp); 33 Milleriana inerrans (Cambr.); 34 Gongylidiellum vivum (Cambr.); 35 G. latebricola (Cambr.).
theless has the same basic conformation; the much simpler form of the ED, and the rather different epigyne, indicates that this species must form a separate branch within the genus. Islandiana has an ED close to those of Erigone, and the probable derivation of the Erigone conformation by a transition of the type: H. excisa (Fig. 14) $\rightarrow$ Halorates (Figs. 26, 27) $\rightarrow$ Islandiana (Fig. 28) $\rightarrow$ Erigone (Fig. 29) is clear. H. reprobus has the same chaetotaxy as $H$. excisa, but the subsequent species in the series have lost both the second spine on tib. IV and the trichobothrium on MTIV.

The species Anerigone fradeorum Berl., from the Azores, seems to be a fairly typical Eperigone, except that the patella has a small ventral process at the distal end. "Collinsia" hibernica Sim. (Fig. 31) (tib. spines 2211) and "Centromerus" quadridentatus Wund. (tib. spines 2222) (Fig. 32) have ED's rather similar to Eperigone, but probably do not belong in that genus. These two species possibly bear the same relationship to Halorates or Islandiana as $E$. vagans does to the other Erigone species, having simplified ED's of the Halorates type. The position of the two species must be left open until a revision of Eperigone and related species has been carried out.

Milleriana inerrans (Cambr.) (Fig. 33) has the same basic conformation as the other members of this group, but the ED has become even more complex; the chaetotaxy is similar to that of $C$. distincta. Milleriana may possibly be a synonym of Catabrithorax Chamberlin 1920.

In order to gain a more complete picture of the genera in this group, it will be essential to study the N.American species of Erigone and related genera (Crosby and Bishop, 1928) which seem to show a much wider range of forms than is present in the European fauna. The diversity of species present in N.America suggests that this group may have originated there and subsequently spread to Europe.

## 6. Gongylidiellum (Figs. 34, 35)

Although at first sight the genus Gongylidiellum Simon 1884 may appear to be close to Asthenargus (Section C 15 , p. 40, Fig. 155), in fact the form of the ED is different, the embolus being a sclerite which is more or less distinct from the large plate forming the radix (Figs. 34, 35). It seems most likely that Gon-
gylidiellum has originated from close to Hilaira (Section C 3, p. 8). G. latebricola (Cambr.) (Fig. 35) is not dissimilar to H. pervicax (Fig. 16) in its conformation and ED, and is also fairly close in conformation to the linyphiine species "Oreonetides" abnormis (Section D 7, p. 48, Fig. 194).

## 7. Mioxena Group (Figs. 36-40)

The following current genera (all monotypic) are placed in this group:

Mioxena Simon 1926
Tapinocyboides Wiehle 1960
Trichoncoides Denis 1950
Wiehlea Braun 1959
Sisicus Bishop and Crosby 1938
Heterotrichoncus Wund. 1970
These species each have a similar type of conformation (Figs. 36-40). After leaving the suprategulum the duct runs down through the basal part of the ED, which is a plate-like sclerite, and then on to a fairly long stout embolus. The ED shows some differentiation into separate sclerites, as in most linyphiine species. The 6 species are similar in having TmI 0.3-0.45 and no TmIV, but the tibial spines range from 1111 in Tapinocyboides through 2211 in Mioxena, Trichoncoides, Heterotrichoncus and Wiehlea to 2222 in Sisicus. H. pusillus (Miller) is very close to Trichoncoides, and should possibly be placed in that genus. It is postulated that this group of species has arisen from a branch close to Hilaira; the form of the ED could fairly readily have been derived from the form present in the $H$. montigena group (Fig. 17), though in the present group the duct leaves the suprategulum much closer to the base of the palp. These species are on the whole more erigonine that linyphiine in character: Trichoncoides has 3 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia, Mioxena, Heterotrichoncus and Tapinocyboides have 2, and Wiehlea and Sisicus have 1 , and all the species have at least a small tibial apophysis on the male palp. Several linyphiine genera (Section D 6, p. 48) have virtually the same conformation as this group, and are probably closely related.


Figs. 36-43: Male palps. 36 Mioxena blanda (Simon); 37 Heterotrichoncus pusillus (Miller); 37A Tapinocyboides pygmaea (Menge); 38 Trichoncoides piscator (Simon); 39 Wiehlea calcarifera (Simon); 40 Sisicus apertus (Holm); 41 Tapinocyba praecox (Cambr.); 42 T. insecta (L. Koch); 43 T. affinis Less.

## 8. Tapinocyba Group (Figs. 41-56)

In this group, the duct runs well to the anterior end of the palp before entering the ED, via the membranous stalk, on the mesal or at least the dorsomesal side (e.g. Fig. 41). The ED's are often relatively simple in shape with a short embolus, but in a few cases the embolus is longer. The following current genera/species are included in this group:

> Tapinocyba Simon 1884
> Ceratinops Banks 1905
> Mecynargus Kulcz. 1894
> Rhaebothorax Simon 1926
> Conigerella Holm 1967
> Latithorax Holm 1943
> Thyreosthenius Simon 1884
> Acartauchenius' Simon 1884
> Trachelocamptus Simon 1884
> "Trichopterna" thorelli (Westr.)

The genus Tapinocyba illustrates several points of interest for the phylogenetic analysis of the erigonines. All the European species are closely similar in general appearance, in chaetotaxy, and in the possession of highly pectinate tarsal claws; all have male palps with the tegulum protuberant ventrally, and the duct within the tegulum is sinuous with a sudden constriction in diameter at the end of the sinuous part (only in praecox (Cambr.), the smallest species, is the tegulum less developed ventrally). T. praecox (Fig. 41), mitis (Cambr.), insecta (L.K.) (Fig. 42), affinis Less. (Fig. 43) and corsica Sim. each have the typical conformation, with simple ED's in which the embolus is relatively short. In T: pallens (Cambr.) (Fig. 44) the basic conformation is the same, but the ED has become significantly more complex and the duct entry has moved backwards and more to the mesal side. In T. silvestris Georgescu (Fig. 45) the embolus has become much longer to form a spiral, and the duct entry to the ED has moved even further back so that it has become looped round the ED; in addition, the stalk has developed a forward-directed membranous apophysis. The conformation of $T$. silvestris will in fact place it in the same group as Pelecopsis (Section C 9, p. 19, Figs. 66, 67). T. silvestris is in most respects a typical member of the genus: chaetotaxy, enlarged tegulum, pectinate claws; the paracymbium is abnormal in that it bears a prominent tooth, and
the female epigyne is perhaps rather atypical. If silvestris is properly a Tapinocyba (and it seems to be in spite of these small anomalies), then this is a further indication that within a genus considerable development of the ED can occur, and that in addition this can be accompanied by a shift of the duct entry, though the basic duct conformation (viz. in this case duct entry on the mesal side of the ED) remains unchanged. The progression within Tapinocyba from praecox to pallens to silvestris suggests a probable route by which the genera possessing spiral emboli (Section C 9, p. 19) have arisen from species with simple ED's having short emboli. The actual mechanics of the change is not however clear, but it is possible that somewhere in the world fauna a key to this transformation (in the form of intermediates) will be found. Aulacocyba (Section C 11, p. 34, Fig. 140) is quite distinct from Tapinocyba.

The species Ceratinops pectinata (Tullg.) (Fig. 46) seems to be close to Tapinocyba (particularly to pallens and silvestris) in conformation and in chaetotaxy (tib. spines $1111, \mathrm{TmI} 0.45$, no TmIV); it differs in possessing a very rugose integument. A number of species are placed in the genus Ceratinops in N. America (Crosby and Bishop, 1933), but whether all are correctly placed is uncertain. The genus requires further study before its relationships can be usefully commented on. (On the basis of the female, C. pectinata seems to be a synonym of Troxochrota scabra Kulcz.; comparison of males has not yet been possible).

The genera Rhaebothorax (Fig. 48) and Mecynargus (longus Kulcz.) (Fig. 47) have virtually identical conformations, and highly developed stridulatory areas (with a honeycomb-like structure different from the stridulatory areas present in other genera) on the book lungs and adjacent ventral areas of the abdomen in the majority of species (weakly developed in $R$. monticola Holm and $R$. paetulus (Cambr.); very strongly developed in M. longus). This specialised structure can be regarded as an autapomorphous character for this group of species. All the species have tibial spines 2221 (though the second spine on tib. III seems sometimes to be missing (Holm, 1943)), but whereas Mecynargus has a TmIV and TmI 0.85, Rhaebothorax has no TmIV and TmI ranges from 0.45 to 0.75 . The species $R$. sphagnicola Holm (Fig. 50) has the same basic conformation, but


Figs. 44-51: Male palps. 44 Tapinocyba pallens (Cambr.); 45 T. silvestris Georg.; 46 Ceratinops pectinata (Tullg.); 47 Mecynargus longus Kulcz.; 48 Rhaebothorax brocchus (L. Koch); 49 Latithorax faustus (Cambr.); 50 R. sphagnicola Holm; 51 Conigerella borealis (Jacks.).
the tegulum is much more horizontal than in the other species, possibly as the result of the longer tail of the ED; this species is typical in the strong development of the stridulatory areas. On the basis of the conformation and the stridulatory equipment, Mecynargus and Rhaebothorax can be inferred to be a monophyletic group; Rhaebothorax should probably therefore be regarded as a junior synonym of Mecynargus (syn.n.). The heterogeneity of the chaetotaxy within this group of species indicates that there has been a significant degree of branching, though the much higher value of TmI in longus may be associated with its larger size and more elongated shape (cf. Palmgren, 1976, p. 5).

Conigerella (Fig. 51) is very close to Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax and to Tapinocyba in conformation; there are no stridulatory areas on the abdomen. Tibial spines are 2221, TmI is 0.45 , and the male head is somewhat similar to that of M. longus, while the tarsal claws have fairly long teeth like Tapinocyba but less pronounced. Apart from the tibial spines, Conigerella is closer to Tapinocyba than to Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax. R. paetulus, with TmI 0.45 , and with weakly developed stridulatory equipment, is intermediate between Conigerella and the typical Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax species.

Latithorax (Fig. 49) which was incorrectly synonymised with Eboria (Locket and Millidge, 1953), seems to occupy the same position relative to Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax as does T. pallens to T. praecox, etc.; a longer embolus has developed towards the middle of the ED, and the duct entry has moved backwards with the duct entering via a loop. Latithorax is in other respects a fairly typical Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax, with rather weakly developed stridulatory areas (but of the same honeycomb type), and if T. pallens is to be retained in Tapinocyba (which seems to be correct) then it may be logical to move the Latithorax species into Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax.

