# Proceedings of the <br> 17th International Congress of Myriapodology, Krabi, Thailand 

Edited by<br>Pavel Stoev, Gregory D. Edgecombe

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Proceedings of the ifth International Congress of Myriapodology, Krabi, Thailand

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## Proceedings of the $\mathbf{I} 7^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology, Krabi, Thailand

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This special issue of ZooKeys assembles a collection of contemporary research devoted to myriapods presented at the $17^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology, held from 23 to 26 July 2017 in Krabi, Thailand. The congress was organised by Prof. Somsak Panha and his team from the Animal Systematics Research Unit of Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok. This is the third ZooKeys special issue emerging from a myriapodological congress following those of the $15^{\text {th }}$ and $16^{\text {th }}$ congresses in Australia and the Czech Republic, respectively: Mesibov R \& Short M (2011) Proceedings of the $15^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology. ZooKeys 156: 139 pp. and Tuf IH \& Tajovský K (2015) Proceedings of the $16^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology. ZooKeys 510: 278 pp.

The current issue comprises 13 articles by 35 authors from 10 countries (Austria, Australia, Brazil, China, Czech Republic, Georgia, Germany, Russia, Taiwan, UK). Two articles are devoted to the biogeography of myriapods of the Himalayas and lowland Altai (Golovatch and Martens, Nefedev et al., respectively). Reip and Wesener investigate the haplotype diversity and biogeography of the familiar Black Pill Millipede, Glomeris marginata, throughout Europe and draw conclusions on the taxonomic status of a number of subspecies and colour morphs known in this widespread, model millipede species. Kokhia and Golovatch provide an annotated checklist of the millipedes of Georgia.


Figure I. Group photo of the $17^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology.
Two papers focus on anatomical structures of the head capsule and their phylogenetic significance. These involve documenting the tentorium of sphaerotheriid millipedes (Moritz et al.) and the epipharynx and hypopharynx in the centipede genus Lithobius Leach, 1814 (Ganske et al.). Another paper deals with the conservation status of Brazilian myriapods based on recent assessments following the IUCN criteria and discusses some practical implications for their conservation (Karam-Gemael et al.). One contribution (Decker et al.) describes the online platform VIRMISCO (Virtual Microscope Slide Collection) - a digital archive for microscope slides that enables users to view, search, rotate, zoom, measure, etc., important type objects.

Five papers in this special issue are devoted to systematic description of altogether nine new myriapod species from East Asia and Australia, these belonging to the centipede genus Lithobius (Chao et al., Ma et al., Pei et al.), and the millipede genera Lophoturus (Huynh and Veenstra) and Glyphiulus (Jiang et al.).

We are grateful to the referees of contributions to this issue for careful and prompt work that improved the quality of the accepted manuscripts.

We look forward to the next International Congress of Myriapodology, which will be held in 2019 and hosted by Prof. Zoltan Korsós and his team at the Hungarian Natural History Museum.

# Distribution, diversity patterns and faunogenesis of the millipedes (Diplopoda) of the Himalayas 

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Academic editor: P. Stoev \| Received 4 August 2017 | Accepted 7 September 2017 | Published 7 March 2018<br>http://zoobank.org/74400373-2CB8-45D6-935A-E8333DDB3B50<br>Citation: Golovatch SI, Martens J (2018) Distribution, diversity patterns and faunogenesis of the millipedes (Diplopoda) of the Himalayas. In: Stoev P, Edgecombe GD (Eds) Proceedings of the $17^{\text {th }}$ International Congress of Myriapodology, Krabi, Thailand. ZooKeys 741: 3-34. https://doi.org/10.3897/zookeys.741.20041


#### Abstract

The Himalayas support a highly rich, diverse, multi-layered, mostly endemic diplopod fauna which presently contains $>270$ species, 53 genera, 23 families and 13 orders. This is the result of mixing the ancient, apparently Tertiary and younger, Plio-Pleistocene elements of various origins, as well as the most recent anthropochore (= man-mediated) introductions. At the species and, partly, generic levels, the fauna is largely autochthonous and sylvicolous, formed through abounding in situ radiation and vicariance events. In general, the species from large genera and families tend to occupy a wide range of altitudes, but nearly each of the constituent species shows a distribution highly localized both horizontally and altitudinally, yet quite often with sympatry or even syntopy involved. The bulk of the fauna is Indo-Malayan in origin, with individual genera or families shared with those of SE Asia (mostly) and/or S India (few). Sino-Himalayan and, especially, Palaearctic components are subordinate, but also clearly distinguishable.


## Keywords

Diplopoda, faunistics, Plio-Pleistocene, Asia, Palaearctic

## Introduction

The Himalaya Range, or Himalayas for short, meaning "the abode of snow" in Sanskrit, is the mountain range in Asia that separates the Indian subcontinent from the Tibetan Plateau. Sometimes by extension, it is also the name of a massive mountain system that includes the Karakoram, the Hindu Kush, and other, lesser, ranges that reach out from the Pamir Knot (http://maps.thefullwiki.org/Himalayas). However, below the Himalayas is treated in the strict sense. The main Himalayan Range runs, northwest to southeast, from the Indus River valley to the Brahmaputra River valley, forming an arc which varies in width from 400 km in the western Kashmir-Xinjiang region to 150 km in the southeastern Tibet-Arunachal Pradesh region. The range consists of three extensive subranges, with the northernmost, and highest, known as the Great Himalayas.

The Himalayan mountain system is the Earth's highest and home to the world's highest peaks, the Eight-thousanders, which include Mount Everest and K2. The system, which includes various outlying sub-ranges, stretches across five countries: India, Nepal, Bhutan, China and Pakistan. The Himalayan Range is bordered on the northwest by the Karakoram and Hindu Kush ranges, on the north by the Tibetan Plateau, and on the south by the Indo-Gangetic Plain. The region is roughly delimited by $74^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$ in the west and $95^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$ in the east. Some of the world's major rivers, the Indus, the Ganges, and the Tsangpo-Brahmaputra, rise in the Himalayas, and their combined drainage basin is home to some 600 million people. The Himalayas have profoundly shaped the cultures of South Asia, having united and separated them as well; many Himalayan peaks are sacred in Hinduism and Buddhism (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Himalayas). An orographic map of the Himalayas is presented in Fig. 1.

From a biologist's viewpoint, the Himalayas represent a highly important biogeographical barrier between the cold and arid uplands of Central Asia and the largely tropical South and Southeast Asia. During the southwestern monsoon period, precipitation mainly occurs on the southern slopes, being greatly reduced on the northern ones. This picture is especially typical of the Central Himalayas, more or less within Kumaon, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan, as more to the west the aridity of Central Asia extends across the southern slopes while in the eastern parts of the system heavy monsoon rains, though declining in amount and frequency, reach beyond the main ridge as far as southeastern Tibet (Troll 1967, Miehe 2015).

The drastic climatic gradient within the Central Himalayas is of utmost importance in affecting the distribution of various organisms. Although phyto- and zoogeographical regions delimited differ to some degree, they both emphasize the role of the Himalayas as a contact zone between two major biogeographical realms, the Palaearctic and Oriental, which meet and intermesh here in various combinations. All areas lying north of the Central Himalayas obviously belong to the Palaearctic, as do the highest parts of the inhabited southern macroslope. The lower and lowest elevations of the southern macroslope are largely attributable to the Oriental, or Indo-Malayan realm. In addition, a third realm, the Sino-Himalayan biogeographical region, can be distinguished, bringing old faunal elements into the Himalayan chain. However, the border


Figure I. Orographic map of the Himalayan region.
between both regions is generally neither striking nor abrupt, forming more (especially in the eastern Himalayas) or less (in their central parts) vast transition areas, numerous inversions or anomalies. In other words, the otherwise manifest rule "(sub)tropical organisms for (sub)tropical environments only" is very often violated in the Himalayas, particularly in the central parts of the system and as regards animals in general (Martens $1984,1993,2015)$. Even the pattern of vertical zonation of the tree plant cover in the region is rather conventional (Dobremez 1972) (Fig. 2).

The first, provisional review of the millipede fauna of the Himalayas (Golovatch and Martens 1996) was based on a fauna of approximately 200 species or subspecies. Now, the list has reached more than 270 species or subspecies belonging to 53 genera distributed in 23 families and 13 orders (Table 1). As before, several species and even genera remain unidentified. The main increase is due to the omnipresent family Paradoxosomatidae, especially as regards the fauna of Nepal. The objective of this paper is to critically list the actually known Himalayan diplopod fauna and to discuss the different faunal and evolutionary influences that made this fauna so rich and complex.

## Material and methods

These results mostly rely on published records, which have grown considerably over the past two decades. The resultant checklist (Table 1) is not just a literature compila-


Figure 2. The vegetation belts and most important plant communities in the Nepal Himalayas. The Roman numerals at the bottom indicate the floral regions of Nepal (modified, after Dobremez 1972).
tion, as it is largely based on the vast experience of the first author who has described numerous diplopod species from the Himalayas. Most of the recent advance has appeared, based on material collected by the second author and/or his collaborators during numerous, often long-term expeditions to Nepal, India and elsewhere. The trips to Nepal covered all seasons, focused on the exploration of local forest soil/litter fauna and concerned all forest biomes ranging from the terai lowlands to and beyond the timber line.

Table I. Diplopoda of the Himalayas. In addition to the taxonomic composition of the fauna, data on the vertical and geographical distribution of species in the region are also presented, largely with key references.

| Fauna | Altitude <br> (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Order Polyxenida | $1585-2400$ |  |
| Family Polyxenidae | $1585-2400$ |  |
| Genus Polyxenus Latreille, 1802-03 |  |  |
| 1. Polyxenus sp. |  |  |
| Genus Monographis Attems, 1907 | 1585 | India, Jammu \& Kashmir (Silvestri 1936) |
| 2. Monographis mira (Turk, 1947) | $1600-2400$ | Nepal \& India, Almora (Turk 1947, Condé 1962, |
| Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |  |  |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 24. Z. nigrinota Butler, 1872 | 2300-2700 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 25. Z. specularis Attems, 1936 | ? | India, Assam (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 26. Z. tigrina Butler, 1872 | ? | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 27. Z. tigrinoides Attems, 1936 | 170 | India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 28. Z. tumida Butler, 1882 | ? | India, Assam \& Darjeeling Distr.; Myanmar (Wesener 2015) |
| Order Glomerida | 150-3300 |  |
| Family Glomeridae | 150-3300 |  |
| Genus Hyleoglomeris Verhoeff, 1910 | 150-3300 |  |
| 29. Hyleoglomeris crassipes Golovatch, 1987 | 2450-2720 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 30. H. electa (Silvestri, 1917) | 500-1700 | India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 31. H. gorkhalis Golovatch, 1987 | 1200 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 32. H. khumbua Golovatch, 1987 | 3250-3300 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 33. H. modesta Silvestri, 1917 | 150 | India, Assam (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 34. H. nagarjunga Golovatch, 1987 | 1600-2100 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2006) |
| 35. H. tinjurana Golovatch, 1987 | 2450 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 36. H. venustula Silvestri, 1917 | ? | India, Assam (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Order Siphonophorida |  |  |
| Family Siphonorhinidae | 500-1700 |  |
| Genus Siphonorhinus Pocock, 1894 | 500-1700 |  |
| 37. Siphonorhinus cingulatus (Attems, 1936) | 500-1700 | Vietnam and India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 38. S. coniceps (Attems, 1936) | 1700 | India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 39. S. Larwoodi (Turk, 1947) | 1600 | India, Almora (Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Order Siphonocryptida |  |  |
| Family Siphonocryptidae | 2450 |  |
| Genus Hirudicryprus Enghoff \& Golovatch, 1995 |  |  |
| 40. Hirudicryprus quintumelementum Korsós, Geoffroy \& Mauriès, 2009 | 2450 | Nepal (Korsós et al. 2009) |
| Order Platydesmida | <2000 |  |
| Family Andrognathidae | <2000 |  |
| Genus Pseudodesmus Pocock, 1887 |  |  |
| 41. ?Pseudodesmus sp. | <2000 | Nepal (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Order Polyzoniida | 4700-4800 |  |
| Family Hirudisomatidae | 4700-4800 |  |
| Genus Nepalozonium Shelley, 1996 |  |  |
| 42. Nepalozonium trimaculatum Shelley, 1996 | 4700-4800 | Nepal (Shelley 1996) |
| Order Chordeumatida | 900-4100 |  |
| Family Kashmireumatidae | 2600-4100 |  |
| Genus Kashmireuma Mauriès, 1982 | 2600-4100 |  |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 43. Kashmireuma nepalensis Mauriès, 1988 | 3600-4100 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 44. K. nielseni Mauriès, 1982 | 2600-3500 | India, Kashmir <br> (Mauriès 1982, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 45. K. schawalleri Shear, 1987 | 3450-3600 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Family Cleidogonidae | 900-3900 |  |
| Genus Tianella Attems, 1904 | 900-3900 |  |
| 46. Tianella ausobskyi Shear, 1987 | 2500-3050 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 47. T. bobanga Shear, 1979 | 2460-2500 | Nepal (Shear 1979, 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 48. T. daamsae Shear, 1987 | 3600-3900 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 49. T. gitanga Shear, 1987 | 2550 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 50. T. jaljalensis Mauriès, 1988 | 2350 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 51. T. kathmandua Mauriès, 1988 | 1700 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 52. T. lughla Shear, 1979 | 2950-3300 | Nepal (Shear 1979, 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 53. T. managa Shear, 1987 | 2550 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 54. T. mangsingma Mauriès, 1988 | 2250 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 55. T. martensi Shear, 1979 | 1150-2900 | Nepal (Shear, 1979, 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 56. T. smetanai Mauriès, 1988 | 3250 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 57. Tianella sp. | 900-1400 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Family Megalotylidae | 1900-4100 |  |
| Genus Nepalella Shear, 1979 | 1900-4100 |  |
| 58. Nepalella deharvengi Mauriès, 1988 | 2900-3500 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 59. N. gairiensis Mauriès, 1988 | 3000 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 60. N. gunsa Shear, 1987 | 3600-3800 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 61. N. jaljalae Mauriès, 1988 | 2200 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 62. N. khumbua Shear, 1979 | 3350-3300 | Nepal (Shear 1979, 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 63. N. phulcokia Mauriès, 1988 | 2250 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 64. N. ringmoensis Mauriès, 1988 | 2750-3000 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 65. N. taplejunga Shear, 1987 | 3000-3300 | Nepal (Shear 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 66. N. thodunga Shear, 1979 | 3200 | Nepal (Shear 1979, 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 67. N. tragsindola Mauriès, 1988 | 2450-3300 | Nepal (Mauriès 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 68. Nepalella sp. | 1900-4100 | Nepal (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Order Callipodida | 650 |  |
| Family Caspiopetalidae | 650 |  |
| Genus Bollmania Silvestri, 1896 |  |  |
| 69. Bollmania kohalana (Attems, 1936) | 650 | Pakistan, Punjab <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Order Julida | 1680-4800 |  |
| Family Julidae | 1680-4800 |  |
| Genus Anaulaciulus Pocock, 1895 | 1900-4500 |  |
| 70. Anaulaciulus acaudatus Korsós, 1996 | 3990 | India, Sikkim (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 71. A. bilineatus Korsós, 1996 | 3300-4300 | Nepal (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 72. A. kashmirensis Korsós, 1996 | 3100-3200 | India, Kashmir (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 73. A. nepalensis Korsós, 1996 | 2600-3400 | Nepal (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 74. A. niger Korsós, 1996 | 2600-4500 | Nepal (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 75. A. tibetanus Korsós, 1996 | 3700 | China, Tibet; India, Assam <br> (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 76. A. topali Korsós, 1996 | 2300 | India, Kashmir (Korsós 1996, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Nepalmatoiulus Mauriès, 1983 | 1680-4800 |  |
| 77. Nepalmatoiulus appendiculatus Enghoff, 1987 | 1900-2100 | India, Uttar Pradesh <br> (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 78. N. deharvengi (Mauriès, 1983) | 2550-3350 | Nepal (Mauriès 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 79. N. dhaulagiri Enghoff, 1987 | 3000-3350 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 80. N. generalis Enghoff, 1987 | 3400 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 81. N. hyalilobus Enghoff, 1987 | 3600-3800 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 82. N. ivanloebli Enghoff, 1987 | 2200-4800 | Nepal (Mauriès 1983, Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 83. N. juctapositus Enghoff, 1987 | 2800-3050 | Nepal (Mauriès 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 84. N. martensi Enghoff, 1987 | 3250-3300 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 85. N. mauriesi Enghoff, 1987 | 3600 | Nepal (Enghoff 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 86. N. nigrescens Enghoff, 1987 | 2300 | Bhutan (Enghoff 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 87. N. pineti Enghoff, 1987 | 2900 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 88. N. rugiflagrum Enghoff, 1987 | 3300 | Bhutan (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 89. N. smetanai (Mauriès, 1983) | 1900-2700 | Nepal (Enghoff 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 90. N. sympatricus Enghoff, 1987 | 3000 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 88. N. uncus Enghoff, 1987 | 2550 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 91. N. wuermlii Enghoff, 1987 | 1680-2600 | Bhutan (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 92. N. zachonoides Enghoff, 1987 | 2450-2600 | Nepal (Enghoff 1987, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Order Spirostreptida | 200-2500 |  |
| Family Cambalopsidae | <1000-1200 |  |
| Genus Podoglyphiulus Attems, 1909 | <1000-1200 |  |
| 93. Podoglyphiulus elegans nepalensis Mauriès, 1983 | <1000 | Nepal ${ }^{3}$ (Mauriès 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Trachyjulus Peters, 1864 |  |  |
| 94. Trachyjulus mimus Silvestri, 1924 | 1200 | India, Assam (Silvestri 1924, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 95. T. wilsonae Mauriès, 1983 | <1000 | Nepal (Mauriès 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Family Harpagophoridae | 200-2500 |  |
| Genus Dametus Attems, 1942 |  |  |
| 96. Dametus falcatus (Attems, 1936) | 400-500 | India, Assam (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Gonoplectus Chamberlin, 1921 | 200-2500 |  |
| 97. Gonoplectus alius Demange, 1961 | ? | India, Assam <br> (Demange 1961, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 98. G. bhutanensis Demange, 1988 | 350-450 | Bhutan (Demange 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 99. G. broelemanni Demange, 1961 | 1800-2300 | Nepal (Demange 1961, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 100. G. corniger (Attems, 1936) | ? | India, Assam (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 101. G. gracilis (Attems, 1936) | 1200 | India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 102. G. hyatti Demange, 1961 | 1200 | Nepal (Demange 1961, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |


| Fauna | Altitude <br> (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | | 103. G. malayus malayus (Carl, 1909) |
| :--- | $200-2500$| Indonesia, Java; Nepal, Bhutan \& India, Madhya Pradesh, |
| :---: |
| Uttar Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, West Bengal (Golovatch <br> and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 104. G. malayus lindbergi (Carl, 1909) |


| Fauna | Altitude <br> (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 118. M. nagarjungicus Golovatch, 1987 | $1900-2100$ | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, |
| Golovatch et al. 2013) |  |  |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Genus Delarthrum Attems, 1936 | 600-4100 |  |
| 148. Delarthrum aberrans (Golovatch, 1996) | 1000-2600 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, 2016a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 149. D. affine (Golovatch, 1994) | 1400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 150. D. alatum (Golovatch, 1996) | 1900-2100 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 151. D. andreevi Golovatch, 2014 | 1800 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014b) |
| 152. D. arunense (Golovatch, 1994) | 1850-2150 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2016a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 153. D. beroni Golovatch, 2014 | 600-1000 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014b) |
| 154. D. bifidum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2550-2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 155. D. chulingense (Golovatch, 1994) | 3000-3700 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 156. D. communicans (Golovatch, 1992) | 2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 157. D. curtisoma Golovatch, 2015 | 2050-2150 | Nepal (Golovatch 2015a) |
| 158. D. curtum Golovatch, 2014 | 600-1000 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014b) |
| 159. D. densesetosum Golovatch, 2015 | 2400 | Nepal (Golovatch 2015a) |
| 160. D. elegans (Golovatch, 1992) | 1350 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1992, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 161. D. extremum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2450 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 162. D. facile (Golovatch, 1996) | 2200-2400 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 163. D. fechteri (Golovatch, 1990) | 2330-3150 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1990a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 164. D. foveatum (Golovatch, 1996) | 1800-2000 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1992, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 165. D. furcatum (Golovatch, 1996) | 600-2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, 2016c, <br> Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 166. D. gracile Golovatch, 2015 | 1750 | Nepal (Golovatch 2015a) |
| 167. D. granulosum (Golovatch, 1994) | 2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2016c, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 168. D. heterotergale Golovatch, 2014 | 600-1000 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014) |
| 169. D. hingstoni (Carl, 1935) | 3400 | China, Tibet (Carl 1935, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 170. D. hirsutum (Golovatch, 1994) | 2400-4100 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2015a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 171. D. intermedium (Golovatch, 1994) | 1000-1100 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 172. D. invocatum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 173. D. kuznetsovi (Golovatch, 1994) | 3000 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 174. D. longisetum (Golovatch, 1994) | 1400-1600 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2016c, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 175. D. longispinum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2150-2250 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2016c, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 176. D. modestum (Golovatch, 1996) | 3450-3600 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 177. D. nyakense (Golovatch, 1992) | 2270-2400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 178. D. obscurum Attems, 1936 | ca 2800 | N Pakistan, Punjab (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 179. D. philosophicum (Golovatch, 1994) | 1650-2450 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 180. D. planifemur Golovatch, 2015 | 2200 | Nepal (Golovatch 2015a) |
| 181. D. prolixum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2550-2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 182. D. pumilum (Attems, 1944) | ? | India, Uttar Pradesh (Attems 1944, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 183. D. quadridentatum Golovatch, 2016 | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 2016b) |
| 184. D. schawalleri (Golovatch, 1992) | 1000-2150 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 1994a, 2014, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 185. D. setosum Golovatch, 2014 | ? | Nepal (Golovatch 2014b) |
| 186. D. silvestre (Golovatch, 1994) | 2000-3400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2016a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 187. D. simile (Golovatch, 1992) | 2300-2700 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996 |
| 188. D. simplex (Golovatch, 1996) | 1650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 189. D. simulans (Carl, 1935) | 3700 | Nepal \& China, Tibet (Carl 1935, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 190. D. spectabile (Golovatch, 1994) | 2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, 2016c, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 191. D. spiniger (Attems, 1936) | 1000-2200 | India, West Bengal \& Darjeeling Distr. (Attems 1936, Golovatch 1984, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 192. D. spinigerum (Golovatch, 1992) | 600-1400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 2014b) |
| 193. D. splendens (Golovatch, 1992) | 1650-2150 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 1994a, 2014, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 194. D. subalatum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 195. D. subsimulans (Golovatch, 1996) | 3100-3300 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 196. D. tenuitergale Golovatch, 2014 | 3250 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014) |
| 197. D. tergale (Golovatch, 1994) | 2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 198. D. tuberculatum (Golovatch, 1994) | 3000-3300 | Nepal (Golovatch 1992, 1994a, 2014b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 199. D. typicum Golovatch, 2014 | 3100 | Nepal (Golovatch 2014) |
| 200. D. uncum (Golovatch, 1996) | 2100-3420 | Nepal (Golovatch 1996, 2014, 2015a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 201. D. unicolor (Attems, 1936) | 1200-1700 | India, Assam \& Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Genus Hirtodrepanum Golovatch, 1994 |  |  |
| 202. Hirtodrepanum latigonopum Golovatch, 1994 | 2100-2600 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994b, 2015a, Golovatch et al. 2016) |
| Genus Kaschmiriosoma Schubart, 1935 | 1000-3300 |  |
| 203. Kaschmiriosoma contortipes Schubart, 1935 | 2000-3300 | N Pakistan \& India, Jammu \& Kashmir (Schubart 1935, Silvestri 1936, Golovatch 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Jeekel 2003, Shelley 2014) |
| 204. K. nulla (Attems, 1936) | 1000 | India, Himachal Pradesh (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Jeekel 2003, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 205. K. pleuropterum (Attems, 1936) | 2800 | N Pakistan, Punjab (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Jeekel 2003, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Kronopolites Attems, 1914 |  |  |
| 206. Kronopolites coriaceus Golovatch, 2015 | 2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 2015a) |
| 207. K. occidentalis Golovatch, 1983 | 1500 | India, Jammu \& Kashmir (Golovatch 1983, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Orthomorpha Bollman, 1893 |  |  |
| 208. Orthomorpha coarctata (de Saussure, 1860) | 600-650 | Nepal \& India, pantropical anthropochore (Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 209. "O." almorensis Turk, 1947 | 1600 | India, Almora (Turk 1947, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Oxidus Cook, 1911 |  |  |
| 210. Oxidus gracilis (C.L. Koch, 1847) | 570-1200 | Nepal \& India, subcosmopolitan anthropochore (Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Pocockina Jeekel, 1965 |  |  |
| 211. Pocockina schawalleri Golovatch, 2016 | 150 | Nepal (Golovatch 2016a) |
| Genus Streptogonopus Attems, 1914 |  |  |
| 212. Streptogonopus phipsoni (Pocock, 1892) | $\leq 2700$ | Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal \& India, West Bengal (Golovatch 2015a, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Substrongylosoma Golovatch, 1984 | 1000-2200 |  |
| 213. Substrongylosoma bifurcatum Golovatch, 2016 | 2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 2016a) |
| 214. S. distinctum Golovatch, 1984 | 1200-1500 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch 1984, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 215. S. falcatum Golovatch, 1984 | 1000-1400 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch 1984, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 216. S. exiguum Golovatch, 2016 | 1900 | Nepal (Golovatch 2016a) |
| 217. S. montigena (Carl, 1935) | 1200-2200 | India, Darjeeling Distr. <br> (Carl 1935, Golovatch 1984, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 218. S. schawalleri Golovatch, 1993 | 1620-2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 1993, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Sundanina Attems, 1914 |  |  |
| 219. "Sundanina" septentrionalis Turk, 1947 | ca 1700 | India, Almora (Turk 1947, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Genus Topalosoma Golovatch, 1984 | 900 |  |
| 220. Topalosoma setiferum Golovatch, 1984 | 900 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch 1984, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Trogodesmus Pocock, 1895 |  |  |
| 221. Trogodesmus uncinatus (Attems, 1936) | ? | India, Assam (Attems 1936, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| Genus Touranella Attems, 1937 | 2300-2800 |  |
| 222. Touranella himalayaensis Golovatch, 1994 | 2300-2700 | Nepal (Golovatch 1994b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 223. T. pilosa Golovatch, 2016 | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 2016b) |
| Family Polydesmidae | 350-4250 |  |
| Genus Bhutanodesmus Golovatch, 1988 |  |  |
| 224. Bhutanodesmus velatus Golovatch, 1988 | 350-450 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Epanerchodus Attems, 1901 | 2300-4250 |  |
| 225. Epanerchodus buddis (Golovatch, 1986) | 3300-3400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2011) |
| 226. E. occultus (Golovatch, 1986) | 2300-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2011) |
| 227. E. sacer (Golovatch, 1987) | 3300-3400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2011) |
| 228. E. theocraticus (Golovatch, 1990) | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2011) |
| 229. E. theosophicus (Golovatch, 1986) | 3200 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch et al. 2011, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 230. Epanerchodus sp. | 3450-4250 | Nepal \& Bhutan (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Glenniea Turk, 1945 | 350-2800 |  |
| 231. Glenniea bhotiaensis Golovatch, 1988 | 350-450 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 232. G. indica Turk, 1945 | 2800 | India, Himachal Pradesh (Turk 1945a, 1945b, Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch and Wesener 2016) |
| 233. G. martensi (Golovatch, 1987) | 1200 | Nepal <br> (Golovatch 1987b, 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 234. G. minuscula Golovatch, 1988 | 1900-2300 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 235. G. perarmata Golovatch, 1988 | 1680 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Himalodesmus Golovatch, 1986 | 1000-3400 |  |
| 236. Himalodesmus audax Golovatch, 1986 | 2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 237. H. benefactor Golovatch, 1987 | 2600-3400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 238. H. faustus Golovatch, 1987 | 1000-1750 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 239. H. parvus Golovatch, 1987 | 2200 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 240. H. prosperus Golovatch, 1990 | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 241. H. pulcher Golovatch, 1987 | 2450 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 242. H. pygmaeus Golovatch, 1986 | 3300-3400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| 243. H. vigens Golovatch, 1987 | 2150-2250 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Genus Typhlopygmaeosoma Turk, 1972 |  |  |
| 244. Typhlopygmaeosoma hazeltonae Turk, 1972 | 1850 | India, Himachal Pradesh (Turk 1972, Shear 1986, Golovatch 1988b, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Family Trichopolydesmidae | 450-4500 |  |
| Genus Assamodesmus Manfredi, 1955 |  |  |
| 245. Assamodesmus lindbergi Manfredi, 1954 | ? | India, Assam (Manfredi 1954, Golovatch 1988b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Genus Hingstonia Carl, 1935 | 2000-4500 |  |
| 246. Hingstonia beatae Golovatch, 1990 | 2400-3500 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 247. H. dorjulana Golovatch, 1988 | 2450-3100 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 248. H. eremita Carl, 1935 | 2000 | Nepal (Carl 1935, Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 249. H. falcata Golovatch, 1986 | 2650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 250. H. fittkaui Golovatch, 1990 | 3350-3450 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 251. H. gogonana Golovatch, 1988 | 3650-4000 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 252. H. pahakholana Golovatch, 1990 | 2600-2800 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 253. H. pelelana Golovatch, 1988 | 3300-3400 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 254. H. perarmata Golovatch, 1986 | 3150 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 255. H. serrata Golovatch, 1987 | 3400-3600 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 256. H. sympatrica Golovatch, 1990 | 3550-3650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 257. H. variata Golovatch, 1987 | 2600-4500 | Nepal (Golovatch 1987a, 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 258. H. yeti Golovatch, 1988 | 1600-2600 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 259. Hingstonia sp. | 2200-3900 | Nepal (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| Genus Magidesmus Golovatch, 1988 | 3100-3400 |  |
| 260. Magidesmus affinis Golovatch, 1988 | 3300-3400 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 261. M. bhutanensis Golovatch, 1988 | 3100 | Bhutan (Golovatch 1988a, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Genus Pseudosphaeroparia Carl, 1932 |  |  |
| 262. Pseudosphaeroparia cavernicola Turk, 1945 | 2800 | India, Uttar Pradesh (Turk 1945a, 1945b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Genus Sholaphilus Carl, 1932 | 1100-2200 |  |
| 263. Sholaphilus asceticus Golovatch, 1986 | 1300-1650 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 264. S. dalai Golovatch, 1986 | 2400 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 265. S. gompa Golovatch, 1990 | 2000-2100 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 266. S. Lama Golovatch, 1986 | 1800-2000 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |


| Fauna | Altitude (m a.s.l.) | Country/state and main reference(s) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 267. S. martensi Golovatch, 1986 | 1100-1850 | Nepal (Golovatch 1986, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| 268. S. monachus Golovatch, 1990 | 2050-2150 | Nepal (Golovatch 1990b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Genus Topalodesmus Golovatc |  |  |
| 269. Topalodesmus communis Golovatch, 1988 | 2000-2200 | India, Darjeeling Distr. (Golovatch 1988b, Golovatch and Martens 1996, Golovatch et al. 2014) |
| Family Pyrgodesmidae | 45 |  |
| 270-275? Several genera and species (including at least 2 species of Cryptocorypha Attems, 1907) | 450-1200 | Nepal (Golovatch and Martens 1996) |
| ${ }^{1}$ A large, still unidentified species of Monographis is available from E Nepal, taken at 2400 m a.s.l. (M. Short, in litt.). Because the genus is feminine in gender, the species (adjective) must be named "mira". <br> 2 A still unidentified species of Unixenus is available from E Nepal, taken at 3600-3900 m a.s.l. (M. Short, in litt.). <br> The nominal subspecies is known only from S India (Silvestri 1923). <br> The first record by Nguyen (2010) of this south Indian species from Nepal seems to be erroneous, based on no evidence whatsoever. <br> 5 Nguyen and Sierwald (2013) erroneously stated this species as deriving from Myanmar. |  |  |
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## Results

## Species of Diplopoda

Species concepts are only little addressed in diplopod taxonomy. To think about species limits and species definitions is not at all trivial; in nearly every case, a morphological species concept is used with the background idea that these entities, defined by external characters, fit well to the Biological Species Concept. In practical alpha-taxonomy it circumscribes reproductively isolated groups of specimens. Diplopod taxonomists largely base their identifications on adult male samples. Differences in male genitalic structure usually provide the basic characters that allow us to safely determine millipede species. In most cases this raises no problems. In the Himalayas, however, we have to tackle with numerous populations in a wide array of forest habitats found at various altitudes and in remote and secluded valleys. Hardly surprisingly, the Himalayas do support quite a number of examples of species swarms among Diplopoda as well. Species delimitation may then cause problems like those described by Martens (1978) for the polymorphous biantid harvestman Biantes pernepalicus Martens, 1978. Such situations also resemble the few known cases of insular species swarms in millipedes of Macaronesia (e.g. Enghoff 1992).

The following examples can be given and easily added to the roster of similar observations that Martens (2015) made or compiled for Himalayan mammals, birds, arachnids, insects and several other animal groups. Such a distribution pattern can be termed fanned (see below) and is also found in the endemic Himalayan diplopod genera Beronodesmus and Beronodesmoides containing 11 and seven species, respectively
(Golovatch 2016c, Golovatch et al. 2016). The main species-specific characters are in minor details of gonopodal structure, in particular, the shapes of the various outgrowths (Fig. 3). Vicariance speciation must have taken place in situ, with several of the congeners forming pairs or trios that can occur sympatrically or even syntopically and thus implying a series of secondary dispersal events.

## Zoogeographical patterns and origins

## Ecology and dispersal abilities

The vast majority of Himalayan diplopod species are highly localized in distribution, both geographical and altitudinal. There are only few relatively widespread species like Zephronia manca, Siphonorhinus cingulatus (both recorded from Vietnam \& Darjeeling District, India) or Trichopeltis watsoni (Bangladesh, Myanmar, Bhutan and India, Darjeeling Distr., West Bengal, Assam \& near Kolkata). Despite extended collection acitivities over most parts of Nepal during several decades, most millipedes in the Himalayas remain known from only a single or very few localities. This particularly concerns the best-explored fauna of Nepal, Central Himalayas (ca 160 spp.), including species of the dominant family Paradoxosomatidae (82 spp., or $>50 \%$ ).

In contrast, most genera occur through a range of altitudes (Fig. 4), but are more or less restricted to forest habitats. The alpine (= nival) zone of the Central Himalayas which lies above closed forests appears to only marginally be populated by Diplopoda (Table 1, Figs 2, 4), the bulk of the fauna being confined to the tropical and subtropical forest belts. The highest records belong to Nepalozonium trimaculatum and Nepalmatoiulus ivanloebli, both found at 4800 m a.s.l. This pattern conforms to general knowledge that millipedes are basically a class of forest-dwelling terrestrial arthropods both trophecologically and historically largely associated with woodlands and ranging from nemoral (= broadleaved forest) and coniferous forest in temperate regions in the north to rainforest tropical areas in the south (Golovatch 1997a, 1997b). Such a background is accepted and it serves as the basis for faunogenetic reconstructions using phyto- and palaeogeographical evidence.

According to Martens (1993, 2015), broad vertical distribution belts appear to be exceptional in animals at least in the Central Himalayas, in contrast to fanned ones which are especially characteristic of species-rich groups, both vertebrates and invertebrates. Yet the vertical width of a distributional belt varies very considerably between taxa. Diplopods in their natural habitats seem to be particularly restricted to their forest habitats, with little capacity for enlarging their areas, both vertically and horizontally. There is hardly any other larger land arthropod group that shows a similarly strong specialization and relation to a habitat. In many cases, congeners occupy only limited vertical belts and such patterns are the result of multi-layered speciation processes that occurred in secluded valleys and mountain massifs. There are obvious altitudinal adaptations resulting from the interaction between Pliocene/Pleistocene climate oscillations and speciation processes. Whilst species of different clades occupy narrow vertical


Figure 3. Gonopodal structural variations between several species of Beronodesmus: B. martensi Golovatch et al., 2016 (I-3), B. serratus Golovatch et al., $2016(\mathbf{4}, \mathbf{5})$, B. simplex Golovatch, $2016(\mathbf{6}, \mathbf{7})$, B. distospinosus Golovatch, 2015 (8,9), B. latispinosus Golovatch, 2015 (IO, I I), B. sinuatospinus Golovatch, 2015 (I 2, I 3) and B. gorkhalis Golovatch, 2015 (I4). Scale bars: $1.0 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathbf{4 - 5 , 1 4}), 0.5 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathbf{I} \mathbf{- 3 , 8} \mathbf{8} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{3})$ or $0.4 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathbf{6}, \mathbf{7})$. After Golovatch (2015a, 2016c) and Golovatch et al. (2016).


Figure 4. Vertical distribution of several genera of Diplopoda in the Himalayas (modified, after Golovatch and Martens 1996).
belts, close congeners, i.e. sister species, are mostly horizontally allopatric because of their allopatric vicariance speciation. Sympatry or syntopy are quite common among congeners (see above for Beronodesmus, Fig. 3), this alone implying a series of secondary dispersal events. On the other hand, all 13 species of Nepalmatoiulus known from Nepal and Bhutan are nearly exclusively allopatric in distribution (Enghoff 1987).

Narrow belts seem to be rare, when each individual species has been recorded from a single or very few localities, but even the whole species set combined remains restricted to a narrow altitudinal range. Much more common, rather usual are the situations when the vertical and horizontal distribution of a species is highly restricted, but that of the corresponding species-group or genus is very considerable (Table 1, Fig. 4).

Among the Diplopoda of the Himalayas, most if not all of the rather to highly spe-cies-rich genera show fanned vertical distribution patterns. Such are all genera at least in the orders Sphaerotheriida, Glomerida, Chordeumatida, Julida and Spirostreptida, as well as most in the order Polydesmida. Their origins seem to be very different, but profound in situ speciation is their general characteristic. No evident narrow belts seem to be distinguishable in the combined vertical distribution of millipede congeners in the Himalayas (Table 1, Figs 2, 4). Even within Nepal, a gradual east-west decline in diplopod diversity is clearly observed towards the country's central regions, apparently following the climate aridity gradient and increased absence of humid forest.

As noted above, zoogeographically the Himalayas are traditionally viewed as a vast, yet clear-cut transitional zone between the Palaearctic and Oriental (= Indo-Malayan) realms. Martens (2015, p. 212) writes that "The renowned species diversity of the

Himalayan fauna results from the area's position between tropical SE Asia to the south and southeast, temperate High Asia to the north and dry Central Asia to the northwest, in addition to its proximity to endemic-rich SW China, which harbours many Tertiary relicts. Elements from all these areas contributed to and influenced the present faunal composition, creating one of the world's 25 biodiversity hotspots, Indo-Burma and the adjacent South Central China." He discriminated a predominantly immigrant fauna with five main sources: SW Chinese Himalayan from the northeastern Himalayan Arc; Indochinese Himalayan from the southeast; tropical Indian from the south; central Asian from the north via Tibet; and W Asian Himalayan from mountain ranges westwards to the Mediterranean. This fauna is mainly composed of species with good dispersal abilities such as bats, birds, butterflies, dragonflies and many other groups. Since millipedes are poor dispersers and only relatively few species are anthropochores, we refrain from enlisting any as belonging to this category, even though a few widespread Oriental species do reach the Himalayas from the east and/or southeast (e.g. the above Zephronia manca, Siphonorhinus cingulatus, Streptogonopus phipsoni, Gonoplectus malayus malayus or Trichopeltis watsoni). Human introductions cannot be excluded in such cases, these being especially apparent as regards the few unquestioned anthropochores like Trigoniulus corallinus, Orthomorpha coarctata or Oxidus gracilis.

In addition, a Sino-Himalayan fauna (or even a Sino-Himalayan region) is distinguished, which is characterized by remarkable diversity, partially of Indo-Malayan origins and partially Palaearctic in nature, but with marked peculiarities. Holt et al. (2012), based on the modern distributions and phylogenies of amphibians, birds and non-marine mammals, defined 20 distinct zoogeographic regions grouped into 11 realms, including a Sino-Japanese realm which appears to show closer phylogenetic affinities to the Palaearctic than to the Oriental realm. It includes Japan, Tibet and nearly all of China. Eventually, that paper represents one of the most consistent, but no less unsuccessful attempts at uncritically combining the landscape-typological (= zonal) and faunogenetic approaches to biogeography which, however, must be clearly separated at least as regards the biotas of older biomes (e.g. Chernov 1975, Golovatch 2015b). To reiterate Chernov (1975) briefly, from the "viewpoint" of a biome or more local landscape it only matters whether the constituent species properly function as its biotic elements, regardless of their origins. In contrast, from a faunogenetic point of view, the more ancient the biome or landscape, the more ancient its biota and the more complex its history. Thus both approaches must be clearly distinguished, especially as regards the relatively younger zonal biomes like tundra or taiga (= boreal forest) from the particularly ancient, rather regional than zonal, subtropical and tropical ones.

In terms of its faunal composition, the Sino-Himalayan region represents a mixed zone of elements derived from both the Palaearctic and Oriental realms, but it includes moreover a wealth of endemics with surprisingly small and often relict distributions (Martens 2015). It is within this category that many of the Himalayan Diplopoda seem best to place. Perhaps the most conspicuous example of such a pattern is represented by the definitely relict order Siphonocryptida which globally contains only two genera and seven species. Thus, the genus Siphonocryptus Pocock, 1894, comprises


Figure 5. Distribution of the genus Hirudicyptus (Siphonocryptidae, Siphonocryptida). After Golovatch et al. (2015).
three species: one in Sumatra, Indonesia, the other two in continental Western Malaysia. In contrast, the distribution pattern of Hirudicryptus Enghoff \& Golovatch, 1995 is trans-Palaearctic (Fig. 5). The type species occurs only on Madeira and the Canaries, where it is largely confined to the relict, subtropical, laurisilva biome. One species each is endemic to Taiwan, to Nepal and to the NW Caucasus (Golovatch et al. 2015, Zuev 2017). It may well be that the distribution pattern under consideration dates back at least to the Oligocene times of the so-called "Warm Earth" to have highly probable explanations rooted in palaeobotanical evidence. These imply a gradual shrinkage and disruption ever since of the previously dominating and continuous subtropical biome (Golovatch 1997a, 1997b, Zherikhin 2003). Being so vastly disjunct, the present-day distribution of Siphonocryptida is best accounted for by extinction events (Shelley and Golovatch 2011).

## Genus- and species-level relations

Further possible examples of the Sino-Himalayan pattern seem to be represented by Glenniea (Polydesmidae, a largely Holarctic family), with five species from the Himalayas of Nepal and Bhutan, and three in S China (Golovatch 2015b), Nepalella (Megalotylidae, the genus being the westernmost in that temperate to tropical Asian family), with 23 species or subspecies from Nepal, S China and SE Asia (Minelli 2015, Table 1), Hirtodrepanum (Paradoxosomatidae, a subcosmopolitan family absent only from N America) with one species each in Nepal and S China (Golovatch 2014a), and Martensodesmus (Opisotretidae, the genus being the westernmost in that IndoAustralian family), with at least five species from the Himalayas of Nepal and Bhutan, two in S China, and one in S Vietnam (Golovatch et al. 2013). The latter example, however, may likewise illustrate the predominating zoogeographical connections of
the Himalayan fauna with the Indo-Malayan one. Such are also the genera Cryptocorypha (Pyrgodesmidae), with 14 described species from S India, Myanmar, S China and Australasia, eastwards to Vanuatu, Melanesia (Golovatch and VandenSpiegel 2015, Golovatch and Wesener 2016), Zephronia (Sphaerotheriida), with 38 species or subspecies from Nepal, NE India, Myanmar, Thailand, Cambodia, Vietnam, Western (= mainland) Malaysia and Hong Kong (Wesener 2016), Siphonorhinus (Siphonophorida), with eight species from Indonesia, Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, India and Madagascar (Minelli 2015) and Pocockina (Paradoxosomatidae), with three species from Nepal and Myanmar (Golovatch 2016b). The small genus Trichopeltis (Cryptodesmidae) includes nine described species, largely from Indochina, Sumatra, Indonesia, Myanmar and S China; only the much more widespread T. watsoni and Gonoplectus malayus malayus reach as far west as the Himalayas of India (Table 1). Similarly, amongst the Paradoxosomatidae the genus Trogodesmus contains four species in Myanmar and one more in Assam, India (Nguyen and Sierwald 2013); Touranella harbours two species from Nepal and further four from Vietnam (Golovatch 2016b); Kronopolites has one species in Jammu \& Kashmir, India, one in Thailand, one in Laos, and another nine in China, including one in Taiwan (Likhitrakarn et al. 2015, Golovatch 2015a); Anoplodesmus is a large genus which, regardless of a few pantropical anthropochores, comprises approximately 35 species in S (India and Sri Lanka), E (Taiwan) and SE Asia (eastwards up to Sumatra, Indonesia), including nine congeners confined to the Himalayas (Golovatch 2016a, Table 1); Streptogonopus contains not only S. phipsoni, a species quite widespread in the Himalayas and certain adjacent countries (Table 1), but also two more in India, and one each in Eritrea, Thailand and Vietnam (Nguyen et al. 2016); Delarthrum is one of the most species-rich genera of Diplopoda ( 56 spp .), with most ( 55 spp .) of its diversity confined to the Himalayas of Pakistan, Nepal and India (Table 1), and only one outlier congener in S India (Golovatch and Wesener 2016, Golovatch 2016b). Much like Delarthrum, the genus Sholaphilus demonstrates faunal connections between the Himalayas (6 spp., Table 1) and S India (1 sp., Golovatch and Wesener 2016).

## Suprageneric relations

At these taxonomic levels, the fully to largely tropical orders Sphaerotheriida, Siphonophorida and Spirostreptida, as well as most of Spirobolida, Platydesmida and Polydesmida (at least some Haplodesmidae, Cryptodesmidae, Paradoxosomatidae, Pyrgodesmidae and Trichopolydesmidae) seem to represent Indo-Malayan elements in the Himalayan millipede fauna. A siphonophoridan and a cryptodesmid species, both have been recorded as far north as N Pakistan (Golovatch 1991). However, at the species level the bulk of diversity is endemic and highly localized, both horizontally and vertically, clearly due to allopatric vicariance (cf. Golovatch and Martens 1996). There are several Himalayan endemic to subendemic diplopod genera, but not a single suprageneric taxon: Kophosphaera (Sphaerotheriida, seven species, Wesener 2016 \& Table 1), Koponenius (Polydesmida, four species from Nepal, NW India and Myanmar (Golovatch and VandenSpiegel 2014, 2016), Kashmireuma (Chordeumatida), with three
species from Nepal and N India (Table 1), Himalodesmus (Polydesmidae, Table 1), Beronodesmoides, Beronodesmus, Substrongylosoma (all Paradoxosomatidae, Table 1), Magidesmus (Trichopolydesmidae, Table 1), as well as the monotypic Assamodesmus, Bhutanodesmus, Topalodesmus, Topalosoma and Typhlopygmaeosoma (Table 1).

Faunal connections to the northwest and/or north are demonstrated by a few examples only. Even at the generic level, not all of them could unequivocally be treated as likely Palaearctic components in the Himalayan millipede fauna. Thus, the genus Kaschmiriosoma (Paradoxosomatidae) is composed of three species endemic to N Pakistan, and one to both N Pakistan and N India (Jeekel 2003). Such a pattern might seem to have been accounted for by an originally northwestwards dispersal. Even in the absence of a phylogenetic reconstruction, the gonopodal structure in Kaschmiriosoma, especially the particularly complex, strongly coiled and thus apomorphous solenophores as observed in the southernmost, Himalayan $K$. contortipes and K. nulla, may rather be evidence of a Palaearctic origin of the genus. Its deemed closest relatives within the tribe Sulciferini, also often showing particularly complex and strongly twisted gonopodal solenophores, are observed in the genera Gonobelus Attems, 1936, Inversispina Zhang, in Zhang et al. 1997 and a few others, all confined to southern China, occasionally including Taiwan (Jeekel 1980, Golovatch 2012, 2016b).

Ties to the north are much better pronounced, e.g., in the genera Tianella (Cleidogonidae), Epanerchodus (Polydesmidae), Bollmania (Caspiopetalidae) and Anaulaciulus (Julidae). Tianella has two described and a number on still undescribed species in Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan, Central Asia, as well as 11 named species in Nepal and a few undescribed ones from both Nepal and N India (Mauriès 1988, Read and Golovatch 1994, Table 1). Epanerchodus is a very large genus comprising 70+ species from Central and E Asia: Russian Far East, Korea, China, Taiwan and Japan, as well as several species from Nepal (Minelli 2015, Table 1). Bollmania is composed of eight described and a few undescribed species ranging from Turkmenistan, Iran, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan and Afghanistan in Central Asia to S China; one species is known from the Himalayas of Pakistan (Stoev et al. 2008, Table 1). Anaulaciulus is also a highly speciose Asian genus which contains nearly 50 species ranging from across the Himalayas, through China, to the Russian Far East, Korea, Japan and Taiwan (Korsós 2001, Table 1). It is partly sympatric with still another, similarly large, Asian genus Nepalmatoiulus (Julidae), which harbours 55 species also distributed across the Himalayas, but then extending more to the east and southeast (S China, Taiwan, S Ryukyus, Myanmar, Indochina and peninsular Malaysia) (Enghoff 1987, Korsós and Lazányi 2013, Table 1). In the Himalayas, many species from these genera are high-montane (Table 1), thus reinforcing their presumed Palaearctic origins. The occurrence of the sole known species of Nepalozonium (Polyzoniida) at 4700-4800 a.s.l., i.e. among the highest records in the entire class, coupled with the family Hirudisomatidae where it belongs being strictly Holarctic (Minelli 2015), is clearly evidence of its Palaearctic roots.

The pattern demonstrated by the very large genus Hyleoglomeris (Glomeridae) strongly resembles that of the family Siphonocryptidae (see above and Fig. 5), but in no way is it relictual. Indeed, its $100+$ species range from the Balkans and Greek
islands in the west, through Anatolia, the Caucasus, Central Asia and the Himalayas, to China, Korea, Japan, and Taiwan in the east, and through Indochina to the Philippines and Sulawesi, Indonesia in the southeast (Golovatch et al. 2006, Table 1). This picture actually reflects one of the fundamental patterns of historical biogeography as evidenced in the entire class Diplopoda (Shelley and Golovatch 2011). Generally, west-east trans-Himalayan faunal connections are traced in numerous millipede higher taxa: Glomerida, Julida, Chordeumatida, Callipodida, Siphonocryptida, Spirostreptida, Polydesmida etc. Southeast Asia is the only corner in the world where all 16 extant orders of Diplopoda are still to be found. In many cases, the Himalayas might have served as a paramount stepping stone and refugium in linking, much more in the past than at present, the faunas of SE Asia to those of Europe and W Asia. In the past, the Himalayas started rising and absorbing surrounding faunal elements often already present in the area. After having gained a certain height, the Himalayas functioned more as a trap, a "prison", mountain ridges and deep valley systems hindering further faunal exchange, with the tremendous speciation process that came into action. Old migration routes both ways are thereby evident, although the influence of the Oriental fauna is by far greater. Since the uplift of the Himalayas started in the early Oligocene (about 27 Mya), the diplopod fauna of the region has gradually acquired its own, highly characteristic, very rich and diverse composition, multi-layered and very complex, with profound in situ radiations and vicariance events (cf. Golovatch and Martens 1996, Martens 2015). At least some of the oldest components are presently highly disjunct and clearly relict, as is the order Siphonocryptida (see above \& Fig. 5). The most recent faunal layer is certainly represented by the few pantropical or subcosmopolitan introductions like Trigoniulius corallinus, Orthomorpha coarctata or Oxidus gracilis.

## Conclusions

Since the previous review of millipede chorology and faunogenesis in the Himalayas (Golovatch and Martens 1996), our knowledge of the Himalayan fauna has become considerably enriched (ca 200 vs $>270$ spp.) and often refined taxonomically. This is particularly true of the composition of the dominant family Paradoxosomatidae. However, the main results and trends remain unchanged.

The Himalayas support a highly rich, diverse, multi-layered, mostly endemic diplopod fauna. This is the result of mixing the ancient, apparently Tertiary and younger, Plio-Pleistocene elements of various origins, as well as the most recent anthropochore introductions. At the species and, partly, generic levels, the fauna is largely autochthonous and sylvicolous, formed through abounding in situ radiation and vicariance events, when overall the species from large genera and families tend to occupy a wide range of altitudes, but nearly each of the constituent species shows a distribution highly localized both horizontally and altitudinally, yet quite often with sympatry or even syntopy involved. The bulk of the fauna is Indo-Malayan in origin, with individual genera or families shared with those of SE Asia (mostly) and/or S India (few) (Fig. 6).


Figure 6. General schematic picture of the faunogenesis of Himalayan Diplopoda. Arrows reflect the main pathways of faunal migration or exchange, their thickness roughly corresponding to the degree of influence. The thickest arrow 1 clearly emphasizes the dominant roles the Indo-Malayan core fauna may have played in the present-day composition of the Himalayan fauna, its most ancient layers extending westwards to reach central and western Asia, as well as Europe (by default also northwards up to eastern Asia and even North America). The considerably less thick arrows 2 and 3 are to reflect the more subordinate roles the Sino-Himalayan and Palaearctic elements, respectively, could have played in the modern Himalayan fauna. Arrows 4 and, especially, 5 are even less thick and demonstrate the relatively minor faunal exchanges to be presumed between the Indian and Himalayan faunas.

Their constituent species tend to be lowland to mid-montane, but the general rule "(sub)tropical organisms for (sub)tropical environments only" fails very often.