The genus Thyreosthenius (Fig. 52) has the same basic conformation as Tapinocyba; its ED is still relatively simple but has developed a fairly long slender curved embolus at the anterior end. Thyreosthenius is closer to Tapinocyba than to Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax, having tib. spines 1111 and no stridulatory region on the abdomen; this genus has the prominent tegulum usually present in Tapinocyba
and (to a lesser extent) in Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax.
Acartauchenius scurrilis (Cambr.) (the type species: Fig. 53) is similar to some Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax species in the shape of the ED, but the SA has developed significantly into a flat membrane which coils round the embolus. Trachelocamptus nasutus Cambr. (the type-species: Fig. 54) is similar in conformation to Acartauchenius, with a similar type of SA, but the embolus has lengthened. A. depressifrons Sim. (Fig. 55), which has the male head rather like $A$. scurrilis, has the ED nearer to Trachelocamptus than to scurrilis. It is questionable whether the differences in ED between scurrilis and the Trachelocamptus species are really enough to justify the maintenance of two genera. The reduction of leg spines in scurrilis (1111, cf. 2211 in the other species) may be associated with its myrmecophile habit; all the species have TmI $0.35-0.40$, no TmIV. For the time being, however, it is proposed to retain Trachelocamptus; examination of the other alleged members of this genus (from N.Africa) will be necessary before a balanced conclusion can be reached.
"Trichopterna" thorelli (Westr.) (Fig. 56), which cannot be regarded as congeneric with $T$. cito (Cambr.) (Section C 9, p. 25, Fig. 86), also belongs in this group. Its chaetotaxy (tib. spines $1111, \mathrm{TmI} 0.9$, TmIV present) is different from the other species in this group, indicating that it represents a separate branch from Tapinocyba and Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax. Although it is correctly placed in this group on the basis of its conformation, it should perhaps be regarded as monophyletic with the genus Baryphyma (Section C 9, p. 19, Fig. 57), though it cannot be placed in that genus. It is not proposed to create a new genus for it at the present time.

It seems probable that the members of this group have evolved in several separate lines which arose from species with the Lophomma conformation type (Section C 1, p. 6), as the result of a relatively small movement of the stalk and the duct towards the mesal side of the ED. Tapinocyba, Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax and " $T$." thorelli are regarded as forming separate lines. Thyreosthenius, Acartauchenius and Trachelocamptus are probably side branches from either the Tapinocyba or Mecynargus/Rhaebothorax lines, but there is at present insufficient evidence to indicate the positions of these side branches. It is


Figs. 52-59: Male palps. 52 Thyreosthenius biovatus (Cambr.); 53 Acartauchenius scurrilis (Cambr.), (left palp); 54 Trachelocamptus nasutus (Cambr.); 55 A. depressifrons Simon, (left palp); 56 "Trichopterna" thorelli (Westr.); 57 Baryphyma pratense (BI.); 58 Praestigia duffeyi Mill.; 59 Acanthophyma gowerense (Locket).
postulated that species of the Tapinocyba conformation are the ancestors of the members of the Pelecopsis group (Section C9).

## 9. Pelecopsis Group (Figs. 57-109)

In this group of genera the embolus is in the form of a coil or part coil, which arises from the radical part of the ED; the duct enters the embolus on the dorso-mesal or mesal side via a non-sclerotised stalk which is in most cases produced anteriorly into a membranous apophysis which may be fused to the SA (e.g. Fig. 68); in a few species (e.g. Fig. 80), the stalk carries in addition a sclerotised apophysis. The radical part may be simple, with a "tail" of variable length, but in some genera is more complex with a forward-directed part anterior to the junction with the embolus (Fig. 87). Some species with an "intermediate" type of conformation (i.e. of a rather similar type to Tapinocyba pallens (Section C 8, p. 15, Fig. 44)) are also included in this group. A large number of what have been regarded as "typical" erigonine species have this conformation, differing only in the detail of the ED, SA and tegulum. The current genera included in this group are as follows:

Baryphyma Simon 1884
Minyrioloides Schenkel 1929
Praestigia Millidge 1954
Acanthophyma Lock., Mill. \& Merr. 1974
Dresconella Denis 1950
Peponocranium Simon 1884
Maso Simon 1884
Minicia Thorell 1875
Minyriolus Simon 1884
Pelecopsis Simon 1864
Exechophysis Simon 1884
Hypselistes Simon 1884
Mecopisthes Simon 1926
Panamomops Simon 1884
Panamomopsides Denis 1962
Microstrandina Charit. 1937
Lochkovia Miller \& Vales. 1962
"Micrargus" kaestneri Wiehle
Plaesianillus Simon 1926
Cnephalocotes Simon 1884
Nematogmus Simon 1884
Lessertiella Dum. \& Miller 1962
Trichopterna Kulcz. 1894

Trichoncus Simon 1884
Metopobactrus Simon 1884
"Abacoproeces" ascitus Kulcz.
Lasiargus Kulcz. 1894
Silometopus Simon 1926
Cineta Simon 1884
Hypomma Dahl 1886
Gonatium Menge 1866
Kratochviliella Miller 1938
Dismodicus Simon 1884
Abacoproeces Simon 1884
Ceratinella Emerton 1882
Ceratinopsis Emerton 1882
Grammonota Emerton 1882
Micrargus Dahl 1886
Caledonia Cambr. 1894
Cochlembolus Crosby 1929
Scotinotylus Simon 1884
Lessertia F. P. Smith 1908
Scotoneta Simon 1910

The species in Baryphyma, Minyrioloides, Praestigia and Acanthophyma (Figs. 57-60) have virtually identical conformations, with similar radical parts to the ED, and similar chaetotaxy (tib. spines 2211, TmI $0.8-0.95$, TmIV present). On the basis of these characters, there seems to be every justification to unite these into one genus (Baryphyma has priority) (syn.n.). In addition, they all have rows of stout bristles beneath the anterior femora and tibiae, as in "T." thorelli, which has TmI $0.9, \mathrm{TmIV}$ present, and male head of similar type to Minyrioloides. Bearing in mind the evolutionary sequence: Tapinocyba praecox $\rightarrow$ T. pallens $\rightarrow$ T. silvestris, it is postulated that Baryphyma (s.lat.) has arisen in a similar sequence from the thorelli line (thorelli itself not necessarily a direct ancestor).

As an intermediate species (approximately equivalent in the evolutionary process to T. pallens in the Tapinocyba sequence), or more likely as derived from such an intermediate (which may no longer exist), one can postulate the species Dresconella nivicola (Sim.) (Fig. 61) (spines $1111, \mathrm{TmI} c a .0 .8, \mathrm{TmIV}$ present). A species with a conformation of this type can in turn have given rise to Peponocranium (Fig. 62) (spines 1111, TmI ca. 0.9, TmIV present). Dresconella is in some respects so similar to Peponocranium, e.g. in the form of the male head, that it


Figs. 60-67: Male palps. 60 Minyrioloides trifrons (Cambr.); 61 Dresconella nivicola (Simon); 62 Peponocranium ludicrum (Cambr.); 63 Maso sundevalli (Westr.); 64 M.gallica Simon; 65 Minicia marginella (Wid.); 66 Pelecopsis elongata (Wid.); 67 P. nemoralis (BI.).
may be justified to include nivicola in Peponocranium as a more primitive member of the genus. Also derived from the intermediate species one can postulate the Maso species (spines $1111, \mathrm{TmI} 0.9$, TmIV present) which have ED's intermediate in form (Figs. 63,64 ) between the simple thorelli and the coiled embolus of Baryphyma, and which have developed exaggerated versions of the bristles on the undersides of the anterior legs. Minicia (Fig. 65) has essentially the same type of conformation as Maso, but the ED is more complex and the cymbium has a most unusual (for an erigonine) posterior extension; Minicia may represent another side branch which originated close to Maso. Hypselistes (Fig. 76) and Trichopterna cito (Fig. 86) may also have arisen from this phylogenetic line (see later).

The evolutionary sequence postulated is shown schematically as follows, where the species/genus names represent a type of conformation:


If this type of evolutionary sequence (which on the data available seems clear enough in Tapinocyba) is accepted, then thorelli shows more or less the same relationship to Baryphyma as T. praecox does to T. silvestris. "T." thorelli must be part of the overall monophyletic group shown in the scheme, but cannot be regarded as part of the monophyletic genus Baryphyma unless this were taken to include all the species/genera shown. A similar problem arises with the genus Tapinocyba if there are side branches in this sequence also (e.g. Panamomops and Trichoncus as possibilities), i.e. T. praecox could not then be congeneric with $T$. silvestris.

In the genus Pelecopsis, the sperm duct loops back to enter the ED (Fig. 66). Whereas in elongata (Wid.) (the type species) the embolus is a long coil of typical form, in the nemoralis group of species (Fig. 67) the embolus has become short and sometimes screw-like, though the duct entry is still of the same type; in addition, the tegulum is differently shaped, perhaps because it no longer has to accommodate the long embolus. The Pelecopsis species (excluding medusa: see p .23 ) are so similar in all other respects that the
wide differences in the shape of the ED are not sufficient to justify splitting the genus, since the basic conformation remains the same. It seems possible that the direction of morphological change of the ED has been from the more complex (in elongata) to the simpler (in nemoralis) since there has been a concommitant reduction in the trichobothria on the male palpal tibia from two to one (one being probably more apomorphous than two). The species with the "reduced" ED should be placed in a separate species group.

Exechophysis (only bucephalus (Cambr.) (Fig. 68) has been examined) is so close to Pelecopsis in conformation, in chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111, TmI 0.6, no TmIV) and the possession of abdominal scuta (in both sexes) that it should be regarded as a somewhat exotic Pelecopsis and placed in this genus in a separate species group (syn.n.). P. radicicola (L.K.) (Fig. 69) should probably be regarded as a "reduced" form of the Exechophysis group (corresponding to nemoralis); it has the abdominal scutum in the female, and in the male the tegulum and suprategulum are much the same shape as in bucephalus and differ from the nemoralis type. The SA is also closer to bucephalus than to elongata.

The species P.(Trichopterna) mengei (Sim.) (Fig. 70) offers some problems; although it seems to agree quite closely in conformation and other characters with Pelecopsis, its chaetotaxy is significantly different (TmI 0.85, TmIV present) and its suprategulum differs in shape from those of the "reduced" Pelecopsis species. It may show closer similarities to some of Holm's African "Trichopterna" species (which almost certainly are not congeneric with $T$. cito) (Holm, 1962) than to Pelecopsis, and might represent the "reduced" form of these species. It may also be fairly close to Hypselistes: it has a pronounced row of bristles on the ventral side of the anterior tibiae, the SA is quite close to that of Hypselistes and the anterior tegular apophysis is more pronounced than in Pelecopsis species.

The species "P." bacelarae (Cap.) and related species (Fig. 71) from central Africa (e.g. Locket, 1974) have a conformation completely different from that of Pelecopsis, and cannot belong in this genus. The conformation is unlike that of any European species.

The phylogenetic line leading to Pelecopsis is ob-


Figs. 68-75: Male palps. 68 Exechophysis bucephalus (Cambr.); 69 Pelecopsis radicicola (L. Koch); 70 P. (Trichopterna) mengei (Simon); 71 "Pelecopsis" sp. (Africa); 72 Minyriolus pusillus (Wid.); 73 "P." medusa (Simon); 74 "Trichopterna" cucurbitina (Simon); 75 "T." rufithorax (Simon).
scure. The possibility is mentioned below that Minyriolus could possibly represent one of its forebears; it is also a possibility that Pelecopsis has entered Europe from Africa, and that it may be that Holm's "Trichopterna" species and Pelecopsis are closely related branches. If so, representatives of the ancestors of these two groups should eventually be found there. It is also not impossible that species with the Dresconella type of conformation may represent ancestors of the Pelecopsis line.

The genus Minyriolus (Fig. 72) has a similar conformation to Baryphyma, but differs in chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111, TmI 0.5, no TmIV). The species "Pelecopsis" medusa (Sim.) (Fig. 73) has a closely similar conformation and chaetotaxy (1111, TmI 0.45 , no TmIV), and should almost certainly be moved into Minyriolus (comb.n.); the presence of the poorly developed scutum in the male need not preclude this move. It is possible that Minyriolus represents an intermediate on the way to Pelecopsis, as Baryphyma was postulated above to be an intermediate (or a branch from an intermediate) on the line to Hypselistes, but there are no data to connect other genera with this possible line.