The Palaearctic influence is modest (Fig. 6), but still can be traced in several genera and families. Collectively, their species tend to be high montane, but with numerous exceptions as well. The trans-Himalayan faunal connections at higher taxonomic levels, generic to ordinal, that link SE Asia to Europe are manifest. They show routes and directions of ancient dispersal both ways, but the one from SE Asia seems to have prevailed over the opposite one. Moreover, certain fragments or offshoots of such ancient, obviously Tertiary, opposite migrations more or less along the southern coasts of the receding Tethys Sea may have been left en route in S and SW China, as well as in N Pakistan and Central Asia.

One must also take into account that a number of presumably Himalayan species groups might have originated from the times when Tibet was still forest-covered and the Himalayan chain still in its infancies. According to Schmidt (2006), stem species invaded the raising Himalayas from the north where they developed to presently known spe-
cies swarms. After the Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau had raised sufficiently high, Tibet became drier and the forests vanished including their fauna, the Himalayas becoming their exile. Schmidt coined the term "Tibeto-Tertiary element" of paleo-Tibetan origin with present Himalayan distributions (Schmidt 2006, Schmidt et al. 2012).

The particularly rich Himalayan diplopod fauna with its numerous small-ranging species confined to permanent forest sheds new light on a much disputed controversy among geographers, zoologists, taxonomists, climatologists and glacialogists (Kuhle 1982, 2015 and figure 4 therein). Was the central Himalayan chain, at least at certain sections of the Pleistocene, covered by a complete shield of ice? Taxonomists dealing with low-dispersal soil/litter-dwelling arthropods have a clear response. Any ice cover would have been detrimental to the local soil arthropod fauna and would have driven its larger part or entirely to extinction. Only a long and steady evolution under more or less constant, albeit slightly varying, conditions would have allowed the biota to develop gradually over long geological periods (Martens 2015). This scenario certainly applies to all Himalayan Diplopoda.

The above picture of faunal connections (Fig. 6) is consistent both with general wisdom (e.g. Martens 2015) and our previous analysis (Golovatch and Martens 1996), the salient aspects of Diplopoda, contrary to many other animal groups in the Himalayas, being their pronounced sylvicoly, extremely diverse and small-ranging species endemism, and mostly Oriental and/or Indian origins, while some of the rather ostensible influence of the Palaearctic may have come not only from the north and/or northwest, but also from the currently subtropical regions of S China. Reciprocal migrations from the Himalayan faunal knot as a major refugium and secondary diversification centre also seem quite plausible, but documenting such requires detailed phylogenies which unfortunately are still almost missing.

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# A checklist of the millipedes of Georgia, Caucasus (Diplopoda) 

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#### Abstract

The diplopod fauna of Georgia, Transcaucasia, is very rich given the country's relatively small territory, presently comprising 95 species from 42 genera, 12 families, and seven orders. Most of the Diplopoda known from Georgia are subendemics ( 39 species, or $38 \%$ ), shared with one or more neighbouring countries, but another 33 species ( $33 \%$ ) are strict endemics, nearly all highly localized, including 12 presumed troglobites. Several genera are likewise endemic to Georgia, including a few troglobionts. Within Georgia, the fauna of the western part (= Colchis) is particularly rich and diverse, the faunas of the central and eastern parts of the country growing increasingly depauperate inland and apparently following a rather gradual climatic aridisation gradient from west (the Black Sea coast) to east (Armenia and Azerbaijan). Much more work to include alpine and cave environments is required in order to reveal and refine the real diversity of Georgia's Diplopoda.


## Keywords

Colchis, distribution, endemism, fauna, Myriapoda

## Introduction

Georgia is one of the main countries in the Caucasus, lying between western Asia and Eastern Europe. It is bounded to the west by the Black Sea, to the north by Russia, to the south by Turkey, and to the southeast and east by Armenia and Azerbaijan


Figure I. Crude geographical division of Georgia.
(Fig. 1). The area is largely montane to high montane, situated between latitudes $41^{\circ}$ and $44^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$, and longitudes $40^{\circ}$ and $47^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$. The Greater Caucasus Mountain Range, or Caucasus Major, forms the northern border of Georgia, while the southern border is bounded by the Lesser Caucasus Mountains, or Caucasus Minor. The Caucasus Major is much higher in elevation (up to more than $5,000 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l.) than the plateaulike Caucasus Minor, both being connected by the submeridional Surami (= Likhi) Mountain Range which divides Georgia into the western and central + eastern parts. Both parts are quite varied in climate and biota. Western Georgia's landscape ranges from lowland marsh-forests, swamps, and temperate rainforests within the Colchis Plain to eternal snows and glaciers, while the eastern part of the country even contains a small segment of semi-arid plains. Forests cover around $40 \%$ of Georgia's territory, while the alpine/subalpine zone accounts for approximately $10 \%$ of the land. The climate of Georgia is extremely diverse, but largely mild to warm, considering the nation's small size. There are two main climatic zones, roughly corresponding to the eastern and western parts of the country. The Greater Caucasus Mountain Range plays an important role in moderating Georgia's climate and protects the nation from the penetration of colder air masses from the north. The Lesser Caucasus Mountains partially protect the region from the influence of dry and hot air masses from the south (Bondyrev et al. 2015).

The history of diplopodological research in the Caucasus generally, and in Georgia in particular, started with the works of Victor (1839), Brandt (1840) and Karsch (1881), followed by faunistic contributions by Timotheew (1897), Attems (1898, 1899, 1901, 1903, 1907), Lignau (1903, 1907, 1911, 1915, 1924), Muralewicz (1907, 1911, 1913,
1927) and Issaev (1911). Muralewicz (1911) was the first to thoroughly review the fauna of Caucasian Myriapoda known to that date. Verhoeff (1921, 1930), Jawłowski (1929) and Lohmander $(1928,1932)$ had added a few more species of Caucasian millipedes before a real milestone synthesis appeared. That historical stage culminated with Lohmander's (1936) monograph which still serves, however outdated taxonomically, as one of the main sources of our knowledge of the Diplopoda of the Caucasus.

Several checklists, partly containing new faunistic records of Caucasian Diplopoda, appeared since then (Lang 1959, Kobakhidze 1964, 1965, Lokšina and Golovatch 1979, Talikadze 1984), but marked progress in the taxonomic study of millipedes in the region resumed only with contributions by Golovatch (1975, 1976a, 1976b, 1976c, 1977, 1979, 1980, 1981a, 1981b, 1984/85). Sporadic descriptions have since been upgraded to regional reviews of certain higher taxa such as genera, families and orders, with few exceptions only. These reviews mostly covered not only the Caucasus proper, but also the faunas of the adjacent parts of Turkey and Iran, e.g. the families Blaniulidae (Enghoff 1984, 1990, Golovatch and Enghoff 1990), Nemasomatidae (Enghoff 1985) and several tribes and genera of Julidae (Read 1992, Enghoff 1995, Evsyukov 2016b, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018), all from the order Julida. The order Glomerida (Golovatch 1989a, 1989b, 1990, 1993, Golovatch and Chumachenko 2013), three orders of the subterclass Colobognatha (Golovatch et al. 2015, Zuev 2017), as well as the orders Polyxenida (Short 2015, Short et al. 2018), Polydesmida (Golovatch et al. 2016, Evsyukov et al. 2016) and Chordeumatida (Antić and Makarov 2016) have also been revised in the scope of the entire Caucasian fauna, sometimes even broader. The faunas of two larger areas in Ciscaucasia have also been reviewed and updated (Evsyukov and Golovatch 2013, Evsyukov 2016a, Zuev 2014). A couple of nature reserves at the Black Sea coast of the Russian Caucasus have likewise been thoroughly surveyed for their local millipede faunas, with some data on ecology and distribution (Chumachenko 2016, Korobushkin et al. 2016).

The present paper provides an up-to-date checklist (Table 1) of the millipede fauna of Georgia, based on all available publications. It shows very considerable progress achieved since the latest lists by Kobakhidze $(1964,1965)$, who grossly repeated Lohmander's (1936) and added many new faunistic records, and by Talikadze (1984), who only considered the Colchidian part of the Caucasus, including the Black Sea coast area of Russia. Cave fauna has been reviewed within the entire former Soviet Union, including the Diplopoda of the Caucasus together with Georgia (Turbanov et al. 2016).

Georgia is conventionally divisible into three main parts: western, central, and eastern (Figure 1). This division is followed in the checklist below. Data are also given on the presence or absence of relevant species in the immediately neighbouring countries, including the Crimean Peninsula, as well as the distribution patterns and main literature sources. The checklist is arranged in alphabetic order per family, omitting subgeneric categories. All accepted designations are explained at the bottom of Table 1.

## Results

Table I. Checklist of the Diplopoda of Georgia, with data on species distributions, both within and beyond the country, their statuses, and the main relevant literature sources. $\mathrm{Dp}=$ Distribution pattern.

| Taxonomic composition | G | R | T | Ar | Az | Cr | St | Dp | Main relevant references |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Class Diplopoda |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Order Polyxenida <br> Family Polyxenidae <br> Genus Polyxenus Latreille, 1803 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1. Polyxenus argentifer Verhoeff, 1921 | G | + |  | + | + | + |  | AM | Short et al. 2018 |
| 2. P. lagurus (Linnaeus, 1758) | W, E |  |  |  |  | + |  | sc | Short et al. 2018 |
| Family Lophoproctidae <br> Genus Lophoproctus Pocock, 1894 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Lophoproctus coecus Pocock, 1894 | G | + |  |  |  | + |  | EM | Short 2015, Short et al. 2018 |
| Order Polyzoniida <br> Family Hirudisomatidae <br> Genus Hirudiosoma Fanzago, 1881 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. Hirudisoma roseum (Victor, 1839) | G | + | + |  | + |  | se | EM | Golovatch et al. 2015 |
| Order Siphonocryptida <br> Family Siphonocryptidae <br> Genus Hirudicryptus Enghoff \& Golovatch, 1985 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. Hirudicryptus abchasicus Golovatch, Esvyukov \& Reip, 2015 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2015, Zuev 2017 |
| Order Glomerida <br> Family Glomeridae <br> Genus Hyleoglomeris Verhoeff, 1910 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. Hyleoglomeris awchasica (Brandt, 1840) | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1976a, 1989b |
| 7. H. specialis Golovatch, 1989 | E | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1989b |
| Genus Trachysphaera Heller, 1858 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. Trachyspaera costata (Waga, 1857) | G | + | + | + | + | + |  | EuM | Golovatch 1990, 2008 |
| 9. T. fragilis Golovatch, 1976 | G |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Golovatch 1990, Golovatch and Turbanov 2017 |
| 10. T. minuta Golovatch, 1976 | G | + | + | + |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1990 |
| 11. T. orientalis Golovatch, 1976 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Golovatch 1976c, 1990 |
| 12. T. radiosa (Lignau, 1911) | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1976c, 1990 |
| 13. T. solida Golovatch, 1976 | W, C |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1976c, 1990, 1993 |
| Family Glomeridellidae <br> Genus Typhloglomeris Verhoeff, 1898 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14. Typhloglomeris lohmanderi (Golovatch, 1989) | C, E | + |  | + |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1989a, 2003 |
| Order Chordeumatida <br> Family Anthroleucosomatidae <br> Genus Acanthophorella Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15. Acanthophorella barjadzei Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Adshardicus Golovatch, 1981 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16. Adshardicus strasseri Golovatch, 1981 | W |  | + |  |  |  | se | Ca | Enghoff 2006, Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Alpinella Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17. Alpinella waltheri Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | E |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Brachychaetosoma Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18. Brachychaetosoma turbanovi Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |


| Taxonomic composition | G | R | T | Ar | Az | Cr | St | Dp | Main relevant references |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Genus Caucaseuma Strasser, 1970 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19. Caucaseuma kelasuri Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 20. C. variabile Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | C | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Cryptacanthophorella Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21. Cryptacanthophorella manubriata Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W, C |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Dentatosoma Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 22. Dentatosoma denticulatum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 23. D. magnum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 24. D. zeraboseli Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Georgiosoma Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 25. Georgiosoma bicornutum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Herculina Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 26. Herculina oligosagittae Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 27. H. polysagittae Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | C |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Heterocaucaseuma Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 28. Heterocaucaseuma longicorne Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 29. Heterocaucaseuma mauriesi (Golovatch \& Makarov, 2011) | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Golovatch and Makarov 2011, Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Metamastigophorophyllon Ceuca, 1976 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30. Metamastigophorophyllon gijjarovi (Lang, 1959) | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 31. M. hamatum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 32. M. lamellohirsutum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 33. M. torsivum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | G |  |  |  | + |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Paranotosoma Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 34. Paranotosoma attemsi Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 35. P. cordatum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 36. P. subrotundatum Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Pseudoflagellophorella Antić \& Makarov, 2016 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 37. Pseudoflagellophorella eskovi Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | C, E |  |  | + | + |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 38. P. mirabilis Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| 39. P. papilioformis Antić \& Makarov, 2016 | E |  |  |  | + |  | se | Ca | Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Genus Ratcheuma Golovatch, 1985 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 40. Ratcheuma excorne Golovatch, 1985 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Golovatch 1984/85, Antić and Makarov 2016 |
| Order Julida <br> Family Blaniulidae <br> Genus Cibiniulus Verhoeff, 1927         |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 41. Cibiniulus phlepsii (Verhoeff, 1897) | W |  | + |  |  |  |  | EuM | Enghoff 1984, 2006 |
| Genus Nopoiulus Menge, 1851 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 42. Nopoiulus brevipilosus Enghoff, 1984 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Enghoff 1984 |
| 43. N. densepilosus Enghoff, 1984* | W |  |  |  | + |  |  | Ca | Enghoff 1984, Golovatch and Enghoff 1990 |
| 44. N. golovatchi Enghoff, 1984 | W |  | + |  |  |  |  | Ca | Enghoff 1984, 1990 |
| 45. N. kochii (Gervais, 1847) | G | + | + | + | + |  |  | sc | Enghoff 1984, Golovatch and Enghoff 1990 |


| Taxonomic composition | G | R | T | Ar | Az | Cr | St | Dp | Main relevant references |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Family Nemasomatidae Genus Nemasoma C.L. Koch, 1847 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 46. Nemasoma caucasicum (Lohmander, 1932) | G | + | + | + | + |  | se | Ca | Enghoff 1985 |
| Family Julidae <br> Genus Amblyiulus Silvestri, 1896 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 47. Amblyiulus adsharicus Lohmander, 1936 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936 |
| 48. A. georgicus Lohmander, 1932 | C |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1932 |
| Genus Archileucogeorgia Lohmander, 1936 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 49. Archileucogeorgia abchasica Lohmander, 1936 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Lohmander 1936 |
| 50. Archileucogeorgia satunini Lohmander, 1936 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936 |
| Genus Brachyiulus Berlese, 1884 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 51. Brachyiulus lusitanus Verhoeff, 1898` | C |  |  |  | + |  |  | M | Lohmander 1936 |
| Genus Catamicrophyllum Verhoeff, 1900 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 52. Catamicrophyllum caucasicum (Attems, 1901) | G | + | + | + |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Enghoff 1995 |
| Genus Calyptophyllum Brolemann, 1922 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 53. Calyptophyllum sp. | W |  |  |  |  |  | ? | ? | Lohmander 1936, Enghoff 1995 |
| Genus Chaetoleptophyllum Verhoeff, 1898 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 54. Chaetoleptophyllum flexum Golovatch, 1979 | G | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch 1979, Chumachenko 2016, Korobushkin et al. 2016 |
| Genus Cylindroiulus Verhoeff, 1894 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 55. Cylindroiulus bellus (Lignau, 1903) | W? | + |  |  |  | + |  | EM | Lignau 1903, Read 1992, Chumachenko 2016 |
| 56. C. crassiphylacum Read, 1992 | G |  | + |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 57. C. kacheticus Lohmander, 1936 | E | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 58. C. olgainna Read, 1992 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 59. C. parvus Lohmander, 1928 | C, E |  |  |  | + |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 60. C. placidus (Lignau, 1903) | W, C | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 61 C. pterophylacum Read, 1992 | W, C | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992, Zuev 2014 |
| 62. C. quadrus Read, 1992 | G | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 63. C. ruber (Lignau, 1903) | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Read 1992 |
| 64. C. schestoperovi Lohmander, 1936 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Read 1992 |
| 65. C. truncorum (Silvestri, 1896) | W |  |  |  |  |  |  | sc | Read 1992 |
| Genus Grusiniulus Lohmander, 1936 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 66. Grusiniulus redikorzevi Lohmander, 1932 | C |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| Genus Julus Linnaeus, 1758 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 67. Julus colchicus Lohmander, 1936 | W | + | + |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Enghoff 2006 |
| 68. J. kubanus Verhoeff, 1921 | W | + |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Kobakhidze 1965 |
| 69. J. lindholmi Lohmander, 1936 | W |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936 |
| Genus Leptoiulus Verhoeff, 1894 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 70. Leptoiulus disparatus Lohmander, 1936 | C |  | + |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Enghoff 2006 |
| 71. L. tanymorphus (Attems, 1901) | C, E |  |  |  | + |  |  | Ca | Lohmander 1936 |
| Genus Leucogeorgia Verhoeff, 1930 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 72. Leucogeorgia longipes Verhoeff, 1930 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e |  | Verhoeff 1930 |
| 73. L. rediviva Golovatch, 1983 | W |  |  |  |  |  | t, e | Ca | Golovatch 1983 |
| Genus Megaphyllum Verhoeff, 1894 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 74. Megaphyllum dioscoriadis (Lignau, 1915) | W | + |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lignau 1915, Lohmander 1936, Chumachenko 2016, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 75. M. hercules (Verhoeff, 1901) | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | EM | Lazányi and Vagalinski 2013 |
| Taxonomic composition | G | R |  | Ar |  | Az | Cr | St | Dp | Main relevant references |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 76. M. spathulatum (Lohmander, 1936) | W? | ? |  |  |  |  |  |  | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Lazányi and Vagalinski 2013 |
| Genus Omobrachyiulus Lohmander, 1936 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 77. Omobrachyiulus adsharicus (Lohmander, 1936) | W |  |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 78. O. brachyurus (Attems, 1899) | G | + | + | + |  | + |  |  | EM | Lohmander 1936, Enghoff 2006, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 79. O. curvocaudatus (Lignau, 1903) | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 80. O. divaricatus (Lohmander, 1936) | G |  |  | + |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 81. O. hortensis (Golovatch, 1981) | W |  |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Golovatch 1981, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| 82. O. implicitus Lohmander, 1936 ( $=$ O. i. ritsensis (Golovatch, 1981)) | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Chumachenko 2016, Vagalinski and Lazányi $2018$ |
| 83. O. macrourus (Lohmander, 1928) <br> (= O. m. abchasicus (Lohmander, 1936)) | W, C |  |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Lohmander 1936, Kobakhidze 1965, Vagalinski and Lazányi 2018 |
| Genus Pachyiulus Berlese, 1883 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 84. Pachyiulus flavipes (C.L. Koch, 1847) | W |  |  |  |  |  | + |  | M | Lohmander 1936 |
| 85. Pachyiulus krivolutskyi Golovatch, 1977 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Evsyukov 2016 |
| Order Polydesmida Family Paradoxosomatidae Genus Oxidus Cook, 1911 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 86. Oxidus gracilis (C.L. Koch, 1847) | W | + |  |  |  |  |  |  | sc | Lignau 1915, Lohmander 1936, Chumachenko 2016 |
| Family Polydesmidae Genus Brachydesmus Heller, 1858 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 87. Brachydesmus assimilis Lohmander, 1936 | C, E | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 88. B. furcatus Lohmander, 1936 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 89. B. kalischewskyi Lignau, 1915 | G | + | + | + |  | + |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 90. B. kvavadzei Golovatch, Evsyukov \& Reip, 2016 | W |  |  |  |  |  |  | e | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 91. B. simplex Golovatch, Evsyukov \& Reip, 2016 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 92. B. superus Latzel, 1884 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  |  | sc | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| Genus Polydesmus Latreille, 1803 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 93. Polydesmus abchasius Attems, 1899 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 94. P. lignaui Lohmander, 1936 | W | + |  |  |  |  |  | se | Ca | Golovatch et al. 2016 |
| 95. P. mediterraneus Daday, 1889 | W |  |  |  |  |  | + |  | EM | Golovatch et al. 2016 |

Designations: G - entire Georgia; W - western Georgia; C - central Georgia; E-eastern Georgia; R Russian Caucasus; T - Turkey; Ar - Armenia; Az - Azerbaijan; Cr - Crimean Peninsula; (+) - present; St - status; e - endemic to Georgia; se - subendemic to Georgia; t - presumed troglobiont; sc - subcosmopolitan; AM - Ancient Mediterranean; EuM - Euro-Mediterranean; M - Mediterranean; EM - eastern Mediterranean; EE - eastern European; Ca - Caucasian.

## Discussion

As is evident from the above list, the millipede fauna of Georgia is, surprisingly, very diverse, especially so given the relatively small territory it covers. This is hardly surprising, because Diplopoda are largely mesophilous forest-dwellers (e.g., Kime and Golovatch 2000, Golovatch and Kime 2009). Georgia with its mostly mild climate and large
woodland areas supports the richest millipede fauna in the entire Caucasus, nearly twice as rich as neighbouring Azerbaijan (Bababekova 1996, a quite poorly compiled list) or Iran (Enghoff and Moravvej 2005), and approximately $2 / 3$ as diverse as the fauna of the so much larger Turkey (Enghoff 2006, 135 species), for all of which rather modern country checklists are available. Although the bulk of the fauna of Georgia is represented by epigean taxa, the abundant limestone massifs, primarily those lying at the northern and northeastern peripheries of the Colchis, harbour numerous karstic caves with their own fauna. Troglobionts do account for a considerable proportion (12 species, or $14 \%$ ) of Georgia's millipede species (Barjadze et al. 2015, Turbanov et al. 2016).

Western Georgia, the Colchis (Fig. 1), is especially rich in millipedes, apparently due to the moist and mild climate near the warm Black Sea, highly varied, but largely forested habitats, and abundant karst caves. The Colchidian millipede fauna is also the richest in endemics, both at the species and generic levels. The orders Chordeumatida and Julida are particularly strongly diversified in Georgia. As well the country supports also Hirudicryptus abchasicus, a subendemic representing one of the most relict diplopod orders, Siphonocryptida, which presently comprises only seven species in two genera and a single family (Golovatch et al. 2015, Zuev 2017). Central and eastern parts of Georgia are increasingly drier, in places even semi-arid, and the millipede fauna generally demonstrates a decline in diversity from the Black Sea coast inland, appearing to follow rather gradual climatic aridisation gradient from west to east.

Most of the Diplopoda known from Georgia are subendemics ( 40 species, or $42 \%$ ), shared with one or more neighbouring countries, but another 33 species (34\%) are strict endemics, nearly all highly localized, including 12 presumed troglobites. Several genera are likewise endemic to Georgia, including a few troglobionts. The proportions of the remaining, more widely distributed, species are rather modest, represented by Mediterranean, Euro-Mediterranean, eastern Mediterranean, eastern European or ubiquitous elements, but even among the latter the subcosmopolitan Nopoiulus kochii may have originated in the Caucasus, because the remaining congeners (from all subgenera) seem to be endemic to the Caucasus region (Golovatch and Enghoff 1990).

The present checklist must be understood as temporary, far from complete, marking only the state of knowledge of diplopodological research in Georgia. Several of Lohmander's nomina nuda listed by Kobakhidze (1964) are thereby omitted. Much more work is required to reveal the real diversity of Georgia's Diplopoda. Discoveries and descriptions of numerous new taxa, both species and probably even genera, can still be expected in the future. Further faunistic records are necessary to refine not only the taxonomy and the above list, but also the distributions, both horizontal and vertical. Very little is known yet concerning high-montane millipedes, in particular, whether strictly alpine Caucasian/Georgian endemics exist at all, like those few recorded from the Pyrenees and Alps. Finally, cave explorations in Georgia will undoubtedly reveal many more new troglobionts, including diplopods.

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# The peristomatic structures as a source of systematic characters in the genus Lithobius Leach, 1814 (Myriapoda, Chilopoda) 

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#### Abstract

Morphological characters have been widely used in centipede systematics. Here, we aim to obtain morphological information from the preoral chamber and peristomatic structures of lithobiomorph centipedes, with taxonomic sampling focused on the species-rich genus Lithobius Leach, 1814. Towards this goal, we (i) examined the epipharynx and hypopharynx of 32 species belonging to four subgenera of the genus Lithobius, viz. Lithobius Leach, 1814, Monotarsobius Verhoeff, 1905, Sigibius Chamberlin, 1913 and Ezembius Chamberlin, 1919 using light and scanning electron microscopy, (ii) searched for phylogenetically informative characters and (iii) described interspecific variation. Three species of the lithobiid genera Eupolybothrus Verhoeff, 1907, Disphaerobius Attems, 1926 and Neolithobius Stuxberg, 1875 were additionally examined and considered as likely outgroups. New characters and character states are proposed as additions to current phylogenetic datasets. Similarities in the peristomatic structures ally Disphaerobius with Lithobius (Ezembius), suggesting that the subfamily Pterygoterginae is nested within Lithobiinae and Lithobius.


## Keywords

Lithobiomorpha, Lithobiidae, epipharynx, hypopharynx, phylogeny, systematics

## Introduction

The peristomatic structures - the epipharynx and hypopharynx - of Chilopoda have hitherto been studied in the orders Scutigeromorpha, Lithobiomorpha, Geophilomorpha (Koch and Edgecombe 2006, 2008, 2012, respectively), and Scolopendromorpha (Edgecombe and Koch 2008, 2009) revealing numerous characters bearing phylogenetically useful information (see also Koch et al. 2010, Vahtera et al. 2013). Two characters of the peristomatic structures, viz. 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts on the epipharynx and a characteristic shape of the hypopharynx, support the monophyly of the order Lithobiomorpha, whereas paired oblique rows of spines on the clypeal part of the epipharynx are thought to be apomorphic for the family Lithobiidae (Koch and Edgecombe 2008). Until now, Lithobius, the most diverse genus in Chilopoda, with more than 500 described species (Zapparoli and Edgecombe 2011, Bonato et al. 2016), is resolved as non-monophyletic on the basis of morphological data. Particular species were recovered in cladistic analysis as most closely related to the genera Australobius Chamberlin, 1920, Hessebius Verhoeff, 1941, and Pleurolithobius Verhoeff, 1899 (Koch and Edgecombe 2008), and this likely applies to other genera of Lithobiinae as well, if not even some of other five subfamilies of Lithobiidae (for current classification of this family see Zapparoli and Edgecombe 2011). However, broad information on species-interrelationships is still missing and the monophyly of subgenera remains questionable, being based on combinations of the same set of characters (Edgecombe 2007). Aiming to obtain further morphological information from the peristomatic structures of Lithobius to evaluate whether those might be useful for identifying clades within this very large genus, we study the epipharynx and hypopharynx of 32 species of Lithobius, including the subgenera Lithobius ( 23 spp .), Sigibius (3 spp.), Monotarsobius ( 5 spp.), and Ezembius ( 1 sp.) using light and scanning electron microscopy. We describe the variation of the microstructures between species and propose new characters for which patterns of variability suggest a potential for phylogenetic analyses. Additionally, we examine species of the lithobiid genera Neolithobius Stuxberg, 1875 (Lithobiinae), Eupolybothrus Verhoeff, 1907 (Ethopolyinae), and Disphaerobius Attems, 1926 (Pterygoterginae), for comparison with Lithobius.

## Material and methods

## Material

The studied material consists of 61 specimens belonging to 35 species preserved in $70 \%$ or $95 \% \mathrm{EtOH}$ (Table 1), deposited at the Natural History Museum Vienna (NHMW), the Natural History Museum London (BM/NHMUK) and the Hungarian Natural History Museum Budapest (HNHMB). All material was examined with light and scanning electron microscopy.

Table I. List of studied material deposited in the NHMW, BM/NHMUK and HNHMB.

| Species | Studied material |
| :---: | :---: |
| Lithobius (Lithobius) agilis C.L. Koch, 1847 | 2 females, NHMW 9123, 9124, Austria, Niederösterreich, Gaming, F. Feiller leg. |
| L. (L.) calcaratus C.L. Koch, 1844 | 1 male, NHMW 9132; 1 female, NHMW 9133, France, Normandie, 1919, H. Gadeau de Kerville leg. |
| L. (L.) carinatus L. Koch, 1862 | 1 female, NHMW 9125, Croatia, Jabuka Island, Pomo, April 1934, F. Werner \& O. Wettstein leg. |
| L. (L.) castaneus Newport, 1844 | 1 female, NHMW 9194, N36¹2'18", E 9ํ́'́35", Tunisia, Zaghouan District, Jebel Mansour Mountain, close to (south to) Sidi Aouidette village, pine forest, Rosmarinus, under stones and leaf litter, $514 \mathrm{~m}, 28$ March 2008, N. Akkari \& P. Stoev leg. |
| L. (L.) cyrtopus Latzel, 1880 | 1 female, NHMW 1081, Poland, Galizien (früher zu Ungarn), 1919, R. Latzel leg. |
| L. (L.) dentatus C.L. Koch, 1844 | 2 females, NHMW 9134, 9135, Austria, Wiener Wald |
| L. (L.) erythrocephalus C.L. Koch, 1847 | 2 females, NHMW 9136, 9137, Hungary, Simontornya, F. Pillich leg. |
| L. (L.) fagei Demange, 1961 | 1 male, NHMUK, Spain, Majorca, Inca, 1974.242. |
| L. (L.) forficatus (Linnaeus, 1758) | 1 male, NHMW 9138; 1 female, NHMW 9139, Austria, Kärnten, Friedlach, 16 October 2001, V. Stagl leg. |
| L. (L.) lapidicola Meinert, 1872 | 1 female, NHMW 9196, N $35^{\circ} 32.796^{\prime}$ E $11^{\circ} 1.662^{\prime}$, Tunisia, Mahdia District, Mahdia, touristic area, scattered palm trees and shrubs close to the road, polluted area not far from agricultural land, under stones, 0 m , 16 March 2008, N. Akkari \& P. Stoev leg. |
| L. (L.) latro Meinert, 1872 | 2 females, NHMW 9140, 9141, Austria, Tirol, Zillertal, 1950, Schmölzer leg. |
| L. (L.) lucifugus L. Koch, 1862 | 2 females, NHMW 9142, 9143, Italy, Südtirol, Sellajoch, 8 August 1896, C. Attems leg. |
| L. (L.) macilentus L. Koch, 1862 | 1 male, NHMW 9144, Austria, Wien, Niederösterreich, Wiener Wald, 18 December 1892; 25 March 1894; 5 October 1924, C. Attems leg. |
| L. (L.) mutabilis L. Koch, 1862 | 2 females, NHMW 9126, 9127, Czech Republic, Sudetenländer, 1919, R. Latzel leg. |
| L. (L.) muticus C.L. Koch, 1847 | 1 male, NHMW 9145, Slovenia, Maribor (Marburg), C. Attems leg. |
| L. (L.) nodulipes Latzel, 1880 | 2 females, NHMW 9146, 9147, Croatia, Küstenland Kroatien, 1919, R. Latzel leg. |
| L. (L.) peregrinus Latzel, 1880 | 1 male, NHMW 9129, Serbia, Šar planina mountain range, Ljubeten (=Ljuboten mountain), upper beech forest, 4 June 1906, C. Attems leg. |
| L. (L.) piceus L. Koch, 1862 | 1 female, NHMW 9128, Austria, österreichische Alpenlande, R. Latzel leg. |
|  | 1 male, NHMW 9148, Austria, Wiener Wald, Buch leg. |
| L. (L.) pelidnus Haase, 1880 | 1male, NHMW 9149, N $48^{\circ} 16^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime}$, E $016^{\circ} 20^{\prime} 10^{\prime \prime}$, Austria, Wien, 19. Bezirk, Kastralgemeinde Josefsdorf, Kahlenberg Nordosthang, ca. 400 m (Wald, unter Holz), 15 June 1980, J. Gruber leg. |
| L. (L.) pyrenaicus Meinert, 1872 | 1 male, NHMW 9130; 1 female, NHMW 9131, France, Pyrénées-Orientales, J. Chalande leg. |
| L. (L.) tenebrosus Meinert, 1872 | 2 females, NHMW 9151, 9152, Austria, Kärnten, Bezirk Sankt Veit an der Glan, Gemeinde Hüttenberg, Pressen (mountain) |


| Species | Studied material |
| :---: | :---: |
| L. (L.) tricuspis Meinert, 1872 | 2 females, NHMW 9153, 9154, Austria, Steiermark, Graz, Platte |
| L. (L.) validus Meinert, 1872 | 1 female, NHMW 9150, Austria, Steiermark, Weiz, Weizenklamm, 1948, H. Franz leg. |
| L. (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus <br> L. Koch, 1862 | 2 females, NHMW 7546, Austria, Steiermark, Bezirk Liezen, Admont, Kemmatgraben, 1949, Franz H. leg. |
|  | 1 male, HNHMB 5980, Hungary, Felsöszölnök, Hármasfok, beechhornbeam forest, 04 August 1948, I. Loksa leg. |
| L. (M.) austriacus (Verhoeff, 1937) | 2 males, HNHMB 5983, 5984, Hungary, Salgóbánya, next to Hotel Medves, oak-beech forest, 30 March 2003, L. Dányi leg. |
| L. (M.) crassipes L. Koch, 1862 | 2 females, NHMW 9157, 9158, Germany, Leipzig, Sturany leg. |
|  | 2 females, HNHMB 5981, 5982, Hungary, Abaliget, Török-pince Cave (in a forest), at 8 m from the entrance, 14 January 2012, D. Angyal \& L. Dányi leg. |
| L. (M.) curtipes C.L. Koch, 1847 | 1 female, HNHMB 5985; 1 male, HNHMB 5986, Hungary, Györzámoly, under a woodstem at the side of the dam, 05 October 2000, <br> L. Dányi, Z. Korsós \& A. Seres leg. |
| L. (M.) franciscorum Dányi \& Tuf, 2012 | 2 males, HNHMB 5987, 5988, Kazakhstan, Altai Mts., Arshaty, wood near village, 1200 m a.s.l., 30 June 2007, I.H. Tuf leg. |
| L. (Sigibius) burzenlandicus Verhoeff, 1931 | 2 males, HNHMB 5989, 5990, N 47053.456', E 24³1.089', Romania, Maramureş Mts, Poienile de Sub Munte, Socolău valley, mixed forest, 825 m a.s.l., 24 May 2007, Cs. Csuzdi, L. Dányi, J. Kontschán \& D. Murányi leg. |
| L. (S.) microps Meinert, 1868 | 1 female, 1 male, NHMW 7413, Hungary, Siebenbürgen, 1919, R. Latzel leg. |
|  | 1 female, HNHMB 5991; 1 male, HNHMB 5992, N $46.1586^{\circ}$, E $8.8804^{\circ}$, Switzerland, Magadino, Bolle di Magadino, 195m, under Revnoutria japonica, pitfall trap, 2005-2006, M. Moretti leg. |
| L. (S.) trebinjanus Verhoeff, 1900 | 1 male, NHMW 9155; 1 female, NHMW 9156, <br> Albania, Kukes county/Qarku i Kukësit, Has district/Rrethi i Hasit, Pashtrik mountain range/Mali i Pashtrikut, $1900 \mathrm{~m}, 1918$, A. Penther leg. |
| L. (Ezembius) electus <br> Silvestri, 1935 | 1 female, NHMUK, China, Kara-Korum, Aghill Dabam (Pass), 4700-4800 m, 30 August 1988, P. Beron leg. |
| Neolithobius aztecus <br> (Humbert \& Saussure, 1869) | 1 female, NHMUK, BM1894.4.1.75-77, Guatemala, Dr. Stoll leg. |
| Disphaerobius loricatus (Sseliwanoff, 1881) | 1 male, NHMW 9204, Kazakhstan, East-Kazakhstan Area, Kaigutty River Valley, 32 km NW Ayagos, Saline-lend, 15 April 2016, A.A. Fomichev, R.Yu. Dudko leg. |
| Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes (C.L. Koch, 1847) | 1 male, NHMW 9176, N $46.4916^{\circ}$, E $14.3488^{\circ}$, Austria, Kärnten, Bezirk Klagenfurt-Land, Gemeinde Ferlach, Katastralgemeinde Waidisch, 602 m, rocky beech forest with spruce, under stones, logs and from leaf litter, 25 June 2017, Akkari N., Ganske A.-S. \& Dányi L. leg. |

## Sample preparation

The epipharynx and hypopharynx were dissected from the preoral chamber as described in Koch and Edgecombe (2008) in one to four adult male or female individuals per species. Multifocus images of the sclerotized parts of the epipharynx and hypopharynx were obtained with a Nikon SMZ25 stereomicroscope equipped with a Nikon DSF2.5 camera using NIS-Elements Microscope Imaging Software with an Extended

Depth of Focus (EDF) patch. For scanning electron microscopy (SEM), the specimens were: (1) cleaned in an ultrasonic bath ( $50-60 \mathrm{~Hz}$ ) for 5 to 10 seconds (maximum), occasionally in a solution of $15 \%$ hydrogen peroxide for 2 hours; (2) dehydrated in an ascending alcohol series ( $70 \%, 80 \%, 90 \%, 96 \% \mathrm{EtOH}, 2 \times 10-15$ min each); (3) air dried overnight (or covered with HMDS) or critical point dried (Leica 300 CPD). Specimens were mounted on aluminium stubs equipped with a sticky aluminium tape, glued with conductive silver, coated with platinum (Leica EM SCD500) and studied with a JEOL JSM 6610-LV at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV . Figures were processed with Adobe Photoshop CS6 and assembled in Adobe InDesign CS6.

Terminology follows Koch and Edgecombe (2008).

## List of abbreviations

bdb - labral bristles on distal bar; blf - labral bristles on lateral flap; bsc - 'buttonshaped' sensilla; bu - single transverse bulge; bud - distal transverse bulge; bup proximal transverse bulge; db - distal bar; gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; hb - hypopharyngeal bar; hsp - hypopharyngeal spine field; If - lateral flap; lsp - lateral spine field; lmc - paired lips forming median crest; mo - mouth opening; msc - median sensilla cluster; msp - median spine field; nsc - cluster of 'nipple-shaped' sensilla; pb - proximal bar; pp - pharyngeal plate; smc - spines flanking median crest; tu - tuft of bristles; tub - tubercles on distal bar; vlb - ventrolateral bar.

## Results

## Epipharynx

The epipharynx is distally and proximally bordered by the inner walls of the labrum and the clypeus, respectively (Fig. 1A). Except for D. loricatus (Fig. 2A), the labral and clypeal parts of the epipharynx are generally divided by one or two transverse bulges (distal and proximal transverse bulge) (Figs 1A, C, 2B-F, 3: bu, bud, bup). The transverse bulge occurs with a stronger or less pronounced curvature of the furrowed distal and proximal margins bordering the 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts (Figs 1C: gl, 2B-F, 3A-B). The margins can be parallel or not, curved distally and proximally (Fig. 2B-C) or curved distally and straight proximally (Figs 2D-F, 3A-B). The bulge always narrows laterally (Figs 2B-F, 3A-B, D, 4D-F, 5A). The surface of the bulge(s) is generally smooth (Figs 3A, 4A) but in some species it may show longitudinal striae laterally (Fig. 4D). In L. tenebrosus and L. lucifugus, the surface of the bulges is longitudinally striated and shows scattered pores (Figs 3C, 4B-C). In other species, a weak transverse furrow occurs on the tooth plate distally to the transverse bulge (Fig. 3A-B).
'Bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts always occur proximal to the transverse bulge (Fig. 1C: gl). They can be arranged in one row (Figs 2B, E-F, 5A), one row medi-


Figure I. Multifocus light-micrographs and SEM-photographs of peristomatic structures in Lithobiidae. A Epipharynx of Lithobius (Lithobius) validus; posterior view (top is ventral) B Hypopharynx of Lithobius (Lithobius) carinatus; anterior view (top is dorsal) C Epipharynx of Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes; posterior view (top is ventral) D Hypopharynx of Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus; anterodorsal view (left ventrolateral bar broken). bdb - labral bristles on distal bar, blf - labral bristles on labral flap, bsc - 'button-shaped' sensilla, bu - single transverse bulge, bud - distal transverse bulge, bup - proximal transverse bulge, db - distal bar, gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts, hb - hypopharyngeal bar, hsp - hypopharyngeal spine field, If - lateral flap, lsp - lateral spine field, lmc - paired lips forming median crest, mo - mouth opening, msc - median sensilla cluster, msp - median spine field, nsc - cluster of 'nipple-shaped' sensilla, pb - proximal bar, pp - pharyngeal plate, smc - spines flanking median crest, tp - tooth plate, tu - tuft of bristles, tub - tubercles on distal bar, vlb - ventrolateral bar. Scale bars: $200 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
ally with up to two or more rows on the lateral sides (Figs 2C, 3A, 4A, 5B), or consistently two to more rows (Figs 2A, 3B). The number of glandular shafts varies from 19 in $L$. microps to more than 80 in $L$. validus and is generally higher in larger species. The number of glandular shafts can also differ between individuals of the same species, e.g. 20-22 in $L$. aeruginosus or 42-48 in $L$. pyrenaicus.


Figure 2. Details of transverse bulge, 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts and median spine field of the epipharynx of Lithobiidae. A Disphaerobius loricatus; no transverse bulge; consistently two rows of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; narrow and slightly medially widening median spine field B Lithobius (Lithobius) pyrenaicus; parallel aligned margins of a single transverse bulge; one row of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; rhomboid and medially widening median spine field $\mathbf{C}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) fagei; single transverse bulge with parallel margins; more than one row of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts laterally; laterally widening median spine field D Lithobius (Sigibius) microps; single transverse bulge with non-parallel margins; subequal width of median spine field E Lithobius (Lithobius) mutabilis; single transverse bulge with non-parallel margins; one row of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; subequal width of median spine field F Lithobius (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus; single transverse bulge with non-parallel margins; one row of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; subequal width of median spine field. bu - transverse bulge, gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts, msp - median spine field.


Figure 3. Details of transverse bulge, 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts and median spine field of the epipharynx of Lithobiidae. A Lithobius (Lithobius) macilentus; single transverse bulge with smooth surface (see Fig. 4A) and non-parallel aligned margins; one row of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts medially with a transition to two rows laterally (see Fig. 4A); weak transverse furrow distally to the transverse bulge (arrow); laterally widening median spine field B Lithobius (Lithobius) piceus; weak transverse furrow (arrow) distally to the single transverse bulge (non-parallel margins); irregular two rows of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts; subequal width medially and laterally of median spine field C Lithobius (Lithobius) lucifugus; distal and proximal transverse bulges with surface striation (see Fig. 4B-C) D Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes; distal and proximal transverse bulges; medially widening median spine field. bu transverse bulge, bud - distal transverse bulge, bup - proximal transverse bulge, gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts, msp - median spine field.

Proximal to the 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts is a median spine field arranged as a wide or a narrow band with a subequal width, medially or laterally widened and consisting of a variable number of branching spines (Figs 1A, C, 2, 3A-B, D: msp, 5D, 6A, D). The spines are always directed towards the labral part of the epipharynx but differ in shape, size and texture. The shape can be scaly, apically furcated or not (Figs 5D, 6).

Paired labral bristle bands occur on the distal bars on each side of the tooth plate (Fig. 1C: bdb). The bristle bands consist of long, simple bristles medially with a gradual transition to branching bristles laterally (Fig. 7). The branching bristles occur with a few or several outer rows, more or less covering the distal bar (Fig. 7A-B). The bristles point dorsomediad towards the transverse bulge. The branching bristles on the distal bar of the outer rows are generally 'hassock-like' (Fig. 8A-C), but they can also be 'palmleaf-


Figure 4. Epipharyngeal structures of Lithobius. A Lithobius (Lithobius) macilentus; transverse bulge with a smooth surface; two rows of epidermal glandular shafts at the lateral border of the transverse bulge B Lithobius (Lithobius) lucifugus; distal transverse bulge with longitudinal striae C Lithobius (Lithobius) lucifugus; proximal transverse bulge with longitudinal striae and pores (arrow) D Lithobius (Lithobius) fagei; longitudinal striae on the lateral part of the transverse bulge (arrow); continuous branching bristle band from the distal bar to the lateral flap at the margin of the transverse bulge $\mathbf{E}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) cyrtopus; distinct break of branching bristle band from the distal bar to the lateral flap $\mathbf{F}$ Lithobius (Monotarsobius) crassipes; distinct break of branching bristle band from the distal bar to the lateral flap. bu - transverse bulge, gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts.
like' as for L. validus (Fig. 8D) or 'comb-like' in L. trebinjanus (Fig. 8E). The base of the branching bristles ranges from narrow to wide, with intermediate forms (Fig. 8).

The labral branching bristles on the distal bar expand towards the proximal part in a continuous manner (Fig. 4D) or with a distinct break (Fig. 4E-F) across the transverse


Figure 5. Epipharyngeal structures of Lithobius. A Lithobius (Lithobius) pyrenaicus; one row of 'bottleshaped' epidermal glandular shafts; laterally narrowing transverse bulge B-C Lithobius (Lithobius) validus B two rows of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts $\mathbf{C}$ pore of an epidermal glandular shaft (arrow) D Lithobius (Ezembius) electus; broad median spine field with several rows of branching bristles and a subequal width medially and laterally. bu - transverse bulge, gl - 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts.
bulge to the labral flap margins (Fig. 1C: blf). On the lateral flap, the structure of labral bristles changes gradually from laterally plumose to medially 'fan-shaped' (Fig. 9A-C) or it is consistently plumose (Fig. 9D), 'fan-shaped' only (Fig. 9E), or they can show just as simple bristles (Fig. 9F).

On the lateral borders of the distal bar, ovoid tubercles are observed in nearly all investigated species (Figs 1C: tub, 10H).

The median sensilla cluster (Fig. 1C: msc) on the clypeal part is always transversely aligned. It displays a highly variable interspecific arrangement of the sensilla. These sensilla can be arranged in line (Fig. 10A inset), in an offset-pattern (Fig. 10A, C-D) or symmetrical (Fig. 10B). The number of sensilla in the studied species varies between five in $L$. deruginosus to 65 in E. grossipes (Fig. 10D). Variation of the arrangement and number of sensilla is also recorded in individuals of the same species (e.g. L. tenebrosus and $L$. aeruginosus).

Proximal to the clypeal part pairwise lateral spine fields are present bordering the median sensilla cluster except for $N$. aztecus (Fig. 10C), D. loricatus and E. grosipes (Fig. 10D) in which the sensilla overlap with the spine fields (Fig. 1C: lsp). The lateral spine fields are arranged in one oblique row or more than one row (Fig. 10A-G). If there is more than


Figure 6. Details of spines from the median spine field on the epipharynx of Lithobius. A Lithobius (Monotarsobius) deruginosus; narrow median spine field with a few rows of branching spines B Lithobius (Lithobius) macilentus $\mathbf{C}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) peregrinus D Lithobius (Lithobius) tricuspis. msp - median spine field. Scale bars: $5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
one row there is a tendency for spines to cluster or form small groups (Fig. 10E). These spines are surrounded by pores (Fig. 10E) and vary in number from two per side in $L$. peregrinus to approximately 17 in $L$. crassipes. They always point proximomediad towards the mouth opening and show a dissimilarity in number and distribution per side within a single individual. The spines are mainly long and tapering, with shorter ones in between (Fig. 10A-G). In some other species, they can be bi- or trifurcate (Fig. 10B, E).

## Hypopharynx

The hypopharynx is a subtriangular outgrowth consisting of paired lips forming a median crest (Fig. 1B, D: $\operatorname{lmc}$ ). In front of the mouth opening lies the pharyngeal plate (Schlundplatte after Verhoeff 1902-1925) (Figs 1B, D, 11A: mo, pp). The latter shows transversely arranged 'nipple-shaped' sensilla on its median part (Figs 1D, 11A: nsc). The number of these sensilla varies from five in $L$. aeruginosus (Fig. 11B) to 25 in $L$. validus (Fig. 11D). The distribution pattern of 'nipple-shaped' sensilla varies from one clear line (Fig. 11A-B), zig-zag (Fig. 11C) to clusters of sensilla (Fig. 11E-F) but also displays intermediate forms (Fig. 11D).


Figure 7. Labral bristle bands on the distal bar of the epipharynx of Lithobius. A Lithobius (Lithobius) lucifugus; transition of simple to branching bristles from medial to lateral with a few rows of branching bristles B Lithobius (Lithobius) peregrinus; transition of simple to branching bristles from medial to lateral with several rows of branching bristles C Lithobius (Lithobius) erythrocephalus; detail of the transition of simple to branching bristles from medial to lateral D Lithobius (Lithobius) lucifugus; simple bristles on the medial part of the distal bar (top is medial).

Distal to the pharyngeal plate appears a 'tuft-like' cluster of branching bristles (Fig. 1D: tu). The shape of these branching bristles varies from 'fan-shaped' to ramified, with a more flattened or roundish shaft occurring with several intermediate forms (Figs 12, 13C).

Lateral to the pharyngeal plate, hypopharyngeal spines are always present (Figs 1D, 11A, 12A: hsp). They are arranged in clusters of five to 37 spines unilaterally (Fig. 13A-C) and they are surrounded with single or clustered pores (up to six) from apparently epidermal glands (Fig. 13A-B, D, F). The spines mainly taper (Figs 11A, 13A-D, F), sometimes with ridges along the lateral side of the spine shaft (Fig. 13E) or are apically furcate (Fig. 13A). They can be long or short, sometimes with a more flattened appearance (Figs 11A, 13). The hypopharyngeal spines may occur with a continuous transition distomedially to the tuft area (Fig. 13A) or with a distinct break (Fig. 13C).
'Button-shaped' sensilla are arranged in continuous clusters on the lips of the median crest medially up to the ventrolateral bars within the branching bristles and are present in all examined species (Figs 1D: bsc, 14, 16B-D). The median crest is flanked by intergrading rows of branching bristles (Fig. 1D: smc), which can be stout and short (Fig. 15D) or slender and long (Fig. 15E). In several species, we observed a


Figure 8. Details of branching bristles on the outer row of the labral bristle bands on the distal bar of the epipharynx of Lithobius. A-B 'hassock-like' branching bristles with a broad base A Lithobius (Lithobius) mutabilis B Lithobius (Ezembius) electus C Lithobius (Lithobius) pyrenaicus; 'hassock-like' branching bristles with a narrow base D Lithobius (Lithobius) validus; 'palmleaf-like' bristles E Lithobius (Sigibius) trebinjanus; 'comb-like' bristles (top is medial).
transition from branching bristles to flattened spines on the outermost rows (Figs 14A, 15A-C, F). The flattened spines show a structured surface (Fig. 15C).

The trichomes on the paired lips forming the median crest exhibit an intergrading transition from the tuft area proximal to distal up to the tips of the ventrolateral bars and medially to the proximoventral parts of the hypopharynx (Fig. 1D). At the border to the tuft area, there are generally 'fan-shaped' or plumose branching bristles, which mostly shorten in length, transitioning to 'brush-', 'tuft-', 'feather-like' or simple bristles (Figs 14A, 15A, E-F, 16A-C, E-F, 17A-D, F). On the proximoventral part, the bristles change over into clearly separated brush-tufts that are intermingled by 'button-shaped' sensilla (Fig. 16D). The shape of trichomes varies greatly between species. In $D$. loricatus, for example, there are scales on the distal tips of the lips bordered by the margin of the ventrolateral bar (Fig. 17E) in comparison to other species showing bristles in this area (Fig. 17A-D, F).

## Peristomatic characters with phylogenetic significance

In the following, eight peristomatic characters are proposed for the genus Lithobius, three of which are newly described (see char. 4, 6, 7). Additionally, we verified the consistency of two characters (see char. 2, 8) and adjusted three (see char. 1, 3, 5) from those indicated by Koch and Edgecombe (2008). Codings are provided in Appendix 1.


Figure 9. Details of branching bristles on the lateral flap on the distal bar of the epipharynx of Lithobius. A-B Lithobius (Lithobius) fagei $\mathbf{A}$ bristles changing from plumose laterally to 'fan-shaped' medially B detail of 9A C Lithobius (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus; bristles changing from plumose laterally to 'fanshaped' medially D Lithobius (Lithobius) peregrinus; plumose bristles only E Lithobius (Lithobius) cyrtopus; 'fan-shaped' bristles only F Disphaerobius loricatus; simple bristles only (top is medial).

## Epipharynx

1. 'Bottle-shaped' glandular shafts at the border between labral and clypeal part of epipharynx: (0) one distinct regular row; (1) more than one regular or irregular row. All the investigated lithobiomorph species possess 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts at the border between the labral and clypeal parts of the epipharynx. The latter can be in one regular row (Figs 2B, D-F, 5A) or with a variable arrangement, e.g. one regular row medially, which expands to two


Figure 10. Median sensilla cluster and lateral spine fields on the epipharynx of Lithobiidae. A Lithobius (Lithobius) validus; sensilla cluster arranged in an offset pattern; spine field arranged as single oblique row; Inset: Lithobius (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus; sensilla cluster arranged in line B Lithobius (Lithobius) tenebrosus; sensilla cluster arranged symmetrically; spine field arranged as single oblique row with trifurcate spines (arrow) C Neolithobius aztecus; sensilla cluster arranged in an offset pattern; spine field arranged as single oblique row D Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes; sensilla cluster arranged in an offset-pattern and strongly overlapping with lateral spine field proximolaterally; spine field arranged as single oblique row E Lithobius (Lithobius) pelidnus; spine field arranged as two rows (tendency of clustering) with bi- or trifurcate spines (arrows) and pores (asterisks) F Lithobius (Monotarsobius) curtipes; spine field arranged as single oblique row $\mathbf{G}$ Lithobius (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus; spine field arranged as single oblique row $\mathbf{H}$ Lithobius (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus; tubercles on distal bar. lsp - lateral spine field, msc - median sensilla cluster.


Figure II. 'Nipple-shaped' sensilla on pharyngeal plate and hypopharyngeal spines of hypopharynx of Lithobius. A Lithobius (Lithobius) dentatus; pairwise hypopharyngeal spine fields laterally to pharyngeal plate; transverse line of several 'nipple-shaped' sensilla B Lithobius (Monotarsobius) deruginosus; transverse line of a few 'nipple-shaped' sensilla on the pharyngeal plate; arrow indicates a pore C Lithobius (Lithobius) pyrenaicus, 'nipple-shaped' sensilla arranged in a zig-zag-pattern D Lithobius (Lithobius) validus; several 'nipple-shaped' sensilla arranged in a transverse line with some offset sensilla E-F Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus E clustered 'nipple-shaped' sensilla $\mathbf{F}$ high magnification of 'nipple-shaped' sensilla from Fig. 11E. hsp - hypopharyngeal spine field, mo - mouth opening, nsc - cluster of 'nipple-shaped' sensilla, pp - pharyngeal plate.
or three regular or irregular rows laterally (Figs 2C, 3A, 4A, 5B). A regular or irregular arrangement of consistently two or more rows along the whole width is present, for example, for D. loricatus and L. piceus (Figs 2A, 3B). Both states were identified across all subgenera of Lithobius with state (0) being underrepresented in the subgenus Lithobius ( 6 of 23 examined species). N. aztecus, D. loricatus (Fig. 2A) and E. grossipes (Fig. 3D) share state (1).
2. Labral bristle bands of epipharynx: (0) bristle bands continuous across transverse bulge; (1) distinct break in bristle bands proximal and distal to transverse bulge. (Character 31 in Koch and Edgecombe 2008).


Figure 12. Shapes of branching bristles forming a tuft distally to the pharyngeal plate of the hypopharynx of Lithobiidae. A Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus; ramified branching bristles with a roundish shaft and hypopharyngeal spines laterally to pharyngeal plate (top is dorsal) B Lithobius (Lithobius) calcaratus; close-up of 'fan-shaped' and flattened branching bristles (top is medial) C Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes, ramified and more flattened branching bristles (top is dorsal) D Lithobius (Lithobius) latro; ramified and flat branching bristles (top is medial). hsp - hypopharyngeal spine field.

The subgenera of Lithobius and other lithobiid genera show labral bristle bands that are either continuous (Fig. 4D) or are interrupted at the transverse bulge (Fig. 4E-F). All studied species of the subgenus Sigibius share state (1) (e.g. Fig. 2D).
3. Number of transverse bulge(s) at border between labral and clypeal parts of epipharynx: (0) none; (1) one; (2) two.
The presence of one or two transverse bulges is common for the genera Lithobius, Neolithobius and Eupolybothrus (e.g. Figs 2B-F, 3). The bulges are absent only in the genus Disphaerobius (Fig. 2A). Two bulges are shared by L. calcaratus, L. lucifugus, L. tenebrosus and E. grossipes only (e.g. Fig. 3C-D).
4. Direction of distal and proximal furrowed margins of transverse bulge or transverse bulges on epipharynx: (0) parallel; (1) non-parallel.
Both states occur in all studied genera, state (0) e.g. in L. pyrenaicus, L. fagei, L. lucifugus and E. grossipes (Figs 2B-C, 3C-D) or state (1) e.g. in L. microps, L. mutabilis, L. aeruginosus, L. macilentus and L. piceus (Figs 2D-F, 3A-B). All species of the subgenus Sigibius share a non-parallel alignment (state (1)) of the transverse bulge margins (e.g. L. microps; Fig. 2D).


Figure 13. Examples of number and shape of the hypopharyngeal spines and surrounding pores of Lithobiidae. A Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes; several tapering spines with trifurcate spines (asterisks) in between and a continuous transition to the tuft area (arrow) B Lithobius (Lithobius) agilis; few short tapering spines; several single pores $\mathbf{C}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) muticus; long and tapering spines; distinct break (arrow) between hypopharyngeal spine field and branching bristles of tuft D Lithobius (Lithobius) validus; hypopharyngeal spines surrounded by cluster of up to six pores (arrow) E Lithobius (Lithobius) cyrtopus; flattened and ridged spines $\mathbf{F}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) castaneus; detail of a long tapering spine close to a single pore (arrow). hsp - hypopharyngeal spine field, tu - tuft of bristles.
5. Median field of branching spines immediately proximal to the border between labral and clypeal parts of epipharynx: (0) rhomboid, widening medially; (1) widening laterally; (2) subequal width medially and laterally.
State (2) is most common throughout the subgenus Lithobius and occurs in the other subgenera of Lithobius, e.g. L. microps, L. piceus and L. electus (Figs 2D, 3B, 5D). The genera Eupolybothrus, Disphaerobius and Neolithobius share state (0) but show variation in the number of rows of branching spines


Figure 14. Examples of 'button-shaped' sensilla on the lips of hypopharynx of Lithobiidae. A Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus; proximal part of lips forming median crest with cluster of 'button-shaped' sensilla; flattened spines flanking median crest margin B Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes; left lip with cluster of 'button-shaped' sensilla C Lithobius (Lithobius) validus D Lithobius (Sigibius) burzenlandicus E Lithobius (Lithobius) muticus $\mathbf{F}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) carinatus. bsc - 'button-shaped' sensilla, smc spines flanking median crest, tu - tuft of bristles. A top is dorsal; B-F top is medial.
(e.g. Figs 2A, 3D). All states occur with a narrower or wider band having a few or several rows of branching spines.
6. Shape of branching bristles on labral flap of epipharynx: (0) lateral to medial transition from plumose to 'fan-shaped' bristles; (1) 'fan-shaped' bristles only; (2) plumose bristles only; (3) simple bristles only.

A transition of branching bristles from plumose laterally to 'fan-shaped' medially is the most common state ( 0 ) across the genus Lithobius, and also pertains to Neolithobius and Eupolybothrus (e.g. Fig. 9A-C). State (1) was observed in


Figure 15. Examples of spines and bristles flanking the median crest margins of hypopharynx of Lithobius. A-C flattened spines with a transition to branching bristles on the inner rows A Lithobius (Lithobius) pelidnus B Lithobius (Monotarsobius) franciscorum C Lithobius (Lithobius) muticus; Inset: detail of structured surface of flattened spines D-E continuously branching bristles flanking the median crest D Lithobius (Sigibius) microps; stout and short branching bristles $\mathbf{E}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) piceus; slender and long branching bristles $\mathbf{F}$ Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus; flattened spines flanking median crest margin. A-B, D-E top is medial; $\mathbf{C}$ top is ventral; $\mathbf{F}$ top is dorsal.
L. cyrtopus (Fig. 9E), L. lucifugus, L. pelidnus and L. microps. State (2) was present in L. peregrinus (Fig. 9D), L. piceus and L. tricuspis, and state (3) in D. loricatus only (Fig. 9F).
7. Lateral expansion of median sensilla cluster of epipharynx: (0) isolated from the lateral spine fields; (1) partly overlapping with the lateral spine fields.


Figure 16. Examples of bristles transitioning in shape and length along the median crest margin on hypopharynx of Lithobius. A-B Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus B 'button-shaped' sensilla between branching bristles on the distal part of the lips C Lithobius (Lithobius) pyrenaicus D Lithobius (Lithobius) erythrocephalus; Inset: detail of brush-tufts surrounding 'button-shaped' sensilla E Lithobius (Lithobius) pelidnus F Lithobius (Lithobius) carinatus.

In all Lithobius species we examined (except for $L$. tricuspis and $L$. nodulipes for which the samples were damaged), the median sensilla cluster is bordered laterally by fields of spines (state (0); Fig. 10A-B). The sensilla in $D$. loricatus and $N$. aztecus slightly overlap with the lateral spine fields medially (state (1); e.g. Fig. 10C). In E. grossipes the sensilla of the median sensilla cluster strongly overlap with the lateral spine fields proximolaterally (state (1); Fig. 10D).


Figure 17. Bristles and scales on the distal tips of the lips on hypopharynx of Lithobiidae. A Lithobius (Lithobius) cyrtopus B Lithobius (Lithobius) pelidnus C Lithobius (Lithobius) validus D Eupolybothrus (Eupolybothrus) grossipes E Disphaerobius loricatus; scales F Lithobius (Lithobius) forficatus. Scale bars: $20 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
8. Differentiation of spines flanking median crest of hypopharynx: (0) intergrading rows of branching bristles; (1) single outer row of simple flattened spines with abrupt transition to multifurcating inner rows of branching bristles. (Character 39 in Koch and Edgecombe 2008)
Species of the subgenus Monotarsobius always display state (1) (e.g. L. franciscorum; Fig. 15B). The Ezembius species L. electus studied here displays state (1), which differs from Lithobius (Ezembius) giganteus Sseliwanoff, 1881, stated by Koch and Edgecombe (2008). State (1) (Fig. 15A-C, F) is more common throughout the other subgenera of Lithobius and species of the other examined genera compared to state (0) (Fig. 15D-E).

## Discussion

Studies on the external morphology and microanatomy of the peristomatic structures of centipedes have hitherto unveiled phylogenetically useful information (Koch and Edgecombe 2006, 2008, 2012, Edgecombe and Koch 2008, 2009). The 'bottleshaped' epidermal glandular shafts of the epipharynx and the discrete shape of the hypopharynx support the monophyly of the order Lithobiomorpha and paired oblique rows of lateral spines on the clypeal part of the epipharynx is, for example, considered as an apomorphic character for the family Lithobiidae (Koch and Edgecombe 2008). The inclusion of characters from these structures in a morphological dataset that also included other (mostly external) parts of the body further revealed the genus Lithobius as a non-monophyletic taxon (Koch and Edgecombe 2008). Within the genus Lithobius, five out of eleven described characters of the peristomatic structures display different states (Koch and Edgecombe 2008), which might give hints on speciesinterrelationships within the genus. These data from the peristomatic structures are presented as a set of coded characters (Appendix 1) that will be analysed cladistically with characters from other character systems in a later study.

## Phylogenetic significance of the peristomatic structures of Lithobiidae

While studying the peristomatic structures of Lithobiomorpha and Scutigeromorpha, Koch and Edgecombe (2008) compared the presence of the 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts between the labral and clypeal part of the epipharynx. These glandular shafts were reported to be constantly present in Lithobiomorpha (Koch and Edgecombe 2008) and absent in other chilopods (Koch and Edgecombe 2006, 2008, 2012, Edgecombe and Koch 2008). We confirmed the presence of glandular shafts in the specimens we examined in the lithobiid genera Lithobius, Neolithobius, Eupolybothrus and Disphaerobius and further recorded differences in number and regularity of rows (character 1).

The same authors (Koch and Edgecombe 2008) described the presence of a transverse bulge dividing the labral and clypeal part on the epipharynx for all Lithobiomorpha except for Hessebius plumatus Zalesskaja, 1978 and L. (Ezembius) giganteus displaying no bulge at all. This study confirms the absence of the bulge in the species $D$. loricatus (Fig. 2A) and for the first time the presence of a second bulge (distal transverse bulge) as recorded for the species L. calcaratus, L. lucifugus, L. tenebrosus and E. grossipes as well as E. fasciatus (Newport, 1845) (specimens used by Koch and Edgecombe 2008). The alignment of the bulges is further described and proposed as an additional character state (character 4).

The examination of additional taxa within Lithobiidae revealed more variation in the shape of the median spine field than previously described and having surveyed more species we include additional character states to those already described by Koch and Edgecombe (2008) (character 5).

Although differences in shape of the bristles on the labral flap were briefly mentioned by Koch and Edgecombe (2008), our study unveiled four consistent states in the shape of bristles and transition of those from laterally to medially, which serves as a new multistate character for Lithobiidae (character 6). A transition of bristles from plumose to 'fan-shaped' was described for Pleurolithobius patriarchalis (Berlese, 1894) (Koch and Edgecombe 2008), as in the majority of the investigated species in the present study. In contrast, only 'fan-shaped' bristles are observed in the lithobiid Harpolithobius anodus (Latzel, 1880) and the henicopid Lamyctes (Lamyctes) emarginatus (Newport, 1844). On the other hand, the interpretation that Lithobius (Monotarsobius) holstii (Pocock, 1895) possesses only 'fan-shaped' bristles (Fig. 6E in Koch and Edgecombe 2008) seems erroneous as their figure reveals a pattern in accordance with the other examined Monotarsobius-species, which exhibit a transition from plumose to 'fan-shaped' bristles (e.g. L. aeruginosus, Fig. 9C).

Generally, the median sensilla cluster borders or overlaps marginally with the lateral field of spines in Lithobiomorpha (Koch and Edgecombe 2008). However, we observed a median sensilla cluster considerably expanding along the length of the lateral spine fields on the epipharynx in E. grossipes for Lithobiomorpha (Fig. 10D). This was also verified in E. fasciatus (specimens used by Koch and Edgecombe 2008), which also displays a large but partial overlap.

As mentioned in the introduction, the hypopharynx as a short outgrowth with a median crest is an apomorphic character for Lithobiomorpha. This is verified in all examined lithobiid species. Moreover, the median crest margin of all studied species of the subgenus Monotarsobius displays flattened spines (character 8) as previously described for L. holstii (Koch and Edgecombe 2008).

## Variability of the peristomatic structures in Lithobiidae

Besides the well-defined characters listed in the previous paragraph, our investigation also yielded several structures with high variability in appearance and/or intermediate forms between and even within species. For example, the branching bristles of (i) the labral bristle band on the distal bar, (ii) the spines of the median spine field of the epipharynx and (iii) the branching bristles as a tuft on the hypopharynx occur with several non-definable forms. Koch and Edgecombe (2008) described a smooth transverse bulge for Lithobiidae, which we confirmed for most of the examined species. However, we also observed a longitudinal striation of the whole bulge surface or at least on the lateral parts of the bulge for some species (Figs 3C, 4D). A similar description of the latter state was observed for the henicopid Lamyctes emarginatus, where more defined longitudinal grooves occur (Koch and Edgecombe 2008).

The paired oblique rows of elongated lateral spines on the clypeal part of the epipharynx were also considered as an apomorphic character for Lithobiidae (Koch and Edgecombe 2008). This is also confirmed in all examined lithobiid species we
studied. However, the proposed character states, i.e. (2): oblique rows of single spines and (3): a few small groups of branching spines for the lateral field of spines on Lithobiidae were not consistent across the species we examined and showed many intermediate states. On this basis we excluded the character for conclusions on the systematics in Lithobiidae, especially Lithobius, in our study.

Koch and Edgecombe (2008) recorded groups of lateral fields of spines in the subgenus Monotarsobius in contrast to pairs of oblique rows in the rest of Lithobiidae (character 32, state (3)). These spines seem to be arranged in oblique rows as in the rest of Lithobiidae in the species L. (Monotarsobius) aeruginosus and L. (Monotarsobius) curtipes (Fig. 10F-G).

A correlation between the number of 'bottle-shaped' epidermal glandular shafts of Lithobiomorpha and body size was also mentioned by Koch and Edgecombe (2008), implying that larger species tend to have higher numbers. Here, we suggest the same for the number of glandular shafts, sensilla in the median sensilla cluster and the 'nip-ple-shaped' sensilla cluster, lateral spines, and the hypopharyngeal spines. This size correlation needs to be confirmed by morphometrics and statistical analysis but the phylogenetic significance of these characters is cast into doubt.

## Assumptions on the relationship of Disphaerobius with (sub)genera Lithobius and Ezembius

The peristomatic structures of $H$. plumatus and $L$. (Ezembius) giganteus described by Koch and Edgecombe (2008) and D. loricatus examined in this study, i.e. a missing transverse bulge (character 3), simple bristles on the labral flap of the epipharynx (character 6) and scales on the distal tips of the lips of the hypopharynx (Fig. 17E), differ from all other studied species of Lithobius, including L. (Ezembius) electus, even if the latter is correctly placed in the subgenus Ezembius. Several taxa in Central Asia, also species of the giganteus-group of Lithobius (Eason 1983, 1986) and of the genus Hessebius Verhoeff, 1941 share some morphological characters with the genus Disphaerobius Attems, 1926, as mentioned by Farzalieva et al. (2017): "... functionally biarticulated tarsi of leg $1-13$, the antennae composed of 20 antennomeres, the rounded posterior angles of all tergites, the 1 -segmented male gonopods, and Tömösváry's organ being equal in size to the nearest ocellus or smaller." In contrast to the three other species of the giganteus-group of Lithobius, L. (Ezembius) giganteus displays secondary sexual modifications of the tergites in males similar to Disphaerobius (Farzalieva et al. 2017). Here, we assume that the epipharyngeal and hypopharyngeal structures may confirm a closer relationship of L. (Ezembius) giganteus to D. loricatus than to L. (Ezembius) electus. This relationship is inconsistent with the classification of Disphaerobius as a separate subfamily, Pterygoterginae Verhoeff, 1933, because that classification would render Lithobiinae, as well as Lithobius and L. (Ezembius) as paraphyletic groups.

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## Appendix I

Data matrix of 8 peristomatic characters of Lithobiidae, numbered as in the text.

| Species | Characters |
| :--- | :---: |
|  | 12345678 |
| L. (L.) agilis | $111(0 ?) 1000$ |
| L. (L.) calcaratus | 11212000 |
| L. (L.) carinatus | 10111000 |
| L. (L.) castaneus | 10102000 |
| L. (L.) cyrtopus | 01110101 |
| L. (L.) dentatus | 11112000 |
| L. (L.) erythrocephalus | 11112001 |
| L. (L.) fagei | 10101000 |
| L. (L.) forficatus | 10100001 |
| L. (L.) lapidicola | 01112001 |
| L. (L.) latro | 11112001 |
| L. (L.) lucifugus | 11202101 |
| L. (L.) macilentus | 11111001 |
| L. (L.) mutabilis | 01112001 |
| L. (L.) muticus | 00110001 |
| L. (L.) nodulipes | $111110 ? 1$ |
| L. (L.) peregrinus | 10100200 |


| Species | Characters |
| :--- | :---: |
| L. (L.) piceus | 10112200 |
| L. (L.) pelidnus | 11102101 |
| L. (L.) pyrenaicus | 00100001 |
| L. (L.) tenebrosus | $0121200 ?$ |
| L. (L.) tricuspis | $101022 ? 0$ |
| L. (L.) validus | 10101001 |
| L. (M.) deruginosus | 01112001 |
| L. (M.) austriacus | 01111001 |
| L. (M.) crassipes | 01112001 |
| L. (M.) curtipes | 10111001 |
| L. (M.) franciscorum | $(1 ?) 1110001$ |
| L. (S.) burzenlandicus | $0111 ? 000$ |
| L. (S.) microps | 01112100 |
| L. (S.) trebinjanus | 11111001 |
| L. (E.) electus | 10102001 |
| N. aztecus | 11100011 |
| D. loricatus | $100-0311$ |
| E. (E.) grossipes | 10200010 |

# An apparently non-swinging tentorium in the Diplopoda (Myriapoda): comparative morphology of the tentorial complex in giant pill-millipedes (Sphaerotheriida) 

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#### Abstract

The presence of a swinging tentorium is a key apomorphy of Myriapoda, but this character has been studied in detail in only few species. Here the tentorium, i.e., the peristomatic skeleton of the preoral chamber, is comparatively studied in three species of the millipede order Sphaerotheriida Brandt, 1833. Since dissections of the fragile tentorial components proved to be difficult, despite the large head size, they were analysed mainly in situ via micro-computed tomography. Our results confirm previous observations of large differences in the tentorial construction in the giant pill-millipedes compared to chilognathan diplopods. The tentorium of Sphaerotheriida consists of a curved, plate-like epipharyngeal bar with distal projections, an elongate and thin hypopharyngeal bar, and a plate-like triangular posterior process; a transverse bar is absent. Only seven muscles attach at the tentorium in giant pill-millipedes, including two antennal muscles and two muscles of the gnathochilarium. Within the order Sphaerotheriida, the composition of the tentorium and its muscular equipment seems to be conserved, except for some vari-


[^0]ability in the shape of the epipharyngeal bar. As the transverse bar has been considered essential for the mobility of the tentorium in myriapods, its absence in Sphaerotheriida may indicate that their tentorium is not capable of performing a swing. Loss of tentorial mobility may also pertain to the order Glomerida Brandt, 1833, inferred here from the absence of a posterior process. An apparently immobile tentorium in Glomerida and Sphaerotheriida can straightforwardly be correlated with transformations of the head related to their ability of volvation. The different transformations of the tentorium, here hypothesised to cause immobility, may support current assumptions that the ability of volvation evolved convergently in Glomerida and Sphaerotheriida. This conclusion, however, still requires more detailed studies of the head anatomy in Glomerida and Glomeridesmida Cook, 1895.

## Keywords

Arthrosphaeridae, micro-CT, 3D-reconstruction, swinging tentorium, volvation

## Introduction

Recent molecular studies (Gai et al. 2006, Regier et al. 2010, Miyazawa et al. 2014, Fernández et al. 2016) as well as studies combining molecular and morphological data (Lee et al. 2013, Giribet et al. 2001) consistently retrieve the Myriapoda as a monophylum. Unique synapomorphies shared by its taxa Chilopoda, Symphyla, Pauropoda, and Diplopoda, however, are sparse. The most striking character in favour of myriapod monophyly is the so-called swinging tentorium, i.e. an apparently mobile skeleton of the head supporting the preoral chamber and movements of the mandibles (Edgecombe and Giribet 2002, Koch 2003, Edgecombe 2004, Shear and Edgecombe 2010, Edgecombe 2011, Koch et al. 2015). The tentorial complex consists of sclerotised exoskeletal bars and endoskeletal processes (Koch 2003, Koch 2015). This complex provides stability to the largely membranous epi- and hypopharynx and serves as muscle attachment sites. The tentorium is considered essential for the movement of the mandibles and the gnathochilarium, although the mechanism is not yet understood (Manton 1964, Fechter 1961, Koch 2015). In general the tentorium of the Diplopoda is composed of four parts: the exoskeletal (1) hypopharyngeal bar, (2) the epipharyngeal bar, (3) the transverse bar, and (4) the endoskeletal posterior process (sensu Koch 2003). Associated with the tentorial complex is an additional sclerite, the nebententorium (sensu Attems 1926, Verhoeff 1928, Koch 2015) or hypopharyngeal lateral sclerite (sensu Wilson 2002), also serving as an attachment site for musculature (Verhoeff 1928). Details on the structure of the tentorium and its musculature have been described for only few representatives of the Diplopoda. Four descriptions for members of the order Sphaerotheriida date back more than 100 years, and three of them (vom Rath 1886, Silvestri 1903, Attems 1926) describe the state for Sphaeropoeus Brandt, 1833 (Zephroniidae Gray, 1843). There is only one description for the Arthrosphaeridae Jeekel 1974 by Verhoeff (1928) for Arthrosphaera dentigera Verhoeff, 1930. Recently, the tentorium of Zoosphaerium bemanevika Sagorny \& Wesener, 2017 from Madagascar was visualised in 3D using volume renderings of a $\mu \mathrm{CT}$ scan (Sagorny and

Wesener 2017), but it was not described in detail. The Arthrosphaeridae are the second largest family with 119 species and 4 genera within the order Sphaerotheriida. The Arthrospaeridae have a very interesting biogeography with Arthrosphaera from the Indian sub-continent, and the three genera Sphaeromimus, Zoosphaerium and Microsphaerotherium Wesener \& VandenSpiegel, 2007 only known from Madagascar (Wesener and VandenSpiegel 2009, Wesener et al. 2010). All descriptions indicate that the tentorium in the Sphaerotheriida deviates markedly from the pattern described for other myriapods. In order to reveal the deviating characteristics more comprehensively, the tentorium of three representatives of the Arthrosphaeridae genera Arthrosphaera Pocock, 1895, Sphaeromimus de Saussure \& Zehntner, 1902 and Zoosphaerium Pocock, 1895 are described and compared.

## Materials and methods

Vouchers are stored in natural history collections of the Zoological Research Museum A. Koenig (ZFMK) and the California Academy of Science (CAS). One head of Zoosphaerium sp. was used for light microscopy of the skeletal components with a Keyence VHX 700 digital stack imaging system. For this purpose the mandibles were removed with micro-scissors and the head bisectioned by slicing along the mouth with a razor blade. Micro-CT scans were taken from the heads of the three giant pill-millipede species Arthrosphaera brandtii (Humbert, 1865) (ZFMK MYR 06265), Sphaeromimus kalambatritra Moritz \& Wesener, 2017 (CAS ENT 9058301) and Zoosphaerium bemanevika Sagorny \& Wesener, 2017 (ZFMK MYR 6144), all belonging to the family Arthrosphaeridae Jeekel, 1974. The heads were dissected and critical point dried (CPD) after dehydration via an ascending ethanol series. X-ray micro-computed tomography ( $\mu \mathrm{CT}$ ) was performed with a SKYSCAN 1272 (Bruker microCT, Kontich, Belgium), using the following settings: source voltage $=60 \mathrm{kV}$, source current $=166$ $\mu \mathrm{A}$, exposure $=915 \mathrm{~ms}$, rotation of $180^{\circ}$ in rotational steps of $0.2^{\circ}$, frame averaging $=$ 6 , random movement $=15 \mathrm{px}$, filter $=\mathrm{Al} 0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$. Isotropic voxel resolution varied in the following manner: Arthrosphaera brandtii: $5.99 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; Sphaeromimus kalambatritra: $7.86 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; Zoosphaerium bemanevika: $7.99 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Reconstruction and thermal drift correction was performed in NRecon 1.7.0.4 (Bruker microCT, Kontich, Belgium). Reduction of the data size by scaling to $50 \%$ and conversion from 16- to 8-bit greyscale, and the adjustment of contrast and brightness was performed in IMAGE J 1.50e (Schneider et al. 2012). The resulting image stacks are deposited in MorphoBank as Project 2795 (http://morphobank.org/permalink/?P2795) Automated segmentation with subsequent manual corrections and 3D visualisation of the studied structures was performed in ITK-SNAP 3.6.0 (Yushkevich et al. 2006). Terminology follows Koch (2015) for components of the endoskeleton, and Wilson (2002) for the musculature. Illustrations and figure plates were prepared with Adobe Photoshop CS2 and Adobe Illustrator CS2.

## Results

## Skeletal elements of the tentorium in the Sphaerotheriida

A connection of the tentorium to the head capsule by a transverse bar (sensu Koch 2003) is missing in the three analysed species, despite the presence of an incisura lateralis (Fig. 1A). The paired tentorial complex consists of only four major parts: the epipharyngeal bar (Fig. 1C, eb), the hypopharyngeal bar (Fig. 1B, hb), the posterior process (Fig. 2, pp), which forms a single tripartite sclerite (the tentorium sensu stricto) along the mouth opening, and the separate nebententorium (nt; hypopharyngeal lateral sclerite sensu Wilson 2002) located on the hypopharynx (Fig. 1B, hy).

## (1) The epipharyngeal bar:

The plate-like epipharyngeal bar (eb) is in connection with the wall of the epipharynx (Fig. 2A-J, ep). The distal part of the epipharyngeal bar is a triangular plate with one slightly curved lateral projection (e1) and a stout median projection (Fig. $1 \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{e} 2)$. The shape of the projections of the epipharyngeal bar is variable within the Arthrosphaeridae (Fig. 2D, F, H): the lateral projection (e1) is rather stout and short in Sphaeromimus kalambatritra (Fig. 2F), more elongate in Arthrosphaera brandtii (Fig. 2D) and long, slender and curved in Zoosphaerium bemanevika (Fig. 2H). The median projection (e2) is triangular in $A$. brandtii (Fig. 2D) and S. kalambatritra (Fig. 2F), and rectangular in Z. bemanevika (Fig. 2H). The distal part of the epipharyngeal bar (eb) is curved, following in shape the curvature of the mandible condyles (Fig. 2A, B, I, J, co) in all analysed specimens. The proximal part of the epipharyngeal bar (eb) is a rectangular plate, which is wider in $A$. brandtii (Fig. 2D) and S. kalambatritra (Fig. 2F), while it is more slender in $Z$. bemanevika (Fig. 2H).

## (2) The hypopharyngeal bar:

In the three analysed species, the epipharyngeal bar (eb) of the tentorium (Fig. 2A-J) passes over into the hypopharyngeal bar (hb) posteriorly to the pharyngeal opening. The hypopharyngeal bar is elongate and rod-like (Fig. 2A-J, hb). The bar is strongly curved inward and extends ventrally on the hypopharynx towards the gnathochilarium where it is associated to the nebententorium (nt) via a membranous connection (Fig. 2C, E, G). A small cone-shaped medial projection (h1) close to the center of the hypopharyngeal bar is present (Fig. 2C-H), pointing to the hypopharyngeal suspensorial sclerites (Fig. 1B, ss) (Stützgerüst sensu Attems, 1926; Verhoeff, 1928). Although the hypopharyngeal bar of $A$. brandtii (Fig. 2C) is slightly shorter in relation to its width than in S. kalambatritra (Fig. 2E) and Z. bemanevika (Fig. 2G), its general rodlike appearance can be seen in all analysed species.


Figure I. Zoosphaerium sp., light micrographs of peristomatic structures. A Epipharynx, showing absence of the tentorial transverse bar B Preoral chamber, frontal view on hypopharynx (mandibles removed) C Hypopharynx and endochilarium, dorsal view (hypo- and epipharyngeal bar of right tentorium broken off). Scale bars: $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Abbreviations: $\mathbf{e b}=$ epipharyngeal bar of left tentorium; $\mathbf{e d}=$ endochilarium; $\mathbf{e p}=$ epipharynx; $\mathbf{h 1}=$ projection of hypopharyngeal bar; $\mathbf{h b}=$ hypopharyngeal bar of tentorium; $\mathbf{h y}=$ hypopharynx; $\mathbf{i l}=$ incisura lateralis; $\mathbf{l b}=$ labrum; $\mathbf{l l}=$ lamella lingualis; $\mathbf{l m}=$ lamella-mentum; $\mathbf{n t}=$ nebententorium; $\boldsymbol{s s}=$ suspensorial sclerite; $\boldsymbol{s t g}=$ stipes of gnathochilarium.


Figure 2. The tentorial complex of the Sphaerotheriida, 3 D visualization. GREY $=$ Head capsule; BROWN = mandible; ORANGE = tentorium; YELLOW = nebententorium; OLIVE = außententorium. A-D Arthrosphaera brandtii (Humbert, 1865), ZFMK MYR6265 E, F, I, J Sphaeromimus kalambatritra, CASENT 9058301 G, H Zoosphaerium bemanevika Sagorny \& Wesener, 2017, ZFMK MYR6144. A tentorial complex and its association with the mandibular gnathal lobe and the head capsule of $A$. brandtii, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ same as A frontal view $\mathbf{C}$ tentorial complex of $A$. brandtii, frontal view $\mathbf{D}$ same as $C$ medial view, with rotated epipharyngeal bar $\mathbf{E}$ tentorial complex of $S$. sp., frontal view $\mathbf{F}$ same as $E$ medial view, with rotated epipharyngeal bar $\mathbf{G}$ tentorial complex of $Z$. bemanevika, frontal view $\mathbf{H}$ same as $G$ medial view, with rotated epipharyngeal bar I tentorial complex and its association with the mandibular gnathal lobe and the headcapsule of $S$. sp., dorsal view $\mathbf{J}$ same as I, frontal view. Abbreviations: at = antennal socket; aut = mandibular gnathal lobe sclerite (außententorium); $\mathbf{c o}=$ condylus of mandible; $\mathbf{e 1}=$ lateral projection of epipharyngeal bar; $\mathbf{e} \mathbf{2}=$ medial projection of epipharyngeal bar; $\mathbf{e b}=$ epipharyngeal bar; $\mathbf{e t}=$ external tooth; $\mathbf{h} \mathbf{1}=$ projection of hypopharyngeal bar; $\mathbf{h b}=$ hypophayrangeal bar; $\mathbf{h c}=$ head capsule; ilp = projection arising from incisura lateralis; $\mathbf{i t}=$ internal tooth; $\mathbf{m p}=$ molar plate; $\mathbf{n t}=$ nebententorium; $\mathbf{p l}=$ pectinate lamellae; $\mathbf{p p}=$ posterior process.

## (3) The posterior process:

The posterior process ( pp ) is a large triangular plate projecting posteriorly into the head capsule parallel to the mandibular gnathal lobe sclerite (sensu Wilson 2002; äußeres Tentorium sensu Voges 1916, Attems 1926; Außententorium sensu Seifert 1932; (German for "outer tentorium")) (Fig. 2A, B, I, J, aut). It arises from the transition point between the epi- (eb) and hypopharyngeal bars (hb). There is no variation in the shape of the posterior process (pp) within the studied Arthrosphaeridae (Fig. 2C-H).

## (4) The nebententorium:

The nebententorium (nt) is a short, flat sclerite parallel to the distal portion of the hypopharyngeal bar (hb) of the tentorium (Fig. 2A, B, I, J, YELLOW). It bypasses the distal tip of the hypopharyngeal bar slightly and broadens, forming an articulation with the tentorium (Fig. 2C-H).

## The connection of the mandible to the tentorium in Arthrosphaeridae

The strong condylus (co) of the mandibular gnathal lobe (Fig. 2A, B, I, J, BROWN) is not in direct contact with the tentorium, but medially faces the epipharyngeal bar (Fig. 2A, B, I, J, eb). Lateral of the condylus arises a sclerotised socket-shaped projection (Fig. 3A, ilp) from the incisura lateralis (il) of the head capsule (Fig. 3B, hc). The mandibular condylus hence appears to be encompassed by both the epipharyngeal bar and the sclerotised projection of the incisura lateralis.

## Musculature of the tentorium in Arthrosphaeridae

The tentorial complex of the Arthrosphaeridae is associated with a set of seven muscles (Fig. 3C), which do not vary in the studied species. The proximal part of the epipharyngeal bar (eb) gives rise to the anterior tentorial muscle ( t 1 ), which inserts on the anterior part of the head, and to the dorsal tentorial muscle ( t 2 ), which inserts medial of the antennal socket (Fig. 3D). The posterior tentorial muscle (t3) inserts on the whole length of the posterior margin of the posterior process $(\mathrm{pp})$ and originates from the postoccipital flange close to the transition to the collum (Fig. 3C, F). The lateral antennal muscle (a1) originates from the posterior margin of the transitional area between the epipharyngeal bar (eb) and the posterior process (pp), anteriorly of t 3 , and inserts on the posterior margin of the first antennomere (at1). The anterior antennal muscle (a2) inserts on the anterior margin of the first antennomere (at1) and originates from the epipharyngeal bar (eb) lateral of t 3 (Fig. 3E). Median to t 3 , the pharyngeal dilator muscle (p1), which inserts on the lateral pharyngeal wall (ph),


Figure 3. Head musculature of Sphaeromimus kalambatritra. A, B, D-G micro-CT images $\mathbf{C} 3 \mathrm{D}$ segmentation. A Arrangement of mandible, tentorium and head capsule, frontal section B Incisura lateralis in detail, frontal section $\mathbf{C} 3 \mathrm{D}$ segmentation of the isolated tentorium and its muscles, medial view $\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{E}$ Muscles of the epipharyngeal bar, fronto-medial view $\mathbf{F}$ Muscles of the posterior process, frontal section $\mathbf{G}$ Muscles of the nebententorium, frontal section. Top is frontal, left is lateral. Scale bars: A, D $1000 \mu \mathrm{~m} \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{E}-\mathbf{G} 500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ $\mathbf{C}$ not to scale. Abbreviations: $\mathbf{a} \mathbf{1}=$ lateral antennal muscle ( m.$) ; \mathbf{a} \mathbf{2}=$ anterior antennal $\mathrm{m} . ; \mathbf{a t} \mathbf{1}=$ first antennomere; $\mathbf{c o}=$ condyle of mandibular gnathal lobe; $\mathbf{e b}=$ epipharyngeal bar; et = external tooth of mandible, $\mathbf{g 1}=$ lamella lingualis $\mathrm{m} . ; \mathbf{g} 2$ = lamello-mentum m.; aut = mandibular gnathal lobe sclerite (außententorium); $\mathbf{h b}=$ hypophayrangeal bar; $\mathbf{h c}=$ head capsule; $\mathbf{i l}=$ incisura lateralis; $\mathbf{i l p}=$ projection arising from incisura lateralis; $\mathbf{i t}=$ internal tooth of mandible; $\mathbf{l} \mathbf{a b}=$ labrum; $\mathbf{l l}=$ lamella lingualis of gnathochilarium; $\mathbf{l m}=$ lamellomentum; $\mathbf{m d b}=$ mandibular base; $\mathbf{m d g}=$ mandibular gnathal lobe; $\mathbf{m p}=$ molar plate; $\mathbf{n t}=$ nebententorium; $\mathbf{p} \mathbf{1}=$ pharyngeal dilator $\mathrm{m} . ; \mathbf{p h}=$ pharynx; $\mathbf{p l}=$ pectinate lamellae of mandible; $\mathbf{p p}=$ posterior process; $\mathbf{s t}=$ stipes of gnathochilarium; $\mathbf{t} \mathbf{1}=$ anterior tentorial $\mathrm{m} . ; \mathbf{t} \mathbf{2}=$ dorsal tentorial $\mathrm{m} . ; \mathbf{t} \mathbf{3}=$ posterior tentorial m .
originates from the frontal anterior portion of the posterior process (Fig. 3F, pp). The nebententorium (nt) gives rise to a muscle (g1) inserting medially on the lamella lingualis (ll) of the gnathochilarium. Another muscle (g2) of the gnathochilarium passes from the lamello-mentum ( lm ) to the posterior surface of the nebententorium (nt) lateral to g1 (Fig. 3G).

## Discussion

## Structure of the tentorium in the Sphaerotheriida

The tentorium of the three studied representatives of Sphaerotheriida shows the same basic structure (Fig. 2C-H), as already described by vom Rath (1886), Silvestri (1903) and Attems (1926) for Sphaeropoeus, and by Verhoeff (1928) for Arthrosphaera dentigera. Vom Rath (1886) stated that the tentorium of the Sphaerotheriidae Sphaerotherium Brandt, 1833 resembles that of the Zephroniidae Sphaeropoeus Brandt, 1833, without a detailed description. Therefore, the general structure of the tentorium seems to be highly conserved within the Sphaerotheriida.

The most striking character of the giant pill-millipede tentorium is the absence of the transverse bar (Fig. 1C), which is present in all other millipede orders as far as known. Although the transverse bar differs among millipedes in its shape and articulation to the head capsule, it is known to be present in the Polyxenida (Koch 2003), Glomerida (vom Rath 1886, Silvestri 1903, Voges 1916), Julida (vom Rath 1886, Silvestri 1903, Voges 1916, Attems 1926, Verhoeff 1928, Fechter 1961), Spirobolida (vom Rath 1886, Snodgrass 1950), Spirostreptida (vom Rath 1886, Silvestri 1903, Manton 1964), Polydesmida (vom Rath 1886, Silvestri 1903, Verhoeff 1928, Seifert 1932, Snodgrass 1950), Chordeumatida (vom Rath 1886, Verhoeff 1928), Callipodida (Verhoeff 1928) and Platydesmida (Koch 2015). The state of the transverse bar (or the tentorium in general) for Glomeridesmida, Stemmiulida, Siphoniulida and most Colobognatha has not been documented yet. A transverse bar can nevertheless be assumed for the ground pattern of Diplopoda. Its reduction can be viewed as a derived state of the Sphaerotheriida.

## Impact on tentorial mobility

The general function of the transverse bar is the connection of the tentorial complex to the head capsule at the incisura lateralis (= clypeal notch), around which the tentorium is deemed to perform its swinging movements (Manton 1964). Furthermore, the transverse bar is the insertion site for tentorial protractor muscles (Manton 1964, Wilson 2002). Along with the reduction of the transverse bar in Sphaerotheriida, the mobility of the tentorium must have undergone tremendous changes and must differ from the mechanism assumed by Fechter (1961) and Manton (1964) for Juliformia, as the muscular equipment of the tentorium in Sphaerotheriida (Fig. 3 C ) varies greatly
from that of Juliformia. While Wilson (2002) reported 13 muscles attached to the tentorium in Spirostreptida, Sphaerotheriida only maintain seven muscles (Fig. 3C). In Sphaerotheriida, the anterior tentorial muscle and the dorsal tentorial muscles originating on the epipharyngeal bar (Fig. 3D), as well as the posterior tentorial muscle and pharyngeal dilator muscles originating from the posterior process (Fig. 3F) correspond to the state in Juliformia (Wilson 2002). The tentorial protractor muscles, however, apparently shifted their position from the transverse bar (as described by Wilson 2002) to the distal part of the epipharyngeal bar. Further differences concern the antennal muscles that arise from the posterior process of the tentorium in Juliformia, but from the epipharyngeal bar in Sphaerotheriida (Fig. 3E). In Sphaerotheriida, contrarily to Juliformia (Silvestri 1903, Manton 1964, Wilson 2002), no mandibular muscles arise from the tentorium. In the Sphaerotheriida all muscles of the mandibular base instead originate from the transverse mandibular tendon and cranial wall, respectively. Among the three gnathochilarial muscles arising from the nebententorium in Juliformia, only two are present in Sphaerotheriida, i.e., the one (g1) inserting on the lamella-mentum, and the one (g2) inserting on the lamellae linguales (Fig. 3G). The muscle extending from the gnathochilarial stipes to the nebententorium is apparently reduced in giant pill-millipedes. This reduction of gnathochilarial muscles is likely due to strong modifications of the gnathochilarium in Sphaerotheriida, which are considered as autapomorphies of this taxon (Wesener 2016).

Despite these differences, the main muscles considered essential for movements of the tentorial complex are present. Manton (1964) states that the movement of the tentorium in Spirostreptida results from the tension of the protractor tentorii (anterior tentorial muscle sensu Wilson 2002, t1) and the depressor tentorii, which correspond to the lamella lingualis muscle (g1) and the lamello-mentum muscle (g2) of Sphaerotheriida.

The differences in the composition of the tentorium and in its muscular equipment might not only be correlated with the absence of the tentorial transverse bar, but also with the presence of a strong condylus on the mandibular gnathal lobes of Sphaerotheriida that unquestionably impacts on the mandibular mechanism. In Juliformia, the connection of the transverse bar to the incisura lateralis is deemed to fix a swing of the tentorium, causing the mandibular gnathal lobe to abduct (Fechter 1961, Manton 1964). In Sphaerotheriida, we propose that abduction of the mandibular gnathal lobes instead is caused by forces exerted from the epipharyngeal bar on the condylus of the gnathal lobes. The shape of the epipharyngeal bar indicates that it interlinks to the notch present on the condylus (Fig. 2A, J) to cause abduction of the gnathal lobe by pushing its condylus into the projection of the incisura lateralis. The theory about this movement is further corroborated by the shape correlation between the shape of the notch and the curvature of the epipharyngeal bar. The curvature of the epipharyngeal bar is more shallow in $A$. brandtii, where the notch forms a larger plateau (Fig. 2A) than in S. kalambatritra, in which the notch of the condylus is more strongly curved (Fig. 2I). The projections of the incisura lateralis and the epipharyngeal bar appear to form an anchor around which the mandibular gnathal lobe rotates during its abduction. According to this interpretation, the tentorial protractor and retractor muscles
likely do no longer cause the tentorium to swing. The modified muscles instead likely serve to stabilise the tentorium in a position enabling the condylus of the gnathal lobe to rotate between the incisura lateralis and the epipharyngeal bar.

## Correlations of the shape of the tentorium with volvation: a comparison with Glomerida

The tentorium of Sphaerotheriida contributes more characters to the list of head modifications that likely correlate with adaptations to volvation (see, e.g., Golovatch 2003, Blanke and Wesener 2014, Tuf et al. 2016). These adaptations include a reduction of the head lumen and coincident size reduction or entire loss of endoskeletal formations (surveyed by Koch 2015). Among Pentazonia, both Sphaerotheriida and Glomerida are able to roll themselves up into a ball, but their tentorium displays different transformations: as inferred from Glomeris marginata, the transverse bar is primarily maintained (e.g., Voges 1916, Dohle 1964), albeit with a remarkably loose connection to the head capsule. However, unlike in Sphaerotheriida, in the Glomerida the posterior process of the tentorium seems to be absent (Koch 2015). Since the posterior process provides the origin of the tentorial retractor muscle ( t 3 ), the loss of the posterior process may indicate that the tentorium in Glomerida is, as in Sphaerotheriida, no longer capable of performing swinging movements. The different modifications of the tentorium, the reduction of the transverse bar in Sphaerotheriida and of the posterior process in Glomerida, corroborate the view that anatomical adaptations to volvation are non-homologous (Sierwald and Bond 2007, their Supplemental Appendix 1), i.e., that volvation evolved convergently in Glomerida and Sphaerotheriida. This view is particularly supported by recent molecular analyses (Regier et al. 2005, Fernández et al. 2016), as well as by characters of the gnathochilarium (Wesener and Van den Spiegel 2009) favouring a sister group relationship between Glomerida and Glomeridesmida over the traditional classification of Glomerida and Sphaerotheriida in the taxon Oniscomorpha. Our ongoing studies focus on a detailed comparison of the cephalic musculature in Glomerida and Glomeridesmida to test the hypothesis of convergent loss of a swinging tentorium in correlation with convergent gain of volvation in Glomerida and Sphaerotheriida.

## The tentorium as a taxonomic character inside Sphaerotheriida

Although the general appearance of the tentorium is conserved within Arthrosphaeridae there are some differences in details. These mainly concern the epipharyngeal bar, with its projections varying in their shape and length (Fig. 2D, F, H). Slight variations in shape are also displayed by the hypopharyngeal bar and the nebententorium (Fig. 2C, E, G). The tentorium of Sphaeromimus (Fig. 2E, F) is more similar to the state in Arthrosphaera (Fig. 2C, D) than in Zoosphaerium (Fig. 2G, H). This corresponds to the interrelationship within Arthrosphaeridae retrieved by Wesener et al.
(2010) from molecular analyses, according to which the Malagasy genus Sphaeromimus is more closely related to the Indian genus Arthrosphaera than to the other Malagasy genera Zoosphaerium and Microsphaerotherium. The structure and shape of the tentorium accordingly might also serve as an informative character not only for phylogenetic reconstructions, but also for taxonomic studies, which can be assessed quite rapidly with high-throughput techniques like $\mu \mathrm{CT}$ and automated 3D-segmentation. However, not investigated yet were the changes in the structure of the tentorium in different life stages of millipedes and intraspecific variations. We recommend that internal characters should more often be considered in taxonomic descriptions.

## Conclusions

The reduction of the transverse bar of the tentorial complex as well as the presence of the mandible condyles in Sphaerotheriida must have an enormous impact on the mandibular abduction, resulting in a probably non-swinging tentorium. The reduction of the transverse bar in Sphaerotheriida is probably correlated to the volvation and suggests a convergent evolution of volvation in the pentazonian orders Sphaerotheriida and Glomerida. In Glomerida the posterior process of the tentorial complex is reduced as an adaptation to volvation. This could furthermore support a previously suggested (Regier et al. 2005, Fernández et al. 2016, Wesener and van den Spiegel 2009) closer relationship between Glomerida and Glomeridesmida. Furthermore the tentorium offers taxonomic characters to distinguish at least genera. Therefore we recommend considering internal characters more often in taxonomic descriptions. Despite its importance as apomorphy, supporting the monophyly of Myriapoda, and its functional role, the tentorial complex is largely understudied and the knowledge on it throughout the Myriapoda is only fragmentary. This study can be seen as first step towards a broader assessment of the tentorial complex in the Diplopoda.

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# Intraspecific variation and phylogeography of the millipede model organism, the Black Pill Millipede Glomeris marginata (Villers, I789) (Diplopoda, Glomerida, Glomeridae) 

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#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

The Black Pill Millipede, Glomeris marginata, is the best studied millipede species and a model organism for Diplopoda. Glomeris marginata is widespread, with numerous colour morphs occurring across its range, especially in the south. This study investigates whether colour morphs might represent cryptic species as well as the haplotype diversity and biogeography of $G$. marginata. The results of the COI barcoding fragment analysis include 97 G . marginata, as well as 21 specimens from seven potentially related species: G. intermedia Latzel, 1884, G. klugii Brandt, 1833 (G. undulata C.L. Koch, 1844), G. connexa Koch, 1847, G. hexasticha Brandt, 1833, G. maerens Attems, 1927, G. annulata Brandt, 1833 and G. apuana Verhoeff, 1911. The majority of the barcoding data was obtained through the German Barcode of Life project (GBOL). Interspecifically, G. marginata is separated from its congeners by a minimum uncorrected genetic distance of 12.9 \%, confirming its monophyly. Uncorrected intraspecific distances of $G$. marginata are comparable to those of other widespread Glomeris species, varying between $0-4.7 \%$, with the largest genetic distances ( $>2.5 \%$ ) found at the Mediterranean coast. 97 sampled specimens of $G$. marginata yielded 47 different haplotypes, with identical haplotypes occurring at large distances from one another, and different haplotypes being present in populations occurring in close


proximity. The highest number of haplotypes was found in the best-sampled area, western Germany. The English haplotype is identical to northern Spain; specimens from southern Spain are closer to French Mediterranean specimens. Analyses (CHAO1) show that approximately 400 different haplotypes can be expected in $G$. marginata. To cover all haplotypes, it is projected that up to 6,000 specimens would need to be sequenced, highlighting the impossibility of covering the whole genetic diversity in barcoding attempts of immobile soil arthropod species.

## Keywords

biogeographic regions, COI, Europe, haplotype analysis, haplotype richness estimation

## Introduction

In recent decades the Black Pill Millipede, G. marginata (Glomerida, Glomeridae) has become a model organism of the Diplopoda. The Black Pill Millipede is morphologically the best studied species of the millipedes (see examples in Koch 2015). Studies include muscle supercontraction (Candia Carnevali and Valvassori 1982), the digestive tract (Schlüter 1980, Martin and Kirkham 1989), the tracheal system (Verhoeff 1895, Wernitzsch 1910, Hilken 1998, Hilken et al. 2015), the Malpighian tubule system (Johnson and Riegel 1977a, 1977b), the postgonopodial glands (JuberthieJupeau 1978) and sensorial system (Sahli 1966, Seifert 1966, Müller and Sombke 2015). Additionally, numerous studies on the chemical composition of the integument of millipedes are based on G. marginata (Ansenne et al. 1990, Compère et al. 1996, Makarov 2015).

After discovering a new chemical compound in G. marginata (Glomerin: Schildknecht et al. 1966), further studies on the defensive secretions of $G$. marginata were conducted by several authors (Meinwald et al. 1966, Schildknecht et al. 1967, Schildknecht and Wenneis 1967, Carrel 1984). For a long time (see Shear et al. 2011) G. marginata was the only animal species known to sequester quinazolinone alkaloids. Glomeris marginata is the only millipede species in which the embryonic and postembryonic development is thoroughly known (Dohle 1964, Juberthie-Jupeau 1967, Enghoff et al. 1993, Janssen 2004, Prpic 2004).

The unusual mating behaviour of pill millipedes (involving the sperm ejaculation on a piece of soil before the transfer to the female) was studied extensively in the Black Pill Millipede (e.g., Haacker 1964). The ecology of the species was also the subject of numerous studies (for single aspects e.g., Nicholson et al. 1966, Van der Drift 1975, David and Gillon 2002, Rawlins et al. 2006; for the role in species communities e.g., Dunger and Steinmetzger 1981 and Voigtländer 2011). The Black Pill Millipede was also the first myriapod species in which the pheromone producing postgonopodial glands were studied (Juberthie-Jupeau 1976).

Glomeris marginata is commonly included in arthropod phylogenetic analyses (e.g., Regier 2001, 2005). The Black Pill Millipede is the only species of the Diplopoda in
which gene expressions of different genes, including Hox genes, were widely researched (e.g., Prpic and Tautz 2003, Prpic 2005, Prpic et al. 2005, Janssen et al. 2006, Janssen and Damen 2006). Recently, the embryonic expression of Wnt genes was studied for the first time in myriapods (Janssen and Posnien 2014) in this species. Additionally, the embryonic development, especially the embryonic development of the segmentation inside the Myriapoda, is currently nowhere as well known as in G. marginata (Enghoff et al. 1993, Janssen 2011, 2013, Fusco and Minelli 2013, Minelli and Fusco 2013, Minelli 2015). The same applies to the neurogenesis (Dove 2003).

Despite the high importance of $G$. marginata for general studies of millipedes, and arthropod segmentation patterns in general, little to no taxonomic studies or population genetic studies of the species were conducted in recent decades. Recent genetic studies in congeneric pill millipedes allowed the detection of several synonymies as well as cryptic species, and clarified the taxonomic status of several Glomeris species (Hoess and Scholl 1999, 2001, Wesener 2015a, 2015b, Conrad and Wesener 2016).

The lack of taxonomic studies in G. marginata is even more surprising considering the unusual wide distribution of the species (Kime and Enghoff 2011). Glomeris marginata is the only pill millipede reaching northern Europe. Its southernmost distribution is the south-eastern part of Spain alongside the southern border of the Pyrenees. The area of distribution of G. marginata covers France, England/Wales and Ireland, the whole of Germany except southern Bavaria and Saxony and extends north through Denmark to southern Sweden/Norway (Hoess 1999, Kime and Enghoff 2011: p. 104). Glomeris marginata is the most common pill millipede species in Germany (Reip et al. 2016).

While adult $G$. marginata normally can be easily distinguished from their congeners by their shiny completely black-brown colour with brightly coloured creamywhite tergal margins (see Schubart 1934: 32, Hoess 2000, Figure 1A), several unusual specimens (grey or reddish, with prominent white marks, or with orange or reddish margins, see Figures 1B-E, 2A, B), currently interpreted as colour morphs, are often encountered. Such unusual specimens resemble other species of the genus, such as G. intermedia Latzel, 1884 (Figure 2B, C), which shares a similar, but more western, distribution pattern than G. marginata, or G. annulata Koch, 1847 (Figure 2D), a local endemic in southern France (Hoess 2000, Kime and Enghoff 2011). Two other local endemic species, G. apuana Verhoeff, 1911 (see Wesener 2015b) and G. maerens Attems, 1927 (Figures 2E-G) not only occur in areas directly bordering the known distribution of $G$. marginata, but also show a similar colour pattern. Furthermore, the species G. klugii Brandt, 1833 / G. undulata C.L. Koch, 1844 and G. connexa Koch, 1847 sometimes also appear in dark-brown colour forms.

In this work, it is tested whether G. marginata and its different colour variants form a monophyletic taxon based on barcoding mt-DNA COI data. The phylogeographic relationship and the possible origin of the species are also ascertained. Finally, the relationship of the Black Pill Millipede to the other, similar coloured congeneric species, G. annulata, G. apuana, and G. maerens is clarified.