The species "Trichopterna" cucurbitina (Sim.) (Fig. 74) seems to occupy the same relationship to Minyriolus as $P$. nemoralis does to $P$. elongata; it has the same chaetotaxy as Minyriolus pusillus (Wid.), has a pronounced cephalic lobe and no scutum in the male. "Trichopterna" rufithorax (Sim.) (Fig. 75) (with the same chaetotaxy) appears to be an intermediate type (like Tapinocyba pallens), but whether this is also related to Minyriolus is unclear; despite some similarities it seems unlikely, since in particular the SA is very different.

Hypselistes (Fig. 76) shows a close resemblance to Pelecopsis in conformation, but has a strong tegular apophysis not present in that genus. The chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111, TmI 0.9, TmIV present; rows of stout bristles on the undersides of the anterior legs) indicates that this genus may also have been derived from the Baryphyma line (as mentioned above), representing an evolutionary development one stage more advanced than the Baryphyma type of conformation, i.e. the duct entry has moved further back and become looped.

The species in the genus Mecopisthes have a conformation (Fig. 77) which, though at first sight rather
complex, in fact agrees perfectly with the Pelecopsis type. As compared with P. elongata (Fig. 66), the embolus has lengthened, as has the tail (though this is much shorter in some species than in Fig. 77), and the SA has become rather more complex. The tegulum has been compressed backwards even more than in P. elongata. The species "Minyriolus" nicaensis Sim. must be moved into Mecopisthes (comb.n.); it has a typical Mecopisthes palp (Fig. 78) and TmI 0.6, but the male head (Fig. 84) is much more like a Pelecopsis. Mecopisthes seems to be very close to Pelecopsis: in addition to the similarity in conformation the following congruences are present: (a) the two genera have practically identical chaetotaxies, with very short and weak tibial spines; (b) all Pelecopsis males have abdominal scuta, several Mecopisthes males also; (c) the $P$. nemoralis group share with Mecopisthes a rather unusual form of suprategulum (Figs. 67, 77); (d) the projecting clypeus of $P$. bucephala and $P$. parallela is very like that of most Mecopisthes species. It therefore seems probable that Mecopisthes is a sister group of Pelecopsis.

The monotypic genera Panamomopsides, Microstrandina and Lochkovia should be combined into Panamomops, as already proposed by Wunderlich (1970). It seems probable that $P$. mutilis Denis, $M$. fedotovi Charit. and L. inconspicua Miller and Val. are in fact conspecific. The Panamomops species fall into 2 groups, (i) those with a simple duct membrane, extended forwards and fused to the SA as in Pelecopsis, and with a simple tail (Fig. 79), and (ii) those where the duct membrane bears additionally a sclerotised tooth-like apophysis, and the tail is T-shaped posteriorly (Fig. 80). The provenance of this genus is not known. The trichobothria correspond with Tapinocyba; the holes in the male head, from which emerge the "horns" as an exudation, could correspond with the holes in Tapinocyba. The question must be left open for the present. The high proportion of the species which are found in central and eastern Europe may indicate an Asian origin for this genus.

The species "Micrargus" kaestneri Wiehle (Fig. 81), which has been found only in Eastern Europe, is not a Micrargus (see later); it has tib. spines 2211, TmI 0.35 , TmIV absent, and seems to show a rather similar relationship to Panamomops as Mecopisthes does to Pelecopsis. I propose the new


Figs. 76-83: Male palps. 76 Hypselistes jacksoni (Cambr.); 77 Mecopisthes peusi Wund.; 78 "Minyriolus" nicaensis Simon (lateral); 79 Panamomops tauricornis (Simon); 80 P. latifrons Miller; 81 "Micrargus" kaestneri Wiehle; 82 Cnephalocotes obscurus (BI.); 83 Nematogmus sanguinolentus (Walck.).
Fig. 84: M. nicaensis, ó cephalothorax (side).
genus Metapanamomops, gen.n. for this species. Plaesianillus cyclops (Sim.) seems to have a conformation very close to Panamomops, and should possibly be placed in that genus.

The genera Cnephalocotes (Fig. 82) and Nematog. $m u s$ (Fig. 83) clearly have the Pelecopsis type of conformation. In Cnephalocotes the stalk carries a sclerotised pointed process anteriorly, whereas in Nematogmus the corresponding process is not sclerotised. Nematogmus has a narrow membranous apophysis arising from the lateral side of the tegulum, not present in Cnephalocotes. Nevertheless the 2 species are generally so similar in chaetotaxy (spines 1111, TmI 0.35-0.40, no TmIV), and in the form of the palpal cymbium, that it is probably justified to regard Nematogmus as a synonym of Cnephalocotes, as proposed by "Wunderlich (1970). Cnephalocotes has a tegular form reminiscent of Silometopus and Mecopisthes. Lessertiella (Fig. 85) (tib. spines 2211, TmI 0.4, no TmIV) seems to have essentially the same type of conformation as Cnephalocotes but the palpal organs have become somewhat twisted and the ED is obscured by the large membranous development of the SA. The phylogenetic line leading to Cnephalocotes (and Lessertiella) is unknown.

Trichopterna cito (Cambr.) (the type species and the only European species now remaining in Trichopterna) is not a Pelecopsis as suggested by Wunderlich (1970) (gen.rev.). The conformation (Fig. 86) seems to be close to Peponocranium (Fig. 62); the embolus is very thin, and the SA is of the same type as in Peponocranium. In addition, the chaetotaxy (TmI ca. 0.8 , TmIV present) shows a greater similarity to Peponocranium than to Pelecopsis, while the female does not have the carapace pits usually present in Pelecopsis. On this evidence, Trichopterna can be regarded as a possible sister group to Peponocranium/Dresconella.

The genus Trichoncus (Fig. 87) has the same basic conformation as Pelecopsis, but the ED bears a forward-directed apophysis and the stalk lacks the forward extension usually present in this group; all the species of the genus have closely similar palpal organs. The species "Tapinocyboides" simoni (Less.) (Thaler, 1973) has a virtually identical conformation (Fig. 88) and hence despite the presence of pectinate tarsal claws, not present in the other Trichoncus species, simoni should be regarded as a diminutive

Trichoncus (comb.n.); it has the same chaetotaxy as Trichoncus. The evolutionary line which has led to Trichoncus is uncertain. The presence (in the one species simoni only) of pectinate tarsal claws, and the chaetotaxy (tib. spines $1111, \mathrm{TmI} 0.4$, no TmIV) could indicate that it is a branch of the Tapinocyba line, derived from a T. pallens type ancestor; in addition it shares one unusual conformational character with Tapinocyba, viz. the sudden constriction of the seminal duct in the tegulum (Figs. 43, 87). At the present time, however, there is insufficient evidence to decide this question.

Metopobactrus (Fig. 89) has an ED rather similar to Trichoncus, but the SA is more highly developed. The species "Abacoproeces" ascitus Kulcz. (Fig. 90) seems to represent an intermediate on the way to a typical Metopobactrus, having a similar SA and an intermediate type of ED rather similar to those of the Maso species; it has the same chaetotaxy as Metopobactrus (tib. spines 1111, TmI 0.75, TmIV present) and a rather similar male head and female epigyne. It should perhaps be moved into Metopobactrus. M. rayi Sim. is somewhat abnormal, but probably belongs in Metopobactrus.

Lasiargus (Fig. 91) is close to Metopobactrus in conformation and in chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111, TmI 0.8, TmIV present); the SA is however less highly developed. L. hirsutus (Menge) bears long curved bristles on the abdomen, superficially similar to those in some Trichoncus species and in Baryphyma gowerense (Locket); the significance, if any, of this character, is not known. Lasiargus must be regarded as phylogenetically close to Metopobactrus and Trichoncus, but the progenitors of these genera are not known. In view of their chaetotaxy it is possible that they represent yet another side-branch of the Baryphyma line.

The genus Silometopus has a rather similar conformation to Metopobactrus; the differences lie in (i) the greater development of the embolus, (ii) the rather greater development of the forward process of the ED, (iii) the increased length of the ED radical part, and (iv) the greater development of the SA, which is nevertheless of rather similar type (Fig. 92). The chaetotaxy of Silometopus is fairly close to that of Metopobactrus except that TmIV has been lost in all the species. Silometopus may have a somewhat similar relationship to Metopobactrus/Lasiargus as


Figs. 85-92: Male palps. 85 Lessertiella saxetorum (Hull) (ED is behind membrane); 86 Trichopterna cito (Cambr.); 87 Trichoncus hackmani Mill.; 88 "Tapinocyboides" simoni (Less.); 89 Metopobactrus prominulus (Cambr.); 90 "Abacoproeces" ascitus Kulcz.; 91 Lasiargus hirsutus (Menge), (left palp); 92 Silometopus elegans (Cambr.).


Figs. 93-99: Male palps. 93 Cineta gradata (Simon); 94 Hypomma bituberculatum (Wid.); 95 Gonatium corallipes (Cambr.); 96 Kratochviliella bicapitata Miller; 97 Dismodicus elevatus (C.L.K.); 98 Abacoproeces saltuum L. Koch; 99 Metopobactrus rayi (Simon).
Fig. 100: A. saltuum, ot head (above).
that postulated between Mecopisthes and Pelecopsis. Cineta gradata (Sim.) (Fig. 93) is somewhat similar in conformation to Silometopus; the forward process of the ED has reached a stage of extreme development, while the radical part is less elongated. The chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111 , TmI 0.6 , no TmIV) is similar to Silometopus, and it seems likely that Cineta has originated from close to Silometopus.

The genus Hypomma has the basic Pelecopsis conformation; the ED has a forward-directed apophysis which is only lightly sclerotised (Fig. 94). Gonatium has a similar conformation (Fig. 95); all the species have the same type of palp, varying only in the degree of complexity of the forward apophysis on the ED (which is more highly sclerotised than in Hypomma) and of the SA. A tegular apophysis (extension) is usually present in Gonatium but absent in Hypomma. These two genera are so similar in conformation and in chaetotaxy that it seems likely that they are sister groups. Gonatium differs from Hypomma in having pectinate tarsal claws, but this is a character (probably primitive) which occurs sporadically throughout the erigonines.

The species Kratochviliella bicapitata Miller (Fig. 96) seems to represent an intermediate stage (or perhaps a branch from an intermediate stage) on the way to Hypomma; the ED is of the intermediate type, the chaetotaxy is similar (almost identical with that of $H$. cornutum), the tibial apophysis is similar to that of Hypomma and the species has the reddish colour often present in Hypomma, but a marked tegular apophysis is also present. Kratochviliella should possibly be regarded as a synonym of Hypomma; it is certainly not a Pelecopsis as claimed by some recent authors.

The Dismodicus species have a rather similar conformation to Hypomma, but simpler, with the duct entry to the embolus direct (without a loop); the anterior process of the ED is completely membranous and non-sclerotised (Fig. 97). The similarity to Hy pomma in chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111, TmI $0.75-0.8$, TmIV present), in the male head and in the conformation indicates a fairly close relationship: because the conformation is of the (assumed) more primitive type (i.e. embolus entry not looped), it is postulated that this branch arose probably slightly prior to the branch leading to Kratochviliella.