Figure I. Glomeris marginata (Villers, 1789) colour morphs. A main coloration form, center immature specimens showing the perplexa colour pattern; Germany, Landskrone B strongly lightened adult perplexa pattern, France, Pays de la Loire $\mathbf{C}$ red mutant, Germany, Bonn $\mathbf{D}$ strongly red-banded form, from France, Montauroux E more weakly red-brown banded from, France, same population as D. A, D, E photographed by Jan Philip Oeyen B by ZFMK C by Dennis Rödder.


Figure 2. A G. marginata, brown and black form occurring in sympatry, Germany, Rügen, 2016. B-G Similar coloured species of Glomeris analyzed in this study B G. marginata, with a single specimen of G. intermedia in the upper left part, Germany, Landskrone, 2015 C G. intermedia Latzel, 1884, with sympatric G. marginata, Germany, Landskrone, 2015 D G. annulata Brandt, 1833, France, Gard, Courry, 2015 E G. cf. lugubris Attems, 1952, Spain, Cádiz/ Sierra de Grazalema, 2008, preserved specimenF G. cf. maerens Attems, 1927, Spain, Aragón/Teruel, 2010, preserved specimen G G. maerens, Spain, Tarragona/Montsià, 2017; B-D photographed by Jan Philip Oeyen.

## Material and methods

## Selection of specimens

Based on the project German Barcoding of Life (GBOL, http://www.bolgermany.de), 80 specimens of $G$. marginata from different locations were selected from the collection of the ZFMK (Zoologisches Forschungsmuseum Alexander Koenig, Bonn, Germany). All specimens of G. annulata, G. apuana and the $G$. maerens species-group came from the collection of the ZFMK, while the two specimens of $G$. hexasticha were collected by the first author. Six additional COI-sequences of $G$. marginata were obtained from former projects of the authors (see Spelda et al. 2011 and Wesener et al. 2010). These sequences are available from GenBank (see Table 1 for accession numbers). Also, the COI-sequences of the outgroup species $G$. intermedia, G. klugiil undulata, and $G$. connexa were obtained from the work of Spelda et al. (2011). An additional 11 French COI-sequences of $G$. marginata were available in BOLD (downloadable at the Public Data Portal, http://www.boldsystem.org, see Table 1 for BOLDnumbers) by end of November 2015. In total 97 COI-sequences of $G$. marginata and 21 of the seven outgroup species were obtained for this study ( 93 newly sequenced, 14 from GenBank and 11 from BOLD).

The specimens of $G$. marginata were collected from a major part of the distribution region in NW Europe, covering the region from NE Spain to northern Germany (Figure 3). Material from the north-eastern part of the range (Denmark-Sweden-Norway) was not available. For the different analyses, two datasets were created, one which contained the 97 G. marginata sequences only, and a second one combining the $G$. marginata sequences with the 21 outgroup specimens.

## DNA extraction, PCR, and sequencing

From the analysed specimens, genomic mtDNA (the barcoding region of COI) was extracted from muscle tissue applying a standard extraction protocol (see e.g., Wesener et al. 2015) at the ZFMK. Also, the PCR and sequencing protocols were identical to those used in a previous work (Wesener et al. 2015). All specimens and the aliquots of the DNA extractions were deposited in the collection of the ZFMK. All new sequences (80 G. marginata, two G. annulata, and nine $G$. maerens sp. as Glomeris sp.) were deposited in GenBank (see Table 1 for accession numbers).

## Aligning and control

Sequences were aligned by hand in BIOEDIT (Hall 1999), version 7.2.5 (for final data set see Suppl. material S1). To rule out the accidental amplification of nuclear copies of the mitochondrial COI gene, the whole dataset was translated into amino


Figure 3. Distribution map of all successfully sequenced samples of $G$. marginata (blue dots). Base map: Shuttle Radar Topography Mission elevation data of the Deutsche Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt (SRTM-3), accessed with GLOBALMAPPER v17.
acids following the 'invertebrate' code in MEGA 7 (Tamura et al. 2013); internal stop codons were absent in our dataset. There were in total 657 positions in the final dataset, gaps were absent. Voucher specimens and aliquots of the DNA extractions were stored in natural history collections and are available for each analysed sequence (see Table 1).

Table I. Analysed specimens, voucher and Genbank code, collection locality and bioregion (see Table 2).

| SpecimenID | Voucher \# | GenBank \# |  |  |  | Lat./Lon. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | BioRegion


| SpecimenID | Voucher \# | GenBank \# |  | Lat./Lon. | BioRegion |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar. 24 | ZFMK19048 | MG892140 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bonn, Röttgen | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.672, } \\ \text { E7.047 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 25 | ZFMK19049 | MG892141 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Wuppertal, NSG Im Hölken | $\begin{gathered} \text { N51.291, } \\ \text { E7.252 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 26 | ZFMK19051 | MG892142 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, Ahrweiler, Heppingen | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.551, \\ \text { E7.172 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 27 | ZFMK19054 | MG892143 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, Niederzissen, Bausenberg | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.465, } \\ \text { E7.223 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 28 | ZFMK19057 | MG892144 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Hagen-Holthausen | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 51.361, \\ \text { E7.550 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 29 | ZFMK19539 | MG892147 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Heimbach, Meuchelberg | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.632, } \\ \text { E6.473 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 30 | ZFMK19550 | MG892148 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Neunkirchen, Hellerberg | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.780, } \\ \text { E8.009 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 31 | ZFMK19555 | MG892149 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Neunkirchen, Hellerberg | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.780, } \\ \text { E8.009 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 32 | ZFMK19558 | MG892150 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, Altenkirchen, Giesenhausen | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.709, \\ \text { E7.713 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 33 | ZFMK19560 | MG892151 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, Altenkirchen, Giesenhausen | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.709 \\ \text { E7.713 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 34 | ZFMK19561 | MG892152 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, Altenkirchen, Giesenhausen | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.709, \\ \text { E7.713 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 35 | ZFMK2516208 | MG892156 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bad Honnef, Kasselbachtal | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.625, \\ \text { E7.194 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 36 | ZFMK2516209 | MG892157 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bad Honnef, Kasselbachtal | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 50.625, \\ \text { E7.194 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 37 | ZFMK2557907 | MG892181 | Germany, Hessen, Eschwege, Wanfried | $\begin{gathered} \text { N51.182, } \\ \text { E10.221 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 38 | ZFMK2557908 | MG892182 | Germany, Hessen, Eschwege, Wanfried | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 51.182, \\ \mathrm{E} 10.221 \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar. 39 | ZFMK100409283 | MG892116 | Germany, Schleswig-Holstein, Segeberg, Bockhorn | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 53.919, \\ \text { E10.098 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 40 | ZFMK2538190 | MG892171 | Germany, Schleswig-Holstein, Weissenhaus | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 54.303, \\ \mathrm{E} 10.756 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 41 | ZFMK2538253 | MG892172 | Germany, Brandenburg, Pfingstberg, Schorfheide | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 53.124, \\ \mathrm{E} 13.884 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 42 | ZFMK2553394 | MG892177 | Germany, MecklenburgVorpommern, Schwerin, Schweriner Innensee | $\begin{gathered} \text { N53.653, } \\ \text { E11.437 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 43 | ZFMK2553395 | MG892178 | Germany, MecklenburgVorpommern, Schwerin, Schweriner Innensee | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 53.653, \\ \mathrm{E} 11.437 \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 44 | ZFMK2553405 | MG892179 | Germany, Brandenburg, Pritzwalk, Putlitz | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 53.279, \\ \mathrm{E} 12.077 \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTO |
| G.mar. 45 | ZFMK100409272 | MG892114 | Germany, Niedersachsen, SoltauFallingbostel, Hebenbrock | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 52.960, \\ \text { E9.893 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTW |
| G.mar. 46 | ZFMK19472 | MG892145 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bochum, Botanical Garden | $\begin{gathered} \text { N51.442, } \\ \text { E7.267 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.NDTW |


| SpecimenID | Voucher \# | GenBank \# |  | Lat./Lon. | BioRegion |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar. 47 | ZFMK100409123 | MG892113 | Germany, Bayern, Main-Spessart, Karlstadt | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.983, \\ \text { E9.768 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.SSL |
| G.mar. 48 | ZFMK100409296 | MG892117 | Germany, Bayern, Würzburg, Erlabrunn | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.864, \\ \text { E9.857 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.SSL |
| G.mar. 49 | ZFMK1861 | MG892120 | Spain, La Rioja, Navarrete | $\begin{gathered} \text { N42.430, } \\ \text { W2.562 } \end{gathered}$ | ES.CC |
| G.mar. 50 | ZFMK1863 | MG892121 | Spain, Navarra, Etxalar | $\begin{gathered} \text { N43.234, } \\ \text { W1.638 } \end{gathered}$ | ES.CC |
| G.mar. 51 | ZFMK1893 | MG892122 | Spain, Navarra, Etxalar | $\begin{gathered} \text { N43.234, } \\ \text { W1.638 } \end{gathered}$ | ES.CC |
| G.mar. 52 | ZFMK2517202 | MG892159 | Spain, Cataluña, Tarragona, Farena | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 41.315, \\ \mathrm{E} 1.104 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | ES.PYRS |
| G.mar. 53 | BGI12GEU183 | MG892183 | France, Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes, Isere, Grenoble | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 45.273, \\ \mathrm{E} 5.766 \end{gathered}$ | FR.ALP |
| G.mar. 54 | ZFMK2517217 | MG892168 | France, Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes, Isere, Oisans | $\begin{gathered} \text { N45.071, } \\ \text { E6.008 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ALP |
| G.mar. 55 | ZFMK2553457 | MG892180 | France, Pays de la Loire, Mayenne, Saint-Pierre-sur-Orthe | $\begin{gathered} \text { N48.201, } \\ \text { E0.171 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 56 | ZFMKTW163 | MG931019 | France, Pays de la Loire, Mayenne, Saint-Martin-deConnée | $\begin{gathered} \text { N48.230, } \\ \text { W0.242 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 57 | ZFMKTW164 | MG931020 | France, Centre-Val de Loire, Chinon, Rigny-Ussé | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.261, } \\ \text { E0.326 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 58 | ZFMK100410157 | MG892118 | France, Alsace, Haut-Rhin, Col du Hundsruck, Thann | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.812, } \\ \text { E7.065 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 59 | ZFMK18996 | MG931021 | Luxemburg, , Schengen | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.461, } \\ \text { E6.364 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 60 | ZFMK2517315 | MG892169 | France, Bourgogne-FrancheComté, Luxeuil-les-Bains | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.859, } \\ \text { E6.404 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 61 | ZFMK2517322 | MG8921701 | France, Elsas, Ballons des Vosges, Faucogney-et-la-Mer | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.839, } \\ \text { E6.667 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 62 | ZFMKTW161 | MG892184 | France, Elsas, Ballons des Vosges, Faucogney-et-la-Mer | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.839, } \\ \text { E6.667 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 63 | ZFMKTW162 | MG892185 | France, Elsas, Ballon d'Alcas, Sewen | $\begin{gathered} \text { N47.817, } \\ \text { E6.874 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONN |
| G.mar. 64 | ZFMK2517209 | MG892160 | France, Haute-Vienne-CorrèzeCreuse, Limousin, Correze | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 45.235, \\ \mathrm{E} 1.545 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.CONS |
| G.mar. 65 | ZFMK18977 | MG892125 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte d’Azur, Bédoin, Vaucluse | $\begin{gathered} \text { N44.114, } \\ \text { E5.241 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |
| G.mar. 66 | ZFMK19021 | MG892131 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Bédoin, Vaucluse | $\begin{gathered} \text { N44.114, } \\ \text { E5.241 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |
| G.mar. 67 | ZFMK19037 | MG892134 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Bédoin, Vaucluse | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { N44.114, } \\ \text { E5.241 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |
| G.mar. 68 | ZFMK2516203 | MG892155 | France, Rhône-Alpes, Drôme, La Bégude-de-Mazenc | $\begin{gathered} \text { N44.551, } \\ \text { E4.949 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |
| G.mar. 69 | ZFMK2517213 | MG892164 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Var | $\begin{gathered} \text { N43.494, } \\ \text { E5.521 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |
| G.mar. 70 | ZFMK2517214 | MG892165 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Var | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 43.464, \\ \text { E5.800 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.MED |


| SpecimenID | Voucher \# | GenBank \# |  | Lat./Lon. | BioRegion |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar.71 | ZFMK2517215 | MG892166 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte <br> d'Azur, Pierrefeu | N43.232, <br> E6.234 | FR.MED |
| G.mar.72 | ZFMK2517216 | MG892167 | France, Provence-Alpes-Côte <br> d'Azur, Lantosque | N43.974, <br> E7.311 | FR.MED |
| G.mar.73 | ZFMKTW102 | MG892186 | France, Languedoc-Roussillon- <br> Midi-Pyrénées, Courry | N44.297, <br> E4.152 | FR.MED |
| G.mar.74 | ZFMKTW165 | MG892187 | France, Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Var, <br> Montauroux, Fondurane | N43.589, <br> E6775 | FR.MED |
| G.mar.75 | ZFMKTW166 | MG892188 | France, Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Var, <br> Montauroux, Fondurane | N43.589, <br> E6775 | FR.MED |
| G.mar.76 | ZFMK2517199 | MG931022 | Spain, Pirineos, Le Grau | N42.412, <br> E2.566 | FR.PYRN |
| G.mar.77 | ZFMK2517210 | MG892161 | France, Languedoc-Roussillon- <br> Midi-Pyrénée, Ariege, Bas- <br> Couserans | N42.997, <br> E1.010 | FR.PYRN |
| G.mar.78 | ZFMK2517211 | MG892162 | France, Languedoc-Roussillon- <br> Midi-Pyrénées, La Vallée de la <br> Barousse | N43.017, <br> E0.480 | FR.PYRN |
| G.mar.79 | ZFMK2517212 | MG892163 | France, Languedoc-Roussillon- <br> Midi-Pyrénées, Le Canigou | N42.375, <br> E2.456 | FR.PYRN |
| G.mar.80 | ZFMK19038 | MG892135 | Great Britain, England, <br> Buckinghamshire | N51.750, <br> W0.750 | GB.EM |


| Sequences from BOLD |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar. 81 | BOLDECHUB974 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Rouen, Foret verte | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.500, } \\ \text { E1.100 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 82 | BOLDECHUB975 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Rouen, Foret verte | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.500, } \\ \text { E1.100 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 83 | BOLDECHUB978 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Rouen, Foret verte | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.500, } \\ \text { E1.100 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 84 | BOLDECHUB979 |  | France, Haute Normandie, SeineMaritime, Rouen, Foret verte | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.500, } \\ \text { E1.100 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 85 | BOLDGENHP020 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.434, } \\ \text { E0.714 } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 86 | BOLDGENHP021 |  | France, Haute Normandie, SeineMaritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.434, } \\ \text { E0.714 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 87 | BOLDGENHP022 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.434, \\ \mathrm{E} 0.714 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 88 | BOLDGENHP023 |  | France, Haute Normandie, SeineMaritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \text { N49.434, } \\ \text { E0.714 } \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 89 | BOLDGENHP024 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.434, \\ \mathrm{E} 0.714 \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 90 | BOLDGENHP025 |  | France, Haute Normandie, SeineMaritime, Foret de Brotonne | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.434, \\ \mathrm{E} 0.714 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| G.mar. 91 | BOLDGENHP317 |  | France, Haute Normandie, Seine- <br> Maritime, Foret Henouville | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{N} 49.480, \\ \mathrm{E} 0.954 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | FR.ATLN |
| Sequences from GenBank |  |  |  |  |  |
| G.mar. 92 |  | FJ409909 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Bonn, Venusberg | $\begin{gathered} \text { N50.692, } \\ \text { E7.100 } \end{gathered}$ | DE.MGSW |


| SpecimenID | Voucher \# | GenBank \# |  | Lat./Lon. | BioRegion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar.93 |  | HM888107 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, <br> Rheinbreitbach | N50.619, <br> E7.254 | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar.94 |  | HM888108 | Germany, Nordrhein-Westfalen, <br> Bad Münstereifel | N50.560, <br> E6.808 | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar.95 |  | HM888109 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, <br> Rheinbreitbach | N50.619, <br> E7.254 | DE.MGSW |
| G.mar.96 |  | HQ966136 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, <br> Neustadt an der Weinstraße, <br> Klausental | N49.392, <br> E8.158 | DE.SSL |
| G.mar.97 |  | JQ350444 | Spain, Navarra, Sierra De Urbasa | N42.830, <br> W2.100 | ES.CC |


| Outgroup species/specimens |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Glomeris intermedia |  |  |  |  |  |
| G.int.1 | see Spelda et al. 2011 | HM888099 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, <br> Neuwied |  |  |
| G.int.2 |  | HQ966138 | Germany, Rheinland-Pfalz, <br> Neustadt |  |  |

## Glomeris klugii

| G.und.1 | see Spelda et al. 2011 | HM888106 | Germany, Bayern, Lindau |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.und.2 |  | HQ966135 | Germany, Bayern, Solnhofen |  |  |


| Glomeris connexa |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| G.con.1 | see Spelda et al. 2011 | HM888096 | Germany, Bavaria, Andechs |  |  |
| G.con.2 |  | JN271879 | Italy, Lombardia, Sondrio |  |  |

## Glomeris hexasticha

| G.hex.1 | ZFMK2542473 | MG931024 | Germany, Thüringen, Hermsdorf |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| G.hex.2 | ZFMK19526 | MG931023 | Germany, Bayern, Neumarkt |  |  |

Glomeris maerens species group

| G.mae.1 | ZFMK2517198 | MG892103 | Spain, Valencia, Pego |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mae.2 | ZFMK2517200 | MG892104 | Spain, Castellon, l'Alcora |  |  |
| G.mae.3 | ZFMK2517201 | MG892105 | Spain, Tarragona, Vandellos |  |  |
| G.mae.4 | ZFMK2517203 | MG892106 | Spain, Tarragona, Llaberia |  |  |
| G.mae.5 | ZFMK2517204 | MG892107 | Spain, Castellon, l'Alcora |  |  |
| G.mae.6 | ZFMK2517205 | MG892108 | Spain, Valencia, Pego |  |  |
| G.mae.7 | ZFMK2517206 | MG892109 | Spain, Tarragona, Reus, La Riba |  |  |
| G.mae.8 | ZFMK2517207 | MG892110 | Spain, Castellon, Atzeneta del <br> Maestrat |  |  |
| G.mae.9 | ZFMK2517208 | MG892111 | Spain, Barcelona, Castellet, El <br> Vendrell |  |  |

## Glomeris annulata

| G.ann.1 | ZFMKTW100 | MG892190 | France, Gard, Courry, 280-300 m |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| G.ann.2 | ZFMKTW101 | MG892189 | France, Gard, Courry, 280-300 m |  |  |


| Glomeris apuana |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.apu.1 | ZFMKMYR752 | KT188943 | Italy, Liguria, Cinque Terre | see Wesener <br> 2015 |  |  |
| G.apu.2 | ZFMKMYR753 | KT188944 | Italy, Liguria, Cinque Terre |  |  |  |

## Assignment to biogeographic regions

All specimens of $G$. marginata were assigned to a biogeographic region of the main sub-country level (bioregion) (see Table 1, column BioRegion and Table 2). The structuring of the specimens with their origin in Germany is based on the official map of natural regions of Germany, the "Großregionen", $1^{\text {st }}$ level (Meynen and Schmithüsen 1953-1962, see also "Naturräumliche Großregionen Deutschlands" at http://de.wikipedia.org). Due to their disproportionately large size, the regions "Norddeutsches Tiefland" and "Mittelgebirgsschwelle" are additionally each divided into a western and eastern part according to Figure 4. The structuring of the specimens with their origin in France is based on the "régions biogéographiques pour l'évaluation de l'état de conservation en France" (see http://inpn.mnhn.fr/programme/ rapportage-directives-nature/presentation). Additionally, the regions "France Atlantique" and "France Continentale" - due to their size - are each divided into a northern and southern part as shown in Figure 5. The ecological region "France alpine" is geographically divided into France Alps and France Pyrenees. The single specimen from Great Britain is located in southern England. For Spain, we used the regions of southern Pyrenees and the Cantabrian Mountains. In total 14 biogeographic regions were assigned in four countries (see Table 2).

Table 2. Biogeographic regions (bioregions) and their code.

| Region code | Region |
| :--- | :---: |
| Germany |  |
| DE.NDTW | "Norddeutsches Tiefland" western part, Norddeutsche Geest west of river Elbe |
| DE.NDTO | "Norddeutsches Tiefland" eastern part, east of river Elbe |
| DE.MGSW | "Mittelgebirgsschwelle", western part, Niedersächsisch-Hessisches Bergland, |
| Rheinisches Schiefergebirge, Kölner Bucht |  |



Figure 4. Modified biogeographic regions of Germany, based on Naturräumliche Großregionen of Germany, Meynen and Schmithüsen (1953-1962) and http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/ File:Deutschland_Naturraeumliche_Grossregionen.png

## Phylogenetic and distance analysis

Analyses were conducted in MEGA 7 (Kumar et al. 2015). The uncorrected pairwise distances (p-distances) were calculated with all codon positions included. Ambiguous positions were removed for each sequence pair. The distance matrix was exported to


Figure 5. Modified biogeographic regions of France, based on http://inpn.mnhn.fr/programme/ rapportage-directives-nature/presentation.

MICROSOFT EXCEL for further calculations of minimum interspecific and maximum intraspecific distances (see Suppl. material S2).

A model test, as implemented in MEGA 7, was performed to find the best fitting maximum likelihood substitution model for the complete sequence set. The model with the lowest AICc value (Akaike Information Criterion, corrected) are considered to describe the best substitution pattern. Codon positions included were $1^{\text {st }}+2^{\text {nd }}+$ $3^{\text {rd }}$. The model test selected the General Time Reversible model (Tavaré 1986) with gamma distribution and invariant sites $(\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I})$ as the best fitting model (AIC: 7988, lnL: -3750).

The evolutionary history was inferred by using the maximum likelihood method based on the selected GTR $+\mathrm{G}+\mathrm{I}$ model. Initial tree(s) for the heuristic search were obtained automatically by applying $\mathrm{NJ} / \mathrm{BioNJ}$ algorithms to a matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite Likelihood (MCL) approach, and
then selecting the topology with superior log likelihood value. The discrete gamma distribution was used with five categories to model evolutionary rate differences among sites. The analysis involved the complete sequence set ( $G$. marginata + outgroup species). Codon positions included were "1st+2nd+3rd" (Missing Data: partial deletion). The bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 1,000 replicates (Felsenstein 1985) is taken to represent the evolutionary history of the analysed taxa. Trees were built with FIGTREE 1.4.2 and drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site.

## Spatial relationship

Besides the genetic p-distances (see above) for all G. marginata specimen pairs (4656 pairs) the geographical distances were calculated based on the more exact method of calculation, the Euclidean geometry:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { distance }= & \arccos \left(\sin \left(\operatorname{Lat} 1 * \frac{\pi}{180}\right) * \sin \left(\operatorname{Lat} 2 * \frac{\pi}{180}\right)+\cos \left(\operatorname{Lat} 1 * \frac{\pi}{180}\right) *\right. \\
& \left.\cos \left(\operatorname{Lat} 2 * \frac{\pi}{180}\right) * \cos \left(\operatorname{Lon} 2 * \frac{\pi}{180}-\operatorname{Lon} 1 * \frac{\pi}{180}\right)\right) * \text { er }
\end{aligned}
$$

The earth's radius (= er) in central Europe is $6,367 \mathrm{~km}$. Lat1 and Lon1 are the latitude and longitude of the location of specimen 1, Lat2 and Lon2 those of specimen 2. For the full dataset see Suppl. material S3. A chart was plotted to show the relationship between the genetic and geographical distance.

## Haplotype analysis

A haplotype analysis was conducted with DNASP (Librado and Rozas 2009) by assigning the genetic code to "mtDNA Drosophila" for invertebrates. The G. marginata sequences were grouped to haplotypes (DNASP / Generate / HaploType Data File, excluding sites with missing data). The haplotypes were marked by geography.

In a second run the sequences were grouped again by considering only non-synonymous changes. In this second step all synonymous changes were discarded. For this an interim sequence set with only non-synonymous changes was created (DNASP / Generate / Polymorphic Data File / "only Non-synonymous") and afterwards the Haplotype file was built. Because of the unequal sampling with a bias to the German fauna within the GBOL-project, no comparative population analysis was possible.

The previous first haplotype data file was used as a basis for a TCS Networks analysis (Clement et al. 2002). A TCS-network was created with the software POPART (Leigh 2015). For this a frequency matrix of haplotypes to bioregions was created in MICROSOFT EXCEL and according the software manual transformed to the POP-ART-nexus format (see Suppl. material S4).

## Haplotype richness estimation

The potential number of haplotypes for the complete distribution area was estimated with ESTIMATES 9.1.0 (Colwell 2013). For this, the CHAO1-estimator (Chao 1984) based on the haplotype distribution (instead of a species distribution) was calculated (for the underlying data file see Suppl. Material S5). Together with the ACE-index the CHAO1-estimator is the main estimator for individually based abundance data (Gotelli and Colwell 2010). It is based on the number of all OTUs (operational taxonomic units, in this study the haplotypes) with one sequence in relation to the number of all OTUs with two sequences. With 10,000 randomized runs the haplotype accumulation curve (rarefaction curve) and the $95 \%$ lower and upper boundaries of confidence intervals were calculated and additionally also their extrapolation curves (formulas in detail see Colwell et al. 2012).

## Results

## Phylogenetic relationship of G. marginata with similar species

The minimum interspecific distance of $G$. marginata to other Glomeris species ranges from 12.9-15.9 \% (see Table 3). There is a clear barcoding gap between the maximum intraspecific distance ( $5.0 \%$ ) and the minimum interspecific distance ( $12.9 \%$ ) (see also Figure 6). Glomeris connexa and the $G$. maerens species-group are closest to G. marginata. The separation of the outgroup species to $G$. marginata is clearly visible in the graphical mapping of the phylogenetic analyses (see Figure 7). The G. marginata specimens, together with $G$. connexa, G. apuana, and the $G$. maerens-group, form a distinct clade separate from the other species. The other four species ( $G$. bexasticha, G. klugii/undulata, $G$. intermedia, and $G$. annulata) form a single clade. Statistical support for both clades is rather low, not exceeding $82 \%$.

The specimens of the $G$. maerens species-group cluster together with a minimum interspecific distance ( $10.5 \%$ ) to the other species, but the $G$. maerens specimens fall into three clades with a maximum intraspecific distance of up to $9.1 \%$ (see Figure 7).

Table 3. Minimum p-distance of $G$. marginata to other species.

| Species | Min. p-distance to G. marginata |
| :--- | :---: |
| Glomeris connexa | $12.9 \%$ |
| Glomeris maerens-group | $13.1 \%$ |
| Glomeris klugii/undulata | $13.4 \%$ |
| Glomeris apuana | $14.2 \%$ |
| Glomeris intermedia | $14.8 \%$ |
| Glomeris hexasticha | $14.9 \%$ |
| Glomeris annulata | $15.9 \%$ |



Figure 6. Distribution of nucleotide differences in $\%$ between specimen pairs of Glomeris marginata and to outgroup specimens.


Figure 7. Molecular phylogenetic analysis of Glomeris species by the maximum likelihood method. Midpoint rooted. Bootstrap values in \% at nodes. All collapsed nodes have a bootstrap value of $100 \%$. Scale bar: 10 \% genetic ML distance.

## Intraspecific variation of G. marginata

All 97 specimens of G. marginata form a well-supported clade (bootstrap value $100 \%$, not shown in Figure 7). The 97 specimens of $G$. marginata have a maximum intraspecific distance of $5.0 \%$. The intraspecific distance chart (Figure 6, blue bars) shows three peaks (at: $0 \%, 0.9 \%$ and $3.0 \%$ ) within the p -distances of the $G$. marginata specimens; within the range every p-distance value is present. There is no gap in the distribution of the p -distance values.

## Geographical relationship of G. marginata specimens

The specimens from northern Germany and eastern France show the lowest genetic distance ( $\approx 1 \%$ ) to the rest of all samples. The specimens from western and southern France show the highest median distance ( $\approx 3-4 \%$ ) to those of other populations (see Table 4 and Suppl. Material S2).

The maximum and the mean p -distance of $G$. marginata within the north-eastern part of the distribution ( $\approx 4 \%$ or $\approx 1 \%$, respectively) is lower than in the southwestern part ( $\approx 5 \%$ or $\approx 3-4 \%$, respectively). Specimens from Mediterranean France group most distantly from the rest, with a maximum p-distance of $5.0 \%$.

The plot of the genetic p-distance to the geographical distances of all samples (4,656 possible pairs) shows no distinct relationship between both values (see Figure 8). There is a small and negligible trend of $+0.00001 \%$ p-distance/km-distance. The coefficient of determination $\mathrm{R}^{2}$ with $\approx 0.1$ is extremely low. For example, two specimens collected only 43 km apart ( 77 to 78 , see Figure 8: green circle and Table 5) show a genetic pdistance of $3.8 \%$, while contrarily two specimens with a geographical distance of more than $1,000 \mathrm{~km}$ ( 43 to 54, see Figure 8, grey circle and Table 5) belong to an identical haplotype ( $0 \%$ p-distance). The geographically most distant analysed specimens ( 41 to 49, Figure 8: red circle) show a p-distance of $2.1 \%$.

## Haplotypes/regions

Within the 657 sites of the 97 sequences of $G$. marginata, 74 were polymorphic which resulted from a total number of 81 mutations. The total number of synonymous changes is 71 and the total number of replacement changes is six. In the haplotype analysis, within the 97 samples, 47 haplotypes were detected, with 79 polymorphic sites. Haplotype diversity is 0.93 , nucleotide diversity Pi is 0.017 .

38 haplotypes ( $81 \%$ of all haplotypes) consist of only one specimen ( $\widehat{\wedge} 38$ specimens $\hat{=} 39 \%$ of all specimens) and 42 haplotypes ( $89 \%$ of all haplotypes) represents only specimens from one bioregion ( $\widehat{\wedge} 48$ specimens $\hat{=} 49 \%$ of all specimens). Nine haplotypes are represented in our dataset with two or more specimens ( $\wedge 59$ specimens $\hat{=} 61 \%$ of all specimens).

Table 4. The 10 specimens with smallest and greatest median p-distance to the rest of samples.

|  |  | p-Distance |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SpecimenID | BioRegion | Median | Max | Mean |
| G.mar.40 | DE.NDTO | $0.6 \%$ | $3.5 \%$ | $1.2 \%$ |
| G.mar.17 | DE.MGSW | $0.9 \%$ | $4.0 \%$ | $1.3 \%$ |
| G.mar.58 | FR.CON | $0.9 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.59 | FR.CON | $0.9 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.61 | FR.CON | $0.9 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.95 | DE.MGSW | $0.9 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.04 | DE.MGSO | $1.1 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.05 | DE.MGSO | $1.1 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.06 | DE.MGSO | $1.1 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.07 | DE.MGSO | $1.1 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ | $1.4 \%$ |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| G.mar.85 | FR.ATLN | $3.2 \%$ | $4.9 \%$ | $2.8 \%$ |
| G.mar.86 | FR.ATLN | $3.2 \%$ | $4.9 \%$ | $2.8 \%$ |
| G.mar.68 | FR.MED | $3.3 \%$ | $4.7 \%$ | $3.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.65 | FR.MED | $3.5 \%$ | $4.6 \%$ | $3.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.66 | FR.MED | $3.5 \%$ | $4.6 \%$ | $3.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.67 | FR.MED | $3.5 \%$ | $4.6 \%$ | $3.4 \%$ |
| G.mar.79 | FR.PYRN | $3.8 \%$ | $4.9 \%$ | $3.7 \%$ |
| G.mar.77 | FR.PYRN | $3.8 \%$ | $4.6 \%$ | $3.8 \%$ |
| G.mar.76 | FR.PYRN | $4.0 \%$ | $5.0 \%$ | $3.9 \%$ |
| G.mar.71 | FR.MED | $4.0 \%$ | $5.0 \%$ | $3.9 \%$ |

Table 5. Examples of specimen pairs with small and great ratio of p-distance (p-dist.) to geographical distance (geo-dist in km ). Green marked: specimen pairs with exceptionally high p-dist. but low geo-dist. (representative for dots of upper-left side of Figure 8: green box). Light-blue marked: specimens of the same location with the highest p-dist (Figure 8: blue circle). Orange marked: specimen pair with exceptionally low p-dist. but high geo-dist. (representative for dots of lower-right side of Figure 8: red circle). Grey-blue marked: most distant specimen pair with identical haplotype (Figure 8: grey circle).

| SpecimenID | SpecimenID | geo-dist | p-dist | p-dist./geo-dist. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G.mar. 71 (FR.MED) | G.mar.79 (FR.PYRN) | 322 | $4.9 \%$ | 0.000151 |
| G.mar. 77 (FR.PYRN) | G.mar. 78 (FR.PYRN) | 43 | $3.8 \%$ | 0.000883 |
| G.mar. 26 (DE.MGSW) | G.mar. 93 (DE.MGSW) | 9 | $3.0 \%$ | 0.003204 |
| G.mar. 26 (DE.MGSW) | G.mar.36 (DE.MGSW) | 8 | $2.9 \%$ | 0.003486 |
| G.mar.30 (DE.MGSW) | G.mar.31 (DE.MGSW) | 0 | $1,8 \%$ | - |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| G.mar.57 (FR.ATLN) | G.mar.74 (FR.MED) | 647 | $0.2 \%$ | 0.000002 |
| G.mar.01 (DE.MGSO) | G.mar.54 (FR.ALP) | 820 | $0.2 \%$ | 0.000002 |
| G.mar.44 (DE.NDTO) | G.mar. 84 (FR.ATLN) | 868 | $0.0 \%$ | - |
| G.mar.43 (DE.NDTO) | G.mar.54 (FR.ALP) | 1031 | $0.0 \%$ | - |
| G.mar.40 (DE.NDTO) | G.mar.52 (ES.PYRS) | 1610 | $0.6 \%$ | 0.000004 |



Figure 8. Mapped genetic p-distance to geographical distance of all analysed specimen-pairs $(4,656)$ of Glomeris marginata. Solid line: linear trend line with linear function and coefficient of determination $\mathrm{R}^{2}$. Circles: see text below and Table 5.

The dataset was divided into five major haplotype lineages (see Figure 9 and partially Table 6). The major haplotype lineage V is basal to all other and shows a higher internal genetic variability (to their member subgroups and specimens: $\varnothing 2.4 \%$ ) than the other haplotype lineages of $G$. marginata. Haplotype lineage V consists of several loosely connected subgroups, mainly from the French Mediterranean, the French Pyrenees and Spanish Cantabria (FR.MED, FR.PYR and ES.CC) (see Figure 9, Figure 10, black circled). This basal group is connected to the bioregion DE.MGSW via specimens 35 and 36 (Figure 8, Table 1). The area occupied by lineage $V$ excludes all other major haplotype lineages, which do not extend to the two South French regions (FR. MED and FR.PYR), or to the more western Spanish Cantabrian Mountains (ES.CC).

The other four haplotype lineages I-IV show a wider area of distribution, but genetically less diversity. Major haplotype lineages I and IV are closely related (see Figure 9). Together this joint lineage ( $\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{IV}$ ) covers almost the complete northern distribution range of G. marginata (seven bioregions: DE.MGSO, DE.MGSW, DE.NDTO, DE.NDTW, DE.SSL, FR.CONN, and FR.ALP see Table 6).

Haplotype lineage I occurs in an area reaching from the French Alps to NE Europe, with the main haplotype diversity in the German "Mittelgebirgsschwelle", eastern part (DE.MGSO). Haplotype lineage II shows a central distribution with a high proportion of specimens in the German "Mittelgebirgsschwelle", western part (DE. MGSW). Lineage II has the greatest distribution area and includes several subordinated haplotypes in the region DE.MGSW. Haplotype lineage III occurs in NW Europe with the most specimens in the France Atlantique, northern part (FR.ATLN). Additionally, the specimen from Great Britain (GB.EM) belongs to this group and has even


Figure 9. Maximum likelihood tree based on the mtDNA COI gene of 97 Glomeris marginata. Midpoint rooted. Roman numerals: Haplotype lineages I-V. Colour morphs of G. marginata: Common black = none; $\mathrm{G}=$ grey; $\mathrm{R}=$ red border; $\mathrm{P}=$ perplexa-markings. Scale bar $=1 \%$ genetic ML distance .

Table 6. Number of samples and bioregions (BioR) to major haplotypes ( mHapT ) and lineages.

| Number of <br> lineages in <br> Figure 9 | Number of <br> Samples in <br> mHapT | Number of <br> BioR/mHapT <br> BioR/lineage | Covered BioR | Number of <br> Samples/ <br> lineages |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I | $\mathbf{1 5}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ | DE.MGSW - DE.MGSO - <br> DE.NDTO DE.SSL- FR.ALP | $\mathbf{1 7}$ |
| II | $\mathbf{1 7}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | DE.MGSW - DE.MGSO - <br> DE.NDTO FR.ATLN | $\mathbf{2 6}$ |
| III | $\mathbf{1 0}$ | $3 / 5$ | DE.MGSW - FR.ATLN - <br> GB.EM <br> DE.NDTW - FR.CONS | $\mathbf{1 5}$ |
| IV | 4 | $2 / 3$ | DE.MGSW - FR.CONN - <br> DE.NDTW | 9 |

the same haplotype as the majority specimens of this lineage. Haplotype lineage IV has a more narrow distribution range, with its main samples in France Continentale, northern part (FR.CONN). None of those four lineages are found in southern France or northern Spain (the distribution area of lineage V), but the distribution areas of the lineages I-IV overlap in DE.MGSW.

Haplotype lineages I-III and partially lineage IV are especially poor in haplotypes. Four haplotypes, one in each lineage (see Table 6), are especially rich in specimens, 17, 15,10 , and 4 , respectively, together representing $47 \%$ ( 46 specimens) of all analysed G. marginata. Additional haplotypes can be added to those four main haplotypes, differing only by a few basepairs. 65 specimens can therefore be grouped into these haplotype lineages (I-IV in Table 6 and Figure 8, $\hat{=} 67 \%$ of all specimens).

Every well-sampled bioregion has many haplotypes. The haplotype/specimen-rate is always higher than 0.3 (see Table 7). The less sampled a region is, the higher the haplotype/samples rate is. At the French Pyrenees and the Spanish Cantabrian Mountains, every sample of $G$. marginata represents a different haplotype. The three especially wellrepresented major haplotypes of lineages I-III were collected in 5, 4 or 3 different bioregions (see Table 6). These three haplotypes/lineages each cover a large geographical range, with all three overlapping centrally in the bioregion DE.MGSW, our best-sampled region.

The haplotype lineage III mainly connects the northern French bioregion (FR. ATLN) with central Germany (DE.MGSW). One direct connection exists between the southern French/Spanish (FR.MED, FR.PYR and ES.CC) and the northern French populations (specimen 57, FR.ATLN, Table 1).

## Haplotype network of $G$. marginata

Based on the 47 haplotypes the TCS analysis shows a complex net of different possible evolutionary pathways between the haplotypes (see Figure 10). The clustering of the main four haplotypes (four largest filled circles in Figure 10) is similar to our phylogenetic tree

Table 7. Rates of haplotypes (HapT) and haplogroups (HapG) per samples in major sampled bioregions (BioR).

| BioRegion | Samples in <br> BioR | HapT in <br> BioR | HapT// <br> Samples | Mean <br> p-distance | HapG in <br> BioR | HapG/ <br> Samples |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total | 97 | 47 | 0.5 | $1.9 \%$ | 8 | 0.1 |
| DE.MGSW | 31 | 15 | 0.5 | $1.4 \%$ | 4 | 0.1 |
| FR.ATLN | 14 | 7 | 0.5 | $1.9 \%$ | 2 | 0.1 |
| DE.MGSO | 11 | 4 | 0.4 | $0.4 \%$ | 2 | 0.2 |
| FR.MED | 11 | 8 | 0.7 | $2.2 \%$ | 2 | 0.2 |
| DE.NDTO | 6 | 4 | 0.7 | $0.8 \%$ | 1 | 0.2 |
| FR.CONN | 6 | 4 | 0.7 | $0.2 \%$ | 1 | 0.2 |
| ES.CC | 4 | 4 | 1.0 | $0.6 \%$ | 1 | 0.3 |
| FR.PYRN | 4 | 4 | 1.0 | $2.1 \%$ | 2 | 0.5 |
| N-Europe | 77 | 30 | 0.4 | $1.8 \%$ | 6 | 0.1 |
| S-Europe | 20 | 17 | 0.9 | $2.5 \%$ | 3 | 0.2 |



Figure 10. TCS-Network of haplotypes of Glomeris marginata with distribution region. Numbers behind region = consecutive haplotype number of DNASP-output. Haplotype accumulations: Red oval = Haplotype lineage I; Yellow oval = Haplotype lineage II; Blue oval = Haplotype lineage III; Green circle $=$ Haplotype lineage IV; Black oval $=$ Haplotype lineage V. Dashes on node connecting lines are representing single nucleotide mutations.
(Figure 9), with adjacent and closely related haplotypes forming distinct lineages (coloured oval lines in Figure 10). The haplotypes of the southern Mediterranean France and southern Spain are building a complex, highly disjunctive net (black oval line in Figure 10).

## Haplotype number estimation

The rarefaction curve shows no saturation for the number of haplotypes (see Figure 11, 12). The estimation of CHAO1 shows that there could be overall 404 haplotypes in $G$. marginata (95 \% confidence interval: 140-1,426 haplotypes). By extrapolation with rarefaction curves (Colwell et al. 2012) we estimate that a mean of 6,612 samples would be needed to be analysed to find all potential 404 different haplotypes. To reach the $95 \%$ lower boundary ( 140 haplotypes) at least an additional 274 specimens need to be included.

## Colour morphs of G. marginata

The dataset contains one specimen of the grey colour morph, eight with the "perplexa" pattern and four with red margins. Those 13 distinctly coloured specimens are marked in our specimen tree (see Figure 9 with symbols "G", "P", and "R"). The grey specimen belongs to the major haplotype of the lineage I. The specimens with the red margin are scattered in the tree and therefore do not cluster together. They are mainly found in Mediterranean France, therefore placed mainly in the lumping group V, but one specimen groups with lineage IV (Figure 9). The "perplexa" form is even more scattered over the tree, occurring in several bioregions.

## Discussion

## Glomeris annulata, G. apuana, and G. maerens

The three local endemic species, despite some similarities in the coloration (Figures 2DG ), are genetically clearly distinct from $G$. marginata, separated by p-distances of more than $13 \%$.

Further studies should investigate the G. maerens-group in northern Spain. All three species (G. maerens, G. lugubris Attems, 1927, and G. obsoleta Attems, 1952) of the group were described by Attems from Spain ( $G$. maerens: Tarragona and Lérida; G. lugubris: Cádiz; G. obsoleta: Barcelona) and show a similar obscure black-brown colouration (see examples in Figure 2E-G). Due to their geographically close type locations and quite similar colour, as well as thoracic shield striation pattern (both with two main striae) G. maerens and G. obsoleta may be synonyms. Therefore, the examined specimens could not be assigned to either species. However, our analysis recovers a considerable variation inside the species-group, with p-distances of $7.5-9.1 \%$ which hints at the existence of several independent species in the $G$. maerens complex.

## Monophyly of G. marginata

Glomeris marginata is genetically distant but related to $G$. connexa, with a p-distance of 12.9 \%. Based on the COI-data, the G. maerens species group is more closely related to $G$. connexal $G$. apuana than to $G$. marginata. The genetic distance of $G$. marginata to the other tested species ( $G$. klugii/undulata, G. intermedia, $G$. hexasticha, and G. annulata) is, with a p-distance up to $15.9 \%$, even more pronounced.

In comparison to vertebrate species (e.g., fishes: 0.32 \%, Keskin and Atar 2013 or rodents: $2.1 \%$, Li et al. 2015) a maximum intraspecific variation of a p-distance of $5 \%$ is rather high. However, such an intraspecific variation of $5 \%$ was also found in another widespread central European Glomeris, G. klugii/undulata (Wesener and Conrad 2016). A minimum p-distance of $12.9 \%$ of $G$. marginata to the most closely related species (a factor of 2.6 to the maximum intraspecific p-distance), shows a clear barcoding gap to the nearest congener, $G$. connexa.

The known colour morphs of G. marginata do not represent single lineages or even subspecies. The conspicuously red borders in specimens from southern France (Figures 1D, E) are present in several lineages and sub-lineages (Figure 9, marked with R). The same applies to the perplexa-form (Figures 1A, B, 9, marked with P). The grey form is even a member of the main haplotype of the eastern lineage I (Figure 9, marked with G). Unfortunately, specimens of the brown form of northern Germany could not yet be sequenced, but they appear always syntopically with specimens of the black form (Figure 2A). Therefore, any relevant divergence from those haplotypes cannot be expected.

The COI-gene is clearly working as a barcoding gene to identify and discriminate G. marginata specimens from the other Glomeris species.

## Geographical relationship of G. marginata specimens

Syntopical specimens as well as specimens with a maximum geographical distance of $1,701 \mathrm{~km}$ (Germany, Brandenburg to Spain, La Rioja) were analysed. There is no obvious relationship between geographical and genetic distance. There are specimen pairs of the same haplotype $(\mathrm{p}$-distance $=0)$ which were collected more than 1,000 km apart. This distance of $1,000 \mathrm{~km}$ seems to be the maximum distance $G$. marginata could spread without experiencing genetic changes. Specimen pairs with a geographical distance larger than $1,000 \mathrm{~km}$ experienced at least a few mutations in the COI gene, with a minimum p-distance of $\approx 0.8 \%$ in our dataset (see Figure 7).

On the other hand, local specimens can show high genetic variation. Even from nearby locations specimen pairs show a p-distance as high as $3 \%$. Such a mutation rate is unlikely to have happened locally, but is more likely the result of a different geographical origin of the source populations. As such large genetic distances between different populations of $G$. marginata are common, a human-influenced dispersal seems not to be the reason behind the regular high COI-variance.

## Haplotype regions, origin and potential migration patterns

The haplotype analysis shows five main haplotype lineages in G. marginata (Figure 9). Four of those (I-IV) show a wide distribution in northern Europe, one (lineage V) is restricted to southern Europe.

The haplotype lineage V is highly genetically variable, therefore a combination into a single group is not justified. Four rather distinct lineages not forming a monophylum could be seen in Figure 9 (coloured in different shades of green). Additionally, a block with unrelated singular haplotypes (see Figure 9 between lineage III and V) could be assigned to this fifth major haplotype lineage. Most of the specimens of these unrelated singular haplotypes are coming from the Mediterranean. These unrelated haplotypes are linked to the region DE.MGSW (specimens 19 and 31; Figure 8).

The examined northern European regions are mainly inhabited by specimens of the haplotype lineages I-IV, showing a low variance in their p-distance to one another (see Table 7). The specimen pairs within the whole North European area have a mean p-distance of $1.8 \%$. In contrast the French Mediterranean and French Pyrenees specimens of G. marginata show a higher p-distance (FR.MED: $2.2 \%$ and FR.PYRN: $2.1 \%$ ). The specimen pairs of $G$. marginata within the geographically smaller South European bioregions (FR.MED, FR.PYRN, ES.PYRS, and ES.CC) have a mean p-distance of 2.5 \% , higher than those observed in the entire North of Europe ( $1.8 \%$ ). With further sampling in southern Europe and collecting of similar haplotypes those values might decrease, however, further sampling will also reveal new haplotypes (see Figure 11). A saturation of the number of haplotypes is not detectable (see Figures 11, 12).

With the before mentioned mean p-distance of $2.5 \%$, the small south European area of bioregions contains a much higher genetic diversity in $G$. marginata than the much larger northern Europe. To develop such a higher genetic diversity, the south European populations of $G$. marginata must be older than the northern European populations. Northern Europe must have been colonized by $G$. marginata more recently. The main dispersal into those northern areas could only have been started after the last glaciation retreated during the early Holocene starting around 11,000 years ago (Roberts 2014).

Our data does not reveal how far north the distribution of $G$. marginata reached and how high any genetic diversity of the species was before the ice age. However, the south European mixed populations could be regarded as a remnant of old haplotype lineages of $G$. marginata, which are not any more present in the north European populations.

The geographical coverage of our analysed specimens is biased towards western Germany (MGSW, see Figure 3). For the colonization of northern Europe there are two possible scenarios. The new dispersal could have started from the south, or the dispersal could have started from a glacial refugium in northern Europe. The two scenarios are, however, not mutually exclusive and could have been concurrent. From a genetic point of view the northern populations differ from the southern populations. There are only a few and weak links between north and south. Therefore, a single or main colonization from the south to the north is not plausible.

Contrarily, all main haplotype lineages I-IV, which are exclusively found in northern Europe are linked to the bioregion DE.MGSW (Figure 3). The main redistribution over northern Europe could have been started from central Germany, which shows high haplotype diversity in G. marginata. From the bioregion DE.MGSW four major migrations could have led to the current distribution of the main haplotype lineages I-IV. Haplotype lineage I might have spread mainly to the north-east, haplotype lineage III to the North-West and haplotype lineage II only westwards. Haplotypelineage IV spread to the bioregion FR.CONN. The colonisations by the haplotype lineages were probably independent.

## Haplotype number estimation

With this work, for the first time, a survey of almost 100 barcodes is presented for a diplopod species. On average, every haplotype in our study is based on two specimens ( 97 specimens / 47 haplotypes). In reality, the majority of haplotypes ( 38 haplotypes $\hat{=} 81 \%$ ) are represented by only one specimen. The haplotype number estimation has shown that these 97 successfully sequenced specimens are just providing an overview of the real haplotype diversity in $G$. marginata. With the current data we are still far away from a complete collection of all haplotypes of the species. Many more specimens need to be collected to reach at least the lower estimated boundary of 140 haplotypes.

In general, this also means that haplotype analysis should not be based on few specimens and not only on specimens of a certain region, but always from specimens covering the whole distribution area of a species (Elias et al. 2007, Bergsten et al. 2012, Jordal and Kambestadt 2014). With the current data we should have a good base to cover the whole range of haplotypes. Further new haplotypes should mainly cluster within the current main lineages I to IV or should end up within the haplotype complex $V$ with its four subgroups.

Many new haplotypes would simply represent the missing mutation steps present in the TCS-network of Figure 10 by dashes between the nodes. Probably most of the haplotypes representing end nodes in the current TCS-network are not representing the real end nodes of the mutation chains.

## Nomenclatorial acts

In the year 1789 the species with the common name Cloporte bordé (bordered woodlouse) was first described by the French naturalist Charles Joseph de Villers (17241810) as Oniscus marginatus. He used few, but descriptive words: "niger, segmentis corporis luteo marginatis" [black, segments of the body with yellow margin].

Within a few years the species has been named and described four times again (see below). Thirteen years after the description the French zoologist Pierre André Latreille (1762-1833) placed the species in his new genus Glomeris Latreille, 1802.


Figure II. Individual based rarefaction curve calculated with ESTIMATES and with 10,000 replicates (simulated collections) of the COI sequences of Glomeris marginata. Vertical lines indicating $95 \%$ lower and upper boundary.


Figure I2. Extrapolation of rarefaction curves with ESTIMATES of the COI sequences of Glomeris marginata. . Blue line $=$ estimation with premise of mean number ( 404 haplotypes); Horizontal yellow line $=95 \%$ satisfaction of mean number ( 384 haplotypes); Green and red line $=$ curve at the $95 \%$ upper and lower boundary.

Almost one hundred years later several subspecies or variations were added by Verhoeff, Latzel, and Attems. Those taxa represent different versions of the pale form which was first named G. perplexa by Latzel (1895), all now regarded as synonyms of the nominate species.

We do not recognize any subspecies of $G$. marginata. Therefore the subspecies Glomeris marginata ponentina Verhoeff, 1911 and Glomeris marginata leridana Attems, 1927 are synonymised under the nominal species.

Only initial new naming acts are listed. Due to the numerous mentions of G. marginata in the literature, a comprehensive list of all citations is not provided.

## Glomeris marginata (Villers, 1789)

Oniscus marginatus Villers, 1789: 187 (first description, type locality "Gallia australiori" - south France)
Glomeris marginata - Latreille, 1802: 66 (placing the taxon in the genus Glomeris)

## Synonyms

Julus limbatus Olivier, 1792: 414 = Glomeris limbatus (Latreille, 1802: 66)
Armadillo marginalis Culver, 1792: 30, fig. 23-25, new synonym
Oniscus zonatus Panzer, 1793: Heft 9, chapter 25
Julus oniscoides Steward, 1802, chapter V: 307
Glomeris marginata var. lucida Latzel, 1890: 365 and 367
Glomeris perplexa Latzel, 1895: 7 and 11, new synonym
Glomeris connexa perplexa Verhoeff, 1906: 152
Glomeris connexa perplexa aberr. rhenanorum Verhoeff, 1906: 152 and 153
Glomeris connexa perplexa var. rhenana Verhoeff, 1906: 152
Glomeris marginata aut. genuina Verhoeff, 1911: 121
Glomeris marginata var. marginata Verhoeff, 1911: 121
Glomeris marginata var. perplexa Verhoeff, 1911: 121
Glomeris marginata ponentina Verhoeff, 1911: 122, new synonym
Glomeris marginata leridana Attems, 1927: 250, new synonym
The description of Oniscus variegatus Villers, 1789: 188, fig. 16 ("niger, segmentis corporis nigris, albo marginatis ..." - black, the segments of the body black, white framed) also perfectly fits $G$. marginata and therefore could potentially be treated as a junior synonym of it. However, with the case 2909 of the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature it was already treated as a senior synonym of Armadillidium vulgare Latreille, 1804 and placed on the Official Index of Rejected and Invalid Species Names in Zoology (Lehtinen and Holthuis 1995, ICZN 1998).

## Analysis software used in this study

BIOEDIT 7.2.5:
http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/bioedit/bioedit.html
DNASP 5.10.1: http://www.ub.edu/dnasp

ESTIMATES 9.1.0:
FIGTREE 1.4.2:
GLOBALMAPPER 17:

MEGA 7.14 GUI:
MICROSOFT EXCEL 2013: POPART 1.7:
http://viceroy.eeb.uconn.edu/estimates
http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree
http://www.bluemarblegeo.com/products/global-mapper.php
http://www.megasoftware.net
http://www.microsoftstore.com
http://popart.otago.ac.nz

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## Supplementary material I

## Complete sequences dataset

Authors: Hans S. Reip, Thomas Wesener
Data type: FASTA format.
Explanation note: Complete sequences dataset of all specimens of this study in format FASTA.
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Link: https://doi.org/10.3897/zookeys.741.21917.suppl1

## Supplementary material 2

## P-distance matrix

Authors: Hans S. Reip, Thomas Wesener
Data type: Microsoft Excel Worksheet (.xls).
Explanation note: P-distance matrix over all specimens as EXCEL-file. Export from MEGA7.
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Link: https://doi.org/10.3897/zookeys.741.21917.suppl2

## Supplementary material 3

## P-distance - geographical distance

Authors: Hans S. Reip, Thomas Wesener
Data type: Microsoft Excel Worksheet (.xls).
Explanation note: P-distance - geographical distance table of all $G$. marginata specimens as EXCEL-file.
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## Supplementary material 4

## POPART-data

Authors: Hans S. Reip, Thomas Wesener
Data type: NEXUS format.
Explanation note: POPART-data file of haplotypes in format NEXUS.
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## Supplementary material 5

## ESTIMATES-data

Authors: Hans S. Reip, Thomas Wesener
Data type: Text Document (.txt).
Explanation note: ESTIMATES-data file of haplotypes as text file.
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# Two new Lophoturus species (Diplopoda, Polyxenida, Lophoproctidae) from Queensland, Australia 

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#### Abstract

Lophoturus queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 was the first penicillate millipede in the family Lophoproctidae collected from Cairns, a tropical region in Queensland, Australia, to be formally described. Specimens collected from this region in a recent study had the morphological characters known to define this genus. However, their body form and length, as well as dorsal colouration proved to be different, suggesting the possibility of more than one Lophoturus species. This assertion was supported by the results of a phylogenetic analysis of DNA extracted and sequenced using 18S and COI regions from L. queenslandicus and two undescribed species from this genus. Specimens preserved in ethanol can prove difficult to confidently identify to species level because their colour gradually fades. Examination of live specimens with their body colour visible, together with morphological characters and DNA analysis is the most reliable way of correctly distinguishing between these three species. Two new species, $L$. boondallus $\mathbf{s p}$. $\mathbf{n}$. and $L$. molloyensis sp. n. collected in Queensland, Australia are described.


## Keywords

Millipedes, morphological characters, body length, colouration, phylogenetic analysis

## Introduction

Penicillate millipedes from family Lophoproctidae Silvestri, 1897 are characterised as lacking ommatidia, having 13 pairs of legs (except Lophoturus madecassus Marquet \& Condé, 1950 having only 11 pairs of legs), a gnathochilarium with medial palp
only; the $7^{\text {th }}$ and $8^{\text {th }}$ antennal articles are equal in length and reduced sensory cones, coxal glands absent in male, and simple claw structure. These millipedes are commonly found in low light environments such as deep leaf litter or cave habitats. The similarity in their morphological characters proves to be difficult with the classification to genus or species. Ishii et al. (1999) provided a key to the 5 genera in the Lophoproctidae based on the labrum structure and the number of sensilla on the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article. These genera are Alloproctoides Marquet \& Condé, 1950; Ancistroxenus Schubart, 1947; Lophoproctinus Silvestri, 1948; Lophoproctus Pocock, 1894 and Lophoturus Brölemann, 1931. Genus Lophoturus Brölemann, 1931 is defined by the following characteristics: 0 to 4 pairs of linguiform processes on each side of median cleft of labrum and the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article with 3 thick sensilla. There were 27 described species in genus Lophoturus worldwide (Nguyen Duy-Jacaquemin and Geoffroy 2003). L. jianshuiensis (Ishii \& Yin, 2000) from China and two species: L. speophilus and L. humphreysi (Nguyen Duy-Jacaquemin, 2014) from Christmas Island, Australia were recently added to the species list that totals 30 species to date. Lophoturus queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 was the first lophoproctid penicillate millipede collected from Cairns, a tropical region in far north Queensland, Australia, formally described (Condé 1979). In this study, penicillate millipedes collected from this region had morphological characters known to define the genus Lophoturus. However, their body form and length, as well as dorsal colouration proved to be different, suggesting the possibility of more than one species. The region, where the holotype of L. queenslandicus was first found, was visited and fresh specimens collected for comparison with two new Lophoturus species collected in Queensland, Australia are described below.

## Materials and methods

Lophoturus specimens (Lophoproctidae) were collected from the Cairns region, in tropical far north Queensland and Boondall Wetlands Park in Boondall, a northern suburb of Brisbane, Queensland, Australia (Fig. 1). Specimens of Lophoturus queenslandicus were collected from Millstream Falls, Ravenshoe, Tableland region, Queensland for comparison; $17^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 26.56^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}, 145^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 42.89^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 886 m ; 15 November 2014 ( 25 specimens collected: 4 male and 10 female adults, stadium VIII, 13 leg pairs; and 11 subadults with 4 males, 5 females in stadium VII, with 12 leg pairs; and 2 males in stadium VI, with 10 leg pairs). From Lake Eacham, Cairns region, Queensland; $17^{\circ} 16^{\prime} 59.90^{\prime \prime}$ S, $145^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 46.92^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 756 m ; 5 December 2013 (eight specimens were collected: 3 males and 5 females (adults). From a roadside of Gillies Highway, 8.5 km SE Goldsborough, Cairns region, Queensland; $17^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 1.98^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}, 145^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 55.55^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 965 m , 6 December 2013 (8 specimens collected: 3 males, 4 females (adults) and one male ( 12 leg pairs). Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. were collected from Boondall Wetlands Park; $27^{\circ} 20^{\prime} 25.85^{\prime \prime}$ S, $153^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 36.94^{\prime \prime}$ E, elevation $9 \mathrm{~m}, 10$ November 2015 ( 12 specimens collected: 2 males and 10 females, all were adult stage). Lophoturus molloyensis sp . n . were collected from Mount Molloy (Bakers Road, 3 Km NW from the town of Mount Molloy,


Figure I. Map of state of Queensland with a map of Australia, indicating type localities of Lophoturus queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 (O) and other two new Lophoturus species: L. boondallus sp. n. found in Boondall ( $\star$ ), Brisbane and $L$. molloyensis sp. n found in Mount Molloy ( $\mathbf{\square}$ ), Cairns region, Queensland, Australia. (Not in scale)
along Mulligan Highway), Cairns region, Queensland; $16^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 10.50$ " $\mathrm{S}, 145^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 49.43^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 396 m, 8 December 2016. Seven specimens collected: 2 males and 4 females (adult - stadium VIII), and 1 with 12 leg pairs (subadult - stadium VII).

## Morphometric study

Light microscopy. Lophoturus specimens were examined and measured using a SMZ 800 stereoscope with an Infinity I camera and an Olympus CX 41 compound microscope with an image capture DP21 digital camera (a reticule with calibration of 0.1 mm stage micrometer and the Infinity I camera program were used for all measurements). Specimens were measured from head to telson, excluding the caudal bundle of trichomes. The sex of the specimens was identified by the presence of reproductive organs on the coxal plates of the 2nd pair of legs.

Taxonomic drawings Prepared slides (method described below) were used to complete drawings of the body trichomes using a Nikon drawing tube YID-T attached to a Nikon Eclipse E200 compound microscope.

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM). Whole specimens were preserved in 80\% ethanol and dehydrated by passing through a graded series of ethanol, $80 \%, 90 \%$ and $100 \%$, bathed in acetone for 2 minutes then air dried for a further 2 minutes. Specimens were subsequently mounted on a stub for gold coating using a Fisons sputter coater ( $0.02 \mathrm{mbar}, 18 \mathrm{~mA}, 2 \mathrm{~nm} / \mathrm{min}$ ), then examined using a JEOL (JSM-IT300 Scanning Electron Microscope). Digital SEM images of the specimens were obtained.

Morphometric and genetic studies. The specimen preparation technique of Short and Huynh (2010) was used with modification to permit extraction of DNA for genetic studies. Lophoturus specimens were transferred from $80 \%$ ethanol onto a slide with a drop of $100 \%$ ethanol. Trichomes from the body and caudal bundle were stripped in the presence of ethanol. A resultant slide was then dried for 5 minutes before a drop of DPX was added to mount the slide. This slide was then used to depict the caudal trichomes. Individual stripped specimens were placed in 1.7 mL Eppendorf tubes with the initial extraction buffer solution (Invisorb Spin Forensic Kit (STRATEC Molecular GmbH, D-13125 Berlin, Germany)), left at room temperature for 12 hours then heated for 1 hour at $56^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ before DNA was extracted following manufacturer's instructions. The extracted DNA was put aside for the genomic DNA study. Cuticles of the same specimens used for DNA extraction were then cleared, dehydrated, stained $1 \%$ Fast Green and mounted with DPX mounting medium for microscopic examination following the method of Short and Huynh (2010).

Two common gene markers were used in this study: the small subunit ribosomal RNAs (SSU18S rRNAs) and the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I gene (COI). Both have been used as universal primers for highly conserved gene regions and are common molecular markers used for species detection and identification. The 18 S gene marker has been used to elucidate relationships among arthropod groups including crustaceans, insects and myriapods (Turbeville et al. 1991; Luan et al. 2005, Wesener et al. 2010; 2016) This region has also been used to separate penicillate millipede species from genus Monographis with similar morphological characters (Huynh and Veenstra 2013; 2015). The COI region was also used because it is used in Barcode of Life (2010-2017) for species identification.

The quality of the DNA extracted from individual specimens of L. queenslandicus, L. boondallus sp. n. and L. molloyensis sp. n. were determined by using a NanoDrop

1000 Spectrophotometer (ND 1000V3.60 software) following manufacturer's instructions. The primers used for amplification and sequencing of COI were $\operatorname{dgLCO} 1490$ and dgHCO2198 (Meyer 2003) obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co; 18S rDNA were SSUnRNA 1F, SSUnRNA 5R (White et al. 1990) obtained from GeneWorks Pty Ltd. Two microliters of the extracted DNA were sufficient for one Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) with $23 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ master mix: $2.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ PCR buffer 10x Reaction Buffer plus $15 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2,2.5 \mu \mathrm{~L} 25 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2,2.5 \mu \mathrm{~L} 2 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{dNTP}, 2.5 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ BSA (Bovine Serum Albumin, $10 \%$ solution), $1 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ forward primer, $1 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ reverse primer, $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ Taq (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and $10.9 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ double distilled water. There after the method described by Huynh and Veenstra $(2013 ; 2015)$ was used.

Representative sequences of $L$. queenslandicus, $L$. boondallus $\mathrm{sp} . \mathrm{n}$. and $L$. molloyensis sp. n. were used in a phylogenetic analysis. Partial genomic sequences from these species obtained using the molecular markers SSU18S rRNAs (18S) and the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I gene (COI), were deposited in GenBank: For 18S, the GenBank accession numbers are MG210573 for L. boondallus sp. n., MG210574 for L. molloyensis sp. n. and MG210575 for L. queenslandicus. For COI, the GenBank accession numbers are MG204535 for L. queenslandicus; MG204536 for L. boondallus sp. n. and MG204537 for L. molloyensis sp. n.

18S: The consensus 18 S sequences from L. queenslandicus, L. boondallus sp. n. and L. molloyensis sp. n. were used in a BLAST search (http://www.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov) to identify sequences of closely related species. To explore relationships between these species, an entire sequence from Monographis sp. collected in China (GenBank accession number AY596371), partial sequences from M. queenslandicus (KF147166), M. dongnaiensis (KP255446), Polyxenus lagurus (EU368619), Polyxenus fasciculatatus (AF173235), Propolyxenus australis (MF592753), Unixenus mjobergi (MF592755), Lophoproctus coecus (MF592760), Chilexenus rosendinus (MF592765), Lophoturus madecassus (MF592767), Alloproctoides sp. (MF592759), and two species of pill millipedes (Sphaerotheriida): Sphaeromimus musicus (FJ409961) and Procyliosoma leae (FJ409955) as an outgroup, were aligned with sequences from Lophoturus species using BioEdit (Hall 2010); MEGA7 (Kumar et al. 2016) was used to calculate with maximum composition likelihood method for distance analysis of the nucleotides and a phylogenetic tree was generated using PAUP*4.0b10 (Swofford 2002). A rooted consensus tree of Lophoturus species was generated by the bootstrap test with 1000 repetitions.

COI: Sequences of $L$. queenslandicus, $L$. boondallus sp. n. and $L$. molloyensis $\mathrm{sp} . \mathrm{n}$. were aligned with the following sequences from related species available on GenBank using a BLAST search (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov): Polyxenus lagurus (HQ966144), Propolyxenus trivittatus (MF592724), Chilexenus rosendinus (MF592731), Lophoproctus coecus (MF592729), Alloproctoides sp. (MF592725), Eudigraphis sp. (LC010908), a pill millipede Glomeridella minima (JN271878) (Sphaerotheriida) and Pogonsternum sp. (KU745274) (Polydesmida) as outgroups. Phylogenetic analysis of these species was performed as described above for 18 S . The maximum likelihood method was used for pairwise distance analysis of nucleotide composition between these Lophoturus.

## Results

Order Polyxenida Lucas, 1840
Family Lophoproctidae Silvestri, 1897

Genus Lophoturus Brölemann, 1931

Type species. Lophoturus obscurus Brölemann, 1931.
Lophoturus, is a synonym of Alloproctinus Jeekel, 1963 and it was replaced by Alloproctus Silvestri, 1948; reassessed by Condé and Nguyen Duy-Jacquemin (1977). It is characterized by 0 to 4 pairs of linguiform processes on each side of median cleft of labrum and antennal article VI with 3 thick sensilla (Ishii et al.1999: 252, key).

## Lophoturus queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 (Condé 1979)

Note. Lophoturus queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 was the first lophoproctid penicillate millipede collected from Ravenshoe, Australia (Condé 1979). Ravenshoe is a town in north-east Queensland previously known as Cedar Creek, where the type specimen of L. queenslandicus was collected.
L. queenslandicus has 13 pairs of legs, 10 segments and a telson; 9 pleural projections; body covered with barbate trichomes; tergal trichomes form 2 latero-posterior groups with a few trichomes extending anteriorly and these groups are separated by a gap; Chaetotaxy with pubescent oval setae; simple claw; the ornamental trichomes with $8 a, 1 b$ and $2 c(c 1$ and $c 3)$; labrum with setose surface and 0 to 1 pairs of linguiform processes; the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article with 3 thick sensilla (Condé 1979).

## Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. <br> http://zoobank.org/9FF56672-4164-42F2-84E2-37721098D16E

Holotype. Adult male, stadium VIII - 13 leg pairs stage, collected from Boondall Wetlands Park, Boondall, Brisbane, Queensland; $27^{\circ} 20^{\prime} 25.85^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}, 153^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 36.94^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 9 m . The species was collected from leaf litter near the main entrance of the park on 10 November 2015 by author (CH).

Paratypes. One male and 9 females were collected in the same location and date as holotype. ( 1 male and 2 females were used for SEM imaging in this study).

Etymology. The species is named Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. as they were first found in Boondall Wetlands Park, Boondall, Queensland, Australia.

Diagnosis. L. boondallus has the following morphological characteristics: 3 sensilla on the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article and labrum with two linguiform processes. These features are typical characteristics of Lophoturus. Live specimens from this species are light or-
ange in colour with a round arc-shaped body form in cross section. Adults body length range from 1.6-2.2 mm.

Description. Measurements: Holotype male body length 1.9 mm , females (paratypes) $(n=8)$ range from $1.9-2.2 \mathrm{~mm}$. Caudal bundle of the male is slightly narrower in width with 0.6 mm in length than that of the female $(0.5 \mathrm{~mm})$ (Fig. 6A-B)

Colouration. Head light orange and dark reddish-brown laterally; body light orange, contrasting with their white pleural trichomes and lighter coloured caudal bundle (Figure 2B).

Head. Ommatidia absent. Vertex with two posterior trichome groups, a large gap presents between them. Each group consists of 2 rows, the anterior, oblique row has similar sized trichome sockets. Posterior row has fewer trichome sockets with a narrow space between the anterior and posterior rows. Holotype male has $12+12$ trichome sockets in anterior rows and $4+4$ trichome sockets in posterior rows (Fig. 3A); paratypes indicate that variation is common in this species, ranging from 12-15 (anterior rows) and 3-7 (posterior rows) (Fig. 6C). Trichobothria: trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{a}$, located in posterior position with a medium socket; trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{b}$, lateral position with largest socket; and trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{c}$, anterior position with smallest socket. Trichobothria $\boldsymbol{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{b}$ have typically thin sensory hairs with narrow cylindrical funicles compared to trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{c}$, with a claviform funicle. Trichobothrium sockets ( $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ ) arranged unevenly between $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{b} \boldsymbol{c}$, as trichobothria $\boldsymbol{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ located more inward (Figs 3E, 6D).

Antennae. 8 articles (4 tiny, reduced sensory cones), $7^{\text {th }}$ and $8^{\text {th }}$ antennal articles are equal in length (Fig. 4A), which is characteristic of Lophoproctidae. The $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article has 3 thick bacilliform sensilla ( T ) of differing lengths: medium sensillum posteriorly ( Tp ); the longest and thicker intermediate sensillum ( Ti ); a short sensillum anteriorly (Ta) with its socket located distally; and a conical sensillum posteriorly (c) (Figs 4C, 6F). The $7^{\text {th }}$ antennal article has 2 thick bacilliform sensilla ( T ), the anterior Ta shorter than Tp located posteriorly, with one setiform sensillum (s) between them plus a conical sensillum (c) located in the posterior position (Figs 4B, 6E). This pattern of sensilla on the $7^{\text {th }}$ article is common to all Lophoturus species.

Clypeo-labrum: Holotype has 10 setae, all half the width of the labrum. Setae on paratypes ranged from 10-12. Labrum surface setose, with tiny, backward facing hairs.


Figure 2. Three Lophoturus species were found in state of Queensland, Australia. A L. queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924 B L. boondallus sp. n. and C L. molloyensis sp. n. These Lophoturus species showed differences in body lengths and colour.


Figure 3. The depiction of holotype of Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. A A head capsule showed the posterior vertex trichome sockets ( $\mathbf{p v}$ ) and trichobothria $\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ Collum (col) with the lateral protuberances $(\mathbf{L p})$, tergite $2(\mathbf{t} 2)$ and tergite $10(\mathbf{t 1 0})$, with trichome socket patterns E Trichobothria: Trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{a}$ (located posteriorly with medium socket), trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{b}$ (located laterally with largest socket) are typical thin sensory hairs and trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{c}$ with a claviform funicle (located anteriorly with smallest socket) F Gnathochilaria of male and G Gnathochilaria from female (paratype) H Labrum displayed two linguiform processes ( $\mathbf{l} \mathbf{p}$ ) and setose surface.



Figure 5. Holotype of Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. A The second left leg showing a penis (p), seven leg segments (co coxa, $\mathbf{p f}$ pre-femur, $\mathbf{f}$ femur, pof: post-femur, tit tibia, T1 tarsus 1, T2 tarsus 2 and a spine), a claw and its chaetotaxy (setae on the leg segments) B a pubescent oval seta $\mathbf{C}$ a spine on tarsus $2 \mathbf{D}$ A simple claw structure with two latero-dorsal denticles (ldd), claw (c), a basal denticle (bd) and small denticle (smd) E The ornamental trichome sockets, located dorsally on the caudal bundle structure, with six trichomes $\boldsymbol{a}$, one trichome $\boldsymbol{b}$ and two trichomes $\boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{c} 1$ and $\boldsymbol{c} 3)$.

Anterior margin of labrum with two whole lamellae, and a linguiform process present on each side of median cleft of labrum (Figs 3H, 7A).

Gnathochilaria. Medial palps only, 58 sensilla on the palp of holotype (male) and 18-22 sensilla on paratypes (females) (Fig. 3F-G).

Trunk. Comprised of 10 segments, 9 pleural projections, excluding the telson and caudal bundle; 13 pairs of legs. Collum - tergite 1 (smallest tergite) with trichome sockets arranged in 2 oval shapes laterally, connected by posterior curved rows of trichome sockets with a large gap in the middle. The collum is the only tergite with lateral protuberances bearing a small number of trichome sockets. In holotype, the collum has 52 (Left: L), 52 (Right: R) trichome sockets and the lateral protuberances with 7 trichome sockets on each side (Fig. 3B). Numbers varied in paratype females within a range of 46-58 trichome sockets in the collum and the number of lateral protuberances trichome sockets range 6-8. Tergites 2 to 10 , have a pair of pleural projections located antero-laterally. The arrangement of tergal trichome sockets from tergites 2 to 10 typically have 2 latero-posterior oval groups with a few sockets extended on both ends with these groups separated by a


Figure 6. SEM (Scanning Electron Microscopy) images of Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. A A dorsal view of whole body showing the body trichome arrangements and the caudal bundle $\mathbf{B}$ A ventral view of whole body showed 13 pairs of legs $\mathbf{C}$ A head capsule displaying two posterior vertex trichome groups (pv), a collum (col) and tergite $2(\mathbf{t} 2) \mathbf{D}$ Trichobothria $\boldsymbol{a}(\boldsymbol{a}), \boldsymbol{b}(\boldsymbol{b})$ and $\boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{c})$ showing different sizes in trichobothrium sockets $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{F}$ Antennal articles 6 and 7 with sensilla ( $\mathbf{T a}$ : thick sensillum located anteriorly, $\mathbf{T i}$ : intermediated thick sensillum, $\mathbf{T p}$ : posterior thick sensillum, setiform sensillum (s) and a conical sensillum (c)).
large medial gap. Trichome sockets of tergite 2 in the holotype has $54(\mathrm{~L})$ and $54(\mathrm{R})$ (Figs 3C, 6C), tergite 10 has 38 on both sides (Fig. 3D). In contrast, the trichome sockets of tergite 2 in paratypes ranged 54-66 and tergite 10 ranged 34-46 trichome sockets.


Figure 7. SEM images of Lophoturus boondallus sp. n. A Mouth part showed setose labrum (l) with typical two linguiform processes ( $\mathbf{l p}$ ) and sensilla from the gnathochilarium (g) B Simple claw with lateral dorsal denticles (ldd), claw (c), small denticle (smd) and basal denticle (bd) C Male caudal bundle showed an ornamental trichome sockets ( $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ ) and the uniform caudal bundle trichome sockets (cbts); D Female caudal bundle structure displaying ornamental trichome sockets and two main parts: caudal bundle trichome sockets dorsally (cbts) and two nest trichome sockets (nts) ventrally.

Legs. Leg segments are named following Manton (1956). Legs 1 and 2 without trochanter, leg 1 also lacks tarsus 1. Chaetotaxy as follows: coxa $1: 2$ pubescent oval setae, coxa 2:3 pubescent oval setae, coxae 3-13: 0-4 pubescent oval setae; pre-femur, femur and post-femur with 1 pubescent oval seta (Fig. 5A-B), tarsus 2 with a spine (Fig. 5C). Posterior edge of last sternite has $0-4$ pubescent oval setae similar to those present on the coxa and the number of these pubescent oval setae varies: 2 on the holotype and $0-4$ on the paratypes. Sex organs in male: A pair of penes on the $2^{\text {nd }}$ coxa and coxal glands absent.

Telotarsus-Claw. slender with two latero-dorsal denticles (Idd) equal in length, a basal denticle (bd) and a small denticle (smd) present near the tip of the claw (Figs 5D, 7B).

Telson. Dorsal ornamental trichome sockets symmetrically arranged on each side, with 6 sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{a}$ in the holotype; paratype females have 6-8 sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{a}$, a single trichome $\boldsymbol{b}$ and two large protruding base sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{c}: \boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{c}$ and $\boldsymbol{c} 3$ (The absence of $\boldsymbol{c} 2$ is characteristic of lophoproctid species) (Fig. 5E).

Caudal bundles. In the holotype male, the caudal bundle is formed by a single group of trichome sockets of uniform sizes; this structure is split ventrally with trichome socket-free tissue present and extending with a small gap dorsally toward the centre. 3 rows of the largest size barbate trichome sockets present, forming slightly uneven lateral rows that extend toward the centre of the caudal structure (Fig. 7C). In paratype females, the caudal bundle structure differed from the male, with two distinguishing structures apparent: the main dorsal structure, was similar to the male, and 2 latero-sternal structures with finer nest trichome sockets. These finer sockets located on the interior and were surrounded by 2 rows of caudal trichome sockets on exterior surface. A trichome socket-free area is present ventrally, extending with a small gap and connecting with central bare tissue with few barbate trichome sockets present. Caudal and nest trichome sockets are clearly separated. These structures gradually form a single caudal bundle structure (Fig. 7D). The structure of L. boondallus caudal bundles and their caudal trichomes is similar to those of Monographis (Polyxenidae) (Huynh and Veenstra 2013, 2015) and classified as Type II by Condé and Nguyen Duy-Jacquemin (2008).

Remarks. L. boondallus differs from L. queenslandicus in being shorter in length, in having light orange colouration, a round arc-shaped body form when viewed in cross section. Furthermore, it also differs genetically from the other Lophoturus species. In contrast, L. queenslandicus is rusty brown with a yellowish light green median band dorsally and two darker brown strips laterally; body $2.4-2.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, with a flattened arc shape (Fig. 2).

## Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n .

http://zoobank.org/79421543-DA49-454F-AA29-904170B24D9B
Holotype. Adult male, stadium VIII - stage 13 leg pairs, was collected from Mount Molloy, Cairns region, Queensland; $16^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 10.50^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{S}, 145^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 49.43^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, elevation 396 m , 8 December 2016.

Paratypes. 1 male, 4 females and one 12 leg pairs (subadult), collected with holotype.

Etymology. Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n. is named after the collection location, Mount Molloy in the Cairns region of far north Queensland, Australia.

Diagnosis. L. molloyensis, has 3 sensilla on the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article, and labrum has two linguiform processes. These features are typical of Lophoturus. In live, this species is white in colour with rounded body shape, covered with shorter trichomes. Body length of adults ranges from $1.4-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$, which distinguishes it from the longer Lophoturus species.

Description. Measurements: Holotype male body length 1.4 mm ; females (paratypes) $(n=4)$ range from $1.6-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$. Caudal bundle of male is slightly narrower in width and 0.2 mm in length than that of the female with 0.3 mm (Fig. 11A-B).

Colouration. Head white and dark reddish brown in eye area; body yellowishwhite with dull white pleural trichomes and bright white in caudal bundle (Fig. 2C).

Head. Ommatidia absent. Vertex with two posterior trichome groups, a large gap presents between them. Each group consists of 2 rows, the anterior, oblique row has similar sized trichomes. Posterior row has fewer trichome sockets with a narrow space between the anterior and posterior rows (Figs 8A, 11C). Holotype male has $10+10$ trichome sockets in anterior rows and $4+4$ trichome sockets in posterior rows; paratypes indicate that variation is common in this species, ranging from 9-11 (anterior rows) and 3-6 (posterior rows). Trichobothria: This species has the same structure and arrangement of trichobothria as seen all Lophoturus species: Trichobothria $\boldsymbol{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{b}$ are typically thin sensory hairs with narrow cylindrical funicles compared to trichobothrium $\boldsymbol{c}$, with a claviform funicle. (Figs 8F, 11D).

Antennae. 8 articles, $7^{\text {th }}$ and $8^{\text {th }}$ antennal articles are equal in length (Fig. 9C). The $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article has 3 thick bacilliform sensilla (T): Medium sensillum posteriorly ( Tp ), the longest, thicker intermediate sensillum ( Ti ), a short sensillum anteriorly ( Ta ) with its socket distal to other, and a conical sensillum posteriorly (c) (Figs 9B, 11E). The $7^{\text {th }}$ antennal article has 2 thick bacilliform sensilla ( T ), the anterior one ( Ta ) shorter than ( Tp ) located posteriorly, with one setiform sensillum ( s ) between them and a conical sensillum (c) in the posterior position (Figs 9A, 11E).

Clypeo-labrum. Holotype has 10 setae, all shorter than half the width of the labrum. Setae on the paratypes ranged from 10-12. Labrum surface setose, with tiny, backward facing hairs. Anterior margin of labrum has two whole lamellae, and a linguiform process present on each side of median cleft of labrum (Figs 8E, 11F).

Gnathochilaria. Medial palps only, 58 sensilla on the palp of holotype (male) and 18-22 sensilla on paratypes (females) (Fig. 8G).

Trunk. Comprised of 10 segments, 9 pleural projections, excluding the telson and caudal bundle; 13 pairs of legs. Collum with trichome sockets arranged in 2 oval shapes laterally, connected by a posterior row of trichome sockets forming a line with a large gap in the middle. Lateral protuberances have a small number of trichome sockets. In holotype, the collum has 26 trichome sockets on both sides and the lateral protuberances have 7 trichome sockets on each side (Figs 8B, 11C). Numbers varied in paratype females within a range of 26-29 trichome sockets in the collum and the number of lateral protuberances trichome sockets range 4-6. All other tergites, from tergites 2 to 10 , have a pair of pleural projections located antero-laterally. The arrangement of tergal trichome sockets from tergites 2 to 9 typically have 2 latero-posterior oval groups with a few sockets extending on both ends with these groups separated by a large gap. Trichome sockets of tergite 2 in the holotype have 33 on each side (Figs 8C, 11C), tergite 10 has two groups of 18 sockets both sides without any extended sockets, (Fig. 8D). In contrast, the trichome sockets of tergite 2 in paratypes ranged 30-34 and tergite 10 range was 16-19 trichome sockets.

Legs. Leg segments are named following Manton (1956). Legs 1 and 2 are without trochanter, leg 1 also lacks tarsus 1. Chaetotaxy as follows: coxa 1:2 pubescent oval setae, coxa 2: 3 pubescent oval setae, coxae 3-13: 0-4 pubescent oval setae; pre-femur, femur


Figure 8. Holotype of Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n. A Head capsule, absence of ommatidia indicated, two posterior vertex trichome sockets $(\mathbf{p v})$ and trichobothria $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ with the sockets only $\mathbf{B}$ the collum ( $\mathbf{c o l}$ ) and two lateral protuberances $(\mathbf{L p}) \mathbf{C}$ Tergite $2(\mathbf{t} \mathbf{2})$ and $\mathbf{D}$ The last tergite $10(\mathbf{t 1 0})$, showing the arrangement of trichome sockets $\mathbf{F}$ Trichobothria: $\boldsymbol{a}$ (the medium base socket located posteriorly) and $\boldsymbol{b}$ (the largest base socket located laterally) are typical thin sensory hairs, $\boldsymbol{c}$ with with a claviform funicle (the smallest base socket located anteriorly) $\mathbf{G}$ The male, right gnathochilarium showing numerous sensilla (ranged $56-58$ sensilla in male) E Labrum showing a pair of linguiform processes ( $\mathbf{l} \mathbf{p}$ ) and setose surface.


Figure 9. Holotype of Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n. A The arrangement of sensilla on the $7^{\text {th }}$ antennal article: A conical sensillum ( $\mathbf{c}$ ), a long thick sensillum located posteriorly ( $\mathbf{T p}$ ) and a short thick sensillum located anteriorly ( $\mathbf{T a}$ ) with a setiform sensillum (s) located between these sensilla B Sensilla on the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article: a conical sensillum (c), a medium length thick sensillum located posteriorly ( $\mathbf{T p}$ ) and a long thick sensillum located intermediately (Ti) followed the short thick sensillum (Ta) C The left antenna with eight articles and the arrangement of sensilla on the $6^{\text {th }}$ and $7^{\text {th }}$ articles.
and post-femur with 1 pubescent oval seta (Fig. 10A-B), tarsus 2 with a spine (Fig. 10C). Posterior edge of last sternite has 0-4 pubescent oval setae, similar those present on the coxa and the number of these pubescent oval setae varies: 4 on the holotype and $0-4$ on the paratypes. Sex organs in male: A pair of penes on the $2^{\text {nd }}$ coxa and coxal glands absent.


Figure 10. Holotype of Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n. A The second right leg with a penis (p), seven leg segments (c coxa, $\mathbf{p f}$ pre-femur, $\mathbf{f}$ femur, pof post-femur, $\mathbf{t i}$ tibia, $\mathbf{T 1}$ tarsus $1, \mathbf{T} \mathbf{2}$ tarsus 2 and a spine), a claw and its chaetotaxy (setae on the leg segments) B A pubescent oval seta C A spine on tarsus 2 D A simple claw structure showing two latero-dorsal denticles (ldd), claw (c), a basal denticle (bd) and a small denticle (smd) E The ornamental trichome sockets, which located dorsally above the caudal bundle structure, with six trichomes $\boldsymbol{a}$, one trichome $\boldsymbol{b}$ and two trichomes $\boldsymbol{c}(\boldsymbol{c} 1$ and $\boldsymbol{c} 3)$.

Telotarsus - Claw: robust with two latero-dorsal denticles (ldd) equal length, a basal denticle (bd) and a small denticle (smd) present near the middle of the claw (Fig. 10D).

Telson. Dorsal ornamental trichome sockets symmetrically arranged on each side, with 6 sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{a}$ in the holotype; paratype females have 4-6 sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{a}$, a single trichome $\boldsymbol{b}$ and two large protruding base sockets of trichome $\boldsymbol{c}: \boldsymbol{c} 1$ and $\boldsymbol{c} 3$ (Fig. 10E).

Caudal bundles. These caudal structures similar in both sexes and like those of L. boondallus described above.

Remark. L. molloyensis differs from both L. queenslandicus and L. boondallus in size, body length (about 1.6 mm ), form and colouration. Body trichomes are short. The 12


Figure I I. SEM images of Lophoturus molloyensis sp. n. A A dorsal view of whole body showing the body trichome arrangements and the caudal bundle B A ventral view of whole body showing 13 pairs of legs C A head capsule displaying two posterior vertex trichome groups ( $\mathbf{p v}$ ), a collum (col) and tergite 2 ( $\mathbf{T} \mathbf{2}$ ) D The trichobothria: $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$, showing different sizes in trichobothrium sockets $\mathbf{E}$ Antennal articles 6 and 7 with their sensilla ( $\mathbf{T a}$ : thick sensillum located anteriorly, $\mathbf{T i}$ : intermediate thick sensillum, $\mathbf{T p}$ : posterior thick sensillum, setiform sensillum (s) and a conical sensillum (c) F Mouth parts with setose labrum (l) with typical two linguiform processes ( $\mathbf{l} \mathbf{p}$ ) and the gnathochilarium ( $\mathbf{g}$ ).
leg pairs stage of this species may initially be confused with $L$. madecassus Marquet \& Condé, 1950 as they have the same body length and appearance. Both have 8 pleural projections, but $L$. molloyensis has 12 leg pairs in subadult stage compared to $L$. madecassus which has 11 leg pairs in the adult stage.

## Genetic analysis

The 18 S maximum likelihood tree was generated by 1000 bootstrap replications yielded a strongly supported phylogenetic tree. The 18 S region of the 3 sequences from studied Lophoturus species formed a statistically supported clade with all sequences of Lophoturus species. Phylogenetic analysis indicated that these species belong in the same genus Lophoturus (Fig. 12A).

Another bootstrap maximum likelihood tree based on comparison of the COI region of three Lophoturus species also yielded a strongly supported phylogenetic tree with the bootstrap value ( $>50 \%$, shown on the nodes of the clade of three species) that these Lophoturus species are sufficiently distinct to warrant separation into 3 species (Fig. 12B).

Pairwise distances of the genomic DNA among Lophoturus species were analysed based on the maximum likelihood method to estimate of the evolutionary divergence between sequences. The genomic sequences based on the COI molecular marker showed significant percentage difference in the genetic distance between these Lophoturus spp.: L. queenslandicus was $16 \%$ genetic distance to $L$. boondallus sp. n. and $14 \%$ genetic distance to L. molloyensis. L. boondallus sp. n. and $14 \%$ genetic distance to L. molloyensis (Table 1).

B


Figure I2. The molecular phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood method. A A consensus tree of sequences from $18 S$ marker generated by the bootstrap test ( 1000 replications and the support values $>50 \%$ shown on the nodes) yielded a strongly supported phylogenetic tree B The maximum likelihood test of sequences from COI marker provided the molecular phylogenetic tree of evolutionary history between each species. Again, this tree supported all Lophoturus species in the same clade as in the result of 18 S .

Table I. Pairwise distances of the sequences from three Lophoturus species were analysed based on the estimate of the evolutionary divergence between sequences from 18 S and COI.

| Species |  | Pairwise distance 18S |  | Pairwise distance COI |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lophoturus queenslandicus | MG204535 |  |  |  |  |
| Lophoturus boondallus | MG204536 | 0.02 |  | 0.16 |  |
| Lophoturus molloyensis | MG204537 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.14 |

## Discussion

L. queenslandicus Verhoeff, 1924, L. boondallus sp. n. and L. molloyensis sp. n. all exhibit many similar morphological characteristics i.e. labrum with setose surface and a pair of linguiform processes, 3 thick sensilla (thick sensilla: located in anterior position $(\mathrm{Ta})$, intermediate position $(\mathrm{Ti})$ and posterior position $(\mathrm{Tp}))$ on the $6^{\text {th }}$ antennal article, which are typical characteristics of genus Lophoturus. In preserved specimens where their colouration has gradually faded and trichomes damaged or lost, it is difficult to identify to species level. In live specimens, these species appear quite different based on body colouration and form: L. queenslandicus is rusty brown colour with a yellowish light green median band dorsally with two darker brown strips laterally; body length ranged $2.4-2.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ and it has a flattened arc body shape. L. boondallus is different in colour, being light orange with a rounded arc body shape, the adult body lengths often ranged from $1.6-2.2 \mathrm{~mm}$. In contrast, L. molloyensis differs from the other two species having the shortest body length of about 1.6 mm and being white colour with round body shape (Fig. 2). However, there is an alternative way to identify these species, especially with the advances in molecular technology, by using genetic analysis. The molecular markers such as 18 S and COI can help to confirm species identification.

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# Four new species of the Glyphiulus javanicus group from southern China (Diplopoda, Spirostreptida, Cambalopsidae) 

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#### Abstract

Hitherto, 24 species of the Glyphiulus javanicus group have been recorded, all endemic to Southeast Asia, including 14 in China. Nevertheless, this species group needs further exploration. In this context, four new species of this group are described, all collected from limestone caves in Southern China: G. calceus sp. n., G. foetidus sp. n., G. guangnanensis sp. n., and G. impletus sp. n. They can be separated easily from each other and other congeners by their carinotaxic formulae, the structures of male legs I , and the gonopods. Due to the absence of any troglomorphic traits in our specimens, they may be troglophilic only.


## Keywords

Cave, China, Glyphiulus, millipede, new species, taxonomy

## Introduction

Since Golovatch et al. (2007b) established and revised the javanicus-group, one of two groups of the species-rich millipede genus Glyphiulus Gervais, 1847, 25 valid species have been recorded up to date. They are endemic to southeast Asia, distributed from
southern China, across Vietnam, Laos, and Thailand, to Java, Indonesia (Golovatch et al. 2007b, Jiang et al. 2017, Likhitrakarn et al. 2017). Among them, fourteen species occur in China, with most of them being cavernicolous:
G. echinoides Golovatch et al., 2011: from a cave in Fushui County, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region;
G. formosus (Pocock, 1895): from Hong Kong, known only from female material;
G. intermedius Golovatch et al., 2007: from a cave in Chengdu County (possibly Chengdu City), Sichuan Province;
G. latus Jiang et al., 2017: from a cave in Muchuan County, Sichuan Province;
G. liangshanensis Jiang et al., 2017: from two caves in Liangshan Yi Autonomous Prefecture, Sichuan Province;
G. obliteratoides Golovatch et al., 2007: from three caves in Anshun County, Guizhou Province;
G. obliteratus Golovatch et al., 2007: from a cave in Mile County, Yunnan Province;
G. paracostulifer Golovatch et al., 2007: from a cave in Qianlin County, Guizhou Province;
G. parobliteratus Golovatch et al., 2007: from two caves in Suiyang County, Guizhou Province;
G. pulcher (Loksa, 1960): from a cave in Fulong Town, Daxin County, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region;
G. recticullus Zhang \& Li, 1982: from Qingyuan County, Zhejiang Province;
G. sinensis (Meng \& Zhang, 1993): from a cave in Guanling County, Guizhou Province; G. subobliteratus Golovatch et al., 2007: from a cave in Shilin County, Yunnan Province;
G. zorzini Mauriès \& Nguyen Duy-Jacquemin, 1997: from a cave in Shuicheng County, Guizhou Province.

Recently, several taxonomical surveys of cave millipedes in southern China were carried out. As a result of these investigations, several species of Glyphiulus were identified, of which four new species of the javanicus-group are described here. Due to the absence of any troglomorphic traits in our specimens, they are thought to be troglophilic. Our findings confirm the hypothesis that southern China harbours an extremely high level of Glyphiulus diversity (Golovatch 2015).

## Materials and methods

Live specimens were collected by hand from localities in southern China. Type specimens are deposited in the Institute of Biology, Guizhou Academy of Sciences, Guiyang, China (IBGAS).

Live animals were first observed and photographed with a Canon EOS 5D Mark III camera with a Canon EF 100 mm macro lens. All specimens were then preserved in 75 \% ethanol. In the lab, some mature specimens were carefully picked out for examina-
tion, illustration, photography, and measuring using a Leica M205C stereomicroscope equipped with a Leica DFC450 Camera and LAS software (Version 4.1). Scanning electron micrographs (SEM) were taken with a Hitachi S-4800 field emission scanning electron microscope. Their geographical distributions were sketched with ArcGIS software (Ver. 10.2). All images were edited with Adobe Photoshop CC 2015 Software.

Terminology used in this paper follows the descriptions by Golovatch et al. (2007a, b, 2011) and Jiang et al. (2017).

## Taxonomy

Order Spirostreptida Brandt, 1833
Family Cambalidae Cook, 1895
Genus Glyphiulus Gervais, 1847

## Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n.

http://zoobank.org/C306F018-1EAF-40C8-AC73-2208DF00FDA9
Figs 1A, 2-6

Type material. Holotype male, China: Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, Xilin County, Zhoubang Village, Zhoubang Cave, $24^{\circ} 33.201^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 105^{\circ} 06.634^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. 820 m , 9 Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS). Paratypes: 61 males, 87 females and 12 juveniles, same date and locality as holotype (IBGAS).

Other material. One male, Yunnan Province, Guangnan County, Bamei Town, Ake Village, Miaopu Cave, $24^{\circ} 14.767^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 105^{\circ} 05.384^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $690 \mathrm{~m}, 8$ Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS).

Etymology. This specific name is derived from the Latin word foetidus, meaning 'smelly' and refers to the extremely strong and unpleasant smell of the animals.

Diagnosis. The new species can be diagnosed by the following combination of morphological characteristics: (1) all crests on collum complete and fully developed, carinotaxic formula I-III $+\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{M}$; (2) telopodite of male legs I strongly degenerated, bi-segmented, as high as coxal process; (3) coxosternal mesal process of anterior gonopod prolonged and subtriangular; (4) flagellum of posterior gonopod short, with multiple branches at inner margin. See also Key below.

Description. Body segments with 53-67p $+1-2 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{T}$ (holotype $67 \mathrm{p}+1 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{T}$ ). Body size of ca. 45-63 mm long and 2.3-3.0 mm wide (holotype 62 and 2.7 mm , respectively).

Colouration. Brown to dark brown in vivo (Fig. 1A). In fixed condition, head redbrown with yellow dapples; collum yellow-brown, anterior and posterior margins and the crests red-brown; midbody red-brown, lateral crests, ozoporiferous tubercles and anterior rows of metatergal crests light yellow; antennae and legs pale to light yellow (Fig. 2).

Head. Each eye patch with $30-45$ pigmented ocelli arranged in five irregular vertical rows (Fig. 2A, B). Antennae slender, 2.88-3.35 mm long. Terminal part of antennomeres V expanded (Fig. 2B). Gnathochilarium with a separate promentum, polytrichous (Fig. 3A).


Figure I. Living animals. A Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n. from Zhoubang Cave B Glyphiulus calceus sp. n. from Xianren Cave C Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n. from Miaopu Cave D Glyphiulus impletus sp. n. from Guanyin Cave.

Collum. All crests on collum complete and fully developed, carinotaxic formula I-III + P + M (Fig. 2A, B).

Body segments. Postcollum constriction modest (Fig. 2A). Metatergal crests welldeveloped (Fig. 2A-E). Crests divided into two transverse rows of tubercles, carinotaxic formula $2 / 2+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+3 / 3+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+2 / 2$. Anterior tubercle (except ozoporiferous one) small and round, posterior one strip-shaped (Fig. 2A-E). Ozoporiferous tubercles round, wider than high, obviously larger than other tubercles (Fig. 3E). Location of the tubercle behind ozopore relatively medial, set off from ozoporiferous tubercle (Figs 2C-E, 3E). Lateral crests rather small (Fig. 15). Midbody rings round in cross-section (Fig. 3E), $2.02-2.44 \mathrm{~mm}$ high (vertical diameter) and $2.15-2.56 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide (horizontal diameter), the ratio of height to width 0.92-0.97.

Telson. Epiproct simple, with a rounded caudal ridge and a strong dorsal tooth (Fig. 2E). Paraprocts convex, polytrichous. Hypoproct crescent-shaped (Fig. 2F).

Walking legs. Slender, 2.71-3.15 mm long, obviously longer than body width (Fig. 3E, F).

Male sexual characters. Male legs I strongly degenerated, with a pair of bi-segmented telopodites and a pair of large, subdigitiform, coxal processes. Coxal processes contiguous medially and curved forward, with clusters of long and robust setae at base (Fig. 3B). Male legs II normal. Penes trapeziform and small, each possessing three robust distolateral setae (Fig. 3C). Male legs III modified, with coxa especially slender and elongated (Fig. 3D). Femora VI and VII normal, not inflated.

Anterior gonopods. Coxosterna shield-like, sunken medially. Coxosternal mesal processes prolonged, obviously higher than telopodites. Telopodites one-segmented,


Figure 2. Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., holotype. A anterior part of body, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{C}$ midbody segments, dorsal view $\mathbf{D}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{E}$ posterior part of body, dorsal view $\mathbf{F}$ same, ventral view.
placed laterally, curved and moveable, with several distal setae and a field of microsetae at base (Figs 4A, 5A, 6A).

Posterior gonopods. Compact (Figs 4B, 5B, 6B). Coxite with a medial lamelliform lobe and two rows of strong and curved setae at mediolateral margin. Flagella short with multiple branches at inner margin (Fig. 5C). Lateral margin with a field of microsetae (Fig. 5D).

Distribution. Known only from the type locality, a cave in Xilin County, Guangxi, and another cave in Guangnan County, Yunnan. The two caves are ca. 35 kilometres apart.


Figure 3. Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., holotype. A gnathochilarium, ventral view B legs I, anterior view $\mathbf{C}$ legs II, caudal view $\mathbf{D}$ legs III, caudal view $\mathbf{E}$ cross-section of a midbody segment, caudal view $\mathbf{F}$ midbody leg, anterior view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{CP}=$ coxal process; $\mathrm{P}=$ penes; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite.


Figure 4. Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view.


Figure 5. Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., paratype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{C}$ flagellum of posterior gonopods $\mathbf{D}$ microsetae at lateral margin of posterior gonopods. Scale bars: A, B $0.2 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D} 0.02 \mathrm{~mm}$.


Figure 6. Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{C}=$ coxosternum; $\mathrm{CMP}=$ coxosternal mesal process; $\mathrm{F}=$ flagellum; $\mathrm{L}=$ lamelliform lobe; $T=$ telopodite. Scale bars: A, B 0.2 mm .

## Glyphiulus calceus sp. n.

http://zoobank.org/39980A3D-3D10-4EFB-991D-A58E7AC13B54
Figs 1B, 7-11
Type material. Holotype male, China: Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, Tian'e County, Bala Town, Madong Village, Hanyaotun, Xianren Cave $24^{\circ} 47.117^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$, $107^{\circ} 04.851^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $900 \mathrm{~m}, 2$ Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen $\&$ X. Guo leg. (IBGAS). Paratypes: Thirteen males, 11 females and 1 juvenile, same date and locality as holotype (IBGAS).

Etymology. This specific name is derived from the Latin word calceus, meaning 'shoe' and refers to the shape of the coxosternal mesal process of the anterior gonopod.

Diagnosis. The new species can be diagnosed by the following combination of morphological characteristics: (1) all crests on collum complete and fully developed, carinotaxic formula I-III + P + M; (2) telopodite of male legs I bi-segmented, obviously shorter than coxal process; (3) coxosternal mesal process of anterior gonopod prolonged and shoe-shaped; (4) flagellum of posterior gonopod short and zigzag-shaped. See also Key below.

Description. Body segments with $58-67 \mathrm{p}+1-2 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{T}$ (holotype with $67 \mathrm{p}+1 \mathrm{a}+$ T). Body size of ca. 45-63 mm long and $2.6-3.1 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide (holotype 58 and 2.9 mm , respectively).

Colouration. Brown to yellow brown in vivo (Fig. 1B); brown to red-brown in fixed condition (Fig. 7A-F).


Figure 7. Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., holotype. A anterior part of body, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{C}$ midbody segments, dorsal view $\mathbf{D}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{E}$ posterior part of body, ventral view $\mathbf{F}$ same, lateral view.

Head. Each eye patch with $8-15$ pigmented ocelli, arranged in two irregular vertical rows (Fig. 7B). Antennae slender, $2.90-3.28 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Terminal part of antennomeres V expanded (Fig. 7B). Gnathochilarium with a separate promentum, polytrichous (Fig. 8A).

Collum. All crests complete and obvious, carinotaxic formula $\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{III}+\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{M}$ (Fig. 7A, B).

Body segments. Postcollum constriction obvious (Fig. 7A). Metaterga strongly crested (Fig. 7A-F). Crests with two transverse rows of tubercles, carinotaxic for-


Figure 8. Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., holotype. A gnathochilarium, ventral view B legs I, anterior view $\mathbf{C}$ legs II, caudal view $\mathbf{D}$ legs III, caudal view $\mathbf{E}$ cross-section of a midbody segment, caudal view $\mathbf{F}$ midbody leg, anterior view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{CP}=$ coxal process; $\mathrm{P}=$ penes; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite.


Figure 9. Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view.


Figure 10. Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., paratype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{C}$ flagellum of posterior gonopods $\mathbf{D}$ microsetae at lateral margin of posterior gonopods. Scale bars: $\mathbf{A} 0.2 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{B} 0.15 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{C} 0.025 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{D} 0.03 \mathrm{~mm}$.


Figure II. Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{C}=$ coxosternum; $\mathrm{CMP}=$ coxosternal mesal process; $\mathrm{F}=$ flagellum; $\mathrm{L}=$ lamelliform lobe; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite. Scale bars: A, B 0.2 mm .
mula $2 / 2+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+3 / 3+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+2 / 2$. Anterior tubercle (except ozoporiferous one) small and upright, posterior one directed caudally, both with sharp tips (Fig. 7A-F). Ozoporiferous tubercle round, higher than broad, obviously larger than other tubercles (Fig. 8E). Location of the tubercle behind ozopore relatively medial, set off from ozoporiferous tubercle in caudal view (Figs 7C, D, 8E). Lateral crests rather small. Midbody rings round in cross-section (Fig. 8E), 2.10-2.48 mm high (vertical diameter) and 2.19-2.59 mm wide (horizontal diameter), the ratio of height to width 0.95-0.98.

Telson. Epiproct simple, with a rounded caudal ridge and a strong dorsal tooth. Paraprocts convex. Hypoproct crescent-shaped (Fig. 7E, F).

Walking legs. 3.17-3.67 mm long, obviously longer than body width (Fig. 8E, F).
Male sexual characters. Telopodite of male legs I strongly degenerated, bi-segmented. Coxal processes obviously longer than telopodites (Fig. 8B). Penes broad, tongueshaped (Fig. 8C). Male legs III with slender and elongated coxa (Fig. 8D). Femora VI and VII normal, not inflated.

Anterior gonopods. Coxosternum shield-like, sunken medially. Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods elongated and shoe-shaped, obviously higher than telopodites. Telopodite one-segmented, curved and moveable, with round tip and a field of microsetae at base (Figs 9A, 10A, 11A).

Posterior gonopods. Mediolateral margins of coxite brush-like. Flagella short and zigzag-shaped (Fig. 10C). A long seta at anterolateral margin (Figs 9B, 11B). Lateral margin with a field of microsetae (Fig. 10D).

Distribution. Known only from the type locality, a cave in Tian'e County, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region.

## Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n.

http://zoobank.org/EDB6ECE1-6518-443A-8E64-882573FA9B9F
Figs 1C, 12-16
Type material. Holotype male, China: Yunnan Province, Guangnan County, Bamei Town, Ake Village, Miaopu Cave, $24^{\circ} 14.767^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 105^{\circ} 05.384^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $690 \mathrm{~m}, 8$ Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS). Paratypes: 9 males, 12 females and 9 juveniles, same date and locality as holotype (IBGAS).

Etymology. This specific name is derived from the type locality.


Figure I 2. Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n., holotype. A anterior part of body, dorsal view B same, lateral view $\mathbf{C}$ midbody segments, dorsal view $\mathbf{D}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{E}$ posterior part of body, ventral view $\mathbf{F}$ same, lateral view.


Figure 13. Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n., holotype. A gnathochilarium, ventral view B legs I, anterior view $\mathbf{C}$ legs II, caudal view $\mathbf{D}$ legs III, caudal view $\mathbf{E}$ cross-section of a midbody segment, caudal view F midbody leg, anterior view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{CP}=$ coxal process; $\mathrm{P}=$ penes; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite.