Abacoproeces saltuum L.K. (the type species) is
very close to Dismodicus in conformation (Fig. 98); the chaetotaxy (tib. spines 1111 (Wiehle, 1960, seems to be wrong in giving 2211), TmI 0.85 , TmIV present) is also similar, and the male head (Fig. 100) is of rather similar type. It seems possible that Abacoproeces represents a sister group of Dismodicus.

The phylogenetic derivation of the group Hypomma, Goriatium, Kratochviliella, Dismodicus and Abacoproeces is obscure, but from the chaetotaxy and the form of the male heads in many species it is possible that this group also is a side branch (or side branches) of the Baryphyma line.

The European species placed in the genus Ceratinella (Fig. 101) and Ceratinopsis (Fig. 102) have the same basic conformation as Pelecopsis (Fig. 66); the embolus is a stout broad ribbon with the anterior end turned backwards into the final coil, and probably resting on the membranous part of the rather simple SA. These two genera have almost identical conformations, as suggested by Merrett (1963). All the species have a similar chaetotaxy, except that Ceratinella has a TmIV, absent in Ceratinopsis. The Ceratinella species differ by the presence of abdominal scuta, usually in both sexes (absent in C. brevipes (Westr.) )); in Ceratinopsis the abdomens are merely rather coriaceous. At least some of the N.American species of the genus Ceraticelus Sim. (Crosby and Bishop, 1925) appear to fall into Ceratinella: the distinguishing feature given (lack of double curvature of cheliceral fang) may be of little significance (e.g. $C$. scabrosa (Cambr.) in Europe has the fang with a single curve), and the figures of the palps of many of the species indicate a virtual identity of conformation with that of Ceratinella. The large number of species of Ceraticelus, Ceratinella and Ceratinopsis in N.America, and the relative paucity of species in Europe, may indicate that this group originated in N.America. The European species of Ceratinella and Ceratinopsis are obviously very closely related (? sister groups), but no valid conclusions on the relationship can be reached without a complete study of the N.American species. The conformation appears to be a relatively simple elaboration of the Pelecopsis type, but it is probably unsafe to make any deductions on the phylogeny of this group of species without a prior study of the N.American fauna, since any ancestral forms or intermediates are likely to be found there rather than in Europe.


Figs. 101-109: Male palps. 101 Ceratinella scabrosa (Cambr.); 102 Ceratinopsis stativa (Simon); 103 Micrargus laudatus (Cambr.); 104 M. apertus (Cambr.); 105 Caledonia evansi Cambr.; 106 Scotinotylus antennatus (Cambr.); 107 Cochlembolus clavatus (Schenk.); 108 Lessertia dentichelis (Simon); 109 Scotoneta barbara Simon (left palp).

The two European species Micrargus subaequalis (Westr.) and laudatus (Cambr.) (Fig. 103) have conformations of the same type as Ceratinella/Ceratinopsis, and their chaetotaxy differs only in the tibial spines ( 2211 cf .1111 in Ceratinella). These two species appear to belong in the genus Grammonota (comb.n.): compare e.g. figs. 4 and 9 of Crosby and Bishop (1932) with Fig. 103 of laudatus. Once again, from the relatively large number of species and variety of forms of the N.American species of Grammonota, it seems probable that this genus may also be of N.American origin. In view of the close similarity of the conformations, Grammonota could be the sister group of Ceratinella/Ceratinopsis/Ceraticelus, but obviously a study of the numerous N.American species would be necessary before such a hypothesis could be supported.

The species Micrargus apertus (Cambr.) (Fig. 104) and its siblings (Millidge, 1975(2)) differ somewhat in conformation from subaequalis/laudatus, e.g. the duct does not loop back when entering the embolus; for the present, therefore, it is best not to transfer these species into Grammonota, but to retain for them the genus Micrargus. "Baryphyma"longitarsum (Em.) (Crosby and Bishop, 1933) seems to be close to herbigradus.

The genera Caledonia (Fig. 105), Scotinotylus (Fig. 106) and Cochlembolus (Fig. 107) have virtually identical conformations of the Pelecopsis type. The ED has a long spiral embolus and a short and rather screw-like radical part, while the SA is in the form of a flattish membranous piece anteriorly which possibly acts as a protector for the embolus. All the species have a similar chaetotaxy (tib. spines 2221, TmI $0.4-0.5$, no TmIV). In view of the conformation and the chaetotaxy, this group of species should be regarded as monophyletic, and placed in the genus Scotinotylus (syn.n.).

The genera Lessertia (dentichelis (Sim.)) and Scotoneta (barbara Sim.) have similar conformations (Figs. 108, 109), which seem to be fairly close to that of Scotinotylus. Both have a long spiral embolus, and the radical part of the ED is similar in both species; the SA is in the form of a long membranous piece which circles round the front of the palp, following and perhaps protecting the final turn of the embolus. The embolus and the SA are more highly developed in Scotoneta. Both species have the same chaetotaxy
(tib. spines 2221, TmI ca. 0.4, no TmIV), and both species tend to be troglodytic, dentichelis occurring over a wide area of W.Europe while barbara has been found only in S.Spain and N.Africa. It is proposed that Scotoneta should be regarded as a junior synonym of Lessertia (syn.n.). Coreorgonal Bishop and Crosby 1935 seems to have similar palpal organs to Lessertia, but specimens have not been examined. Scotinotylus (s.lat.) and Lessertia (s.lat.) are the only genera with the Pelecopsis conformation type which have the tibial spines 2221 . No conclusions can be drawn on the origins of this group.

## 10. Walckenaera Group (Figs. 110-121)

In this group, the ED has a well-defined tail, and the duct runs directly into the base of the embolic coil, entering on the mesal side (e.g. Fig. 110); the stalk does not have a forward-directed membranous apophysis as in the Pelecopsis group (Section C 9, p. 19). The coil of the embolus passes over the SA to the lateral side and then runs downwards and forwards with the SA which is a long membranous piece (Fig. 113). In Walckenaera the tip of the SA is guttershaped, and the distal end of the embolus lies in the "gutter". The following genera/species are included in this group:

> Walckenaera (s.lat.) Bl. 1833
> Evansia Cambr. 1900
> Moebelia Dahl 1886
> Araeoncoides Wunderlich 1969
> 'Saloca" strandi Syst.
> Perimones Jackson 1932
> Typhochrestus Simon 1884

The genus Walckenaera is one of the few erigonine genera which can be characterised readily by a combination of somatic characters (Locket and Millidge, 1953, p. 191). All the European species of the genus have the same basic conformation (Figs. 110-113). This constancy of conformation, despite considerable differences in the length of the embolus and the presence of an apophysis on the SA in some species (e.g. unicornis Cambr.), forms part of the supporting data for the postulate that conformation is constant within well-defined genera. W. dysderoides (Wid.) has the same basic conformation (Fig. 114) but is somewhat aberrant; it has a shorter embolus which does not pass over the SA, and the radix of the ED


Figs. 110-117: Male palps. 110 Walckenaera acuminata Bl.; 111 W. unicornis Cambr.; 112 W. nudipalpis (Westr.); 113 W. vigilax (Bl.), (lateral side); 114 W. dysderoides (Wid.); 115 Evansia merens Cambr.; 116 Moebelia penicillata (Westr.); 117 "Saloca" strandi Syst.
projects forwards with the embolus arising from the middle of the radix. The SA also shows small differences, having a sclerotised margin ending in a dark point, not present in the other species; the tarsal claws are highly pectinate as in the other species. It is probable that Walckenaera should be split into several species groups, but the fine structure of the conformation does not entirely support the divisions suggested by Wunderlich (1972(2)). The wide variations in the position of the metatarsal trichobothria among the species indicate a good deal of branching within the genus.

The species Evansia merens (Cambr.) (Fig. 115), Moebelia penicillata (Westr.) (Fig. 116), "Saloca" strandi Syst. (Fig. 117) and Araeoncoides berolensis Wund. (Fig. 118) have conformations similar to each other and to Walckenaera. The palp of the unique male of Araeoncoides is slightly expanded, but comparison with a slightly expanded palp of M. penicillata (Figs. 118 and 119) shows how similar the two genera are in conformation. The male palpal tibiae are also similar in form to one another and to some Walckenaera species. Perimones (Fig. 120) is also similar in conformation to Moebelia, and the small differences are no greater than those existing within the genus Walckenaera. There are considerable differences in chaetotaxy between the species: merens 1111, TmI 0.5 , TmIV absent; penicillata 2211, TmI 0.6 , TmIV present; strandi $2211, \mathrm{TmI} 0.4$, TmIV absent; berolensis 1111, TmI 0.8, TmIV present; arenarius (Emert.) (britteni (Jackson)) 1111, TmI 0.65 , TmIV absent. Despite the variations in the chaetotaxy, the close relationship shown by the virtually identical conformations should possibly be recognised by uniting these species into one genus (cf. Merrett, 1963, p. 462): if this were done, Moebelia would have priority. In view of the variability in chaetotaxy, however, such a genus would have to be regarded as composed of several branches. Moebelia is not a synonym of Entelecara (Section C 13, p. 37) as suggested by Wunderlich (1970) (gen.rev.).

Typhochrestus also has a conformation of the Walckenaera type; the ED's are similar, particularly in simoni (Fig. 121) (which lacks the pointed, forwarddirected apophysis on the ED present in digitatus (Cambr.) and tenuis Holm), but the SA's are different in form.

The genera in this group can probably be regarded,
on the basis of their conformation, as forming a monophyletic group, with Walckenaera forming one branch and Moebelia (s.lat.) +? Typhochrestus forming another. The evolutionary route to this conformation is obscure. W. dysderoides may possibly offer a clue: the ED of this species may represent an intermediate type of ED, and perhaps the group was derived from an intermediate of this type which subsequently lost the anterior part of the radix, while the length of the embolus increased. An alternative route to this type of conformation could be via the Thyreosthenius (Fig. 52) or Trachelocamptus (Fig. 54) types, with dysderoides remaining as an unexplained anomaly. All the Walckenaera species (except dysderoides) have the (probably) primitive character of 3 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia (as in e.g. Hilaira, Ostearius, Leptorhoptrum) and this should indicate that the group has arisen from one of the more primitive forms, but there are no data to indicate in which phylogenetic area the group arose. It is assumed in Fig. 200 that its ancestors were somewhere in the Lophomma conformation area, but that the Walckenaera group arose in a line probably quite separate from the Tapinocyba and Pelecopsis lines.

## 11. Savignya Group (Figs. 122-144)

In this group the stalk is located fairly well forward on the palp, with the duct entering the ED on the dorsal or lateral side. The ED varies a good deal in complexity, and normally has a tail; the embolus may be short or long. An important feature of the conformation is that the SA runs downwards along the front of the tegulum and then turns inwards and upwards to give an inner (mesal) arm, so that the SA forms a kind of "hook" above which lies the ED (e.g. Fig. 126); the complexity of the SA shows considerable variation, and in a few species the hook is but poorly developed. All the species except one in the group have tibial spines $2211, \mathrm{TmI}$ is $0.4-0.55$ (with only 2 species having TmI 0.35 ), and, with the exception of Dicymbium, TmIV is absent. The following current genera are included in this group; they are split into 3 groups on the basis of differences in the detail of the conformation:
(i) Savignya Genus Group

Savignya Bl. 1833
Diplocephalus Bertk. 1883


Figs. 118-125: Male palps. 118 Araeoncoides berolensis Wund., (left palp, slightly expanded); 119 Moebelia penicillata (left palp, slightly expanded); 120 Perimones arenarius (Emert.); 121 Typhochrestus simoni Less.; 122 Diplocephalus picinus (B1.); 123 Glyphesis servulus (Simon); 124 Dicymbium nigrum (BI); 125 Araeoncus anguineus (L. Koch).