Figure 14. Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{B}$ posterior gonopods, caudal view.


Figure I5. Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n., paratype. $\mathbf{A}$ anterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{B}$ posterior gonopods, caudal view. Scale bars: A, B 0.2 mm .

Diagnosis. The new species can be diagnosed by the following combination of morphological characteristics: (1) all crests on collum fully developed, carinotaxic formula $1 a+2 c+$ III $-I V+5 c+6 a+p c+m a+p c+6 a+5 c+I V-I I I+2 c+1 a ;$ (2) metatergal crests not divided, carinotaxic formula $2+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+3+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+2$ (3) telopodite of male legs I complete, not degenerated, five-segmented; (4) anterior gonopod possessing a coxosternal mesal process and a coxosternal lateral process, coxosternal mesal process with


Figure 16. Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{C}=$ coxosternum; $\mathrm{CLP}=$ coxosternal lateral process; $\mathrm{CMP}=$ coxosternal mesal process; $\mathrm{F}=$ flagellum; $\mathrm{L}=$ lamelliform lobe; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite. Scale bars: $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} 0.1 \mathrm{~mm}$.
a long and sharp tip, coxosternal lateral process with a blunt tip; (5) flagellum of posterior gonopod extremely long and smooth, slightly curved. See also Key below.

Description. Body segments with 56-73p + 1a + T (holotype 73p + 1a + T). Body size of ca. 38-55 mm long and 2.0-2.3 mm wide (holotype 54 and 2.3 mm , respectively).

Colouration. Brown to dark brown in vivo (Fig. 1C); taupe to red-brown in fixed condition (Fig. 12A-F).

Head. Each eye patch with 9-12 pigmented ocelli arranged in 2-3 irregular vertical rows (Fig. 12B). Antennae slender, $2.20-2.38 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Terminal part of antennomeres V slightly expanded (Fig. 12B). Gnathochilarium with a separate promentum, polytrichous (Fig. 13A).

Collum. All crests developed, carinotaxic formula $1 \mathrm{a}+2 \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{III}-$ IV $+5 \mathrm{c}+6 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{pc}+\mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{pc}+6 \mathrm{a}+5 \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{IV}-\mathrm{III}+2 \mathrm{c}+1 \mathrm{a}$ (Fig. 12A, B).

Body segments. Postcollum constriction modest (Fig. 12A). Metaterga strongly crested (Fig. 12A-F). All metatergal crests undivided (Fig. 12A-D, F), carinotaxic formula $2+I / i+3+I / i+2$. Anterior part of crest round and broad, posterior part strip-shaped. Ozoporiferous tubercles large and round, as high as broad. Lateral crests fully developed. Midbody rings round in cross-section (Fig. 13E), 1.70-2.01 mm high (vertical diameter) and $1.74-2.08 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide (horizontal diameter), the ratio of height to width 0.96-0.99.

Telson. Epiproct with a rounded caudal ridge and an evident, axial, dorsal rib (Fig. 12F). Paraproct convex, with an evident depression near caudal edge, polytrichous. Hypoproct crescent-shaped (Fig. 12E, F).

Walking legs. 2.64-2.80 mm long, obviously longer than body width (Fig. 13E, F).

Male sexual characters. Telopodite of male legs I complete, five-segmented (Fig. 13B). Penes rather broad and round (Fig. 13C). Male legs II and III modified as usual (Fig. 13C, D). Femora VI and VII normal, not inflated.

Anterior gonopods. Coxosternum shield-like, sunken medially. Distal part of coxosternum with a deep indentation, the latter separating a mesal process and a lateral process. Coxosternal mesal process digitiform, obviously higher than telopodite. Coxosternal lateral process broad, with a blunt tip, nearly as high as telopodite. Telopodite short, onesegmented with thin and round tip and a field of microsetae at base (Figs 14A, 15A, 16A).

Posterior gonopods. Mediolateral margins of coxite brush-like. Flagella smooth, curved and extremely long. Lateral margin with a field of microsetae (Figs 14B, 15B, 16B).

Distribution. Known only from the type locality, a cave in Guangnan County, Yunnan Province.

Notes. Since the definitions of Glyphiulus and Hypocambala are still uncertain, this new species may be a member of Hypocambala. Mauriès (1977) considered that the two genera are distinguished only by the absence (Hypocambala) and presence (Glyphiulus) of transverse crests on body. Golovatch et al. (2011) dealt with the crests as a species-level character, and transferred Glyphiulus vietnamicus Mauriès, 1977 to Hypocambala based on the complete male legs I. However, this arrangement didn't fully resolve this problem. In the genus Glyphiulus, there are still several species which present the same feature of male legs I and were not transferred to Hypocambala, for example G. costulifer, G. intermedius, G. parobliteratus, G. percostulifer, G. pulcher, and $G$. semicostulifer. A serious revision of the two genera is definitely needed but until then, this new species is assigned to Glyphiulus.

Usually, one cave supports one species of Cambalopsidae (Likhitrakarn et al. 2017). However, in our investigations, it was found that two species (G. guangnanensis sp. n. and G. foetidus sp. n.) could coexist in one place (Miaopu Cave), possibly due to the fact that they are troglophilic. Besides this, sympatry is also true for G. semigranulatus (likely troglophilic) and G. obliteratus (presumably troglobitic) which coexist in another cave (Bailong Cave).

## Glyphiulus impletus sp. n.

http://zoobank.org/F02E3546-7C94-4C0E-8091-88D4999003B4
Figs 1D, 17-21
Type material. Holotype male, China: Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, Lingyun County, Luolou Town, Geding Village, Longcitun, Guanyin Cave $24^{\circ} 24.700^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$, $106^{\circ} 49.517^{\prime}$ E, alt. $830 \mathrm{~m}, 4$ Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS). Paratypes: 22 males, 26 females and 9 juveniles, same date and locality as holotype (IBGAS); 17 males, 14 females and 43 juveniles, Lingyun County, Luolou Town, Geding Village, Longweitun, Paifang Cave $24^{\circ} 24.884^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 106^{\circ} 48.900^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. 830 m, 4 Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS).


Figure 17. Glyphiulus impletus sp. n., holotype. A anterior part of body, dorsal view $\mathbf{B}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{C}$ midbody segments, dorsal view $\mathbf{D}$ same, lateral view $\mathbf{E}$ posterior part of body, dorsal view $\mathbf{F}$ same, ventral view.

Other material examined. Seven males, 6 females and 4 juveniles, Lingyun County, Sicheng Town, Shuiyuan Cave $24^{\circ} 21.992^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 106^{\circ} 34.670^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $450 \mathrm{~m}, 3$ Jan. 2011, H.M. Chen leg. (IBGAS); 17 males and 14 females, Lingyun County, Sicheng Town, Naling Cave $24^{\circ} 21.926^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 106^{\circ} 33.911^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $500 \mathrm{~m}, 4 \mathrm{Jan}$. 2011, H.M. Chen leg. (IBGAS); 3 males and 1 female, Fengshan County, Yuanyang Cave $24^{\circ} 32.518^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 107^{\circ} 03.768^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. $640 \mathrm{~m}, 3$ Jan. 2017, X.K. Jiang, H.M. Chen \& X. Guo leg. (IBGAS); 1 male, 2 females and 1 juvenile, Nandan County, Bachuan Cave $25^{\circ} 03.966^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 107^{\circ} 37.392^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 31$


Figure 18. Glyphiulus impletus sp. n., holotype. A gnathochilarium, ventral view B legs I, anterior view $\mathbf{C}$ legs II, caudal view $\mathbf{D}$ legs III, caudal view $\mathbf{E}$ cross-section of a midbody segment, caudal view $\mathbf{F}$ midbody leg, anterior view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{CP}=$ coxal process; $\mathrm{P}=$ penes; $\mathrm{T}=$ telopodite.

Jan. 2017, H.M. Chen \& C. Chen leg. (IBGAS); 17 males, 24 females and 24 juveniles, Donglan County, Xinyan Village, Qiumotun, Ganma Cave $24^{\circ} 26.784^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 107^{\circ} 20.584^{\prime} \mathrm{E}$, alt. 320 m, 2 Feb. 2017, H.M. Chen \& C. Chen leg. (IBGAS).


Figure 19. Glyphiulus impletus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{B}$ posterior gonopods, caudal view.

Etymology. This specific name is derived from the Latin word impletus, meaning 'plentiful', referring to the large number of specimens of the new species in our collections.

Diagnosis. The new species can be diagnosed by the following combination of morphological characteristics: (1) all crests on collum complete and fully developed, carinotaxic formula I-III + P + M; (2) telopodite of male leg I bi-segmented, shorter than coxal process; (3) coxosternal mesal process of anterior gonopod slender and strongly prolonged; (4) flagellum of posterior gonopod short and zigzag-shaped. See also Key below.

Description. Body segments with 71-82p $+1 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{T}$ (holotype 73p+1a+T). Body ca. 51-66 mm long and 2.3-3.2 mm wide (holotype 64 mm and 3.0 mm , respectively).

Colouration. Brown to dark brown in vivo (Fig. 1D). In fixed condition, yellowbrown to red-brown, tergal crests dark red-brown to castaneous brown (Fig. 17A-F).

Head. Each eye patch with 7-20 pigmented ocelli arranged in 1-3 irregular vertical rows (Fig. 17A, B). Antennae slender, 2.34-3.31 mm long. Terminal part of antennomeres V obviously expanded (Fig. 17B). Gnathochilarium with a separate promentum, polytrichous (Fig. 18A).

Collum. All crests on collum complete and fully developed, carinotaxic formula I-III + P + M (Fig. 17A, B).

Body segments. Postcollum constriction modest (Fig. 17A). Metaterga strongly crested (Fig. 17A-E). Metatergal crests divided into two transverse rows of tubercles, carinotaxic formula $2 / 2+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+3 / 3+\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{i}+2 / 2$. Anterior tubercle (except ozoporiferous one) small and upright, posterior one directed caudally, both tubercles with sharp tips (Fig. 17A-E). Ozoporiferous tubercle round, higher than broad, obviously larger than


Figure 20. Glyphiulus impletus sp. n., paratype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view $\mathbf{B}$ posterior gonopods, caudal view C flagellum of posterior gonopods $\mathbf{D}$ microsetae at lateral margin of posterior gonopods. Scale bars: A $0.2 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{B} 0.15 \mathrm{~mm}$ C, D 0.3 mm .
other tubercles (Fig. 18E). Location of the tubercle behind ozopore relatively medial, set off from ozoporiferous tubercle in caudal view (Figs 17B-E, 18E). Lateral crests well developed. Midbody rings round in cross-section (Fig. 18E), 1.88-2.42 mm high (vertical diameter) and $1.91-2.42 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide (horizontal diameter), the ratio of height to width 0.95-1.00.

Telson. Epiproct simple, with a rounded caudal ridge and a strong dorsal tooth. Paraprocts convex, polytrichous. Hypoproct crescent-shaped (Fig. 17E, F).

Walking legs. Slender, $2.52-3.41 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, longer than body width (Fig. 18E, F).
Male sexual characters. Telopodite of male legs I strongly degraded, bi-segmented (Fig. 18B). Penes rather small and oval (Fig. 18C). Male legs II and III modified as usual (Fig. 18C, D). Femora VI and VII normal, not inflated.


Figure 21. Glyphiulus impletus sp. n., holotype. A anterior gonopods, caudal view B posterior gonopods, caudal view. Abbreviations: $\mathrm{C}=$ coxosternum; $\mathrm{CMP}=$ coxosternal mesal process; $\mathrm{F}=$ flagellum; $\mathrm{L}=$ lamelliform lobe; T = telopodite. Scale bars: A, B 0.1 mm .


Figure 22. Distributions of Glyphiulus foetidus sp. n., Glyphiulus calceus sp. n., Glyphiulus guangnanensis sp. n. and Glyphiulus impletus sp. n.

Anterior gonopods. Coxosternum shield-like, sunken medially. Coxosternal mesal process slender and strongly prolonged. Telopodite thin, curved with a rounded tip, and a field of microsetae at base (Figs 19A, 20A, 21A).

Posterior gonopods. Mediolateral margins of coxite brush-like. Flagella short and zigzag-shaped. Lateral margin with a field of microsetae (Figs 19B, 20B, 21B).

Distribution. Known from the type locality and several caves scattered in northwestern Guangxi.

## A key to species of the Glyphiulus javanicus group currently known from China (except G. formosus), based mainly on male characters

1 Crests on collum fully developed (Figs 2A, 7A, 12A, 17A)......................... 2

- At least some crests on collum more or less obliterated............................. 12

2 All crests on collum complete, carinotaxic formula of collum I-III $+\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{M}$ (Figs 2A, 7A, 17A); epiproct with a strong dorsal tooth (Figs 2E, 7F, 17E); paraprocts convex (Figs 2F, 7E, 17F); telopodites of male legs I strongly reduced, 1-3-segmented (Figs 3B, 8B, 18B); flagella of posterior gonopods short (Figs 4B, 9B, 19B) 3

- $\quad$ Not all crests on collum complete (Fig. 12A); epiproct with an axial dorsal rib (Fig. 12F); paraproct convex, with an evident depression near caudal edge (Fig. 12E); telopodites of male legs I normal or slightly reduced in size, $4-5-\mathrm{seg}$ mented (Fig. 13B); flagella of posterior gonopods long (Fig. 14B)8

3 Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods elongated, obviously higher than telopodites (Figs 4A, 9A, 19A) 4

- Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods short............................ 6

4 Flagella of posterior gonopods with multiple branches (Fig. 5C)
G. foetidus sp. n.

- Flagella of posterior gonopods zigzag-shaped (Figs 10C, 20C) ................... 5

5 Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods shoe-shaped (Figs 9A, 10A, 11A) G. calceus sp. n.

- Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods thin and strongly elongated (Figs 19A, 20A, 21A) G. impletus sp. n.7

7 Telopodites of male legs I one-segmented; anterior gonopod coxosternum lower than telopodites.
G. pulcher

- Telopodites of male legs I bi-segmented; anterior gonopod coxosternum higher than telopodites
G. echinoides

8 Carinotaxic formula of collum $1 \mathrm{a}+2 \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{III}-\mathrm{IV}+5 \mathrm{c}+6 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{pc}+\mathrm{ma}$ (Fig. 12A, B)...
$\qquad$

- Carinotaxic formula of collum not as above............................................. 9
9 Carinotaxic formula of collum I-III $+4 \mathrm{c}+5 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{pc}+\mathrm{ma}$ ..... 10
Carinotaxic formula of collum I $+2 \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{III}-\mathrm{IV}+5 \mathrm{c}+6 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{pc}+\mathrm{ma}$ ..... 11
10 Carinotaxic formula of midbody segments $2 / 2+I / i+3 / 3+I / i+2 / 2$; coxosternalmesal processes of anterior gonopods broadG. latus
al mesal
processes of anterior gonopods slender G. paracostulifer
11es of anterior gonopods elongated and strong; lamelliform lobes of posteriorgonopods obviously elongatedG. intermedius- Telopodites of male legs I reduced in size, five-segmented; coxosternal mesalprocesses of anterior gonopods slender; lamelliform lobes of posterior gonop-ods shortG. liangshanensis12 Telopodites of male legs I normal; coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gono-pods elongated; flagella of posterior gonopods long..............G. parobliteratus
- Telopodites of male legs I reduced in size, 4-5-segmented; coxosternalmesal processes of anterior gonopods not elongated; flagella of posteriorgonopods absent13
13 Collum not completely smooth, only medial crests obliterated ..... G. zorzini
Collum smooth, without apparent longitudinal crests. ..... 14
14 Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods folded. ..... G. obliteratoides
Coxosternal mesal processes of anterior gonopods not folded. ..... 15
15
male legs I with a claw ..... G. obliteratus
- $\quad$ Carinotaxic formula of midbody segments $2 / 2+I / i+3 / 3+I / i+2 / 2$; telopodites of male legs I without claw. ..... 16
16 Lamelliform lobes of posterior gonopods elongated G. sinensis Lamelliform lobes of posterior gonopods short G. subobliteratus


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# Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis, a new species of centipede from high altitude forest in central Taiwan (Chilopoda, Lithobiomorpha, Lithobiidae) 

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#### Abstract

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. occurring at Mei-Feng Farm, Highland Experimental Farm of National Taiwan University, Nantou, Taiwan, is characterised by a male secondary sexual character on $\operatorname{leg} 15$, a very large ventral swelling occupying almost $50 \%$ of the ventral surface of the femur; the gently curved apical region bearing approximately 20 short setae and numerous very small pores of flexo-canal epidermal glands. This male secondary sexual character is described for the first time in the genus Lithobius.


## Keywords

Lithobius, male secondary sexual character, taxonomy

## Introduction

In some male Lithobius species, there are secondary sexual characters on the dorsal surface of the femur or tibia of legs 14 and 15 (Lewis, 1981). In Lithobius calcaratus C. L. Koch, 1844, leg 15 has a dorsal wart-like projection on the inner end of the femur (Carballo et al. 1992). For four species described from East Asia: a characteristic
crest with long setae as a Chasen-bamboo whisk at the distal end of the tibia of anal legs is present in Lithobius (Monotarsobius) tuberculatus (Murakami, 1965); a small oval region densely covered with small pores of epidermal glands and long setae at the dorsal tibia of legs 15 in Lithobius (Monotarsobius) sasanus (Murakami, 1965); a dorsal wart-like projection is present on the femur of legs 15 in Lithobius (Monotarsobius) dziadoszi Matic, 1970, and a dorsal wart-like projection on the tibia of legs 15 in Lithobius (Monotarsobius) riedeli Matic, 1970. Eason (1973) described the male secondary sexual characters of six species originally assigned to Lithobius, mostly from Central America. a shallow excavation bearing a tuft of setae on the dorsal surface of $14^{\text {th }}$ tibia, and a small wart-like outgrowth projection from the dorsal excavation on the $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia in Vulcanbius godmani (Pocock, 1895); a dorsal shallow excavation on the $14^{\text {th }}$ tibia in Vulcanbius salvini (Pocock, 1895); a crest rises from the dorsal excavation on $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia in Vulcanbius vulcani (Pocock, 1895); a dorsal wart-like projection on $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia in both Guerrobius pontifex (Pocock, 1895) and Guerrobius humberti (Pocock, 1895); a dorsal wart-like projection on $15^{\text {th }}$ femur in Lithobius obscurus (Meinert, 1872).

The subgenus Lithobius (Monotarsobius) is among the poorly studied taxa of East Asia (Takakuwa 1941a, b; Wang 1955, 1956, 1957, 1959, 1963; Murakami 1965; Matic 1970; Pei et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2009, 2012, 2014). Three species of Lithobius (Monotarsobius): Lithobius (Monotarsobius) holstii (Pocock, 1895), Lithobius (Monotarsobius) obtusus (Takakuwa, 1941), and Lithobius (Monotarsobius) ramulosus (Takakuwa, 1941), were recorded from Taiwan by Takakuwa (1941a, b) and Wang (1955, 1956, 1957, 1959, 1963). However, Takakuwa's specimens were destroyed in an air attack during the war in 1945, and we could not locate Wang's specimens in Taiwan. We studied specimens of centipedes collected from Taiwan, deposited at the National Museum of Natural Science (NMNS) and here describe a new lithobiid.

## Materials and methods

Forty-nine specimens of both sexes of the new species treated below were collected from Mei-Feng Farm, Highland Experimental Farm of National Taiwan University, Nantou, Taiwan. The material was studied using stereo-microscope and SEM. Type specimens are preserved in $75 \%$ alcohol and deposited in the department of Zoology, National Museum of Natural Science, Taichung, Taiwan. Terminology for external anatomy follows Bonato et al. (2010). The following abbreviations are used in the text and tables:

| $\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T T}$ | tergite, tergites; | $\mathbf{a}$ | anterior, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{F}$ | femur, | $\mathbf{t}$ | trochanter, |
| $\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{S S}$ | sternite, sternites; | $\mathbf{m}$ | median, |
| $\mathbf{T i}$ | tibia; | $\mathbf{P}$ | prefemur, |
| $\mathbf{C}$ | coxa, | $\mathbf{p}$ | posterior. |

## Taxonomy

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n.
http://zoobank.org/C7382703-E3CE-445D-8166-6A3C34416C04
Figures 1-7

Type material. Holotype $\overparen{\delta}^{\lambda}$ (NMNS7634-073): Taiwan, Nantou County, Mei-Feng Farm, apple orchard, $24^{\circ} 05^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 121^{\circ} 10^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 2080 \mathrm{~m}, 19$ Feb 2002, leg. Sheng-Hai Wu.

Paratypes:1ð (NMNS7634-072), grassland; 1才 (NMNS7634-074), plum orchard; $1 \oint^{\AA}$ (NMNS7634-075); $1 q$ (NMNS7634-068), pear orchard; $2 q$ (NMNS7634071), waste land; $1 \circlearrowleft 1 q$ (NMNS7634-070), grassland; same data as holotype.

Other material. $1 q$ (NMNS7634-096), pear orchard; $3 q$ (NMNS7634-098), plum orchard; $1 \delta 1 q$ (NMNS7634-099), plum orchard; $1 \circlearrowleft$ (NMNS7634-100), pear orchard; $1 \lesssim 4$ ( $N$ MNS7843-006), grassland; $2 \oint 1 q$ (NMNS7843-007), grassland; $10^{\top} 2 q$ (NMNS7843-003), grassland; 2す5 $q$ (NMNS7843-004), plum orchard; $2 q$ (NMNS7843-005), pear orchard; $2 \uparrow$ (NMNS7843-002), grassland; $1{ }^{\Uparrow}$ (NMNS7843001), pear orchard; $2 \circlearrowleft 59$ (NMNS7843-009), grassland; $2 \precsim 1$ § (NMNS7843-008), pear orchard; same locality as holotype, 15 Apr 2002, leg. Sheng-Hai Wu.

Etymology. Refers to the type locality.
Diagnosis. A species of the genus Lithobius Leach, 1814, subgenus Monotarsobius Verhoeff, 1905, normally with 19+19 elongate antennal articles, body length approximately 9 mm ; cephalic plate $0.8-0.9$ times as long as wide; six ocelli [one posterior and three dorsal, two ventral] on each side, posterior ocellus comparatively large; Tömösváry's organ moderately small, slightly larger than adjacent ocelli; $2+2$ coxosternal teeth; porodonts moderately slender, posterolateral to the outer tooth; posterior angles of all tergites lacking triangular projections; tarsi fused on legs $1-13$; male secondary sexual characters on legs 15, a large ventral domed swelling on femur (Figure 1), and a dorsal shallow excavation on tarsus 2; coxal pores round, 3333 in males, 3443 or 3444 in females; female gonopods with $2+2$ sharp coniform spurs, claw undivided.

Description. Body length: $7.0-9.8 \mathrm{~mm}$. Body colour (in alcohol): yellowish with dark patches.

Antennae with 19 articles (Figure 2A); basal three articles typically wider than long, following articles markedly longer than wide; distal article much longer than wide, up to 2.8 times as long as wide; abundant setae on antennal surface, less so on basal articles, gradual increase in density to around fourth article, then more or less constant in number.

Cephalic plate smooth, convex, 0.8-0.9 times as long as wide; posterior marginal ridge moderately broader and weakly concave (Figure 2B); small pores of flexo-canal epidermal glands (gp), large pores of recto-canal epidermal glands ( $\mathrm{gp}^{*}$ ) and setae scattered sparsely over the whole surface (Figure 2C) (Müller, 2009).

Six ocelli on each side, one posterior and three dorsal, two ventral, arranged in two irregular row (Figure 3A); the posterior ocellus comparatively large; ocelli domed, translucent, usually darkly pigmented.


Figure I. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n., A ${ }^{\top}$ (NMNS7843-004), lateral view of male $15^{\text {th }}$ legs $\mathbf{B}{ }^{\lambda}\left(\right.$ NMNS7634-074), lateral view of male $15^{\text {th }}$ femur.

Tömösváry's organ comparatively small, nearly rounded; situated at anterolateral margin of cephalic plate, slightly bigger than the adjoining ocelli (Figure 3B).

Forcipular coxosternite sub-trapezoidal, anterior margin narrow, external side lightly longer than internal side; median longitudinal cleft moderately deep (Figure 4A); anterior border with $2+2$ large triangular coxosternal teeth, inner tooth slightly larger than outer one; porodonts moderately slender, setiform, posterolateral to the outer tooth (Figure 4 B ); some scattered setae on the ventral side of coxosternite.

Tergites smooth, without wrinkles, backside slightly hunched; T1 generally trapeziform, posterior margin narrower than anterior margin, narrower than T3 and the cephalic plate; T3 slightly narrower than the cephalic plate; posterior margin of TT1, 3, 5, 8, 10 and 12 weakly concave; TT1, 3 and 5 with continuous lateral and posterior marginal ridges, other tergites with discontinuous posterior marginal ridges; posterior angles of all tergites lacking triangular projections (Figure 2A); tiny setae scattered very sparsely over the surface.

Sternites narrower posteriorly, generally trapeziform, comparatively smooth, setae emerging from pores scattered very sparsely over the surface.

Legs: tarsi fused on legs 1-13 (Figure 5A), well-defined on legs 14-15; all legs with fairly long claws, curved ventrally; anterior and posterior accessory spines on legs $1-14$, the anterior one moderately slender, the posterior spine short and thick (Figure 5B); legs15 lack anterior accessory spines; legs 14-15 with numerous large pores ( $9.1-11.1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) of the telopodal glands on the inner surfaces of femur, tibia, tarsus 1 and tarsus 2 (Figure 5C), the pores each opening into the centre of a bell-shaped cavity $(3.5-3.9 \mu \mathrm{~m})$ (Figure 5C), some small pores ( $1.4-1.6 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) of flexo-canal epidermal glands sparsely distributed along the border of the epidermal cells (Figure 5D). Male $15^{\text {th }}$ legs with secondary sexual character; female legs 15 and other legs without secondary sexual characters on femur or tibia (Figure 7A). Leg plectrotaxy as in Table 1.


Figure 2. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. ठ (NMNS7843-007), A habitus, dorsal view B cephalic plate $\mathbf{C}$ small pores of flexo-canal epidermal glands (gp) and large pores of recto-canal epidermal glands ( $\mathrm{gp}^{*}$ ) on the cephalic plate.


Figure 3. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. A (NMNS7843-004), six ocelli on right side B ${ }^{\text {§ }}$ (NMNS7843-008), Tömösváry's organ (To).

Male secondary sexual character on leg 15: a large domed swelling on the ventral surface of femur, covering almost $50 \%$ (Figure 1, 6A); the surface of femoral swelling lacks the large pores of the telopodal glands (Figure 6B); the gently curved apical region bears approximately 20 short setae, and numerous very small pores ( $0.8-1.0$ $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) of flexo-canal epidermal glands densely distributed (Figure 6C); a dorsal shallow excavation on the tarsus 2 (Figure 5C).


Figure 4. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n., A $\overparen{ }$ (NMNS7634-070), ventral view of the head B $\widehat{\delta}$ (NMNS7843-008), coxosternal teeth and porodonts.


Figure 5. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. A, B, $q$ NMNS7843-009: $\mathbf{A}$ the $1^{\text {st }}$ to $4^{\text {th }}$ legbearing segments, ventral view $\mathbf{B}$ the claw of $4^{\text {th }} \operatorname{leg} \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D} \sigma^{\text {}}$ NMNS7634-070): $\mathbf{C}$ left $15^{\text {th }}$ leg and right $14^{\text {th }}$ leg, lateral-ventral view $\mathbf{D}$ large pores of the telopodal glands (tp) and small pore of flexo-canal epidermal gland (gp) on the $15^{\text {th }} \mathrm{leg}$.


Figure 6. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. A-C NMNS7634-070): A the femur and tibia of male $15^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{leg}$, ventral view $\mathbf{B}$ a large domed swelling on the ventral surface of male $15^{\mathrm{th}}$ femur $\mathbf{C}$ apical region of the swelling on the male $15^{\text {th }}$ femur $\mathbf{D} \widehat{\delta}^{\lambda}$ NMNS7843-008, male genital sternite and $15^{\text {hh }}$ sternite.


Figure 7. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. A ( $q$ NMNS7843-005): $15^{\mathrm{th}} \mathrm{leg}$ and female gonopod; B, C ( $\not \subset$ NMNS7843-009): B female genital sternite $\mathbf{C}$ terminal claw of female gonopod.

Table I. Leg plectrotaxy of Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n.

| leg | Ventral |  |  |  |  | Dorsal |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | C | t | P | F | Ti | C | t | P | F | Ti |
| 1 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | a |
| 2 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | a |
| 3 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | a |
| 4 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | a |
| 5 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | a |
| 6 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | ap |
| 7 | - | - | - | am | m | - | - | p | ap | ap |
| 8 | - | - | m | am | m | - | - | ap | ap | ap |
| 9 | - | - | m | am | m | - | - | ap | ap | ap |
| 10 | - | - | m | am | am | - | - | ap | ap | ap |
| 11 | - | - | mp | amp | am | - | - | ap | ap | ap |
| 12 | - | m | mp | amp | am | - | - | amp | ap | ap |
| 13 | - | m | mp | amp | am | - | - | amp | p | ap |
| 14 | - | m | mp | am | - | - | - | amp | - | - |
| 15 | - | m | amp | am | - | - | - | amp | - | - |

Coxal pores: 3333 in males, 3443 or 3444 in females, round, coxal pore field set in a relatively shallow groove, margin of coxal pore-field with slightly eminence.

Male sternite 15: trapeziform, posterolaterally narrower than anterolaterally, posterior margin straight, long setae scattered sparsely over the surface.

Male first genital sternite: wider than long, usually well chitinised; posterior margin quite deeply concave between the gonopods, without a medial bulge (Figure 6D); comparatively long setae evenly scattered on the ventral surface; gonopods short and small, with 2-3 long setae, apically slightly chitinized.

Female sternite 15: generally trapeziform, anterolaterally broader than posterolaterally, posterior margin straight, long setae scattered sparsely over the surface; the sternite of genital segment well chitinised, wider than long; posterior margin of genital sternite deeply concave (Figure 7 B ); short to long setae sparsely scattered over the ventral surface of the genital segment.

Female gonopod: first article fairly broad, bearing 11-13 long setae, arranged in three irregular rows; $2+2$ sharp coniform spurs, inner spur smaller (Figure 7A, B); second article with 7-9 rather long setae arranged in two irregular rows on its ventral side; third article usually with $2-3$ long setae on its ventral surface; terminal claw undivided, bearing a few thick sensilla coeloconica on its dorsodistal and ventral surface (Figure 7C).

## Remarks

Some Lithobius species, all from Russia, also have distinct sexual characters on male leg 15: the proximal part of male $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia of Lithobius (Monotarsobius) kurcheavae
described by Zalesskaja (1978) has a large swelling bearing a tuft of long bristles, and a longitudinal deep excavation on the dorsal surface; the dorsal surface of the male $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia of Lithobius (Monotarsobius) evsyukovi (Zuev 2017) a large, flat, ovoid wart supporting a few short setae at apex; the dorsal surface of $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia Lithobius (Monotarsobius) ferganensis (Trotzina, 1894) a small cylindrical wart supporting a few short setae at apex; while the male $15^{\text {th }}$ tibia of Lithobius (Chinobius) yuchernovi (Farzalieva et al. 2017) is characterized by a tubercle supporting a cluster of curved and long setae on the ventral surface. Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. differs from those by its unique male secondary sexual character on the ventral surface of $15^{\text {th }}$ femur, a large swelling with approximately 20 short setae and numerous very small pores, not found in any of those congeners.

Records of the species of Lithobius (Monotarsobius) from Taiwan by Takakuwa and Wang are listed as follows: locality: old name = new name; place name ??: unknown.

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) ramulosus (Takakuwa, 1941)
[1] Monotarsobius ramulosus Takakuwa, 1941a - Trans. Nat. Hist. Soc. Formosa 31 (213): 294-295; fig. 5, 6 (original description, key) (locality: Keisyu = Xizhou) Monotarsobius ramulosus: Takakuwa, 1941b - Fauna Nippon. 9(8-3): 74; fig. 84; (description, key) (locality: Keisyu = Xizhou)
Monotarsobius ramulosus: Takakuwa, 1942 -Trans. Nat. Hist. Soc. Formosa 32(231): 360 (locality: Keisyu = Xizhou)
Monotarsobius ramulosus: Wang 1955 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 8(1): 16 (locality: Taipei) Monotarsobius ramulosus: Wang 1956 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 9(2): 159 (locality: Hualien)

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) obtusus (Takakuwa, 1941)
[1] Monotarsobius obtusus Takakuwa, 1941a - Trans. Nat. Hist. Soc. Formosa 31 (213): 293-294; fig. 2 (original description, key) (locality: Keisyu = Xizhou, Shaka = Shalu, Tikunan = Zhunan)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Takakuwa 1941b - Fauna Nippon. 9(8-3): 75; fig. 85; (description, key) (locality: Keisyu = Xizhou, Shaka $=$ Shalu)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Wang 1955 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 8(1): 16 (locality: ShinTien = Hsintien)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Wang 1956 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 9(2): 159 (locality: Hualien)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Wang 1957 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 10(1): 28 (locality: Kao Yung ??)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Wang 1959 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 12(3, 4): 198 (locality: Taipei, Kao Yung ??)
Monotarsobius obtusus: Wang 1963 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 16(1, 2): 95 (locality: Rai Wu ??)

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) holstii (Pocock, 1895)
[1] Monotarsobius crassipes holstii (+M. takakuwai): Takakuwa 1941a - Trans. Nat. Hist. Soc. Formosa 31 (213): 292-293; fig. 1(description, key)
Monotarsobius crassipes holstii (+M. takakuwai): Takakuwa 1941b - Fauna Nippon. 9 (8-3): 78-79; fig. 90-91; (description, key) (locality: Puli, Taipei)
[2] Monotarsobius crassipes: Wang 1959 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 12 (3, 4): 198 (locality: Nantou, Taipei)
Monotarsobius crassipes: Wang 1963 - Quar. J. Taiwan Mus. 16 (1, 2): 95 (locality: Shao Tso Kiang ??)

Chamberlin and Wang (1952) recorded two species of Monotarsobius from three specimens allegedly collected by Takakuwa in 1933 from Taiwan: Monotarsobius rhysus Attems, 1934 and Monotarsobius argaeensis Attems, 1934. However, Takakuwa never came to Taiwan, and never reported these two species in any of his publications. Wang came to Taiwan and studied Taiwanese chilopods since 1953, and he did not record these two species again. We consider that the record of the two species is questionable.

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) meifengensis sp. n. is morphologically close to Lithobius (Monotarsobius) ramulosus (Takakuwa, 1941), Lithobius (Monotarsobius) obtusus (Takakuwa, 1941) and Lithobius (Monotarsobius) holstii (Pocock, 1895), with which it shares the following characters: antennae composed of 19-20 articles, six ocelli on each side of cephalic plate, $2+2$ coxosternal teeth. It can however be distinguished using the following key.

## Key to the Taiwanese species of Lithobius (Monotarsobius)

12222 coxal pores; terminal claw of female gonopod divided, biapiculate....... L. (M.) obtusus Takakuwa, 1941

- 3-5 coxal pores; terminal claw of female gonopod undivided ...................... 2

25555 coxal pores; a small sharp tooth on the base of terminal claw of female gonopod .............................................L. (M.) ramulosus Takakuwa, 1941

- 3-4 coxal pores; base of terminal claw of female gonopod without sharp tooth 3
3 Male legs 15 with secondary sexual characters, a large ventral swelling on the femur, a dorsal shallow excavation on the tarsus 2 (Figure 5C); terminal claw of female gonopod with smooth lateral margin, without ridge
L. (M.) meifengensis sp. n
- Male legs 15 without secondary sexual characters; terminal claw of female gonopod with irregular internal and external ridges $\qquad$


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# Hessebius luculentus, a new species of the genus Hessebius Verhoeff, I94I from China (Lithobiomorpha, Lithobiidae) 

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#### Abstract

Hessebius luculentus sp. n. (Lithobiomorpha: Lithobiidae), recently discovered from Shandan County, Zhangye City, Province Gansu, Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, China, is described. Morphologically it resembles H. jangtseanus (Verhoeff, 1942), but can be easily distinguished from the latter by size of Tömösváry's organ's, the morphological characters of a protuberance on the dorsal end of the second article of the female gonopods; and obvious differences in the dorsal plectrotaxy of both the $14^{\text {th }}$ and $15^{\text {th }}$ legs. The main morphological characters and a key to the known Chinese species of genus Hessebius based on adult specimens are presented.


## Keywords

China, Hessebius luculentus sp. n., Lithobiidae, Qinghai-Tibet Plateau

## Introduction

Hessebius was originally proposed as a genus in the family Lithobiidae by Verhoeff (1941) to accommodate the species H. kosswigi Verhoeff, 1941 and H. tauricus Verhoeff, 1941 described from Turkey. The latter species was reassigned to the genus

Lithobius Leach, 1814 by Zapparoli (1999). Zalesskaja (1978), Eason (1981), Pei et al. (2010) and Bonato et al. (2011) debated the taxonomic status of Hessebius and considered it at generic rank and selected H. kosswigi Verhoeff, 1941, from Turkey, as type species by subsequent designation (Verhoeff 1941, Zalesskaja 1978, and Eason 1981). Presently, the genus comprises 12 species (Zapparoli 2016), characterized by the following traits: antennae generally with 20 articles, 13-15 ocelli, forcipular coxosternal teeth $2+2$; tergites without posterior triangular projections; legs 14 and 15 thicker than the anterior legs in females, both thicker in males; coxal pores 4-7; the first article of the female gonopods with $2+2$ spurs, the second article with a massive expansion and projection on the dorsolateral ridge, and a long claw sometimes with a stout lateral tooth at its base. Hessebius has a distribution that extends from Mongolia and south-east China through central Asia (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan), the southern Urals, south-west Russia (Kalmykia and adjacent areas), westwards up to the Middle East (Iran, Armenia) and eastern Mediterranean basin (south-west Turkey, Rhodes, Cyprus, Syria, Palestine, Israel, Jordan, north Egypt, Cyrenaica) (Pei et al. 2010).

The myriapod fauna of China is still poorly known and very little attention has been paid to the study of Lithobiomorpha, with only 74 species/subspecies hitherto known from the country (Ma et al. 2014a, b, 2015; Pei et al. 2010, 2014, 2015, 2016; Qin et al. 2014), among which are three species of Hessebius viz., H. jangtseanus (Verhoeff, 1942), H. longispinipes Ma, Pei \& Zhu, 2009 and H. multiforaminis Pei, Ma, Zapparoli \& Zhu, 2010. In the present study another new species of Hessebius from Gansu Province, Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, China, is described and illustrated. The main morphological characters and key to the known Chinese species of genus Hessebius are presented.

## Materials and methods

All specimens were hand-collected under leaf litter or stones. The material was examined with the aid of Nikon SMZ-1500 stereomicroscope. The colour description is based on specimens in $75 \%$ ethanol, body length is measured from the anterior margin of the cephalic plate to the posterior end of the postpedal tergite. Type specimens are deposited in the School of Life Sciences, Hengshui University, Hengshui, China. Terminology applied to external anatomy follows Bonato et al. (2010).

The following abbreviations are used in the text and tables:

| $\mathbf{a}$ | anterior; | $\mathbf{P}$ | prefemur; |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{C}$ | coxa; | $\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{S S}$ | sternite, sternites; |
| $\mathbf{F}$ | femur; | $\mathbf{T , T T}$ | tergite, tergites; |
| $\mathbf{m}$ | median; | $\mathbf{T r}$ | trochanter; |
| $\mathbf{p}$ | posterior; | $\mathbf{T i}$ | tibia. |

## Taxonomy

Lithobiidae Newport， 1844
Hessebius Verhoeff， 1941

## Hessebius luculentus sp．n．

http：／／zoobank．org／CAA43A06－280A－4127－8BE6－C71C5E7A705A
Figs 1－8
 mm long， 1.9 mm broad，from the Mountain Yanzhi，Shandan County，Zhangye City， Gansu Province， $38^{\circ} 35^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 101^{\circ} 41^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 1395 \mathrm{~m}, 28$ July 2007，leg．Z．Di，deposited in the School of Life Sciences，Hengshui University，Hengshui，China．Paratypes： $4 q$ ， 4 ふた ${ }^{\text {だ，}}$ ，same data as holotype．

Etymology．the specific name luculentus refers to the moderately transparent pro－ tuberance on the dorsal terminal part of the second article of the female gonopods．

Diagnosis．Hessebius with body length $15.8-19.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ ，antennae composed of 20 articles；9－10 ocelli on each side，arranged in 3 irregular rows，terminal ocellus com－ paratively large；Tömösváry＇s organ smaller than the adjacent ocelli； $2+2$ coxosternal teeth；porodonts moderately thick，posterolateral to the lateralmost tooth；posterior angles of all tergites without triangular projections；tarsal articulation well defined on legs $1-15$ ；coxal pores $3-6$ ，oval to round，arranged in one row；female gonopods with $2+2$ moderately large，coniform spurs；dorsal terminal claw of the third article of the female gonopods simple，but with a small dentation in base；male gonopods short and small，with 3－4 long setae on the terminal segment．

Description．body length： $15.8-19.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ ，cephalic plate $1.4-1.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ long， $1.5-$ 1.9 mm wide；colour：antennal articles yellow－brown；cephalic plate and tergites yel－ low－brown with a reddish hue，edge of tergites lighter；pleural region and all sternites pale yellow－brown；all legs pale yellow－brown with greyish hue；distal part of forcipules brownish black，basal and proximal parts of forcipules，forcipular coxosternite and TT 14 and 15 darker．

Antennae： $20+20$ articles，one specimen with $20+22$ articles；basal article slightly longer than wide，the second one markedly longer than wide，following articles gradu－ ally shortening，distal article up to 4.0 times as long as wide；abundant setae on the antennal surface，less so on the basal articles，gradually increase in density of setae to about sixth article，then more or less constant．

Cephalic plate smooth，convex，longer than wide；tiny setae emerging from pores scattered very sparsely over the whole surface；frontal marginal ridge with shallow an－ terior median furrow；short to long setae scattered along the marginal ridge of the cephalic plate；lateral marginal ridge discontinuous，posterior margin continuous， straight（Fig．1）．

Nine－ten oval to rounded ocelli on each side（Fig．2），most of them rounded， domed，translucent，usually darkly pigmented，situated in three irregular rows；the


Figures I-8. Hessebius luculentus sp. n., I-3 and $\mathbf{8}$ holotype, male: I habitus, dorsal view $\mathbf{2}$ ocelli and Tömösváry's organ (To), lateral view $\mathbf{3}$ forcipular coxosternite, ventral view 4-7 paratype, female: $\mathbf{4}$ anterior margin of forcipular coxosternite, ventral view $\mathbf{5}$ posterior segments and gonopods, ventral view $\mathbf{6}$ gonopods, transparent protuberance in dorsolateral view $\mathbf{7}$ claw of female gonopod, lateral view $\mathbf{8}$ posterior segments and gonopods, ventral view. Scale bars: $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}(\mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}, \mathbf{5 - 8}), 2 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathbf{I}) ; 1 \mathrm{~mm}(\mathbf{4})$.
posterior ones comparatively large; the adjoining ventral ocelli slightly smaller and the adjoining dorsal ones slightly larger.

Tömösváry's organ situated at the anterolateral margin of the cephalic plate, moderately smaller than the adjoining ocelli and lying well apart from them (Fig. 2-To).

Coxosternite subtrapezoidal (Fig. 3), anterior margin narrow, lateral margins slightly longer than medial margins; median diastema moderately shallow, broad V-shaped; anterior margin with $2+2$ subtriangular small sharp teeth; porodonts slender, lying posterolateral to and separated from the lateralmost tooth (Fig. 3), with slight bulge at base; scattered short setae on the ventral side of coxosternite, longer setae near the dental margin, more longer setae near the porodonts.

All tergites smooth, without wrinkles, dorsum slightly convex, tiny setae emerging from pores scattered sparsely over the entire surface, near the margin with few long setae; T 1 narrower posterolaterally than anterolaterally, generally trapezoidal, narrower
than the cephalic plate and T 3, obviously longer than T 3, the cephalic plate slightly wider than T 3. Lateral marginal ridges of all tergites continuous. Posterior marginal ridges of TT 1 and 3 straight, continuous; posterior marginal ridges of TT 5, 7 and 8 slightly concave, discontinuous; posterior marginal ridges of TT 10, 12 and 14 concave, discontinuous. Posterior angles of tergites generally rounded, without triangular projections. Miniscule setae scattered sparsely over the surface, more numerous setae on anterior and posterior angles of each tergite, with $2-5$ long setae on anterior angles and posterior angles of each tergite.

Posterior side of sternites narrower than anterior, generally trapezoidal, smooth; setae emerging from sparsely scattered pores on the surface and lateral margin, few long setae; a pair of longer setae approximately symmetrical on the surface of the anterior part of each sternite; 1-2 long setae on the surfaces both of the middle part and posterior part of each sternite.

Legs robust, tarsal articulation defined on legs 1-15, tarsus 1 longer than tarsus 2. All legs with fairly long curved claws. Legs 1-14 with anterior and posterior accessory spurs; anterior accessory spurs moderately long and slender, forming a moderately small angle with the claw, posterior accessory spurs slightly more robust, forming a comparatively large angle with the claw; leg 15 lacking accessory spurs; short to long setae sparsely scattered over the surface of prefemur, femur and tibia of legs $1-13$, more setae on the tarsus, thicker setae scattered evenly over the tarsal surface, one row of thicker setae regularly arranged on the medial ventral side of tibia of legs $1-13$, with setae significantly reduced on legs 14 and 15 , no thicker setae regularly arranged in one row on the medial ventral side of tibia; legs 14 and 15 slightly thicker than the anterior pairs in the both female and male, especially in male; tarsus $15.1-5.3$ times as long as wide. Leg plectrotaxy as in table 1.

Coxal pores 3-6, round, variable in size, arranged in a row; usually $4(5) 6(5) 6(5) 6(5)$ in males and $3(4) 554(4)$ in females. Coxal pore field set in a relatively shallow groove, the coxal pore-field fringe with prominence. Prominence with short to moderately long setae sparsely scattered over the surface.

Table I. Leg plectrotaxy of Hessebius luculentus sp. n.

| Legs | Ventral |  |  |  |  | Dorsal |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | C | Tr | P | F | Ti | C | Tr | P | F | Ti |
| 1 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | ap | ap | a |
| 2-8 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | ap | ap | ap |
| 9 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | $\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{m}) \mathrm{p}$ | ap | ap |
| 10-11 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | amp | ap | ap |
| 12 |  |  | mp | amp | am | (m) |  | amp | ap | ap |
| 13 |  | (m) | amp | amp | am | m |  | amp | ap | ap |
| 14 |  | m | amp | amp | am | m |  | amp | p | p |
| 15 |  | m | amp | am | a | m |  | amp | p |  |

Letters in brackets indicate variable spines.

Female S 15 with anterior margin broader than posterior, generally trapezoidal, posteromedially straight. Short to long sparse setae evenly scattered on surface. Surface of the lateral sternal margin of genital segment well chitinized, posterior margin of genital sternite deeply concave between condyles of gonopods, except for a small, median tongue-shape bulge. Relatively long setae scattered over ventral surface of the genital segment, few setae near S 15 . Gonopods: first article fairly broad, bearing many short to moderately long setae about evenly scattered; with $2+2$ moderately long and slender, coniform spurs, inner spur slightly smaller than the outer (Fig. 5); with 6 robust spines arranged in one irregular row dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin. Second article with approximately ten long setae, arranged in two irregular rows, with nine robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin, 6 of them arranged in an irregular longitudinal row, three of them arranged in an irregular transversal row; the dorsal terminal part extending backwards and forming a moderately transparent protuberance. Third article with $2-3$ long setae ventrally, and two short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin (Fig. 6). Third article with a simple apical claw, and with a very small subtriangular denticle on inner margin (Fig. 7).

Male S 15 posterior margin narrower than anterior, posteromedially straight; density of setae on the surface of SS 13 and 14 in the male significantly increased, the S 15 is more significant, and the posterior more than the anterior; sternite of genital segment obviously smaller than the female, usually well sclerotized; posterior margin deeply concave between the gonopods, without medial bulge. Long setae scattered on the ventral surface of the genital segment, fewer setae near S 15, fringed with longer setae along the posterior margin; more than the female. Gonopods short, appearing as a small finger-shaped bulge, with 3-4 long setae, apically slightly sclerotized (Fig. 8).

Remarks. The new species resembles H. jangtseanus (Verhoeff, 1942) from Sichuan Province, Central China, in having 9-10 ocelli on each side of the cephalic plate, $3-6$ coxal pores, $2+2$ spurs on the first article of the female gonopods, leg pair 15 lacking accessory spurs; but can be easily distinguished from H. jangtseanus by Tömösváry's organ moderately smaller than the adjoining ocelli versus slightly larger than the adjoining ocelli or as large as the closest ocelli in $H$. jangtseanus; the dorsal end on the second article of the female gonopods forming a moderately transparent short protuberance instead of forming a long terminal spur pointing backwards as in H. jangtseanus; $15^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur absent versus present in $H$. jangtseanus; and both the $14^{\text {th }}$ and $15^{\text {th }}$ legs' dorsal plectrotaxy obviously different: 10311 on legs 14 and 10310 on legs 15 compared to 10322 on legs 14 and 10320 on legs 15 in $H$. jangtseanus.

Habitat. Larix forest at about 1400 m above sea level, in moderately moist habitats under roadside stones and litter of the forest floor.

To assist in the identification of the Chinese species of Hessebius, the following main morphological characters (table 2) and key to the known Chinese species of the genus based on adult specimens is presented.

Table 2. Main morphological characters of the known Chinese species of genus Hessebius Verhoeff, 1941 based on adult specimens.

|  | luculentus sp. n . | jangtseanus | longispinipes | multiforaminis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sources | this paper | Verhoeff 1942; <br> Pei et al. 2010 | Ma et al. 2009 | Pei et al. 2010 |
| Distribution | China SW (Gansu) | China SE (Sichuan) | China NW (Xinjiang Uygur) | $\begin{gathered} \text { China SW } \\ \text { (Tibet) } \end{gathered}$ |
| Body length (mm) | 15.8-19.9 | $6.9-14.0$ | 10.7-12.6 | 18.9-22.9 |
| Number of antennal articles | $20+20$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline 19+19-22+22, \\ \text { commonly } 20+20 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $17+17-19+19$ <br> commonly $18+18$ | 20+20 |
| Number, arrangement and shape of the ocelli | $9-10$ <br> in 3 irregular rows, oval to rounded, commonly rounded | $9-12$, oval to round, in 3 rows | $1+3,2$ <br> oval to rounded, commonly oval, in 2 irregular rows | $13(1+5,4,3)-15$ oval to rounded, commonly rounded, in 3 irregular rows |
| Posterior ocellus | oval, small | oval to round, comparatively large | oval, larger than the seriate ocelli | bigger than the seriate ocelli |
| Seriate ocelli | the adjoining ventral ocelli slightly smaller, the adjoining dorsal ocelli slightly larger | moderately small, approximately equal in size | moderately small, approximately equal in size; posterosuperior ocellus of the same size or slightly larger than other seriate ocelli | moderately small, approximately equal in size except the posterosuperior ocellus comparatively larger than other seriate ocelli |
| Tömösváry’s organ | moderately smaller than the adjoining ocelli | moderately large, rounded, slightly bigger than the adjoining ocelli or as big as the closest ocelli | moderately small, nearly rounded, about same size as the adjoining ocelli | very small, rounded; comparatively close to the adjoining ocelli |
| Number and arrangement of coxosternal teeth | $2+2$, triangular | $2+2$, moderately sharp | $2+2$, triangular, terminal part of each tooth slightly blunt | $2+2$, comparatively sharp, terminal part of each tooth approximately blunt |
| Porodont | porodonts slender, lying posterolateral to the lateralmost, apart from the tooth | moderately thickset | moderately stout, just posterolateral to the lateral tooth, without bulge near the base | moderately stout, just posterolateral and moderately far from the lateral tooth, without bulge near their base |
| Tergites | smooth | smooth | moderately smooth, without wrinkles | moderately rough, with some wrinkles |
| Number of coxal pores | usually 4(5)6(5)6(5)6(5) in males and 3(4)554(4) in females. | 4454 (Verhoeff, 1942); or 4-6 | 2-5: usually 2343 (male); <br> 3444, 2444 (female) | $\begin{gathered} \text { 4-7: usually } 6766, \\ 7777,5666,5666 \\ \text { (male); 5676, } 5564, \\ 4554,66(7) 6(5) \\ \text { (female) } \end{gathered}$ |
| Shape of coxal pores | round | ovate to round | round or slightly ovate, small to moderately large | round or slightly ovate, small to moderately large |
| Tarsus 1-tarsus 2 articulation on legs 1-13 | well-defined | not well-defined | not well-defined | not well-defined |


|  | luculentus sp. n . | jangtseanus | longispinipes | multiforaminis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Male 14 ${ }^{\text {th }} \mathrm{leg}$ | slightly thicker than 1-13 legs | $\begin{array}{\|c} \text { thicker than } 1-13 \\ \text { legs } \end{array}$ | moderately thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs, more thicker and stronger than female | markedly thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs, |
| Male 15 ${ }^{\text {th }} \mathrm{leg}$ | slightly thicker than 1-13 legs | $\begin{array}{\|c} \text { thicker than } 1-13 \\ \text { legs } \end{array}$ | moderately thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs; more thicker and stronger than in female | markedly thicker and stronger than in 1-13 legs |
| Dorsal sulci on male $14^{\text {th }}$ and $15^{\text {th }}$ legs | absent | absent | a comparatively obvious dorsal furrow on the tibia of legs 14 and 15 | two comparatively obvious shallow dorsal furrow on the tibia of legs 14 and 15 |
| DaC spine | $\begin{gathered} \text { on }\left(12^{\mathrm{h}}\right) 13^{\mathrm{h}}-15^{\mathrm{h}} \\ \operatorname{legs} \end{gathered}$ | on $13^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {dh }}$ legs | on $9^{\text {did }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs | on $12^{\text {dh }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs |
| $14^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur | present on both anterior and posterior side of the claw | present on both anterior and posterior side of the claw | absent | present on both anterior and posterior side of the claw |
| $\begin{aligned} & 15^{\text {th }} \text { accessory } \\ & \text { spur } \end{aligned}$ | absent | present | absent | absent |
| Number and shape of spurs on female gonopods | $2+2$ moderately long and slender, bullet-shaped | $2+2$, thick, bullet-shaped | $2+2$, moderately long, bullet-shaped, the inner slightly smaller and more anterior than the outer | $2+2$, moderately long, bullet-shaped |
| Shape of dorsal terminal thorn on $2^{\text {nd }}$ article of female gonopods | extending backwards and forming a moderately transparent protuberance | moderately feeble long terminal spur pointing backwards | strongly extending backwards and forming a thick and long terminal thorn | strongly extending backwards and forming a thick terminal protuberance |
| Apical claw of female gonopods (and lateral denticles) | simple, with a very small subtriangular denticle on inner margin | simple, only with one small ventral triangular denticle | simple, slender and sharp, with moderately small protuberance on both ventral and dorsal sides, the dorsal one more anterior; usually 3 moderately long setae | simple and broad |
| Male gonopods | short, appearing as a small fingered bulge, with 3-4 long setae, apically slightly sclerotized | short and small, only a small hemispherical bulge, with 1-2 long setae on the surface, tip slightly sclerotised | short and small, only a small hemispherical bulge, with 2 long setae on surface, terminal slightly sclerotised | short and small, only a small hemispherical bulge, with 6-8 long setae on surface, terminal slightly sclerotised |

## Key to the Chinese species of genus Hessebius

1 Four ocelli on each side of the cephalic plate, the dorsal terminal part of second article of the female gonopods strongly extending backwards and forming a thick and long terminal thorn $\qquad$ H. longispinipes

- At least 9 ocelli on each side of cephalic plate, the dorsal terminal part of second article of the female gonopods not strongly extending backwards nor forming a thick and long terminal thorn 2
2 At least 13 ocelli on each side of the cephalic plate.......... H. multiforaminis
- At most 12 ocelli on each side of the cephalic plate. 3

3 Dorsal plectrotaxy on leg 15 is 10320 $\qquad$ H. jangtseanus

- Dorsal plectrotaxy on leg 15 is 10310 $\qquad$


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# Lithobius (Ezembius) tetraspinus, a new species of centipede from northwest China (Lithobiomorpha, Lithobiidae) 

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#### Abstract

Lithobius (Ezembius) tetraspinus sp. n. (Lithobiomorpha: Lithobiidae), recently discovered from Hami City, Xinjiang Autonomous Region, NW China, is described. Morphologically this species resembles L. (E.) sibiricus, Gersfeldt, 1858, but is distinguishable by a different coxal pore formula, absence of accessory spurs on leg 15 , morphology of the second article of the female gonopod, and legs 14 plectrotaxy. A table of the main morphological characters of Chinese Lithobius (Ezembius) species is presented.


## Keywords

Chilopoda, Lithobius (Ezembius), NW China, Xinjiang Autonomous Region

## Introduction

The centipede subgenus Lithobius (Ezembius) Chamberlin, 1919 accommodates a group of 58 species/subspecies mostly known from Asia, with little extension into north-western North America. Known species colonize a wide range of habitats, from arctic and sub-arctic to tropical and sub-tropical forests, to steppe and overgrazed stony areas of central Asia, to Himalayan montane forests, from sea shore up to 5500 m (Himalayas) (Zapparoli and Edgecombe 2011). Although the subgenus was formally proposed as new
and described in 1923 (Chamberlin 1923), according to Jeekel (2005) its name had been already validated in 1919 (Chamberlin 1919). Ezembius is characterized by antennae with ca 20 articles; ocelli $1+4-1+20$; forcipular coxosternal teeth usually $2+2$; porodonts generally setiform, sometimes stout. Tergites are generally without posterior triangular projections; tarsal articulation of legs $1-13$ is distinct. Female gonopods are with uni-, bior tridentate claw, and $2+2-3+3$ (rarely $4+4$ ) spurs (Zapparoli and Edgecombe 2011).

The myriapod fauna of China is still poorly known and very little attention has been paid to the study of Lithobiomorpha, with only 74 species/subspecies hitherto known from the country (Ma et al. 2014a, b, 2015; Minelli et al. 2016; Pei et al. 2014, 2015, 2016; Qin et al. 2014). Xinjiang Autonomous Region is among the poorly studied regions of China with only eight species at present registered from its territory ( Ma et al. 2014 b; Pei et al. 2015, 2016). Altogether, 18 species of Lithobius (Ezembius) have been recorded from China, only three of them from Xinjiang Autonomous Region. Here with a new species recently found in Balikun County is described.

## Materials and methods

All specimens were hand-collected under leaf litter or stones. The material was examined with the aid of a Motic-C microscope (Xiamen, China). The colour description is based on specimens in $75 \%$ ethanol, and the body length is measured from the anterior margin of the cephalic plate to the posterior margin of the postpedal tergite. Type specimens are preserved in $75 \%$ ethanol and deposited in the School of Life Sciences, Hengshui University, Hengshui, China (HUSLS). The terminology of the external anatomy follows Bonato et al. (2010). The following abbreviations are used throughout:

| T, TT | tergite, tergites; | F | femur, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{S S}$ | sternite, sternites; | $\mathbf{T i}$ | tibia, |
| $\mathbf{C}$ | coxa, | $\mathbf{a}$ | anterior, |
| $\mathbf{T r}$ | trochanter, | $\mathbf{m}$ | median, |
| $\mathbf{P}$ | prefemur, | $\mathbf{p}$ | posterior. |

## Taxonomic part

## Lithobiidae Newport, 1844

Lithobius (Ezembius) tetraspinus sp. n.
http://zoobank.org/846D108B-D41F-4C20-9161-DA2137A17977
Figs 1-7
 1.10 mm long, 1.17 mm broad, Balikun County, Hami City, Xinjiang Autonomous

Region, $43^{\circ} 06^{\prime} \mathrm{N}, 93^{\circ} 00^{\prime} \mathrm{E}, 968 \mathrm{~m}$, a.s.l., 25 July 2006, leg. H. Ma, F. Zhang, S. Liu (HUSLS). Paratypes: 8 Q $Q, 1 \delta^{\pi}$, same data as holotype (HUSLS).

Etymology. The specific name refers to the second article of the female gonopods with four short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin.

Diagnosis. A Lithobius (Ezembius) species with body length $9.6-13.3 \mathrm{~mm}$, antennae composed of 19-22 articles, commonly $20+20 ; 8-10$ ocelli on each side, arranged in 3 irregular rows, posterior two ocelli comparatively large; Tömösváry's organ small, subequal in size to the adjoining ocelli; $2+2$ coxosternal teeth; porodonts moderately thick, posterolateral to the lateralmost tooth; posterior angles of all tergites without triangular projections; coxal pores $2-5$, oval to round; female gonopods commonly with $3+3$ moderately large, coniform spurs; second article of female gonopods with four short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin; gonopods with a simple terminal article; male gonopods short and small, with $1-2$ long setae on the terminal segment.

Description. Body length $9.6-13.3 \mathrm{~mm}$, cephalic plate $1.03-1.24 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $1.06-1.31 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide.

Colour: basal antennal articles chocolate, distal articles gradually lighter, distalmost article yellow-brown. Tergites yellow-brown, TT 1 and 14 more darker. Cephalic plate and T 15 chocolate. Pleural region pale grey. Sternites pale yellow-brown. Distal part of forcipules red-brown, with basal and proximal parts of forcipules and forcipular coxosternite and sternite 15 yellow-brown. Legs 1-13 pale yellow-brown with greyish hue, legs 14 and 15 red-brown, tarsi of legs yellow-brown.

Antennae: 19-22 articles, commonly 20+20 (Fig. 1), only one specimen $20+25$ articles; basal article longer than wide, second article markedly longer than wide, with following articles gradually shortening distally. Distalmost article 2.0-2.4 times as long as wide. Abundant setae on antennal surface, gradual increase in density of setae basally to distally to approx. $3-4^{\text {th }}$ article.

Cephalic plate smooth, convex, tiny setae emerging from pores scattered sparsely over the entire surface. Frontal marginal ridge of head with shallow anterior median furrow. Setae of various lengths scattered along the marginal ridge of the cephalic plate. Lateral marginal ridge discontinuous. Posterior margin continuous, straight (Fig. 1).

Eight to ten oval to rounded ocelli on each side (Fig. 2), arranged in three irregular rows; posterior two ocelli large; ocelli adjacent to the Tömösváry organ slightly small. Seriate ocelli domed, translucent, usually darkly pigmented.

Tömösváry organ at anterolateral margin of the cephalic plate, moderately smaller, subequal in size to the adjacent ocelli (Fig. 2-To).

Coxosternite subtrapezoidal (Fig. 3), anterior magin narrow, lateral margins of the coxosternite slightly longer than medial margins. Median diastema moderately deep, V-shaped; anterior margin with $2+2$ subtriangular slightly acute teeth. Porodont thick and strong, just posterolateral and separated from the lateral tooth, hardly bulged at base (Fig. 3). Scattered short setae on the ventral side of coxosternite, longer setae near the dental margin, more longer setae near the porodont. Forcipules and forcipular coxosternite without obvious special modifications.


Figures I-7. Lithobius (Ezembius) tetraspinus sp. n., 1-3 and 7 paratype, male: I habitus, dorsal view, scale bar $1 \mathrm{~mm} \mathbf{2}$ ocelli and Tömösváry's organ (To), lateral view, scale bar $250 \mu \mathrm{~m} \mathbf{3}$ forcipular segment, ventral view, scale bar $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; 4-6 holotype, female: posterior segments and gonopods, ventral view, scale bar $500 \mu \mathrm{~m} \mathbf{5}$ posterior segments and gonopods, ventral view, scale bar $500 \mu \mathrm{~m} \mathbf{6}$ posterior part of the external margin of second article of gonopods, ventral view, scale bar $250 \mu \mathrm{~m} \mathbf{7}$ terminal claw of right gonopod, dorsal view, scale bar $250 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

All tergites smooth, without wrinkles, dorsum slightly convex, tiny setae emerging from pores scattered sparsely over the entire surface, near the margin with few long setae; T 1 narrower posterolaterally than anterolaterally, generally trapezoidal, narrower than the cephalic plate and T 3, cephalic plate slightly wider than T 3. Lateral marginal ridges of all tergites continuous. Posterior marginal ridges of TT 1 and 3 slightly concave, continuous, posterior marginal ridges of TT $5,8,10,12$ and 14 shallow concave, discontinuous. Posterior angles of tergites generally rounded, without triangular projections. Miniscule setae scattered sparsely over the surface, more numerous setae on anterior and posterior angles of each tergite, with 2-4 long setae on anterior angles and $2-3$ long setae on posterior angles of each tergite.

Sternites smooth, trapezoidal, posterior side narrower than anterior. Setae emerging from sparsely scattered pores on the surface, a pair of approximate symmetrically arranged long setae on both anterior part and posterior part of each sternite. The setae obviously increase in number on S 15, scattered evenly over the surface.

Legs robust, tarsal articulation ill-defined on legs 1-13, well defined on legs 14-15. All legs with fairly long curved claws. Legs $1-14$ with anterior and posterior accessory spurs; anterior accessory spurs moderately long and slender, forming a moderately small angle with the claw, posterior accessory spurs slightly more robust, forming a comparatively large angle with the claw. Dense glandular pore on the surface of prefemur, femur, tibia, and tarsi of legs 14 and 15 . Leg pair 15 lacking accessory spurs. Long setae sparsely scattered over the surface of prefemur, femur, tibia, and tarsi of legs 1-13; more setae on the tarsal surface, many thicker setae scattered evenly over the tarsal surface, setae arranged in one row on the ventral surface of tarsi of legs $1-13$, with setae significantly reduced on legs 14 and 15, no thicker setae and setae arranged in one row on the ventral surface of tarsi present. Legs 14 and 15 slightly thicker than the anterior pairs in the female, tarsus 1 3.7-4.7 times as long as wide in legs 15 . Legs 15 significantly thicker and stronger than the anterior pairs in the male, with a central longitudinal discontinuous shallow groove on the dorsal of femur, and a black vertical line at the bottom; tarsus 1 3.8-4.3 times as long as wide in legs 15 . Leg plectrotaxy as in table 1.

Coxal pores 2-5, round or slightly oval, variable in sizes, arranged in a row; usually 4555,4554 , rarely $3454,3455,3343$ in females and 2332, 2333 in males. Coxal pore field set in a relatively shallow groove, the coxal pore-field fringe with prominence. Prominence with short to moderately long setae sparsely scattered over the surface.

Male. S 15 posterior margin narrower than anterior, posteromedially slightly convex, sparsely covered with long setae, more than the anterior; sternite of genital segment obviously smaller than the female, usually well sclerotized; posterior margin deeply concave between the gonopods, without medial bulge. Long setae scattered on the ventral surface of the genital segment, fewer setae near $S 15$, fringed with longer setae along the posterior margin. Gonopods short, appearing as a small hemispherical bulge, with 1-2 long setae, apically slightly sclerotized (Fig. 7).

Table I. Leg plectrotaxy of $L$. (E.) tetraspinus sp. n.

| Legs | Ventral |  |  |  |  | Dorsal |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathbf{C}$ | $\mathbf{T r}$ | $\mathbf{P}$ | $\mathbf{F}$ | $\mathbf{T i}$ | $\mathbf{C}$ | $\mathbf{T r}$ | $\mathbf{P}$ | $\mathbf{F}$ | $\mathbf{T i}$ |
| 1 |  |  | p | am | m |  |  | p | ap | a |
| 2 |  |  | mp | amp | m |  |  | $(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{p}$ | ap | ap |
| 3 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | $(\mathrm{a}) \mathrm{p}$ | ap | ap |
| $4-10$ |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | ap | ap | ap |
| 11 |  |  | mp | amp | am |  |  | amp | ap | ap |
| 12 |  |  | amp | amp | am | m |  | amp | p | ap |
| 13 |  |  | amp | amp | am | m |  | amp | p | p |
| 14 |  | m | amp | am | a | m |  | amp | p | p |
| 15 |  | m | amp | am | a | m |  | amp | p |  |

Letters in brackets indicate variable spines.
Table 2-I. The main morphological characters of the known Chinese species of subgenus Lithobius (Ezembius) Chamberlin, 1919.

| Characters | anabilineatus | anasulcifemoralis | bidens | bilineatus | chekianus | gantoensis | giganteus | insolitus | irregularis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sources | Ma et al., 2015 | Ma, et al. 2013 | Takakuwa, $1939$ | Pei et al., 2014 | Chamberlin <br> \& Wang, <br> 1952 | Takakuwa \& Takashima, 1949 | Eason, 1986 | Eason, 1993 | Takakuwa \& Takashima, 1949 |
| Distribution | China S (Guangxi) | China S <br> (Guangxi) | China S <br> (Taiwan) | China S (Guangxi) | China S (Zhengjiang and Tai- wan) | China NW (Shanxi) | $\begin{gathered} \text { China N (Inner } \\ \text { Mongolia Auton- } \\ \text { omous region) } \end{gathered}$ | China S <br> (Hongkong) | China W (Shanxi) |
| Body length (mm) | 11.9-12.1 | 10.1-12.3 | 15.0 | 9.0-9.1 | 16.0 | 9.0 | 15.0-50.0 | 10.0-11.5 | 12.0 |
| Number of antennal articles | $23+23$ articles in female, unkown in male | $\begin{gathered} 19+19-24+24, \\ \text { commonly } 20+20 \end{gathered}$ | 20-21 | two specimens with $20+21$, one specimen with $20+23$ | $20+20$ | 20-23 | $20+20$ | $18+18-19+19$ | $20+20$ |
| Number, arrangement and shape of the ocelli | $5-6$, in 2 rows | 6, in 3 rows | 7 | 5-6, in 2 rows | 5, in 3 rows | 6 | $\begin{gathered} 6-10, \text { in } 2-3 \\ \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ | 6-8, in 2 rows | 7, in 2 rows |
| Posterior ocellus | round, large | oval to round, large | comparatively large | oval to rounded | oval to round, comparatively large | oval to round, comparatively large | oval to round, comparatively large | oval to round, comparatively large | round, comparatively large |
| Seriate ocelli | subequal, all ocelli domed, translucent, usually darkly pigmented. | the one near ventral margin moderately small, others almost equal | not reported | subequal, all ocelli domed, translucent, usually darkly pigmented | not reported | comparatively large | not reported | not reported | subequal |
| Tömösváry's organ | round, smaller than the adjoining ocelli | moderately large, rounded, slightly larger than the adjoining ocelli | at most same size as one ocellus | slightly larger than the adjoining ocelli | not reported | subequal in size to the adjoining medium large ocelli | slightly smaller than the adjoining ocelli | slightly smaller than the adjoining ocelli | same size as largest ocellus |
| Number and arrangement of coxosternal teeth | 2+2, subtriangular | $2+2$, moderately blunt | $2+2$ | $2+2$, slightly triangular | $2+2$ | $2+2 \text {, ap- }$ proximately sharp small | $2+2$ | $2+2$, approximately sharp small | $2+2$ small |


| Characters | anabilineatus | anasulcifemoralis | bidens | bilineatus | chekianus | gantoensis | giganteus | insolitus | irregularis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Porodont | long, lying posterolateral to the most lateral teeth | slender, lying posterolateral to the lateral most tooth, their basal moderately bulged | moderately long | thick and long, lying posterolateral to the lateral most tooth | not reported | not reported | not reported | slender, lying posterolateral to the lateral tooth, their basal slightly bulged | long, their basal slightly bulged |
| Tergites | smooth, backside slightly hunched | smooth | not reported | smooth, slightly hunched behind | not reported |  | smooth, with slightly wrinkles | T1 smooth, other with wrinkles | smooth |
| Number of coxal pores | $\begin{aligned} & 3-5 \text {, female } 4454, \\ & 3554 ; \text { male } 4443, \\ & 4453 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3-6, \text { usu- } \\ \text { ally } 4663,5654, \\ 5553, \\ 5563 \text { and } 5565 \end{gathered}$ | 5(6)555 | usually females 4554, 5565; males 4553, 4454 | $\begin{gathered} 6655 \text { or } \\ 7665 \end{gathered}$ | 3333 | $\begin{aligned} & 3333,4554, \\ & 4555,4565, \\ & 5565 \text { or } 5566 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3-6, \text { male } \\ 3443 \text {; female } \\ 4454,4555, \\ 5555,5565 \end{gathered}$ | $3-10$, female $3-6$ in $12^{\text {th }}$ leg, $4-6$ in $13^{\text {th }} \operatorname{leg}, 7-10$ in $14^{\text {th }}$ and $15^{\text {th }}$ leg |
| Shape of coxal pores | round or slightly ovate | round or slightly ovate | round | ovate | not reported | round | round | round | round |
| Tarsus 1-tarsus 2 articulation on legs 1-13 | not well-defined | not well-defined | well-defined | not well-defined | not reported | not reported | well-defined | not defined | well-defined |
| Male 14 ${ }^{\text {dh }} \mathrm{leg}$ | obvious thicker and stronger than other legs | markedly thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs, more thicker and stronger than female | not reported | distinctly thick and strong | not reported | not reported | not reported | distinctly thick and strong | not reported |
| Male 15 ${ }^{\text {th }} \mathrm{leg}$ | obvious thicker and stronger than other legs | markedly thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs, more thicker and stronger than female | not reported | distinctly thick and strong | not reported | not reported | not reported | distinctly thick and strong, with dark zones on dorsal of tibia | not reported |
| Dorsal sulci on male $14^{\text {th }}$ legs | absent | absent | not reported | with two, shallow <br> longitudinal sulci | not reported | not reported | not reported | absent | not reported |


| Characters | anabilineatus | anasulcifemoralis | bidens | bilineatus | chekianus | gantoensis | giganteus | insolitus | irregularis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dorsal sulci on male $15^{\text {th }}$ legs | two distinct, shallow, dorsal sulci on the femur and tibia | with a distinct, shallow, dorsal sulci on the tibia | not reported | with two, shallow longitudinal sulci | not reported | not reported | not reported | absent | not reported |
| DaC spine | on $14^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs | on $14^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs | absent | on $4^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { on } 14^{\mathrm{th}}-15^{\text {th }} \\ \text { legs } \end{gathered}\right.$ | absent | on $12^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs (on $11^{\text {th }}$ and $12^{\text {th }}$ legs sometimes present) | absent | on $13^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs |
| $14^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur | anterior accessory spur reduced in size, only half the length of the posterior accessory spur | absent | not reported | anterior accessory spur absent | present | present | present | not reported | not reported |
| $15^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur | absent | absent | not reported | anterior accessory absent | present | present | absent | absent | not reported |
| Number and shape of spurs on female gonopods | $2+2$ moderately small, blunt, coniform spurs, inner spur slightly smaller than the outer | $2+2$ moderately blunt, with conical spurs, inner spur slightly smaller | $\begin{gathered} 3+3 \text { or } 4+4 \\ \text { sharp } \end{gathered}$ | $2+2$ moderately small, blunt, coniform spurs, inner spur slightly smaller than the outer one | not reported | $1+1$, coni- <br> cal spurs | $2+2$ | $3+3$, coniform spurs | $2+2$ or $2+3$, moderately small, blunt, coniform spurs |
| Dorsal side of the second article of female gonopods | with one spine lying dorsally on its external margin | no striking features | not reported | with three short, robust setae lying dorsally on its external margin | not reported | not reported | with eight spines in two irregular rows lying dorsally on its external margin | not reported | not reported |
| Apical claw of female gonopods (and lateral denticles) | simple, there a small subtriangular teeth in the inner | apical claw dimidiate | simple, there a small sharply teeth in the inner | apical claw bipartite, and its inner aspect broader | not reported | simple | simple | simple | simple and broad |
| Male gonopods | short and small bulge, with one to two long setae, apically slightly sclerotised | with a small bulge, without setae and apically less sclerotised | hemispherical, with two long setae | short and small bulge, having a long seta, apically slightly sclerotised | not reported | not reported | not reported | not reported | not reported |

Table 2-2. Range and main morphological characters of the known Chinese species of subgenus Lithobius (Ezembius) Chamberlin, 1919.

| Characters | laevidentata | lineatus | mandschreiensis | multispinipes | parvicornis | rhysus | sulcipes | sulcifemoralis | zhui | tetraspinus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sources | Pei et al., 2015 | Takakuwa, 1939 | Takakuwa, 1940 | Pei et al., 2016 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Zapparoli } \\ 1991 \end{gathered}$ | Attems, 1934 | Attems, $1927$ | Takakuwa \& Takashima, 1949 | Pei et al., 2011 | This paper |
| Distribution | China NW <br> (Xinjiang <br> Uygur) | China S <br> (Taiwan) | China (Taiwan, Sichuan, Jiangsu, Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning) | China NW (Xinjiang Uygur) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { China } S \text { (Tai- } \\ & \text { wan) } \end{aligned}$ | China S <br> (Fujian and Taiwan) | China S <br> (Taiwan) | China W (Shanxi) | China NW <br> (Xinjiang <br> Uygur) | China NW <br> (Xinjiang Uygur) |
| Body length (mm) | 9.6-13.3 | 18.0 | 22.0-23.0 | 11.6-22.6 | 16.0 | 15.0 | Not reported | 12.0 | 8.1-15.0 | 9.6-13.3 |
| Number of antennal articles | $\begin{gathered} 19+19-21+21 \\ \text { commonly } \\ 20+20 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 19+19- \\ 21+21 \end{gathered}$ | 20-28 | commonly $20+20$, (three specimens with $20+21$, one specimen with $20+26$ of 134 specimens) | $\begin{gathered} 20+20, \\ 21+21 \end{gathered}$ | $20+20$ in female, $20+21$ in male | 19-22 | $20+20$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 20-24, com- } \\ & \text { monly } 20 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { 19-22, com- } \\ \text { monly } 20 \end{gathered}$ |
| Number, arrangement and shape of the ocelli | $8-10$, in 3 rows | $\begin{gathered} 8-11 \text {, in } 3 \\ \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ | 9-13, in 3 rows | 8, in 3 rows | $\begin{gathered} 3-4 \text {, in } 1 \text { or } \\ 2 \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ | 8, in 4 rows | $\begin{gathered} 7 \text {, in } 2 \\ \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ | 6 | $\begin{gathered} 10-13 \text {, in } 3-4 \\ \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 8-10, \text { in } 3 \\ \text { rows } \end{gathered}$ |
| Posterior ocellus | posterior two ocelli bigger than the seriate ocelli | comparatively small | comparatively large | two ocelli large, oval to rounded | comparatively large | comparatively large | comparatively large | all ocelli same size | comparatively large | two ocelli comparatively large |
| Seriate ocelli | other seriate ocelli slightly larger than the ocelli adjoining to the ventral | not reported | same size of wath | the two near ventral margin moderately small, others almost equal | not reported | not reported | not reported | same size of wath | dorsal ones moderately large, those near ventral margin of ocellar field moderately small, others of moderate size | the adjoining Tömösváry organ slightly small |


| Characters | laevidentata | lineatus | mandschreiensis | multispinipes | parvicornis | rbysus | sulcipes | sulcifemoralis | zbiu | tetraspinus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tömösváry's organ | subequal in size to the adjoining ocelli | same size as the adjoining ocelli | larger than the adjoining ocelli | slightly smaller than the adjoining ocelli | not reported | not reported | not reported | same size as ocelli | slightly larger than the adjoining ocelli | subequal in size to the adjoining ocelli |
| Number and arrangement of coxosternal teeth | $2+2$, approximately blunt | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2+2, com- } \\ \text { paratively } \\ \text { large } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2+2, \text { small and } \\ & \text { sharp } \end{aligned}$ | $3+3$, slightly triangular | $2+2$ | $2+2$ | 2+2 | ${\underset{\text { sharp }}{2+2, \text { small and }}}^{2}$ | $2+2$ moderately small and pointed | $2+2$ subtriangular slightly acute |
| Porodont | thick and long, lying posterolateral to the most lateral teeth | long and strong | lying posterolateral to the lateral most tooth | thick and long, lying posterolateral to the lateral most tooth | lying posterolateral to the most lateral teeth | not obvious | not reported | slender and long | moderately thick in basal, moderately pointed, just posterolateral to the lateral tooth | Porodonts thick and strong, just posterolateral and separated from the lat- eral tooth, |
| Tergites | smooth, without wrinkles, backside slightly hunched | smooth | smooth, without wrinkles | smooth, without wrinkles and slightly hunched behind | smooth | With shallow wrinkles |  | not reported | smooth, without wrinkles, backside slightly hunched | smooth, without wrinkles, dorsum slightly convex |
| Number of coxal pores | 2-5, female commonly 4555, 4554, sometime 3454, 3455, 3343. male commonly 2332, 2333, sometime 3444, 3333 | $\begin{gathered} \text { 6-7, usu- } \\ \text { ally } 66(7) 6 \end{gathered}$ | 776(7)5(6) | 3-5, 4555, 5555, 4444, 4455 (females) and 4444, 3344 (males) | 3334 | 6554 | 4554 | 5555 | 2-4, 3444, <br> 3344, 3443, <br> 3333 in female, and 3443, 2343, 2433, 2333 in male. | usually 4555 , 4554, rarely 3454, 3455, 3343 in females and usually 2332, 2333, rarely 3444, 3333 in males |
| Shape of coxal pores | round or slightly ovate | round to ovate | round or ovate | round to ovate | not reported | round | round | round | round or slightly ovate | round or slightly oval |
| Tarsus 1-tarsus 2 articulation on legs 1-13 | not well-defined | well-defined | well-defined | well-defined | not reported | not reported | well-defined | well-defined | well-defined | ill-defined |


| Characters | laevidentata | lineatus | mandschreiensis | multispinipes | parvicornis | rhysus | sulcipes | sulcifemoralis | zhui | tetraspinus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Male 14 ${ }^{\text {d }} \mathrm{leg}$ | remarkably thicker and stronger than 1-13 legs, | not reported | not reported | thick and strong | not reported | not reported | not reported | thick and strong | moderately thicker and stronger | significantly <br> thicker and stronger |
| Male 15 ${ }^{\text {dh }} \mathrm{leg}$ | markedly thicker and stronger than in 1-13 legs | not reported | not reported | thick and strong | not reported | femur and tibia thicker | femur and tibia thicker | thick and strong | thicker and stronger, with a circular protuberance on distal end of tibia | significantly thicker and stronger |
| Dorsal sulci on male $14^{\text {th }}$ legs | absent | absent | not reported | absent | not reported | not reported | present on the femur | present on the femur and tibia | absent | absent |
| Dorsal sulci on male $15^{\text {th }}$ legs | with a distinct, shallow, dorsal sulci on the tibia | not reported | not reported | absent | not reported | not reported | present on the femur and tibia | present on the femur and tibia | absent | present on the femur |
| DaC spine | on $12^{\text {th }}-15^{\text {th }}$ legs | $\begin{aligned} & \text { on } 14^{\text {th }}- \\ & 15^{\text {th }} \operatorname{leg} \end{aligned}$ | on $12^{\text {dh }}-15^{\text {dh }}$ legs | $\begin{gathered} \text { on } 11^{\text {th }}-15^{\mathrm{th}} \text { legs, } \\ 9^{\text {gh}}-10^{\text {th }} \text { some- } \\ \text { times present } \end{gathered}$ | not reported | on $15^{\text {th }}$ legs present | $\begin{gathered} \text { on } 15^{\text {th }} \\ \text { legs pres- } \\ \text { ent } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | absent | $\begin{gathered} \text { on } 13^{\mathrm{th}}-15^{\mathrm{th}} \text { legs, } \\ 12^{\mathrm{h}} \text { sometimes } \\ \text { present } \end{gathered}$ | on 12th-15th legs |
| $14^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur | present | present | not reported | present | not reported | not reported | not reported | not reported | present | present |
| $15^{\text {th }}$ accessory spur | anterior absent | present | not reported | absent | not reported | absent | not reported | not reported | absent | absent |
| Number and shape of spurs on female gonopods | $3+4$, or $4+4$ small, blunt, coniform spurs, commonly with $3+3$, inner spur smaller than the outer one | $3+3$ moderately sharp, slender conical spurs | $3+3$, same size | $2+2$, blunt, coniform spurs, with inner spur smaller than the outer one | $2+2$ | $\begin{gathered} 2+2, \text { slen- } \\ \text { der } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2+2, \text { thick } \\ \text { spurs } \end{gathered}$ | $2+2$, strong, long and sharp | 2f 2 moderately long, coniform spurs, inner spur slightly smaller and more anterior than outer | $3+3$, few $3+4$, only one $4+4$ coniform spurs |


| Characters | laevidentata | lineatus | mandschreiensis | multispinipes | parvicornis | rhysus | sulcipes | sulcifemoralis | zhui | tetraspinus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dorsal side of the second article of female gonopods | with three long setae lying dorsally on its anterior external margin | not reported | not reported | with 3-4 long setae and 5-6 spines lying dorsally on its external margin | not reported | not reported | not reported | not reported | three spurs arranged in one irregular row on the dorsal terminal part | 3 long setae and four short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin |
| Apical claw of female gonopods (and lateral denticles) | simple and broad | simple | simple | simple | simple | simple | dimidiate | simple | broad, and tridentate | simple, with <br> a very small subtriangular blunt denticle on inner margin |
| Male gonopods | small bulge, with one to two long setae apically slightly sclerotised | hemispherical bulge, | without setae | hemispherical bulge, having a long seta, and apically slightly sclerotised | not reported | not reported | not reported | not reported | small bulge, with 1-2 long setae on surface, and terminal slightly sclerotised | small hemispherical bulge, with 1-2 long setae |

Female. S 15 anterior margin broader than posterior, generally trapezoidal, posteromedially slightly convex. Short to long setae sparsely scattered on S 15 surface. Surface of the lateral sternal margin of genital segment well chitinized, posterior margin of genital sternite deeply concave between condyles of gonopods, except for a small, median linguliform bulge. Relatively long setae scattered over ventral surface of the genital segment, few setae near S 15 . Gonopods: first article fairly broad, bearing $23-30$ short to moderately long setae, arranged in four irregular rows; with $3+3$, few $3+4$, only one $4+4$ moderately long and slender, coniform spurs, inner spur slightly smaller than the outer (Fig. 4); second article with 8-12 long setae, arranged in three irregular rows, with three long setae and four short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin; third article with 4-6 long posteroventral setae, and two short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin (Fig. 5). Third article of female gonopods with a simple apical claw with a very small subtriangular blunt denticle on the inner margin (Fig. 6).

Remarks. The new species with $2+2$ coxosternal teeth, $9-10$ ocelli on each side of head, female gonopods with 3-4 moderately large, coniform spurs, and leg pair 15 lacking accessory spurs, is morphologically similar to Lithobius (Ezembius) sibiricus Gerstfeldt, 1858 from Mongolia and Russia, but is readily distinguished by having coxal pores arranged in a $2-5$-formula in contrast to $L$. (E.) sibiricus with a coxal pore formula 5-8; the second article of the female gonopods with four short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin versus with eight short, robust spines lying dorsally on the posterior part of the external margin; lacking accessory spurs on legs $15^{\text {th }}$ versus having small accessory spurs on legs $15^{\text {th }}$; moreover, leg 14 plectrotaxy is distinctly different, 10311 (dorsal) and 01321 (ventral) compared to 10311 (dorsal) and 01332 (ventral).

Habitat. The specimens were collected in a Larix forest at 950-1000 m alt. It inhabits moderately moist habitats under roadside stones and litter of the forest floor.

To assist in the identification of the Chinese species of Lithobius (Ezembius), the range and main morphological characters of the known species of the subgenus in the area is presented (table 2). These characters are specific only to adults of the taxa occurring in China.

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# Millipede and centipede assemblages on the northern and southern slopes of the lowland Altais, southwestern Siberia, Russia (Diplopoda, Chilopoda) 

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#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

The total species richness in the myriapod assemblages of the lowland Altais near Charyshskoe Village, Altai Province, southwestern Siberia, Russia is estimated to be at least 19 species from ten genera, eight families, five orders, and two classes. The following species are new to SW Siberia: Lithobius (Ezembius) ostiacorum Stuxberg, 1876, L. vagabundus Stuxberg, 1876, and L. (Monotarsobius) nordenskioeldii Stuxberg, 1876, while L. (E.) proximus Sseliwanoff, 1880 and $L$. (M.) insolens Dányi \& Tuf, 2012 are recorded for the first time from the Altai Province of Russia. A species of Strigamia which is morphologically similar to Strigamia cf. transsilvanica (Verhoeff, 1928) has been found in the study area but its true specific identity is yet to be determined. The seasonal dynamics of myriapod assemblages in terms of the species diversity, density, sex-age structure, and vertical distribution along the soil profile have been studied with regard to the different slope exposures.


## Keywords

Altai, millipedes, centipedes, distribution, ecology, lowland, new records, Siberia

## Introduction

Despite the recent increased interest in the myriapod fauna of southwestern Siberia (Mikhaljova et al. 2007, 2008, 2014, 2015, Mikhaljova 2009, 2013, 2016, 2017, Nefediev et al. 2013, 2014a, b, c, 2016a, b, c, 2017a, b, Nefedieva et al. 2014, 2015, Nefediev 2016), the biodiversity and ecological characteristics of myriapods in the study area of the lowland Altais, a transition zone from the plains of the southwestern Siberia to the mountains of southern Siberia have not been studied to date.

## Materials and methods

The present study is based on fresh samples collected in the lowlands of the Charysh District, Altai Province, SW Siberia. The area has a continental climate, with cold and snowy winters, and hot and dry summers: mid-temperature in January is $-17^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and in July $+18.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$; annual amount of precipitation is about 600 mm . Material from the environs of the Altai State University Student Field Station, titled "Goluboi Utios" (= "Blue Rock" in English), situated ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village (Figure 1) was collected. The vast majority of study material was obtained from two types of habitat. Two sites were sampled in each habitat:
(1) rocky xeromorphic steppe with bushes of Siberian peashrub (Caragana arborescens), Tartarian honeysuckle (Lonicera tatarica) and germander meadowsweet (Spiraea chamaedryfolia) located on the southern slope (Figures 2, 3): site 1 on $S$ slope ( $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 20.3^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 36.5^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 480 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l.) and site 2 on S slope ( $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 14.5^{\prime \prime N} \mathrm{~N}$, $83^{\circ} 38^{\prime} 03.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 530 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l.);
(2) rocky forested sites with silver birch (Betula pendula), Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris), germander meadowsweet (S. chamaedryfolia) and Korean elephant-ear, or badan (Bergenia crassifolia) on the northern slope (Figures 4, 5): site 1 on N slope ( $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 44.3^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 42.6^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 620 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l.) and site 2 on N slope ( $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 38.0^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$, 83³8'02.7"E, 630 m a.s.l.).

The material was collected using the standard soil fauna sampling techniques practiced in Russia (Ghilarov 1987) by taking 5 soil samples per study site, hand-sorting each 10 cm layer down to 30 cm until fauna penetration, with the sample area totaling $1 / 4 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$. Soil samples were taken three times during summer 2016, starting at the beginning of summer (31 May-2 June), through mid-summer (12-13 July) to late summer (22-23 August). Also we collected additional faunistic material in nearby localities by hand sampling in the summers of 2015-2017. The total number of studied millipedes and centipedes was 684 and 666 specimens, respectively.

The distribution of recorded species in soil samples was analyzed using CANOCO for Windows 4.5 (ter Braak and Šmilauer 1998). Following lengths of gradient in species data we selected Redundancy analyses (RDA) using environmental variables, i.e. exposure (south/north), month, depth of soil sample and sample ID. The significance of models was evaluated using Monte Carlo tests with 499 permutations. For the


Figure I. Map of study locality (shown by the red spot).


Figures 2-5. Two types of study habitats. 2-3 rocky xeromorphic steppe with bushes on the southern slope 4-5 rocky forested sites on the northern slope (2-3 taken in mid-July 2017, $\mathbf{5}$ taken at the end of May 2016; all by P.N.).
evaluation of significance and effect of tested environmental variables forward selection was applied. The effect of selected significant environmental variables (month, depth) for predicting the distribution of individual species was tested using Generalized linear models (GLM) with evaluation of AIC.

The material treated here was collected by A.M. Alenov (A.A.), E.V. Andreeva (E.A.), Kh.Kh. Nedoev (Kh.N.), P.S. Nefediev (P.N.), S.T. Niyazov (S.N.), V.Yu. Slatina (V.S.), and T.A. Zakirov (T.Z.) (all from Barnaul). These samples have been deposited mainly in the collection of the Altai State University, Barnaul, Russia (ASU), and shared also with the collection of the Perm State University, Perm, Russia (PSU) and Zoological Museum of the Moscow Lomonosov State University, Moscow, Russia (ZMMU), as indicated in the text. The species names documented in the literature references include those from southwestern Siberia (Asian Russia) only.

## Taxonomic part

## Class Diplopoda de Blainville in Gervais, 1844 <br> Order Julida Brandt, 1833 <br> Family Julidae Leach, 1814 <br> Genus Leptoiulus Verhoeff, 1894

## Leptoiulus tigirek Mikhaljova, Nefediev, Nefedieva \& Dyachkov, 2015

Figure 6
Julidae gen. sp. - Dyachkov 2014: 41.
undescribed species of Julidae - Nefediev et al. 2014a: 63.
Leptoiulus tigirek Mikhaljova, Nefediev, Nefedieva \& Dyachkov 2015: 268, 269-273: figs.
Leptoiulus tigirek - Nefediev 2016: 30; Mikhaljova 2017: 77, 78: figs, insets 733-740, 789, 790, 90: map; Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 q (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; $1 q$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 (litter), 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 Q (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., pitfall traps, 12-14.07.2016, leg. P.N.; 1 ठ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 13.07.2016; 1 § (ZMMU), 1 §, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 13.07.2016, all leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 q (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 q (ZMMU), 5 q $q$, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Distribution. Being an Altai endemic, the species has been recorded only in the Altai Province in southwestern Siberia (Mikhaljova et al. 2015; Nefediev 2016).


Figure 6-7. Range limits of some millipede species in the study area. 6 Distribution of Leptoiulus tigirek (diamond) 7 Distribution of Sibiriulus latisupremus (triangle). The new localities are shown in red.

Remarks. The julid L. tigirek has been collected outside its terra typica for the first time. The above records on the northern slope show the species preference for more humid habitats.

## Genus Megaphyllum Verhoeff, 1894

## Megaphyllum sjaelandicum (Meinert, 1868)

Megaphyllum sjaelandicum (Meinert, 1868) - Mikhaljova et al. 2007: 62, fig; Nefediev and Nefedieva 2007b: 162; 2008b: 62; Babenko et al. 2009: 183; Mikhaljova 2013: 9; 2016: 7; 2017: 97, 98: figs, 56: map; Nefediev et al. 2014a: 63; 2017c: 13.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 16 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, 13.07.2015; 1 §, 1 Q, 1 juv. (ZMMU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 14.07.2015, all leg. P.N.; 3 juv. (ASU), foot of S slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 31.05.2016; 12 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $31.05 .2016 ; 2$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $31.05 .2016 ; 2$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample $3(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 31.05.2016; 5 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 5 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), S slope between site 1 and site 2, broad gully with Padus avium, hand sampling, 1.06.2016; 43 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, hand sampling, 1.06.2016; 9 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06 .2016 ; 11 juv.
(ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $1.06 .2016 ; 4$ juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on S slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 3 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06 .2016 ; 4 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, hand sampling, 1.06.2016; 3 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 3 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 q (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 12.07 .2016 , leg. P.N.; 1 §', 6 juv., 1 fragm. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 2 juv., 1 fragm. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 3 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample $2\left(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}\right.$ deep), 12.07.2016; $1 \bigcirc^{\lambda}, 1 \not+$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 1 q, 3 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 1 q, 2$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 3 q $q$, 8 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 11$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, hand sampling, 12.07.2016; 1 q, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 12.07.2016; $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample $5(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; $1 \widehat{\sigma}^{\lambda}, 1$ fragm. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 13.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; $1 才$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 (litter), 13.07.2016; 1 \&, 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 1 ठ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 (litter), 13.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016, all leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; $2 q$ q $q$, 3 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 4 juv. (ASU), site 1 on S slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 1 §, 2 q $q, 3$ juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; $1 \widehat{\sigma}^{\top}, 1$ q, 5 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 2 우 (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 q$, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on S slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 q, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 juv., 1 fragm. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 \delta$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 \& (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 q, 1 fragm. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 20.06.2017; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, hand sampling, 24.06.2017, all leg. P.N.

Distribution. European-Western Siberian temperate range: this species appears to be widespread from northern and central Europe (Scandinavia, Finland, the Baltics,

Germany，Poland，Belarus）through European Russia and the Urals to East Kazakhstan and SW Siberia（Altai Province，Republic of Altai and Novosibirsk Area）．

Remarks．In the study area，M．sjaelandicum dominates habitats on the southern slope，where its abundance reaches up to 22 ind．$/ \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ．

## Genus Sibiriulus Gulička， 1963

## Sibiriulus latisupremus Mikhaljova，Nefediev \＆Nefedieva， 2014

Figure 7
Sibiriulus multinicus pro parte－Mikhaljova and Nefediev 2003：85，figs 1－3；Mikhaljova et al．2007：60，61：figs 12－14， 18.
Sibiriulus latisupremus Mikhaljova，Nefediev \＆Nefedieva，2014：35，36－38：figs，51： map．
Sibiriulus latisupremus－Mikhaljova 2017：90，91：figs，insets 741，743，748，752，753， 785，786，92：map；Nefediev et al．2017c： 13.

Material examined（all from Russia，southwestern Siberia，Altai Province，Charysh District，ca． 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village）． 1 §， 3 q $q, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on S slope，13．07．2015； 3 Q $Q$（ASU），site 1 on S slope，13．07．2015，all leg．P．N．； $1 \sigma^{\top}$（ASU），foot of S slope of mountain，Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook，hand sampling，31．05．2016； $4+q$（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $31.05 .2016 ; 2$ ふた， 2 q $q$ ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），31．05．2016； $2 \not \subset Q, 1$ fragm．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope， soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），31．05．2016； 1 ， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope， soil sample 3 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 31.05 .2016 ； 3 ơ $^{\top}, 2$ 아， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 2 \overbrace{}^{\lambda}, 1 q$（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope， soil sample 4 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 3$ q $q$ ， 2 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on S slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），1．06．2016； 6 đす， 9 ¢ $\uparrow$ ， 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，hand sampling， $1.06 .2016 ; 2$ juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 1 q(\mathrm{ASU})$ ，site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample $2(0-10$ cm deep），1．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； 1 §， 6 q $\uparrow$ ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； 3 ¢ $q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，hand sampling，1．06．2016； 1 ， ， 1 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （litter），2．06．2016； $1 \widehat{\sigma}^{\lambda}, 4$ Y $\uparrow$ ， 4 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1
 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 2 여（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （litter），2．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），2．06．2016； 1 ， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4
（10－20 cm deep），2．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （litter）， 2．06．2016； 2 Q $q, 2$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 2．06．2016； $1 \circlearrowleft, 12$ q $\uparrow$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，2．06．2016； 1 q， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 q（ASU）， site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），2．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 8 đ̄̃̉， 5 아（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，22．06．2016，leg．Kh．N．； 2 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 12.07 .2016 ； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on S slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ ， 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （10－20 cm deep），12．07．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 4 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10$ cm deep），12．07．2016； 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample $4(10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； $1 \overparen{\jmath}, 1$ Q， 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample $5(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； $2 \circlearrowleft^{\top} \sigma^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 12．07．2016； 1 \＆（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 3 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 2 juv． （ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 2 ふ龴， 6 juv． （ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； 1 §， 4 q $q$ ， 2 juv． （ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； 2 Q $q$ ， 1 juv． （ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； $1 \delta$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016； $2 \not q q, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，13．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．06．2016，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 2 q $q, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 2 ふた（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （10－20 cm deep），23．08．2016； 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 ㅇ（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample $5(10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 우， 1 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 q $q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 q $q$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10$ cm deep），23．08．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 4 \not \subset Q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample $2(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 Q（ASU），site 2 on N slope，hand sampling，23．08．2016，all
 sampling，23．06．2017，leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，A．A．，E．A．； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on S slope， hand sampling，24．06．2017，leg．P．N．

Distribution．Being an endemic of SW Siberia，S．latisupremus has previously been recorded in a few localities in SE part of the Altai Province and NW part of the Republic of Altai（Mikhaljova et al．2014）．

Remarks．The above records of the julid S．latisupremus are the southwesternmost for the species．In the study localities，the species demonstrates no preference between investigated habitats as regards different slope exposures．

## Family Nemasomatidae Bollman， 1893 <br> Genus Orinisobates Lohmander， 1933 <br> Orinisobates sibiricus（Gulička，1963）

Isobates sibiricus Gulička，1963：522：figs．
Isobates sibiricus－Byzova and Chadaeva 1965： 337.
Isobates（Orinisobates）sibiricus－Gulička 1972：45：figs；Nefediev and Nefedieva 2008a： 117；Babenko et al．2009： 182.
Orinisobates sibiricus－Enghoff 1985：53，54：figs；Mikhaljova 1993：16；2002：206； 2004：96：figs，94：map；2017：120，121：figs，122：map；Mikhaljova and Golo－ vatch 2001：107；Mikhaljova and Nefediev 2003：83；Nefediev and Nefedieva 2006：98；2007a：139；2007b：160；2008a：117；2008b：62；2013：87；Nefedieva and Nefediev 2008：123；Nefediev et al．2014a：63；2017c：13；Nefedieva et al． 2014：65；2015： 147.

Material examined（all from Russia，southwestern Siberia，Altai Province，Char－ ysh District，ca． 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village）． 1 \＆（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope， 13．07．2015，leg．P．N．； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （litter），2．06．2016； 3 ふत， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 q（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 6 q $q$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，2．06．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $2 q$ q（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，22．06．2016，leg．Kh．N．； 1 §， 1 q， 4 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 1 ， 1 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU）， site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （10－20 cm deep），12．07．2016； 1 §， 1 q（ZMMU）， 2 ふた， 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 2 $\widehat{o}^{\top}{ }^{1}, 1$ \＆， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016， all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $1 \delta^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 2 on S slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 22．08．2016，leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．

Distribution．Being a Central Palaearctic species，O．sibiricus is very widespread in southern Siberia，Russia as far as the Zabaikalskii Province，Republic of Tyva，south－ ern part of the Krasnoyarsk Province，Republic of Khakassia，Republic of Altai，Altai Province and Kemerovo Area；also known from Eastern Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan．

Remarks．This species shows no significant difference in its abundance between two studied slope exposures．

Order Chordeumatida C. L. Koch, 1847<br>Family Diplomaragnidae Attems, 1907<br>Genus Altajosoma Gulička, 1972

## Altajosoma sp.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). $1 \delta^{\top}, 1$ q (ASU), site 1 on N slope, 13.07.2015; 2 juv. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime N}$, $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 14.07 .2015 , all leg. P.N.; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06 .2016 ; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 1 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 4 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 22.06.2016, leg. Kh.N.; $1 \sigma^{\lambda}, 1 \rightarrow$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ q (ASU), site 1 on S slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; $1 \not \subset$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 1 q (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 1 q, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016, all leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 (litter), 22.07.2016; $1 \bigcirc$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 4 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Distribution. This species is currently known only from the study area.
Remarks. The above recorded specimens of Altajosoma sp. are most similar to Altajosoma bakurovi bakurovi (Shear, 1990) in some details of gonopod structure, i.e. in the shape of colpocoxites of the posterior gonopods and in particular in their distal parts, but the colpocoxites are a little bit narrower in the newly found species compared to A. bakurovi bakurovi. These specimens also differ significantly in the shape of the large posterior angiocoxal processes.

## Order Polydesmida Leach, 1815

Family Polydesmidae Leach, 1815
Genus Schizoturanius Verhoeff, 1931

## Schizoturanius clavatipes (Stuxberg, 1876)

Polydesmus clavatipes - Nefediev and Nefedieva 2008a: 117.
Schizoturanius clavatipes - Mikhaljova 1993: 31, 32: figs; 2002: 206; 2004: 238, 239: figs, 228: map; 2013: 9; 2016: 24; 2017: 288, 289: figs, 290: map; Nefediev 2001: 85; 2002a: 30; 2002b: 139; Mikhaljova and Golovatch 2001: 116; Mikhaljova and Nefediev 2003: 81; Nefediev and Nefedieva 2005: 178; 2006: 98; 2007a: 139;

2007b: 161; 2007c: 99; 2008b: 62; 2011: 100; 2012a: 51; 2012b: 47; 2013: 87; Nefedieva and Nefediev 2008: 123; Nefediev et al. 2014a: 63; 2017c: 13; Nefedieva et al. 2014: 65; 2015: 152.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 2 juv. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 14.07.2015, leg. P.N.; 4 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 2 qㅇ, 9 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 2 ふో, 1 Q, 2 juv. (ASU), foot of S slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 1.06.2016; $2 \widehat{\jmath} \widehat{\lambda}, 2 q$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 3 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 2$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample $1(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 13.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), near Komendantka Village, hand sampling, 14.07.2016, all leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 $\circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 §, $1 q$ (ZMMU), 1 q (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 才$ (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; $1 \widehat{\jmath}$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 \not \subset$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 (litter), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.

Distribution. Being a Western-Central Siberian species, S. clavatipes appears to be very widespread in southwestern Siberia, Russia, inhabiting Tomsk, Novosibirsk, and Kemerovo areas, Altai Province, Republic of Altai, Republic of Khakassia, and also along the Yenisei River in the Krasnoyarsk Province, central Siberia, Russia.

Remarks. The results of this study suggest that S. clavatipes prefers the southern slope, in spite of its highly ecological valence.

Class Chilopoda Latreille, 1817
Order Lithobiomorpha Pocock, 1895
Family Lithobiidae Newport, 1844
Genus Lithobius Leach, 1814

## Lithobius (Ezembius) ostiacorum Stuxberg, 1876

Lithobius (Ezembius) ostiacorum - Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13; 2017d: 218: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 \& (ZMMU), foot of S slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 31.05.2016; 1 q (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $2.06 .2016 ; 1$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; $1 \oint^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 q, 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 \& (ASU), site 1 on S slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 2$ q $q$, 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 12.07.2016; $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}, 1$ juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 13.07.2016; 1 q (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 (10-20 cm deep), 13.07.2016, all leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; $1 \sigma^{\top}$ (PSU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime N}$ N, $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 20.06.2017, leg. P.N.

Distribution. Southern Siberian boreal range with isolated Yenisei population: this species has previously been recorded in the Yenisei River area, Krasnoyarsk Province and Irkutsk Area (central and eastern Siberia, respectively) (Zalesskaja 1978), also recently found in northern Mongolia (Poloczek et al. 2016), Altai Province (Nefediev et al. 2017c) and Republic of Altai (Nefediev et al. 2017d).

Remarks. The above record of L. ostiacorum, recently announced at the 17 th International Congress of Myriapodology (Nefediev et al. 2017c), can be considered as the first formal find of the species in SW Siberia. In the study localities, the species was found more frequently on N facing habitats.

## Lithobius (Ezembius) proximus Sseliwanoff, 1880

Lithobius proximus - Zalesskaja 1978: 125-126; Striganova and Poryadina 2005: 226; Bukhkalo and Sergeeva 2012: 61; Sergeeva 2013: 530-532; Bukhkalo et al. 2014: 71-72;
Lithobius (Ezembius) proximus - Nefediev et al. 2017b: 116, 117: map; 2017c: 13; 2017d: 218: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 2 ふ̃ (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 14.07.2015, leg. P.N.; 4 đ̋ (ASU), same locality, 15.07.2015, leg. P.N., T.Z.; 1 ठ (ASU), S slope between site 1 and site 2, broad gully with Padus avium, hand sampling, 31.05.2016, leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 subadult $\widehat{\text { §t }}$ (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 12.07.2016; 2 ỡ $^{\pi}, 1$ q (ASU), same locality, pitfall traps, 12-14.07.2016, all leg. P.N.; $1 \oint^{\AA}$ (ASU), site 2 on S
slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016, leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 \oint^{\AA}$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 (litter), 23.08.2016; 1 q (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 § (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 20.06.2017, leg. P.N.