Erigonella Dahl 1901
Araeoncus Simon 1884
Dicymbium Menge 1867
Saloca Simon 1926
Glyphesis Simon 1926
Alioranus Simon 1926
Diastanillus Simon 1926
Delorrhipis Simon 1884
(ii) Dactylopisthes Genus Group

Dactylopisthes Sim. 1884
(iii) Miscellaneous

Aulacocyba Simon 1926
Janetschekia Schenkel 1939
Thaumatoncus Simon 1884
(i) All the species in this sub-group have a similar conformation, and most have epigynes of similar type. The separation of these species into genera has been based almost entirely on the form of the male head, and on the presence of TmIV but absence of cephalic lobe in Dicymbium. The ED's of these species range from relatively simple in D. picinus (B1.) (Fig. 122) and Glyphesis (Fig. 123) to relatively complex in e.g. Dicymbium (Fig. 124), Araeoncus (Fig. 125) and D. cristatus (Bl.) (Fig. 126). The SA's range from a vestigial inner arm in Araeoncus prospiciens (Thor.) (Fig. 127) through a short inner arm in Glyphesis (Fig. 123), D. picinus (Fig. 122), Alioranus (Fig. 128) and Diplocephalus dentatus Tullg. (Fig. 129) to the more complex form present in many species (e.g. Fig. 124). The forms of the ED's in D. protuberans (Cambr.) and helleri (L.K.) (Figs. 130, 131) (both with Diplocephalus type male heads) are much closer to Araeoncus than to D. cristatus (palp identical with the type species, $D$. foraminifer (Cambr.)); D. picinus (also with a Diplocephalus type head) has both ED and SA closer to Glyphesis than to D. cristatus. Within the fairly wide range of complexity of the ED's and SA's of the species in this sub-group (all of which have the same basic conformation) it is difficult or impossible to perceive any natural breaks which correspond with current generic boundaries (apart from probably Saloca (Figs. 132)), and this casts doubts on the validity of these boundaries. If it could be agreed that it is an undesirable practice to create separate genera for every tiny group of sibling species, then it would be logical to recognise the close relationship of all these species, as
shown by the conformation and the chaetotaxy, by combining all these genera into one (with the probable exception of Saloca). (Holm (in litt.) has already suggested to the author that Savignya is not really distinguishable from Diplocephalus). This procedure would have the disadvantage that the commonly used name Diplocephalus would be lost (Savignya has priority); but would have the advantage that the close relationship of the species would be evident in their binomial names. The large genus resulting could then be divided into species groups on the basis of the finer details of the conformation, e.g. as follows (only some species of the groups are included by way of illustration):
a) cristatus species group: embolus runs down an arm of the ED on mesal side of palp. Species in descending order of palpal complexity:
D. procerus Sim., D. cristatus (Fig. 126), D. permixtus (Cambr.) (Fig. 133), Alioranus (Fig. 128), Glyphesis (Fig. 123).
b) humilis species group: embolus usually long and curved, running initially to lateral side of palp. Species in descending order of complexity:
Araeoncus (Fig. 125), D. latifrons (Cambr.) (Fig. 134), S. frontata (B1.) (Fig. 135), D. protuberans (Fig. 130), D. helleri (Fig. 131), D. dentatus (Fig. 129), Araeoncus prospiciens (?) (Fig. 127).
c) nigrum species group: embolus forms coil at anterior end of ED.
Dicymbium (Fig. 124), Delorrhipis (Fig. 136), Erigonella (Fig. 137), Diastanillus (Fig. 138).
At this stage, however, these should not be regarded as firm proposals.
(ii) Dactylopisthes digiticeps Sim. (Fig. 139) (the only member of the genus) seems to fall in this group, but is abnormal in possessing a very simple ED coupled with a much more highly developed SA. Its phylogenetic position is uncertain; if further species of this genus could be found, e.g. in Asia or N.Africa, its relationships might become clearer.
(iii) The monotypic genera Aulacocyba (Fig. 140), Janetschekia (Fig. 142) and Thaumatoncus (Fig. 141) have a conformation basically similar to that of the Savignya group, but with ED's of rather different form and with the inner arm of the SA scarcely developed. These species may represent primitive forms of the Savignya group.


Figs. 126-133: Male palps. 126 Diplocephalus cristatus (Bl.); 127 Araeoncus prospiciens (Thor.); 128 Alioranus pauper (Simon); 129 D. dentatus Tullg.; 130 D.protuberans (Cambr.); 131 D. helleri (L. Koch); 132 Saloca diceros (Cambr.); 133 D. permixtus (Cambr.).


Figs. 134-142: Male palps. 134 Diplocephalus latifrons (Cambr.); 135 Savignya frontata (Bl.); 136 Delorrhipis fronticornis Simon; 137 Erigonella subelevata (L. Koch); 138 Diastanillus pecuarius (Simon); 139 Dactylopisthes digiticeps Simon; 140 Aulacocyba subitanea (Cambr.); 141 Thaumatoncus indicator Simon (left palp); 142 Janetschekia monodon (Cambr.).

Aulacocyba seems to represent the most primitive branch of this group, having a very simple ED; the tibial spines (1111) are different from the other species of this group, and the tarsal claws are pectinate. It shares with Alioranus and Janetschekia the presence of a wide seminal duct in the tegulum (Figs. 143, 144). Janetschekia has a much larger, plate-like ED with a short embolus and a pointed apophysis, while Thaumatoncus bears a long curved embolus and has a more complex SA.

The species in the Savignya group have probably originated from an ancestor with the Lophomma type of conformation, by growth of the SA and elaboration of the ED; e.g. a transition sequence in the ED's from the Troxochrus type (Fig. 9) through Alioranus (Fig. 128) to D. cristatus (Fig. 126) seems possible. The simpler palps could have been derived from a species with a simple conformation of the Aulacocyba type.

## 12. Erigonoplus Group (Fig. 145)

This small group of species seems to have essentially the same basic conformation as the Savignya group, but the SA is simpler and the ED has a characteristic sickle shape (Fig. 145). Only two genera are included in the group:

Erigonoplus Simon 1884
Cotyora Simon 1926
Following my earlier revision of the genus Erigonoplus (Millidge 1975(1)) I would now transfer Cotyora castellana (Cambr.) into Erigonoplus, but place it in a separate species group because of the difference in the tibial spines (syn.n.).

It is postulated that this group also arose from a Lophomma-like conformation. It is possible that it is a sister group of the Savignya or Savignya/Entelecara lines; it has TmI 0.45, similar to the Savignya group, and E. globipes (L.K.) has a swollen tibia I in the male not unlike that of Dicymbium tibiale (B1.).

## 13. Entelecara Group (Figs. 146-148)

The following genera are placed in this group:
Entelecara Simon 1884
Stajus Simon 1884
Hybocoptus Simon 1884

In these genera there is a lightly sclerotised radical part, which is fairly distinctly separated from the embolus. The duct enters the ED on the lateral side and forms a loop inside the radical part before entering the embolus.

Entelecara (Fig. 146) and Stajus (Fig. 147) are very close in conformation. Their tibial apophyses are of similar type, and the position of the metatarsal trichobothria is the same (TmI 0.5: Stajus, like some Entelecara species, has no TmIV); Stajus has tibial spines 1111 instead of 2211 as in Entelecara. The male head of Stajus is different from those of the Entelecara species, but this is probably of no significance. Despite the difference in tibial spines, it is proposed that Stajus should be regarded as a junior synonym of Entelecara (first reviser, syn.n.). The genus Entelecara may have originated from the Savignya phylogenetic line. The two genera have the same basic type of SA, with an upturned end, and an almost identical chaetotaxy apart from the presence in most Entelecara species of a trichobothrium on metatarsus IV. The ED has a tail as in most Savignya group species, and the Entelecara type of ED could probably be derived from a precursor of the Savignya group (C 11, p. 32) by a morphological change (growth of the duct within the radix) which does not appear too difficult.

Hybocoptus (Fig. 148) bears some resemblance to Entelecara in conformation; it has a somewhat similar type of SA, but the ED has no tail. It is grouped here with Entelecara, though there is no solid evidence which links the two genera.

## 14. Tmeticus Group (Figs. 149-153)

In this group the duct enters the ED on the lateral side, and towards the anterior end of the palp. The ED is usually a relatively simple plate, and the embolus is a short stub. The following current genera are included in this group:

## Ostearius Hull 1911 <br> Tmeticus Menge 1866 <br> Donacochara Simon 1884 <br> Eboria Falconer 1910 <br> Sciastes Bishop and Crosby 1938

Ostearius (Fig. 149), which may not be European in origin, seems to be rather a primitive genus; but Tmeticus (Fig. 150), Donacochara (Fig. 151), Eboria (Fig. 152) and Sciastes (Fig. 153) each have a simple


Figs. 143-152: Male palps. 143 Janetschekia monodon (lateral); 144 Aulacocyba subitanea (lateral); 145 Erigonoplus jarmilae (Miller); 146 Entelecara flavipes (Bl.); 147 Stajus truncatifrons (Cambr.); 148 Hybocoptus decollatus (Simon); 149 Ostearius melanopygius (Cambr.); 150 Tmeticus affinis (BI.); 151 Donacochara speciosa (Thor.); 152 Eboria caliginosa Falc.


Figs. 153-160: Male palps. 153 Sciastes carli (Less.); 154 Asthenargus helveticus Schenk; 155 Asthenargus paganus (Simon); 156 Tibioplus diversus (L. Koch); 157 Jacksonella falconeri (Jacks.); 158 Carorita limnaea (Cros.\& B.); 159 C. paludosa Duffey; $\mathbf{1 6 0}$ Microcentria rectangulata (Emert.) (left palp).
conformation of the same type. The close apparent similarity of Tmeticus and Donacochara has been noted many times; the ED's are in fact rather different, and Donacochara, like Zornella and H . nubigena, has the unusual number of 5 trichobothria on the male palpal tibia (cf. 3 in Tmeticus and all the other species except Eboria, which has 2). Sciastes and Eboria are very close in conformation, but differ in the tibial spines ( 2222 in Sciastes, 2221 in Eboria) and in the absence in Sciastes of the ridges on the lung books; the N.American species placed in Sciastes (Bishop and Crosby 1938) probably do not all belong in that genus.

The species in this group seem to represent the more primitive forms of the phylogenetic branch (Fig. 200) where the duct entry to the ED is on the lateral side. This type of conformation is thought to have given rise to the Asthenargus group (next Section).

## 15. Asthenargus Group (Figs. 154-160, 166)

The species in this group have the same basic conformation as in the Tmeticus group. The following current genera are included in the group:

Asthenargus Simon and Fage 1922
Tibioplus Chamberlin and Ivie 1947
Jacksonella Millidge 1951
Carorita Duffey and Merrett 1963
Microcentria Schenkel 1925
Asthenargus (Figs. 154, 155) and Tibioplus diversus (L.K.) (the type species) (Fig. 156) have the same basic conformation and the same chaetotaxy, the differences lying mainly in the greater complexity of the ED and of the paracymbium in diversus. Chamberlin and Ivie (1947) noted the similarity of Tibioplus to Asthenargus. Jacksonella (Fig. 157) is very close to Asthenargus, and despite the loss of the second spine on tibia III Jacksonella should now be regarded as a synonym of Asthenargus (syn.n.). The Asthenargus and Tibioplus species have a sinuous duct (usually with a loop) within the tegulum, and in some species their epigynes show a tendency towards the development of a scape. The ED's of the typical Asthenargus species show a superficial resemblance to those of Eperigone (Section C 5, p. 13) but the embolus occupies a different position on the ED.

Carorita has the same basic conformation as Tmeticus or Asthenargus. C. paludosa Duffey (Fig. 159) is similar in its ED to Tmeticus or to Asthenargus falconeri (Jacks.), but the duct in the tegulum follows a less sinuous path than in Asthenargus. C. limnaea (Crosby and B.) (Fig. 158) and paludosa are so similar in most characters, viz. tibial spines 2211, and the unusual presence (for this spinal formula) of a prolateral spine on tibia I; TmI 0.3-0.35, no TmIV; similar SA's; and the basic palpal conformation, that it is probable that the two species should be regarded as forming a monophyletic group. They differ markedly, however, in the form of the ED, in particular by the fact that in limnaea (the type species) the embolus arises at the posterior end of the ED. This indicates again how great a range of variation is possible in the ED within what seems to be a good genus.

Microcentria (Fig. 160) has a similar basic conformation to Asthenargus or Carorita, but the duct forms a loop within the ED. The chaetotaxy (tibial spines 2221, TmI 0.4-0.45, no TmIV) is close to Asthenargus, and the species has the duct loop in the tegulum as in that genus. Microcentria is not a synonym of Diplocentria (Fig. 2), as claimed by Wunderlich (1970), but should be regarded as a branch from Asthenargus (gen.rev.).

Sintula (Fig. 165) also seems to be close to Asthenargus; although the tibial spines are 2211, this genus should probably be regarded as linyphiine, and is dealt with in Section D 1 (p. 43):

## 16. Doubtful Genera (Figs. 161-164)

Caracladus Simon 1884
Monocephalus Smith 1906
Pocadicnemis Simon 1884
Gnathonarium Karsch 1881
Hybauchenidium Holm 1973
Lessertinella Denis 1947
Monocephalus (Fig. 161) and Caracladus (Fig. 162) have conformations which are probably basically the same. In both genera there is a lightly sclerotised radical part which carries a small membranous apophysis, and the embolus forms a fairly distinct sclerite attached to the radical part. The duct enters the ED on the lateral side, and forms a loop (more developed in Monocephalus than in Caracladus) inside
the radical part. In C. leberti (Roewer) (which I have not examined in detail) the duct loop seems to be scarcely present (Thaler, 1973). Monocephalus and Caracladus have virtually identical chaetotaxy, and in C. leberti the male head is similar to Monocephalus. It seems probable that these two genera are related, but their precursors are not known. From their basic conformation it is possible that they originated in the Hilaira region (C 3, p. 8), but there is no supporting evidence for this.

Pocadicnemis (Fig. 163) has a conformation different from that of any other genus, and its relationships are unknown. Gnathonarium (Fig. 164) is also impossible to place at present; the duct enters the ED at the posterior end of the palp, which may indicate a


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derivation from the Hilaira/Drepanotylus region.
Hybauchenidium has a complex palp with a long embolus; it is probable that this genus will be related to some N. American or Siberian species rather than to European species. Lessertinella also has a complex palp with a long embolus; it has not been possible to reach a conclusion on its relationships.

## D. Linyphiine Genera

Only a limited selection of linyphiine species have been examined. The results indicate that there are a number of distinct conformations in the linyphiines, most of which can be identified by their similarities


Figs. 161-164: Male palps. 161 Monocephalus castaneipes (Simon); 162 Caracladus avicula (L. Koch); 163 Pocadicnemis pumila (Bl.); 164 Gnathonarium dentatum (Wid.).


Figs. 165-170: Male palps. 165 Sintula cornigera (BI.); 166 Asthenargus paganus, ED removed; 167 Centromerus expertus (Cambr.), ED separate; 168 Lepthyphantes zimmermanni Bertk., ED separate; 169 C. arcanus (Cambr.), ED separate; $\mathbf{1 7 0}$ L. pallidus (Cambr.), ED separate.
to certain erigonine conformations as having originated, with some degree of probability, from more than one region of the phylogenetic tree.

The genera examined are split into 10 groups on the basis of their conformations.

## 1. Lepthyphantes Group (Figs. 165, 167-170)

The following current genera are included in this group:

Sintula Simon 1884
Lepthyphantes Menge 1866
Bolyphantes C.L.K. 1837
Poeciloneta Kulcz. 1894
Drapetisca Menge 1866
Centromerus Dạhl 1886
Centromerita Dahl 1882
Syedra Simon 1884
The conformation of all the members of this group is identical in principle with that of Sintula (Fig. 165), the difference lying only in the complexity of the ED and the SA (Figs. 167, 170). In all cases, the duct forms a loop within the tegulum, and after entering the ED on the lateral side it runs backwards for a short distance, makes a U-turn and then runs to the embolus. The duct within the embolus has a short enlarged part (sometimes called "Fickert's gland") in all the species, though this is poorly developed in Centromerus dilutus (Cambr.); the form of the enlargement is different in Lepthyphantes from that in Centromerus (cf. Figs. 169, 170). The combination of the sinuous duct in the tegulum with the relatively anteriorly placed position of the stalk (cf. Linyphia etc., Groups D 4, D 5), is regarded as an apomorphous character indicating that Asthenargus (Section C 15), Sintula and the Lepthyphantes and Microneta groups form a monophyletic group (cf. Figs. 165-168).

Centromerus expertus (Cambr.) (Fig. 167) has one of the simplest ED's in the group, with the "apophyses" still fused to the radix, and it is not difficult to envisage the derivation of an ED of this sort from an ED like that of Tibioplus diversus (Fig. 156), or even from Sintula by relatively minor extensions of the embolus and the growth of simple apophyses. Apart from the simplicity of the ED, expertus seems to be a typical Centromerus; it also has exactly the same type of duct enlargement in the ED as the other

Centromerus species. It is considered, therefore, that it is preferable to regard expertus simply as a primitive member of the genus, rather than to split it off as a separate genus (Tallusia: Lehtinen and Saaristo, 1972), which will merely serve to hide its close relationship with the other Centromerus species. Syedra is very close to Centromerus (Merrett, 1965), with a similar duct enlargement, and it seems doubtful whether gracilis (Menge) should be separated from the Centromerus species; unfortunately Syedra would then have priority. Centromerita has a conformation close to Centromerus, with the same type of duct enlargement.

Bolyphantes, Poeciloneta and Drapetisca have a conformation close to that of Lepthyphantes (Figs. 168,170 ), with the same type of duct enlargement as in that genus. Poeciloneta/Drapetisca have a very different chaetotaxy from Lepthyphantes/Bolyphantes, and it seems reasonable to postulate that, as appears to have occurred in some erigonine groups, there has been more than one line of development leading to an almost identical conformation. Poeciloneta and Drapetisca are probably sufficiently close to be united into one genus (Drapetisca would have priority, syn.n.).

Within both genera, Lepthyphantes and Centromerus, there is a wide range of complexity of the ED's, resulting from a variable degree of growth of the various appendages of the ED; this variation in the ED should not in itself be taken as a reason for splitting these genera, except into species groups.

There are probably 3 phylogenetic lines in this group, Sintula being regarded as derived from a primitive form:
(i) Lepthyphantes, with Bolyphantes as a side branch or sister group;
(ii) Syedra/Centromerus, with Centromerita as a side branch or sister group;
(iii) Poeciloneta/Drapetisca

## 2. Microneta Group (Fig. 171)

The following current genera are included in this group:

Meioneta Hull 1920 Microneta Menge 1868
Syedrula Simon 1929
Theonina Simon 1929

Agyneta Hull 1911


Figs. 171-177: Male palps. 171 Agyneta subtilis (Cambr.), ED separate; 172 Oreonetides vaginatus (Thor.), ED removed; 173 o. vaginatus; $\mathbf{1 7 4}$ Montetextrix glacialis (L. Koch); $\mathbf{1 7 5}$ M. glacialis, ED removed; 176 Tapinopa longidens (Wid.), ED separate (left palp); 177 Macrargus rufus (Wid.), ED separate.

The conformation in this group is shown in Fig. 171. This is close to that of the Lepthyphantes group, but is also similar in general principle to that of Microcentria (Fig. 160). The duct enters the ED on the lateral side, and runs in a short loop inside the radix; in a few species only there is a slight sweiling of the duct inside the embolic part. It is postulated that this group of species, like Group D 1, has arisen from the Asthenargus region of the phylogenetic tree; the duct within the tegulum is looped as in Group D 1.

Syedrula should be regarded as a synonym of Meioneta (Saaristo, 1973(1)). A male of Theonina cornix (Sim.) has not been examined, but it is practically certain (Saaristo, 1974) that this species belongs here, and it seems likely that, despite the presence of a trichobothrium on the 4th metatarsus, Theonina should be regarded as a synonym of Meioneta. Agyneta and Meioneta have conformations of exactly the same type (Saaristo, 1973(1)), but in view of the wide differences in trichobothrial formula (Agyneta: TmI 0.7-0.9, TmIV present) the existence of parallel lines of development is probable. Thus the views of Saaristo (1973(1)), and Wunderlich (1976) that Agyneta is a synonym of Meioneta are not accepted (gen.rev.).

There are probably two phylogenetic lines in this group:
(i) Meioneta (s.lat.)
(ii) Agyneta, with Microneta as a side branch or sister group

## 3. Oreonetides Group (Figs. 172-177)

The following current genera are included in this group:

## Oreonetides Strand 1901

Tapinopa Simon 1887
Floronia. Westr. 1851
Montetextrix Denis 1963
Macrargus Dahl 1886
The conformation of this group is basically similar to those of Groups D 1 and D 2, but the form of the ED differs in detail, and the form of the SA is also slightly different (Figs. 170, 172). There is no swelling of the duct within the ED, and the duct in the tegulum is not quite so looped, but the group is nevertheless regarded as closely related to Groups D 1
and D 2 because of the general similarity in conformation.

Saaristo's contention (1972) that only vaginatus properly belongs in Oreonetides is borne out by the present work (for the other species, see Group D 7, p. 48). Montetextrix glacialis (L.K.) (Figs. 174, 175) is close to $O$. vaginatus (Figs. 172, 173) in conformation, but its metatarsal trichobothria ( $\mathrm{TmI} c a .0 .8$, TmIV present) seem to indicate a parallel line of development as in Groups D 1 and D 2.

Tapinopa (Fig. 176) and Floronia fall in this group, and have conformations which are similar to one another; in addition they have a similar chaetotaxy. The maintenance of both genera does not seem to be justified, and Tapinopa should probably be regarded as a junior synonym of Floronia (syn.n.). It is thought probable that Macrargus (Fig. 177) belongs in this group, but it does show some differences from the other members; Merrett (1963) regards it as closer to Centromerus.

There are probably two phylogenetic lines in this group:
(i) Oreonetides, Floronia and (?) Macrargus
(ii) Montetextrix

The three Groups D 1, D 2 and D 3, which are postulated to have arisen from the Asthenargus region, have the common feature that each seems to have two parallel lines of development differing in the trichobothrial formula; this feature is absent in the remaining linyphiine groups (at least in Europe).

## 4. Cresmatoneta Group (Figs. 178, 180, 181)

This group includes the following current genera:

## Kaestneria Wiehle 1956

Cresmatoneta Simon 1929
The species in this group have a basic conformation almost identical with that of Leptorhoptrum (cf. Figs. 178, 179). The conformations of K. pullata (Cambr.) (Fig. 178) and $K$. dorsalis (Wid.) (the type species) (Fig. 181) are basically similar, but in dorsalis the SA is broader and less pointed and the ED has developed a larger terminal apophysis which is beginning to show similarities to the Linyphia type (Fig. 184). Cresmatoneta mutinensis (Canest.) (Fig. 180) has a conformation very close to that of $K$. pullata,
but with the terminal apophysis intermediate in size between pullata and dorsalis. The three species should be regarded as forming a monophyletic genus (Cresmatoneta has priority, syn.n.), the ant-like shape of mutinensis being regarded merely as an adaptive specialisation within the genus.


The close similarity in conformation to that of Leptorhoptrum indicates that this group of species originated from the Leptorhoptrum region of the phylogenetic tree, i.e. the Cresmatoneta group is part of a monophyletic group comprising Leptorhoptrum and the Linyphia group (Group D 5).

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Figs. 178-182: Male palps. 178 Kaestneria pullata (Cambr.), ED separate; 179 Leptorhoptrum robustum (Westr.), ED removed; 180 Cresmatoneta mutinensis (Canest.), ED separate; 181 K. dorsalis (Wid.), ED separate; 182 Diplostyla concolor (Wid.), ED removed.

## 5. Linyphia Group (Figs. 183-186)

This group includes the following current genera:
Linyphia (s.lat.) Latreille 1804
Microlinyphia Gerhardt 1928
The basic conformation of the species in this group also appears to be close to that of Leptorhop-

trum (L. montana Fig. 183; L. triangularis is almost identical). The ED's of L. montana (Fig. 184) and triangularis (Fig. 186) are similar, the differences being only of degree, viz. a longer embolus and a more highly developed terminal apophysis in triangularis. The two ED's in fact differ in much the same way as do the ED's of Hilaira pervicax (Fig. 187) and


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Fig. 183: Male palp. Linyphia montana (C1.), ED removed.
Figs. 184-188: Embolic divisions, lateral side: $L=$ lamella, $R=$ radix, $E M=$ embolic membrane, $T A=$ terminal apophysis. $184 L$. montana; 185 L. hortensis Sund.; 186 L. triangularis (Cl.); 187 Hilaira pervicax; 188 H . montigena.
montigena (Fig. 188), but the ED's are of course more complex in Linyphia. Within the genus Linyphia (s.lat.) there is a considerable range of variation of the ED, with emboli of various lengths and terminal apophyses of various sizes (e.g. L. hortensis Fig. 185), and splitting of the genus on the basis of morphology is almost certainly not justified. Splitting on the basis of the mechanics of copulation (Helsdingen, 1969) seems to the author to be unjustified, since the obvious relationship of the species as indicated by their morphology should be shown in the generic name. Within a given genus of the Linyphiidae there are often species with both short and long emboli, and it is probable that a lengthening of the embolus must often, for mechanical reasons alone, force on to the spider the necessity to change, at least to some extent, the procedure in copulation. It is clearly a matter of degree, and to that extent subjective, but the author considers that it would be very undesirable if every change of habit required, as a general rule, the erection of a new genus.

The genus Microlinyphia has basically the same conformation as Linyphia, the differences lying only in the detail of the shapes of the parts of the ED, and it is doubtful therefore whether it is justified to split off Microlinyphia as a separate genus.

This group is also postulated to have arisen from the Leptorhoptrum region; it is possible that the Linyphia and Cresmatoneta groups are sister groups.

## 6. Porrhomma Group (Figs. 189-192)

This group includes the following current genera:

## Porrhomma Simon 1884

Bathyphantes Menge 1866
The basic conformation of these genera is fairly close to that of Groups D 4 and D 5, but less close to that of Leptorhoptrum. The ED has a plate-like structure mesally, and the embolus is a separate sclerite attached to the lateral side of the plate (Figs. 189-192). B. approximatus has the same basic conformation but the embolus has become long and spirally coiled. The conformation is closely similar to that of the Mioxena group (Section C 7, p. 13), and these two groups should be regarded as being of common parentage and perhaps standing in a sistergroup relationship. This group is postulated as having
arisen from the Hilaira region of the tree.

## 7. Aphileta Group (Figs. 193-195)

This group includes the following current genera/species:

Aphileta Hull 1920<br>"Oreoñetides" abnormis (Bl.) and firmus (Cambr.)<br>Maro Cambr. 1906

The basic conformation of this group is close to that of Hilaira pervicax (Figs. 16, 193-195); Aphileta (Fig. 193) can be regarded as a rather primitive form of this conformation, while "O."abnormis (Fig. 194) and Maro (Fig. 195) (Saaristo, 1971) are more complex. Saaristo (1972) pointed out that abnormis and firmus did not belong to Oreonetides, and I therefore propose that these two species should be placed in the new genus Saaristoa, gen.n.

Because of their basic similarity in conformation to some Hilaira species, this group is postulated to have arisen from the Hilaira region.

## 8. Diplostyla (Fig. 182)

The species Diplostyla concolor (Wid.) (Fig. 182) has essentially the same basic conformation as Cresmatoneta (Fig. 180), with a long forward-directed SA as in that genus; the ED is however of a much more complex type. This species presumably arose from the same general region of the tree as Cresmatoneta, but as a separate branch.

## 9. Genera with Erigonine Conformations (Figs. 196-198)

The following current genera are included here:

## Taranucnus Simon 1884

Allomengea Strand 1912
Helophora Menge 1866
These 3 genera have palpal organs of the erigonine type; the SA's are complex as in many of the erigonines, and in Taranucnus and Helophora the tegulum is more or less vertical.

Taranucnus (Fig. 196) has a conformation rather like that of Monocephalus (Fig. 161) or possibly Microcentria (Fig. 160), and on this basis it seems


Figs. 189-195: Male palps. 189 Bathyphantes gracilis (B1.), ED removed; 190 B. gracilis; 191 Porrhomma convexum (Westr.), ED removed; 192 P. convexum; 193 Aphileta misera (Cambr.), 194 "Oreonetides"abnormis (Bl.), ED separate; 195 Maro minutus Cambr.
probable that it originated in the same region of the phylogenetic tree as one or other of these genera. Helophora (Fig. 198) has a fairly simple erigoninetype coiled embolus, on which has grown the long lamella; the SA is complex. The provenance of this species is obscure, but it could possibly be an offshoot from the Baryphyma region of the tree. Allomengea (Fig. 197) has a distinctly erigonine type of SA (reminiscent of e.g. Dismodicus (Fig. 97)), and the ED consists of a fairly simple radical part bearing a coiled embolus, this radical part having superimposed on it a large lamellar structure. This conformation could conceivably have arisen from the Maso/Minicia area (Section C 9, p. 21, Figs. 63-65); Allomengea has a similar trichobothrial formula to these species, and has a somewhat similar cymbial form to Minicia.

Each of these 3 species has a fairly high value of TmI, and TmIV is present. Why so few linyphiine spiders have arisen with the erigonine type of palp is a mystery.

## 10. Stemonyphantes Menge 1866 and Labulla Simon 1884 (Fig. 199)

Stemonyphantes (Fig. 199) has basically the same conformation type as Groups D 4, D 5 and D 6, with the duct leaving the tegulum and entering the ED near the posterior end of the palp. It is, however, very different in detail, with a curious anterior development of the tegulum, and a strikingly different form of ED. Because of its basic conformation, it presumably arose from the same general phylogenetic region of Groups D 4-D 6, but nothing more than this can be said of its relationships.

Labulla is also difficult to place; it seems to be closer in basic conformation to the Lepthyphantes area (Groups D 1-D 3) than to the Linyphia area (Groups D 4-D 6).

## E. Discussion and Conclusions

On the basis of the palpal conformation it has been possible to carry out a partial phylogenetic analysis of the Linyphiidae. The assumptions made in this analysis are (i) that the plesiomorphous conformation was simple, and that the apomorphous conformations are more complex; (ii) that regression
from complex to more simple conformations has been absent or infrequent; and (iii) that conformation is an apomorphous character which can be used to show phylogenetic relationship, i.e. that the conformations present today are the results of separate phylogenetic lines of development of the palp and of the spiders themselves. What is postulated is that the wide range of palpal forms present today have arisen by radiative elaboration from a simple plesiomorphous form. The complicated palpal organs of most contemporary species have therefore been formed by an increase in the complexity of the ED and to a lesser extent of the SA, and by less obvious changes to other parts of the palpal organs. Evolutionary development of the palp in this way appears to be the most logical pathway to the wide range of palpal forms present today. In agreement with the assumption (iii) it has been found that conformation is more or less constant within well-defined genera.

Conformation can be considered at various levels of detail. At the family level, the generalised conformation as summarised on p. 4 and Fig. 1, is a synapomorphous character for the family Linyphiidae. Various examples are given in Section C of conformation at the generic level, and when considered in its ultimate detail each species has its own particular conformation.

This analysis of conformation, coupled with the use of some other characters, has permitted the synthesis of a provisional phylogenetic system for the Linyphiidae, including both erigonine and linyphiine members. The morphological transitions within and between the various groupings postulated appear to be on the whole relatively simple and straightforward, requiring no undue stretch of credulity. The analysis indicates that both erigonine and linyphiine spiders have evolved from several different areas of the phylogenetic tree. The so-called transitional genera, which have caused a good deal of discussion and disagreement amongst arachnologists, fit naturally into the system proposed and pose no problems. There are, however, a small number of genera which cannot at present be placed. In considering the results obtained, and the theory proposed, it is important to bear in mind that the analysis has been limited to the European fauna; in other geographical areas some conformations and conformational relationships not found here will undoubtedly be present. The theory
put forward is of course descriptive and correlative only; the reasons for the various evolutionary changes which have occurred in the palp and in other characters, and the actual morphological pathways for some of the palpal changes suggested, are quite unknown at the present time.

The phylogenetic system proposed for the Liny-
phiidae is summarised schematically in Fig. 200, which is based on the results reported in more detail in Sections C and D.

Some points to be taken into consideration in the interpretation of this diagram are as follows:
(i) The arrangement is schematic, indicating the pathways to the palpal conformations of the various


Figs. 196-199: Male palps. 196 Taranucnus setosus (Cambr.); 197 Allomengea scopigera (Grube); 198 Helophora insignis (B1.), ED separate; 199 Stemonyphantes lineatus (L.), ED separate, long embolus hidden.
groups and genera. This is not to be taken to mean that e.g. Hilaira is a direct ancestor of Erigone, but rather that the Erigone species have been derived from an ancestor with a conformation like today's species of Hilaira.
(ii) The most uncertain areas of this scheme are considered to be the relationships shown in the lower part of Fig. 200. The Tmeticus and Lophomma groups contain a somewhat heterogeneous mixture of species, the derivation of which from the hypothetical stem species is capable of several interpretations. More phylogenetically useful characters are needed to clarify the position of these genera in particular; additional characters, if they can be found, will also be of the utmost value for testing the other relationships postulated in Fig. 200.
(iii) The stem species is postulated to have had a very simple conformation (but of the linyphiid type). The duct entry to the ED could have been either dorsal or lateral; one form is convertible into the other by a relatively small shift in the stalk and duct, and there is no evidence to show which was in fact the primitive form. There is of course, no direct information on any other characters of this stem species, but a few inferences can be drawn. Many of the species existing today with what appear to be the most primitive types of palps (e.g. Leptorhoptrum, Ostearius, Sciastes, Donacochara) have tibial spines 2222 , and some of these have a trichobothrium on metatarsus IV. If one makes the postulate (which appears a reasonable one on present knowledge) that the trichobothrium on metatarsus IV changes always in the direction of loss, and that the dorsal tibial spines also change always or almost always in the direction of loss, then the primitive members of the family can be inferred, with some reasonable degree of probability, to have had tibial spines 2222 and to have possessed TmIV. On the same basis, it seems probable that the primitive members had no significant cephalic elevation in the adult male. Another character which seems to give some indication of primitiveness is the number of trichobothria on the male palpal tibia. The more primitive species seem to have 3 trichobothria (perhaps more, since in 3 exceptional cases there are 4 or 5 ); this number decreases to 2 or 1 in most of the erigonine species, but remains at 3 in most of the linyphiines. Thus it seems that the linyphiines tend to have retained some
of the primitive somatic characters of the family, viz. tibial spines 2222, 3 or 4 trichobothria on male palp, no cephalic lobe in male (and perhaps the tracheal system, p. 55).
(iv) It is assumed that the stem species split, in the usual manner, into two species which then led to the two main branches of the family. It is postulated that the right-hand branch (Fig. 200) carried the character of dorso-mesal or mesal entry of the duct into the ED, while the left-hand branch carried the character of lateral entry of the duct into the ED. It is to be noted that subsequent elaboration and growth of the parts of the ED has often obscured the position of entry of the duct, i.e. it seems probable that apomorphous characters common to members of a monophyletic group may sometimes become hidden during the evolution of the group. The truth orrotherwise of the assumption, that the family split fairly early in its history into two branches differing essentially in the position of duct entry to the ED, may be capable of proof or disproof when a wider fauna than that of Europe has been properly studied. It cannot be ruled out at this stage that species with the lateral duct entry have arisen more than once, from species with dorsal entry, or vice versa.
(v) The analysis does not support the existence of the commonly used sub-families Erigoninae and Linyphiinae. The results indicate that both erigonine and linyphiine species have arisen from several parts of the phylogenetic tree, but that the linyphiine species are in 2 or 3 main groups which have arisen quite separately from one another. These findings are in general agreement with the views of Lehtinen (1975) that the phylogeny of Linyphiidae is significantly more complex than indicated by the simple bifurcate splitting of the family into the two traditional subfamilies.

In view of the doubts cast by the present work on the existence of these sub-families, and in view of the many questions which still remain unanswered, it is strongly recommended that taxonomists should for the time being abandon the use of these sub-families, at least in faunal lists. If this is not done, some genera will continue to be shifted from one sub-family to another, by different arachnologists, to the detriment of all those biologists who use the results of taxonomy. The terms "erigonine" and "linyphiine" when used should be regarded as morphologically des-


Fig. 200: Partial phylogenetic classification of the Linyphiidae.
criptive and not phylogenetically descriptive.
(vi) If the two main branches shown in Fig. 200 are accepted as a workable hypothesis, they must eventually be named as sub-families, while the smaller branches (even though their exact limits may be difficult to define) must also be named, as tribes, subtribes, etc. Family group names are subject to the same laws of priority as any other name, a fact which seems to have been lost sight of by some arachnologists. The sub-family name for the right-hand branch of Fig. 200 must be the nominate sub-family Linyphiinae since it contains the family's nominate genus Linyphia. The earliest available family group
name for the left-hand branch is Micronetinae Hull 1920. As recommended in (v) above, however, these names should not be used for the present in faunal lists.
(vii) It is obvious that, for reasons unknown, there is an inbuilt genetic tendency for the linyphiine members of the family to develop ED's of everincreasing complexity, by the growth of parts attached to the radix. This is true even of those few linyphiine species which have erigonine types of palp. If it is accepted that the linyphiine spiders have arisen from several distinct lines of development, then it is probably no longer justified to infer that the various
parts ("lamella", etc.) arising from the radix in the different lines are homologous. No doubt it will be convenient to retain the names already given to the parts, for descriptive purposes, so long as it is realised that the names do not automatically confer homology.
(viii) There seems to be quite a strong tendency for the position of the metatarsal trichobothria (measured on the adult) to remain reasonably constant within the smaller phylogenetic lines (particularly in genera): e.g. Erigone, Savignya/Diplocephalus group, Tapinocyba, Meioneta, Centromerus). While it cannot be said that all monophyletic genera have the position of the trichobothria constant, nevertheless where there are marked differences in the trichobothrial position within a conformation group (e.g. one well $<0.5$, one well $>0.5$ ), then the existence of more than one phylogenetic line must be suspected. On this basis, parallel lines of development leading to almost identical conformations have been postulated in the Tapinocyba and Pelecopsis groups, and in several of the linyphiine groups. The loss of TmIV seems to have occurred relatively easily, and erratically, in the various branches. No species are known which have lost TmIII as well.

Within the various phylogenetic lines, the loss of dorsal tibial spines appears to have been a relatively easy process. The dorsal spines on tibiae I and II must be genetically linked, since there seem to be no species with tibial spines 2111.
(ix) The ED can show a considerable range of variation from species to species within a genus, while the SA usually tends to be more stable.
( x ) It is a valid question to ask whether a corresponding phylogenetic analysis could be carried out on the basis of the detailed structure of the female sex organs, and whether such an analysis would lead to a different answer? With the erigonines the problem is that the fine structure of the vulva is usually difficult to see, and that in any case the vulva is often very simple. It has therefore been difficult or impossible to find any significant correlations between the epigyne/vulva structure of erigonine spiders of different groups. Attempts to carry out taxonomic analysis on the basis of the structure of female organs in some linyphiine species (where the complexity of the organ is greater) have been more successful (e.g. Saaristo, 1972, 1973(1)). It seems clear, in the eri-
gonines, that there is little or no correlation between palpal structures and vulva structures; while the male palp retains a more or less constant conformation, as in e.g. Walckenaera, the female epigyne/vulva can show considerable variations. Another example is provided by the 2 species Pelecopsis elongata and $P$. (Exechophysis) bucephala: these have almost identical palpal conformations, yet the vulva of bucephala is much more complex than that of elongata. If the hypothesis proposed in this paper is accepted, then it seems that the form of the epigyne/vulva may often be of minor importance phylogenetically, at least in the erigonines, and that changes in the female organ, while the palpal conformation remains more or less unchanged, are the results of minor branching of the phylogenetic lines. If so, such changes do not justify the setting up of new genera, though the erection of species groups may well be justified.

Changes in the detail of the sex organs can probably lead to changes in mating procedure; such changes will be forced on the spider, if it is to survive, by the changed geometrical situation which it faces (all such changes, morphological and adaptational, will of course occur gradually, in small steps). It seems to the author that such changes in mating procedure, if they are solely the result of relatively small morphological changes (such as lengthening of the embolus), which represent only minor phylogenetic branches, are not sufficient to justify the splitting off of the species concerned into a new genus, though a sub-genus or species group may be justified. Clearly in such cases it is a matter of degree, but if every small change in mating (or other) habit required the erection of a new genus, there would indeed be a proliferation of genera! As stated in the Introduction, it seems preferable, particularly in a family such as the Linyphiidae which is so rich in species, to use generic names to show relationships rather than to show differences, i.e. to avoid splitting off every minor phylogenetic branch as a new genus.

In an interesting paper on the tracheal arrangements in the Linyphiidae published recently, Blest (1976) suggests that some of the simpler palpal forms (particularly those of the transitional genera) have been derived from linyphiine forms by "reduction" of the complex to the simple. The view expressed in the present paper, that the linyphiine palps have all been formed by elaboration of simpler palps, and that
the transitional forms are in fact intermediates or side branches on the way to the linyphiine forms, appears to the author to give a more logical phylogenetic picture of the Linyphiidae. Although there must be doubts on the value of the tracheal arrangement as a reliable character for phylogenetic analysis (e.g. Levi, 1967; Levi and Kirber, 1976), and although Blest's conclusions are at variance with those reached here, his results are not necessarily in disagreement with most of the present findings. If the linyphiine tracheal arrangement is the more plesiomorphous form of the character, and the erigonine arrangement is the more apomorphous form, as seems probable, then the retention of the plesiomorphous form of this character by the linyphiines would be in line with their retention of some other probably primitive somatic characters (this Section, iii, p. 52). Thus Blest's results need not be regarded as in serious disagreement with the scheme of Fig. 200. Only Lessertiella appears to be quite anomalous.

This paper makes a serious attempt to investigate the phylogeny of the Linyphiidae, and the author intends to develop the theme in subsequent papers. The approach is of course speculative, and it is not pretended that the analysis carried out represents more than a preliminary and partial attack on the numerous problems of linyphiid taxonomy/phylogeny. For example, it will clearly be impossible to identify all the sister group relationships within the family on the basis of a study of the European fauna only, rich in species though this may be. Nor is any claim made at this stage that the theory and scheme proposed are "right"; in the absence of extensive fossil evidence a theory of this kind can never be "proven". Like any other scientific hypothesis, it must be judged on the basis of its ability to give a reasonable fit to the known data, and to new data as these appear. If the hypothesis put forward encourages others to develop a system which shows a better fit to all the known data, then the author will be well satisfied.

Quite apart from the phylogenetic inferences made, the concept of conformation described in this paper gives a practical basis for analysing, in a logical manner, the structure of the palp, thus offering a better basis for comparing species with one another and for organising species and genera into more accurately defined and recognisable higher taxa.

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## Appendix

During the course of the work described in this paper the following synonyms were established:

1. Aulacocyba parisiensis (Simon 1884) (Tube No. 2324.B.948, M.N.H.N. Paris) $=$ Aulacocyba subitanea (Cambr. 1875).
2. Collinsia foenaria (Simon 1884) ( $\delta^{\circ}$ Tube No. 4791.B.938, M.N.H.N.) = Milleriana inerrans (Cambr. 1884): on grounds of usage, inerrans should continue to be used.
3. Collinsia harmsi Wunderlich 1972 ( 90 from Senckenberg Musuem) $=$ Gongylidiellum mediocre Simon 1884 (Tube No. $4505 . B .904$, M.N.H.N., ơ palp).
4. Diplocephalus pulicarius (Thorell 1875) (syntype 9 , Coll. Thorell 115/467, Naturh.Riksmus.Stockholm) $=$ Aulacocyba subitanea (Cambr. 1875): on grounds of usage, the name subitanea should continue to be used.
5. Diplocephalus tauricus (Thorell 1875) ( $\delta$ palp from holotype, Coll. Thorell 115/468, Naturh.Riksmus.Stockholm) = Ceratinopsis romana (Cambr. 1872).
6. Gongylidiellum maderianum Schenkel 1938 ( 9 paratype, Tube 1544a, Naturh.Mus.Basel) = Aulacocyba subitanea Cambr. 1875).
7. Janetschekia lesserti Schenkel 1939 ( 90 from Dr K. Thaler, Innsbruck) $=$ Janetschekia (Erigone) monodon (Cambr. 1872) (type $\delta$ from Hope Dept., Oxford; several ¢ó (labelled Erigone monodon) from Koch Coll., B.M.N.H., London).
8. Troxochrus sulcatus Simon 1926 ( $\delta$, Tube No. 22840.B.883, M.N.H.N., Paris) $=$ Thyreosthenius parasiticus (Westr. 1851).

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