Distribution. Eastern European-transSiberian temperate range: this species is widespread from the eastern Russian Plain (republics of Mari El and Tatarstan, Kirov and Samara areas) in the west through Siberia to the Russian Far East (Maritime Province, Sakhalin and the Kuriles) (Zalesskaja 1978; Farzalieva and Esyunin 2008; Farzalieva 2009; Farzalieva and Tselishcheva 2009).

Remarks. The above find of the species, recently announced at the 17th International Congress of Myriapodology (Nefediev et al. 2017c), can be considered as the first formal record of it in the Altai Province, SW Siberia. In the investigated area, L. proximus is very rare and shows no significant differences in its distribution between slopes.

## Lithobius (Ezembius) sibiricus Gerstfeldt, 1858

Lithobius sibiricus - Nefediev 2001: 85.
Lithobius (Ezembius) sibiricus - Nefediev et al. 2016d: 263; 2017c: 13; 2017d: 219, 218: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). $2 \widehat{o}^{\top}, 1$, 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on S slope, 13.07.2015; $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ q, 2 subadult $q$ Q (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 14.07 .2015 , all leg. P.N.; $1 \delta^{\top}$, 1 subadult $\uparrow$, 2 juv. (ZMMU), foot of $S$ slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 31.05.2016; $1 \delta, 1$ Q, 1 juv. (PSU), site 1 on
 site 2, broad gully with Padus avium, hand sampling, 1.06.2016; 1 § (ASU), site 1 on S slope, soil sample 3 (10-20 cm deep), 1.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 7 § ${ }^{\text {す }}, 1$ q, 3 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 (litter), 2.06.2016; $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 1 Q (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 2
 1 subadult $q$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 (10-20 cm deep), 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 4 ở$^{\top}, 1$ q (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518$ m a.s.l., pitfall traps, 12-14.07.2016, leg. P.N.; 1 q (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ §, 3 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016; 1 §, 2 아, 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample

1 （10－20 cm deep），12．07．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （10－20 cm deep），12．07．2016； $1 才$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 13．07．2016； $2 \widehat{J}^{\lambda}, 1$ q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 13．07．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）； $1 \delta$（ASU）， site 2 on N slope，hand sampling，13．07．2016； $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $13.07 .2016 ; 1 \widehat{c}^{\lambda}, 1$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10$ cm deep），13．07．2016； 1 \＆（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），13．07．2016； 1 §， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 § （ASU），near Komendantka Village，hand sampling，14．07．2016，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 q， 1 juv． （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \AA^{\lambda}, 1 q$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \AA^{\lambda}, 1$ juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 才$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 23．08．2016； 1 Q（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016；
 （ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （litter），23．08．2016； $2 \widehat{\jmath}$ ， 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 ふた， 2 우， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample，hand sampling，23．08．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 Q， 1 juv．（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$ ， 83³7＇23．2＂E， 518 m a．s．l．，hand sampling，20．06．2017，leg．P．N．； 2 ふた， 3 早 + （ASU）， site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，23．06．2017； $1 \circlearrowleft$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，hand sam－ pling，23．06．2017，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，A．A．，E．A．

Distribution．Trans－Siberian temperate range：L．sibiricus is one of the most widely spread lithobiomorph centipedes in the Asian part of Russia，having been reported from southwestern Siberia（Tomsk Area，Altai Province and Republic of Altai），central and east－ ern Siberia（Krasnoyarsk Province，Irkutsk Area，Zabaikalskii Province and the republics of Buryatia and Sakha）and the Russian Far East（Amur Area，Maritime Province and Sakha－ lin Island）；also recorded in northern Mongolia（Nefediev et al．2016，2017c，d）．

Remarks．In the study localities，$L$ ．sibiricus shows a higher abundance on the northern slope．

## Lithobius（Monotarsobius）curtipes C．L．Koch， 1847

Lithobius curtipes－Striganova and Poryadina 2005：226；Bukhkalo and Sergeeva 2012： 61；Sergeeva 2013：530－532．
Lithobius（Monotarsobius）curtipes－Nefediev et al．2016d：263，260：map；2017b：116， 117：map；2017c：13；2017d：219，218：map．

Material examined（all from Russia，southwestern Siberia，Altai Province，Charysh District， ca． 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village）． 1 subadult $q$（ASU），site 1 on S slope，13．07．2015，
leg．P．N．； 1 q（ZMMU），foot of S slope，Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook， hand sampling，31．05．2016； $1 才$（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； $1 \oint^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），2．06．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （litter），2．06．2016； 2 §̃， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $2.06 .2016 ; 1$ ， 2 우， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \nrightarrow$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （litter），2．06．2016； 1 ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016，all leg．P．N．， Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $1 \bigcirc^{\lambda}, 2$ q $q$（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a．s．l．， 12.07 .2016 ，leg．P．N．； 2 § $^{\text {§（ASU），site } 1 \text { on } \mathrm{N}}$ slope，soil sample 3 （litter），13．07．2016； 1 Ø（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10$ cm deep），13．07．2016； 1 §， 1 \＆（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 13．07．2016； $2 \widehat{\sigma}^{\lambda}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 $q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $13.07 .2016 ; 2 \sigma^{\top} \sigma^{\pi}$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （litter），13．07．2016； $1 \widehat{J}^{\lambda}, 4$ q $q$ ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），13．07．2016； $1 \overparen{\lambda}, 1 \nrightarrow$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 13．07．2016，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $2 \circlearrowleft^{\top}, 2 q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10$ cm deep），23．08．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 5$ q $q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 23．08．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），23．08．2016； 2 ふた， 2 qQ（ASU）， site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $6 \widehat{\sigma}^{\top}{ }^{\top}, 2$ juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 4 $\circlearrowleft^{\top} 0^{\top}, 3$ q $q$（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$ ， $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a．s．l．，hand sampling，20．06．2017，leg．P．N．； 1 subadult $q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，hand sampling，23．06．2017，leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，A．A．，E．A．

Distribution．Trans－Palaearctic：the species displays extremely wide distribution in Europe，Asian Russia，the Near East and the Arabian Peninsula，also in northern Mongolia．In Siberia L．curtipes has been reported from the Novosibirsk，Omsk，Tyu－ men and Tomsk areas，the Altai and Krasnoyarsk provinces and the Republic of Altai （Nefediev et al．2016d，2017b，c）．

Remarks．Despite a wide geographical range，and its high ecological valence，in the study area，the species inhabits mainly the northern slope．

## Lithobius（Monotarsobius）insolens Dányi \＆Tuf， 2012

Lithobius（Monotarsobius）insolens－Nefediev et al．2017b：116，117：map；2017c：13； 2017d：221，220：map．

Material examined（all from Russia，southwestern Siberia，Altai Province，Charysh Dis－ trict，ca． 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village）． 1 q（ASU），site 1 on S slope，13．07．2015；

5 ふิ， 4 qq， 2 juv．（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope，
 subadult $q$ Q， 1 juv．（PSU），site 1 on $S$ slope，hand sampling，31．05．2016； 1 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $31.05 .2016 ; 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $31.05 .2016 ; 2 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ q， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 1 \sigma^{\top}, 2 q$（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 1 \delta^{\top}$（ASU），$S$ slope between site 1 and site 2，broad gully with Padus avium，hand sampling，1．06．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sam－ ple 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 2$ O $^{\top}, 1$ q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 2$ q $q$（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample $5(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），1．06．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 2 q Q$ ，（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，hand sampling， $1.06 .2016 ; 1 q$ （ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \bigcirc$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \widehat{\jmath}^{\lambda}, 1 \not q$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （litter），2．06．2016； $1 \overparen{\AA}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 2．06．2016； $3 \overparen{\jmath}$ §（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，2．06．2016； $1 q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \nrightarrow(\mathrm{ASU})$ ，site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （litter），2．06．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $3 \circlearrowleft^{\AA}{ }^{\top}, 1$ subadult đ（ASU）， Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518$ m a．s．l．，12．07．2016； $1 \circlearrowleft^{\top}$（ASU），same locality，pitfall traps，12－14．07．2016，all leg．P．N．； $1 \widehat{\}}, 4$ q $q, 8$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； $1 \sigma^{\lambda}, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $12.07 .2016 ; 1$ juv． （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （20－30 cm deep），12．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $12.07 .2016 ; 3 \sigma^{\top}, 2 q$（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $12.07 .2016 ; 2$ ふふ， 1 中（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10$ cm deep），12．07．2016； 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，hand sampling，12．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU）， site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $12.07 .2016 ; 2 \delta^{\top}, 1$ q， 1 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $13.07 .2016 ; 1$ §， 1 q， 2 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； $1 \delta^{\text {§ }}, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda, 1} 1$ ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13． 07.2016 ，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； $1 \delta^{\top}, 3$ q $q$ ， 1 juv． （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 2 ठ $^{\top}, 6$ q $q$ ， 6 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on S slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 1 §， 1 q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 4 q $q$ ， 5 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $2 \widehat{\jmath}$ ， 4 juv． （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \sigma^{\text {§ }}$（ASU），site 2 on S slope，soil sample 2 （litter），22．08．2016； 1 ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （litter），22．08．2016； 1 juv． （ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 1$ juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （litter），23．08．2016； $2 \oint^{\top}, 1$ q， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on

N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; $1 \overparen{\jmath}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.08.2016; $2 \widehat{o}^{\top}, 3$ Q +1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 23.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 (litter), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 subadult ${ }^{\top}$ (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 20.06.2017, leg. P.N.; 1 , 1 subadult $q$, 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Distribution. Central-Palaearctic temperate range: a central Asian species, $L$. insolens has very recently been found in the Omsk Area, Altai Province, and Republic of Altai (Nefediev et al. 2017b, c, d).

Remarks. The above record of L. insolens, recently announced at the 17th International Congress of Myriapodology (Nefediev et al. 2017c), can be considered as the first formal record of the species in the Altai Province, SW Siberia. In the study area, the species has significant preference for the southern slope. A single $\delta$ with aberrant numbers of antennomeres ( $22+24$ vs. $20+20$ in original description) was found.

## Lithobius (Monotarsobius) nordenskioeldii Stuxberg, 1876

Lithobius (Monotarsobius) nordenskioeldii - Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13; 2017d: 221, 220: map.

Material examined. 1 juv. (ASU), Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 air-km SE of Charyshskoye Village, site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 (0-10 cm deep), 13.07.2016, leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.

Distribution and remarks. Until recently this species was been known only from its terra typica in the Krasnoyarsk Province, central Siberia, Russia. New records of $L$. nordenskioeldii in the Altai Province, as announced at the 17th International Congress of Myriapodology (Nefediev et al. 2017c), and in the Republic of Altai (Nefediev et al. 2017 d) seems to indicate the low level of species abundance in the Altai region.

## Lithobius (Monotarsobius) sp.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 4 (litter), 2.06.2016; $1 \overparen{ }$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 5 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 , 2 subadult ô (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.

Remarks. The species identity of this new record is delayed pending an examination of additional material of specimens with similar diagnostic characters from the Republic of Altai.

## Lithobius vagabundus Stuxberg, 1876

Lithobius vagabundus - Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13; 2017d: 219, 218: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 ठ, 1 subadult ${ }^{\top}$ (PSU), foot of S slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 31.05.2016; 1 Q (PSU), site 2 on S slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016, leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; $1 \overparen{J}^{\lambda}, 1$ (PSU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017; 1 ठ (PSU), site 2 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Distribution. Originally described from the Yenisei River basin, Krasnoyarsk Province, central Siberia (Zalesskaja 1978), the species has been found recently in the Altai Province and Republic of Altai (Nefediev et al. 2017c, d), both SW Siberia, Russia.

Remarks. The above finding of L. vagabundus, recently announced at the 17 th International Congress Myriapodology (Nefediev et al. 2017c), can be considered as the first formal record of the species in southwestern Siberia. In the study region, the species was very rare in all biotopes.

## Lithobius sp.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 2 (litter), 2.06.2016; $1 \circlearrowleft$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample $3(10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 12.07.2016, leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Remarks. The identification of the above recorded specimens to the species level is impossible due to their early instars or lack of legs.

Order Geophilomorpha Pocock, 1895
Family Geophilidae Cook, 1895
Genus Arctogeophilus Attems, 1909
Arctogeophilus macrocephalus Folkmanová \& Dobroruka, 1960
? Arctogeophilus sp. - Byzova and Chadaeva 1965: 337.
Arctogeophilus macrocephalus - Zalesskaja et al. 1982: 189; Nefediev et al. 2017a: 8, 10: map; 2017c: 13; 2017d: 221, 222: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil
sample 1 (10-20 cm deep), 31.05.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 (10-20 cm deep), 31.05.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 1.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 1.06 .2016 ; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), $1.06 .2016 ; 1 q$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 10-10 cm deep), 13.07.2016, leg. Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 §, 1 q (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; $1 q$ (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 22.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 4 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 2 ふ̃ ${ }^{\text {on, }} 1$ ㅇ (ZMMU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$, $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 20.06.2017, leg. P.N.

Distribution. Trans-Eurasian temperate range: this species is very widely distributed, ranging from European Russia through Siberia to the Far East of Russian (Zalesskaja et al. 1982). In southwestern Siberia $A$. macrocephalus has been recorded in the Kemerovo and Tomsk areas, Republic of Altai and Altai Province (Byzova and Chadaeva 1965; Zalesskaja et al. 1982; Nefediev et al. 2017a, c, d).

Remarks. Apparently a very euryoecious species, A. macrocephalus has currently been recorded mainly from habitats on the southern slope.

## Family Linotaeniidae Cook, 1904 <br> Genus Strigamia Gray, 1843

Strigamia pusilla (Sseliwanoff, 1884)
Strigamia pusilla - Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13; 2017d: 223, 222: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 §, 1 juv. (ZMMU), 1 § (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 1 \& (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.

Distribution. Central-Palearctic temperate range: widespread from Central Europe and the Caucasus, S. pusilla is found in the Urals, SW and central Siberia and N Mongolia (Bonato et al. 2012; Poloczek et al. 2016; Nefediev et al. 2017c, d).

Remarks. In the study area, the species was found rarely and on the northern slope only.

## Strigamia cf. transsilvanica (Verhoeff, 1928)

Strigamia sp. - Nefediev et al. 2017c: 13.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 ठ (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., hand sampling, 14.07.2015, leg. P.N.; $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 2 on $S$ slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016, leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.

Distribution. A central-eastern European species, S. transsilvanica appears to be quite widespread in continental Europe from the Alps to the Carpathians and from the Baltic states to mainland Greece. It has been doubtfully reported from Sakhalin (Russia), Japan and Taiwan (Bonato et al. 2012) and recently found in the Rostov-on-Don Area, south of European Russia (Zuev and Evsyukov 2016).

Remarks. Although both specimens resemble S. transsilvanica, the study area is far from the known distribution of the species. Aside from the possibility of human introduction of this species in the Charysh District, the presence of a possible undescribed species similar in morphology to S. transsilvanica could be tested by molecular methods in the future.

## Family Schendylidae Cook, 1896 <br> Genus Escaryus Cook \& Collins, 1891

## Escaryus koreanus Takakuwa, 1937

Escaryus koreanus - Titova 1972a: 112; 1972b: 135; Pereira and Hoffman 1993: 9; Nefediev et al. 2017a: 11, 12: map; 2017c: 13; 2017d: 222: map.

Material examined (all from Russia, southwestern Siberia, Altai Province, Charysh District, ca. 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village). 1 §, 1 q (ZMMU), 5 q $q, 5$ juv. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, 518 m a.s.l., 14.07.2015; 1 juv. (ASU), Lonicera tatarica on E slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 24.9^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}$, 83³7'24.4"E, 493 m a.s.l., 16.07.2015, all leg P.N.; 1 §, 3 q ㅇ (ASU), foot of $S$ slope of mountain, Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook, hand sampling, 31.05.2016; 1 Q (ASU), site 1 on $S$ slope, soil sample 3 (10-20 cm deep), 31.05.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 (litter), 2.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 3 (10-20 cm deep), 2.06.2016; $1 \sigma^{\pi}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; $2 \widehat{\sigma}^{\top}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 2.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 1 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 2 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 (litter), 2.06.2016; 2 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 3 ( $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep), 2.06.2016; $1 \delta$ (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 (litter), 2.06.2016; 1 juv. (ASU), site 2 on N slope, soil sample 5 ( $0-10$ cm deep), 2.06.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 1 §, 1 q, 3 juv. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l., 12.07.2016, leg. P.N.; 1 (ASU), site 1 on N slope, soil sample $1(0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$
deep），13．07．2016； 2 ふた（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 13．07．2016； $1 \circlearrowleft^{\top}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，13．07．2016； 1 q， 2 juv． （ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 （ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \overbrace{}^{\pi}$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 q $q$ ， 13 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 $+(\mathrm{ASU})$ ，site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \precsim$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 ふふ， 2 우， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，hand sam－ pling，23．08．2016，all leg．P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 subadult ${ }^{\top}, 4$ Q $q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU）， Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$ ， 518 m a．s．l．，hand sampling，20．06．2017，leg．P．N．

Distribution．Trans－Palaearctic：originally described from Korea，the species is widespread throughout Asian Russia；also known from Armenia，Azerbaijan，Kazakh－ stan，Tadzhikistan，Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan（Bonato et al 2016）；in SW Siberia E．koreanus was formally recorded in the Kemerovo and Tomsk areas，Altai Province and Republic of Altai（Titova 1972a，b；Nefediev et al．2017a，c，d）．

Remarks．In the study region，E．koreanus appears to be found mainly on the northern slope．

## Escaryus retusidens Attems， 1904

Escaryus retusidens－Titova 1972a：110；1972b：135；Pereira and Hoffman 1993：9；Volk－ ova 2016：675；Nefediev et al．2017a：11，13：map；2017c：13；2017d：222：map．

Material examined（all from Russia，southwestern Siberia，Altai Province，Charysh District，ca． 4.5 km SE of Charyshskoye Village）． 1 ふ， 1 中（ZMMU）， 2 ふふ， 4 juv．（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime N}$ ， $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a．s．l．， 14.07 .2015 ，leg P．N．； 1 ठ（ASU），foot of S slope of mountain，Padus avium and Populus tremula stand near brook，hand sampling， 31．05．2016； 2 q Q $^{2} 3$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，hand sampling，31．05．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），31．05．2016； 1 q （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （20－30 cm deep），31．05．2016； 3 q $q$（ASU）， site 1 on S slope，soil sample 3 （10－20 cm deep），31．05．2016； 1 q， 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （20－30 cm deep），31．05．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on S slope，soil sample 4 （ $20-30 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1.06 .2016 ； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope， soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），1．06．2016； 3 juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （10－20 cm deep），1．06．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda, 1} 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （20－30 cm deep），1．06．2016； $1 \overparen{\sigma}$（ASU），$S$ slope between site 1 and site 2 ，broad
gully with Padus avium，hand sampling，1．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope， soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 1$ fragm．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $1.06 .2016 ; 2$ juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1.06 .2016 ； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （10－20 cm deep），1．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， 1．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），1．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on $S$ slope，hand sampling， $1.06 .2016 ; 2$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 2 q $q, 1$ juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 2 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 2 § $^{\top}, 2$ q $q$ ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 §, 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 3 （10－20 cm deep），2．06．2016； 1 ， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； $1 \precsim$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep）， $2.06 .2016 ; 1 \delta^{\top}, 3 q$（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-$ 10 cm deep），2．06．2016； 1 q（ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，2．06．2016； 1 Q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 3 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 2 ふた， 2 우， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 ＋， 3 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），2．06．2016，all leg． P．N．，Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 （ASU），site 1 on N slope，hand sampling，22．06．2016， leg．Kh．N．； 1 adult specimen（ASU），Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope， $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime N}$ ， $83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}, 518 \mathrm{~m}$ a．s．l．， 12.07 .2016 ，leg．P．N．； 1 juv． （ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），12．07．2016； 2 juv．（ASU）， site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample $5\left(10-20 \mathrm{~cm}\right.$ deep），12．07．2016； $1 \delta^{\lambda}, 2$ juv．（ASU）， site 1 on N slope，soil sample $1(10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； $2 q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； 1 Q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），13．07．2016； $2 q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 4 （10－20 cm deep），13．07．2016，all leg．Kh．N．，S．N．，V．S．； 1 juv．， 2 fragm．（ASU）， site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 1 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 1 fragm．（ASU），site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 2 （ $10-20 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； 1 q， 2 juv．， 1 fragm．（ASU）， site 1 on $S$ slope，soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \AA$（ASU），site 2 on S slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），22．08．2016； $1 \overparen{\delta}, 2$ 우， 2 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 4 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 2 q $q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 1 on N slope， soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 3 ふた $\begin{gathered}\text { た } \\ 1\end{gathered}$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 1 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 \not q$（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 2 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $2 q Q$ ， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 3 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； 1 Q， 1 juv．， 2 fragm．（ASU），site 2 on N slope， soil sample 3 （10－20 cm deep），23．08．2016； $2 \delta^{\top} 0^{\lambda}, 1$ q， 1 juv．（ASU），site 2 on N slope，soil sample 5 （ $0-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ deep），23．08．2016； $1 q$（ASU），site 2 on $N$ slope，hand
sampling, 23.08.2016, all leg. P.N., Kh.N., S.N., V.S.; 3 ふ̋, 4 qq, 3 juv. (ASU), Betula pendula and Populus tremula stand on N slope, $51^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 33.8^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 83^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 23.2^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{E}$, 518 m a.s.l., 20.06.2017, leg. P.N.; $1 \circlearrowleft^{\lambda}$ (ASU), site 1 on N slope, hand sampling, 23.06.2017, leg. P.N., Kh.N., A.A., E.A.

Distribution. Central-Eastern-Palaearctic subboreal range: originally described from Kyrgyzstan, the species is widely distributed in Eurasia, spanning from the Black Sea region in the west through eastern Kazakhstan to Cisamuria in the east (Titova 1972b). In Siberia E. retusidens has been known from the Kemerovo Area, Altai Province, and Republic of Altai (Nefediev et al. 2017a, c, d).

Remarks. In the study area, E. retusidens inhabits both slopes, and is one of the most dominant species.

## Results and discussion

The myriapod fauna of the study area comprises at least 19 species from 10 genera, 8 families, 5 orders and two classes (Diplopoda and Chilopoda).

The species richness in the millipede assemblages was found to be very low and similar on both slopes $\left(\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{J}}=0.83\right)$. Thus, 5 diplopod species are known to occur on both slopes (Megaphyllum sjaelandicum, Sibiriulus latisupremus, Orinisobates sibiricus, Schizoturanius clavatipes and Altajosoma sp.), whereas Leptoiulus tigirek inhabits the northern slope only (Table 1).

The total species richness in the centipede assemblages is twice as high compared to the millipede one, with 10 and 12 species recorded on the southern and northern slopes, respectively. Most Chilopoda species are common to both slopes, namely, Lithobius (Ezembius) ostiacorum, L. (E.) proximus, L. (E.) sibiricus, L. (Monotarsobius) curtipes, L. (M.) insolens, L. vagabundus, Arctogeophilus macrocephalus, Escaryus koreanus and $E$. retusidens. However, the similarity in species composition between the study slopes is weak $\left(\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{J}}=0.69\right)$. Thus, a single species was recorded only on the southern slope (Strigamia cf. transsilvanica) while three species dwell only on the northern slope (L. (M.) nordenskioeldii, L. (M.) sp. and Strigamia pusilla) (Table 1).

The julid L. tigirek, which has recently been included in the Red Data Book of the Altai Province (Nefediev 2016), has been collected outside its terra typica for the first time, thus also expanding the eastern range limit of the species (Figure 6). The julid $S$. latisupremus has previously been known from the Smolenskoe and Altaiskoe districts in the Altai Province and from the Shebalino District in the Republic of Altai (Mikhaljova et al. 2014). The current record of the species is the westernmost known to date (Figure 7). The species identity of Altajosoma sp. is delayed pending a revision of the variation in Altajosoma bakurovi bakurovi (Shear, 1990), which the currently recorded diplomaragnid is close to in the shape of colpocoxites of posterior gonopods and in their distal parts, but differs significantly in the large posterior angiocoxal processes.

Five lithobiids, L. (E.) proximus, L. (M.) insolens, L. (E.) ostiacorum, L. vagabundus and $L$. (M.) nordenskioeldii, are new to the Altai Province, while the three latter are also

Table I. Species composition and species richness in Chilopoda and Diplopoda assemblages in the study area.

| Species | S slope |  | N slope |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | site 1 | site 2 | site $\mathbf{1}$ | site 2 |
| Megaphyllum sjaelandicum (Meinert, 1868) | + | + | - | + |
| Sibiriulus latisupremus Mikhaljova, Nefediev \& Nefedieva, 2014 | + | + | + | + |
| Orinisobates sibiricus (Gulíka, 1963) | + | + | + | + |
| Leptoiulus tigirek Mikhaljova, Nefediev, Nefedieva \& Dyachkov, 2015 | - | - | + | + |
| Schizoturanius clavatipes (Stuxberg, 1876) | + | + | + | + |
| Altajosoma sp. | + | + | + | + |
| Lithobius (Ezembiuss ostiacorum Stuxberg, 1876 | + | - | + | + |
| Lithobius (Ezembius) proximus Sseliwanoff, 1880 | - | + | + | + |
| Lithobius (Ezembius) sibiricus Gerstfeldt, 1858 | + | + | + | + |
| Lithobius (Monotarsobius) curtipes C.L. Koch, 1847 | + | + | + | + |
| Lithobius (Monotarsobius) insolens Dányi \& Tuf, 2012 | + | + | + | + |
| Lithobius (Monotarsobius) nordenskioeldii Stuxberg, 1876 | - | - | + | - |
| Lithobius (Monotarsobius) sp. | - | - | + | - |
| Lithobius vagabundus Stuxberg, 1876 | - | + | + | + |
| Arctogeophilus macrocephalus Folkmanová \& Dobroruka, 1960 | + | + | + | + |
| Strigamia pusilla (Sseliwanoff, 1884) | - | - | + | + |
| Strigamia cf. transsilvanica (Verhoeff, 1928) | - | + | - | - |
| Escaryus koreanus Takakuwa, 1937 | + | - | + | + |
| Escaryus retusidens Attems, 1904 | + | + | + | + |
| Species richness in each site | 12 | 13 | 17 | 16 |
| Species richness on each slope |  | 15 |  | 17 |
| Total species richness on both slopes |  |  | 19 |  |

recorded in southwestern Siberia for the first time; the linotaeniid Strigamia cf. transsilvanica is reported from Asian Russia for the first time too.

The species diversity of Diplopoda is very low on both slopes. The julid M. sjaelandicum predominates on the dry southern slope, ranging from 44 to $60 \%$ of the total millipede abundance, whereas $S$. latisupremus tends to dominate on the more humid northern slope, ranging from 44 to $73 \%$ of the total diplopod abundance (Figure 8). The latter species may also be considered as a codominant species on the southern slope (23-36 \% of the total millipede abundance), while the rest of the millipede species are rare or very rare on the southern slope. Codominants of the northern slope appear to be $M$. sjaelandicum and $O$. sibiricus with $22 \%$ of the diplopod abundance. The RDA model also reveals the pattern of millipede distribution (Figure 9) explaining 20.3 \% of the variability in species data. Of the tested environmental variables, slope exposure (south/north) and time of sampling (month) are significant ( $\mathrm{F}=9.88, \mathrm{p}=0.002$ and $\mathrm{F}=3.42, \mathrm{p}=0.018$, respectively). Of the recorded species, $M$. sjaelandicum and $S$. clavatipes predominate on the southern slope.

Species diversity of Chilopoda is low on the southern slope: two species predominate, in particular, L. (M.) insolens, ranging from 34 to $72 \%$ of the total chilopod


Figure 8. The species diversity of millipedes on the southern and northern slopes.
abundance, and $E$. retusidens with $45 \%$ of the total centipede abundance in June, likewise $L$. (E.) sibiricus codominating there ( $21 \%$ in July); the rest of the centipede species are rare or very rare on the southern slope (Figure 10). On the northern slope, the centipede community is more similar to that on the southern slope: five dominant or codominant species - E. retusidens, E. koreanus, L. (E.) sibiricus, L. (M.) curtipes and $L$. (M.) insolens - inhabit the northern slope. The RDA model confirms this pattern of centipede distribution (Figure 11) explaining $15.2 \%$ of variability in its distribution. Of the tested environmental variables, slope exposure (south/north), depth of soil sample and time of sampling (month) are significant ( $\mathrm{F}=7.28, \mathrm{p}=0.002$; $\mathrm{F}=5.54, \mathrm{p}=$ 0.002 ; and $\mathrm{F}=2.55, \mathrm{p}=0.032$, respectively). Of the recorded species, $A$. macrocephalus and $L$. (M.) insolens predominate on the southern slope, whereas several of the above mentioned species predominate on the northern one.

The density of millipedes on the southern slope is twice as high compared to the northern slope. The seasonal dynamics of diplopod numbers range from $21 \pm 4.4$ to


Figure 9. RDA ordination biplot of the distribution patterns of millipedes in soil samples on the study slopes. Environmental variables significantly contributing to the prediction are in bold. The whole model is statistically significant ( $\mathrm{F}=4.73, \mathrm{p}=0.002$ ) and explains $20.3 \%$ of variability of species data, the X -axis explains $16.5 \%$.
$48 \pm 10.8 \mathrm{ind} . / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ on the southern slope, and from $9 \pm 1.2$ to $22 \pm 13.6 \mathrm{ind} . / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ on the northern one, gradually declining from June to August in both habitat types (Figure 12). Of the recorded species, abundance of the only julid, S. latisupremus, are significantly affected by the time of sampling as the population decreases from June to August (GLM: $\mathrm{F}=6.92, \mathrm{p}=0.010$ ). The numbers of centipedes on the northern slope are twice as high compared to the southern one. The seasonal dynamics of Chilopoda density ranges from $20 \pm 6.8$ to $27 \pm 19.6 \mathrm{ind} . / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ on the southern slope, and from $31 \pm 0.0$ to $47 \pm 11.6$ ind. $/ \mathrm{m}^{2}$ on the northern one, the highest being in June and Au gust and the lowest in July in both habitat types (Figure 13).

The age structure will be considered here, using the dominant species as an example. Thus, in the age structure of the julid M. sjaelandicum population on the southern


Figure $\mathbf{1 0}$. The species diversity of centipedes on the southern and northern slopes.
slope, juveniles predominated during the summer, and their abundance varied from $100 \%$ of the population in June to $70 \%$ in July and August. In contrast, in the julid S. latisupremus, overwintering adults predominated at the beginning of summer (with $75 \%$ of the population), producing juveniles, which started to prevail in the middle of summer (with $76 \%$ of the population).

The age structure in the population of the lithobiid $L$. (M.) insolens is as follows: adults predominate at the beginning of summer on both slopes, ranging from 70 to $100 \%$ of the population, while young individuals emerge in the middle of summer in amounts equal to the total numbers of males and females, and this ratio is maintained until the late summer. The sex ratio is close to 50:50 during summer on both slopes, but on the southern slope only females exceed males twice over by the end of summer. In the -age structure of $E$. retusidens on the southern slope, the abundance of juveniles


Figure I I. RDA ordination biplot of the distribution patterns of centipedes in soil samples on the study slopes. Environmental variables significantly contributing to the prediction are in bold. The whole model is statistically significant ( $\mathrm{F}=4.12, \mathrm{p}=0.002$ ) and explains $15.2 \%$ of variability of species data, the X -axis explains $10.3 \%$.
is 3 times higher than in adults. On the northern slope, the ratio of adults and juveniles is equal at the beginning of summer, while in the middle and late summer adults start to prevail to become twice as abundant. For adults, the females steady prevailed, outnumbering males from 2 to 5 times throughout the season in both habitats.

Regarding the vertical distribution in the soil profile, more than $80 \%$ of millipedes prefer the upper soil layer to a depth of 10 cm on both slopes. Diplopods are very rare in the litter, especially on the dry southern slope (where they numbered less than $1 \%$ ),


Figure I2. The seasonal dynamics of Diplopoda density on study slopes.


Figure 13. The seasonal dynamics of Chilopoda density on study slopes.
but the numbers are about $15 \%$ more on the humid northern slope, with maximum penetration in depth to no more than 20 cm (Figure 14). With regard to the vertical distribution in the soil profile in centipedes, we observe the preference of chilopods to the upper soil layer. Thus, approximately $80 \%$ of centipedes of the total chilopod abundance has been reported from the top 10 cm layer on both study slopes, with the maximum penetration in depth to no more than 30 cm . Centipedes are very rare in the litter, accounting for about $1 \%$ on the dry southern slope and about $13 \%$ on the more humid northern one (Figure 14). As the depth of the sample is a significant variable for RDA model, we tested its power to predict the distribution of individual species.

Diplopoda


Chilopoda



Figure 14. The distribution of myriapods along soil profile on both slopes.

Abundances of the geophilomorph $E$. retusidens and the lithobiomorph $L$. (M.) curtipes are the only species significantly affected by depth of sample. The geophilomorph prefers deeper soil layers and the lithobiomorph prioritizes the surface and upper soil layers (GLM: $\mathrm{F}=6.41, \mathrm{p}=0.013$ and $\mathrm{F}=4.01, \mathrm{p}=0.048$, respectively). This is not surprising, as the preference for the upper layers of soil by $L$. (M.) curtipes is well known (Tuf 2002, 2015). The ability of geophilomorphs to penetrate to deeper soil layers is documented and also recorded, using subterranean pitfall traps, too (Tuf et al. 2017).

## Conclusions

1. The species richness of millipedes is found to be very low in both habitat types studied, on the northern and southern slopes, whereas the centipede species richness is assessed as twice as high. The total richness comprises at least 19 species, belonging to ten genera, eight families, five orders, and two classes.
2. The new faunistic records for two millipede species, Megaphyllum sjaelandicum and Sibiriulus latisupremus, clarify their distribution areas. Two lithobiid species, Lithobius (Ezembius) proximus and L. (Monotarsobius) insolens, are new to the Altai Province, while L. (E.) ostiacorum, L. vagabundus and L. (M.) nordenskioeldii are recorded here in southwestern Siberia for the first time. A species of Strigamia
which is morphologically similar to $S$. transsilvanica was found in the study area. Two species from two genera, Altajosoma and Lithobius, are likely to be new to science, but their descriptions are delayed pending further information.
3. Two species predominate on the southern slope (M. sjaelandicum and L. (M.) insolens), and six species are dominant or codominant on the northern one (S. latisupremus, Escaryus retusidens, E. koreanus, L. (E.) sibiricus, L. (M.) curtipes and L. (M.) insolens). Thus, species diversity of millipedes is very low on both slopes, while in centipedes it is low only on the southern slope.
4. The density of millipedes on the southern slope is twice as high compared to the northern one, gradually declining from June to August in both habitat types. In contrast in centipedes, the numbers on the northern slope are twice as high compared to the southern one, with the minimum in mid-summer on both slopes.
5. The age structure of the dominant species is as follows: in $M$. sjaelandicum, juveniles predominated during summer; in S. latisupremus, overwintered adults predominate at the beginning of summer (with $75 \%$ of total species abundance), juveniles start to prevail in the middle of summer (with $76 \%$ of total species abundance); in $L$. (M.) insolens the sex ratio is 50:50; adults predominate in June, while juveniles emerge in the middle of summer in amounts equal to adults; in $E$. retusidens females outnumber males $2-5$ times during the whole season in both habitat types.
6. The distribution of myriapods in the soil profile shows that millipedes and centipedes prefer the upper soil layer to 10 cm deep (about $80 \%$ of total myriapod abundance) with the litter more populated on the northern slope, containing from 13 to $15 \%$ of the fauna, and the maximum penetration in depth to no more than 20 cm in millipedes and 30 cm in centipedes. The only geophilomorph centipede, $E$. retusidens, prefers deeper soil layers.

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# Why be red listed? Threatened Myriapoda species in Brazil with implications for their conservation 

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#### Abstract

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#### Abstract

The biodiversity crisis we live in, marked by high extinction rates, requires well-planned conservation efforts. To overcome this issue, red lists of threatened species are recognized as the main objective approach for evaluating the conservation status of species and therefore guiding conservation priorities. This work focuses on the Myriapoda (Chilopoda and Diplopoda) species listed in the Brazilian red list of fauna to enable discussion of the practical implications of red lists for conservation. Almost all myriapods assessed are endemic to Brazil ( $99 \%$ ) and $73 \%$ are known from subterranean habitats only. Despite of $33 \%$ being recorded from protected areas (PAs), downgrading, degazettement or downsizing of PAs and intense and unregulated ecotourism represent great threats. The PAs network in Brazil tends to fail in conserving myriapod species. The number of data deficient species ( $42 \%$ ) states the need of investing in ecological and taxonomic studies about the group, in order to fill in important knowledge gaps in species assessments nationally and globally. In this work we show that there is a lack of communication between national and global agencies concerning red lists, which results in a significant loss for science and for conservation. Despite investing in national and state red lists, individual countries must take the final step of submitting its data to IUCN global database, as significant international funding is available for IUCN red listed species conservation. Being one of the most diverse countries in the world, and facing the biggest cuts ever on national science funding, losing these important funding opportunities is a huge loss for Brazilian bio-


diversity conservation and for science. This study raises awareness on subterranean habitats conservation, due to its high endemism and fragility. Since the first edition of the Brazilian Red List in 1968, centipedes are now included for the first time, and millipedes for the second time. The presence of these myriapods in the list brings attention to the group, which usually receives little or no attention in conservation programs and environmental impact assessments. Rather than a specific case for Myriapoda and for Brazil, the points discussed here can be related to arthropods and the tropics, as the most biodiverse countries are emerging economies facing similar challenges in PAs network management, species extinction risks and science funding.

## Keywords

caves, centipedes, conservation management, ecotourism, extinction risk, IUCN, millipedes, protected areas, public policies, tropical region

## Introduction

Species extinction has always been part of biodiversity history. But recent extinction rates are 100 to 1000 times their pre-human levels in well-known and taxonomically diverse groups from widely different environments (Pimm et al. 1995). The overarching driver of species extinction is human population growth and increasing per capita consumption. How long these trends continue, where and at what rate, will dominate the scenarios of species extinction and challenge efforts to protect biodiversity (Pimm et al. 2014).

To understand and prevent human-driven extinction processes in progress, it is reasonable to know current living species diversity and distribution, in order to evaluate their probability of extinction. The red lists of threatened species are recognized as the most objective approach for evaluating the conservation status of species (IUCN 2013), and they represent the primary source of information to establish a species conservation status following defined protocols (Lewinsohn et al. 2005, Mallon and Jackson 2017). Red lists gather essential scientific evidence required to guide strategic and financial biodiversity conservation planning, the formulation of environmental public policies and conservation priorities and trends. Red lists are also indicators of data gaps in taxonomic groups or regions, orientating new biodiversity research. For example, a high number of species classified as Data Deficient shows that there is not enough knowledge about a given taxonomic group. Although inclusion in a red list is an indication of actual threat, absence of an entire taxonomic group from the list should be treated with circumspection because its omission could result from a lack of information rather than the absence of threat (Lewinsohn et al. 2005).

Given the growing concern about environment conservation, governments and/or environmental NGOs have been working in local conservation initiatives. Individual countries' red lists are constructed in regional or national levels and may inform local to global conservation decisions (Byrne and Fitzpatrick 2009). Red lists are implemented officially throughout environmental public policies at national and state levels across the countries. Usually they are funded by state or national governments, and co-
ordinated by its environmental agencies. In Brazil, the process of the list construction involves an extensive literature review by specialists, followed by workshops to discuss and validate each species assessments details and criteria.

On the other hand, the IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) Red List is considered the international authority for assessing species' extinction risk, informing global to local conservation decisions (Ocampo-Peńuela 2016). The list construction is based on a protocol that classifies species into different categories of risk using a formal set of objective and standard criteria (IUCN 2017a). The process regularly updates species status, and all the associated data are publicly accessible. Certainly, individual countries make their own decisions and may set management policies based on the IUCN assessments (Ocampo-Peńuela 2016). Both national lists and IUCN global assessments are primary information sources and may be complementary to each other on conservation programs.

## Threatened myriapods in red lists

Despite their relevant ecosystem services and functions, in general arthropods are poorly represented in conservation assessments (Lewinsohn et al. 2005, Diniz-Filho et al. 2010, Cardoso et al. 2011), which hinder an in-depth analysis of their conservation status (Lewinsohn et al. 2005). However, comprehensive biodiversity studies need to include as many taxa as possible (Oliveira et al. 2017). Considering invertebrates' high abundance and diversity worldwide, studies extending its knowledge and helping to fill in its scientific gaps are really necessary to its conservation and, therefore, to ecosystems services conservation in the long run.

The Myriapoda includes four classes: Chilopoda, Diplopoda, Pauropoda, and Symphyla. The myriapod fauna known for Brazil encompasses mainly Chilopoda (134 described species (Chagas-Jr 2017)) and Diplopoda ( 536 described species (Pena-Barbosa 2017)). It is estimated that there are around 400 Chilopoda species and 5,000 Diplopoda species only in the Amazon Forest (Adis and Harvey 2000). Pauropoda and Symphyla are almost unknown to science, and estimates indicate that there are fewer than 200 species of Pauropoda and fewer than 20 species of Symphyla in the Amazon Forest (Adis and Harvey 2000). Myriapods are widely distributed in Brazil and can be easily found in urban areas. Scolopendromorphs are most responsible for accidents with humans and their venom has been studied due to its medical interest, the novelty of its protein and peptide composition (Undheim et al. 2015) and potential for pharmacology (Harvey 2014; Hakim et al. 2015; Undheim et al. 2016). In China centipedes are one of the crucial venomous arthropods that have been used in traditional medicine for hundreds of years (Hakim et al. 2015).

Invertebrate animals were not initially included in red lists. The early beginnings for the IUCN Red List started in the 1950s with a card index system documenting data on threatened mammals and birds (Figure 1). In 1965 the first most comprehensive lists of threatened mammals and birds were published - enabling public ac-


Figure I. Myriapoda in the IUCN and Brazilian red lists. Timeline of Myriapoda species included in the IUCN Red Lists of Threatened Species (above the red line), and in the Brazilian Red Lists of Threatened Species (below the red line), highlighting the first myriapods listed and the current number of species listed.
cess to the data for the first time. Since then, IUCN published several versions of its red lists encompassing mammals, birds, amphibians, reptiles, fishes, and several lists focused also on plant species. Invertebrates were first evaluated for the IUCN Red List in 1983, when The IUCN Invertebrate Red Data Book was published. Although this list presents all four classes of Myriapoda (Chilopoda, Diplopoda, Symphyla, and Pauropoda), and mention its scientific interest and threats to survival, the species were not yet assessed individually at that time. The IUCN Invertebrate Red Data Book also assessed some biological communities as a whole, where entire sets of invertebrates were in need of conservation. In Gunung Mulu National Park, in Borneo, the bizarre and rare centipede Edentistoma octosulcatum (Tömösváry, 1882) is listed in a threatened community. The first myriapod specifically assessed and listed in the IUCN Red List, according to the historical publications available at the institution website, was Scolopendra abnormis Lewis \& Daszak, 1996, classified as vulnerable with a very small population. Since 2000 the IUCN Red List is available online (http://www.iucnredlist. org/) and nowadays it includes 200 millipede and ten centipede species.

In Brazil, the first national red list was published in 1968 (Figure 1), but it was only in the 2000 decade that the Brazilian lists adopted international standards of species assessments, using IUCN method, criteria and categories. Invertebrate assessments have been included in Brazilian red lists recently (Figure 1). The first myriapods included in a Brazilian red list were four millipede species in the 2003 list (Leodesmus yporangae (Schubart, 1946), Peridontodesmella alba Schubart, 1957, Yporangiella stygius Schubart, 1946, and Rbinocricus padbergi Verhoeff, 1938). The current Brazilian red list was published in 2014 and it includes 15 myriapod species ( 12 millipedes and three centipedes) (MMA 2014).

Given the continental size and great biodiversity of Brazil, it is unsurprising that sampling coverage is very unequal among biomes and taxonomic groups (Lewinsohn et al. 2005). Both in the IUCN Red List and in the Brazilian lists, invertebrate animal
assessments have always been uneven to vertebrate animals. For example, the 2017 IUCN Red List (version 2017-1) evaluated $1 \%$ of invertebrates and $66 \%$ of vertebrates of all described species. Even taking into account that the number of described species explains part of this unevenness ( 1.3 million for invertebrates and 68,000 for vertebrates (IUCN 2017b)), the number of species evaluated emphasizes invertebrate negligence ( 19,000 for invertebrates and 45,000 for vertebrates). Similarly, the current Brazilian Red List (2014) evaluated $3 \%$ of invertebrates and $99 \%$ of vertebrates described ( 3,000 invertebrate and 9,000 vertebrate species). However, this quantitative similarity between invertebrate and vertebrate proportions in Brazilian and IUCN red lists may hide an important qualitative mismatch between the lists, which can be a product of the lack of communication between national and international agencies. A focus on the implications of 2014 Brazilian Red List data for myriapods (Chilopoda and Diplopoda) conservation in Brazil allows a discussion of the current context and the relative effectiveness of the red lists of threatened species for biodiversity conservation in Brazil. Additionally, the implication of the discrepancies between the Brazilian red list and the IUCN list and the effectiveness of protected areas (PAs) Brazilian network in conserving threatened myriapods is discussed.

## Materials and methods

The current Brazilian red list of threatened species of fauna was constructed through specialists workshops held by ICMBio (Chico Mendes Institute of Biodiversity Conservation, a national agency of the Brazilian Ministry of Environment) and it was published as a legal act in December 17, 2014 (MMA 2014). In 2016, ICMBio also published the Executive Summary of the Brazil Red Book of Threatened Species of Fauna, which includes more information about the threatened species listed in 2014 (MMA 2016). The assessments workshops followed IUCN methods, categories and criteria to assess species, which classifies the extinction risk as Critically endangered (CR), Endangered (EN), Vulnerable (VU), Near threatened (NT), Least concern (LC), and Data deficient (DD). The categories CR, EN and VU are considered the threatened ones.

This study focused on the Myriapoda species in the 2014 Brazilian red list (Figure 2) and its related data available on the Executive Summary published in 2016. The analysis consisted of a qualitative comparison between the species listed in the 2014 Brazilian red list and those listed in the IUCN Red List (version 2017-1, http://www.iucnredlist. org/). The software QGIS (version 2.18.7) was used to create the map using Brazilian biomes and protected areas shape files, besides Myriapoda threatened species distribution data. Both biomes and protected areas shape files were downloaded from the Brazilian Environment Ministry website (http://mapas.mma.gov.br/i3geo/datadownload.htm) in June 2017. Myriapoda threatened species geographic coordinates were compiled from the original descriptions' publications (See Suppl. material 1: Myriapoda threatened species geographic coordinates).


Figure 2. Myriapoda species assessement by the current Brazilian Red List. Myriapoda threatened species according to the 2014 Brazilian Red List, which follows IUCN classification categories (CR = Critically endangered, $\mathrm{EN}=$ Endangered, $\mathrm{VU}=$ Vulnerable, $\mathrm{NT}=$ Near threatened, $\mathrm{LC}=$ Least concern, DD = Data deficient). Dashed red line indicates threatened categories.

## Results

The Brazilian red list encompasses more Myriapoda families and genera than IUCN red list, especially for Diplopoda species (Table 1). Comparing the families, four Diplopoda families (Paradoxosomatidae, Pyrgodesmidae, Siphonophoridae, Spirostreptidae), and two Chilopoda families (Ballophilidae and Scolopendridae) are shared between the two lists. Concerning the genera, only one of each class is included in both the IUCN and the Brazilian lists: Rhinocricus (Diplopoda), and Ityphilus (Chilopoda). There are no shared myriapod species between the IUCN and the Brazilian red lists.

Almost all myriapods species assessed for the Brazilian red list are endemic to Brazil (99 \%) , and so are all of those classified as threatened (100 \%). Among the species categorized as threatened, 73 \% are only known for subterranean habitats (Figure 3), and just $33 \%$ occurs inside PAs. Concerning the Brazilian biomes, $40 \%$ of threatened myriapod species are in Atlantic Forest, 33 \% in Cerrado, 20 \% in Amazonia, and $7 \%$ in Caatinga (Figure 3).

Table I. Myriapoda diversity in IUCN Red List (2017) and in Brazil Red List (2014), including all extinction risk categories: Critically endangered, Endangered, Vulnerable, Near threatened, Least concern, and Data deficient.

| Reference | Diplopoda |  |  | Chilopoda |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Families | Genera | Species | Families | Genera | Species |
| IUCN Red List | 12 | 35 | 200 | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| Brazil Red List | 17 | 76 | 223 | 6 | 7 | 9 |
| Shared taxa | 4 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 |



Figure 3. Distribution of the Brazilian Myriapoda threatened species. The color of the legend represents the IUCN threatened category: red (Critically endangered - CR), orange (Endangered - EN), and yellow (Vulnerable - VU). Species in blue are only known from subterranean habitats. Species with an asterisk ${ }^{(*)}$ occur inside PAs.

Table 2. Myriapoda orders represented among Data Deficient (DD) species and cave species in the 2014 Brazilian Red List of Threatened Species.

| Class | Order | DD species | Cave species |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Diplopoda | Polydesmida | $51 \%$ | $27 \%$ |
|  | Spirobolida | $25 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | Spirostreptida | $21 \%$ | $46 \%$ |
|  | Siphonophorida | $1 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | Glomeridesmida | $0 \%$ | $9 \%$ |
| Chilopoda | Scolopendromorpha | $2 \%$ | $18 \%$ |
|  | Geophilomorpha | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | Scutigeromorpha | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | Lithobiomorpha | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |

Concerning the species classified as Data Deficient (DD), 98 \% refers to Diplopoda and just $2 \%$ refers to Chilopoda (Table 2). Among Diplopoda, the order Polydesmida encompasses the highest number of DD species in Brazil. Concerning the subterranean myriapod fauna, Spirostreptida is the order more frequently recorded (Table 2).

## Discussion

## What is the importance of a species being included in a red list?

There are some implications of a species being included in a red list. First, the assessment data itself have an intrinsic value of knowing biodiversity status in a given period of history and its associated extinction risks (Dijkstra 2017). At each update of the list, new species are assessed, compiled, and summarized and, thus, more knowledge is generated about the group itself. This kind of data also allows temporal assessment of the species populations (Schachat et al. 2015, Cruickshank et al. 2016). Second, when a species is included in a red list it gets attention and becomes among the priorities for conservation efforts, once red lists gather scientific evidence required to guide biodiversity conservation planning, the formulation of public policies and conservation priorities and trends (Mallon and Jackson 2017). Conservation science being an applied discipline, red lists operate like the first step to the management of species. Third, but not less important, the inclusion of a species in a red list increases the possibility of raising funds to study the species (but on the other hand, bureaucratic obstacles also increase).

Science funding in Brazil has been suffering huge cuts at federal and state levels in recent years, which have paralyzed research (Gibney 2015). From electric and cleaning expenses to laboratories working and field research and meetings, science and research institutions do not have enough funds to pay the basics, and face one of the worst science funding crisis to strike Brazil in decades (Escobar 2015). Besides paralyzing research in Brazil, after a decade of economic boom and its investments resulting in high quality science (Gibney 2015), Brazil is also facing the loss of scientists that have opportunity to live and work abroad; Brazilian science is bankrupt (Escobar 2015).

Once conservation efforts are limited and priorities must be set, in practice red lists work as a priority indicator for conservation investments. In Brazil there are calls for biodiversity conservation directed specifically to threatened species, i.e. Fundação O Boticário (http://www.fundacaogrupoboticario.org.br). For those, the presence of a given species in the Brazilian red list is the main criteria for funding eligibility. Similarly, there are international calls directed to fund research and conservation programs of species assessed for the IUCN Red List. There are several small grants provided by scientific associations that potentially fund postgraduate research, i.e. Whitley Fund for Nature (https://whitleyaward.org/), The Rufford Foundation (https://www.rufford.org/rsg/), Saving Species (http://www.savingspecies.org/), People's Trust for Endangered Species (https://ptes.org/). There are also bigger agencies providing grants to entire conservation programs. For example, SOS - Save Our Species (http://www. saveourspecies.org/) is a joint initiative of the IUCN, the Global Environment Facility, and the World Bank. Its objective is to ensure the long-term survival of threatened species and their habitats, supporting direct action on species conservation priorities informed by the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, among other criteria. Between 2010 and 2016, the SOS initiative allocated US $\$ 10$ million to species conservation, encompassing 250 threatened species in more than 50 countries (including Brazil in
a critically endangered bird project in 2010). Another example is The Mohamed bin Zayed Species Conservation Fund (https://www.speciesconservation.org/), a private institution that invested US\$ 15.5 million in the last nine years in conservation programs across the planet. Brazilian projects received US\$ 750,000 from that amount ( $3 \%$ ), distributed across 79 projects encompassing mammals (53 \%), birds (18 \%), reptiles (12 \%), plants (7 \%), amphibians (5 \%), fishes (4 \%), invertebrates (1 \%), and fungi $(0,004 \%)$. The Fund uses the IUCN Red List as the primary guide to the conservation status of a given species. Taken altogether, these two funding opportunities directed more than US\$ 25 million in the last decade specifically to fund the conservation of red listed species assessed in the IUCN. Being one of the most diverse countries in the world, and facing the biggest cuts ever on national science funding (Gibney 2015), why are Brazilian myriapod species, and probably many others, not eligible for international conservation grants?

Despite the IUCN being listed among the supporters of the 2014 Executive Summary of Brazil Red Book, the species listed in Brazil were not submitted to the IUCN global database. The Brazilian government invests in the elaboration of the national lists based on IUCN method and categories, but not taking this final step of submitting its assessments to the IUCN prevents international funding from being directed to Brazilian species. If a given species is classified as threatened in Brazil, but it is not listed in the IUCN Red List, it is not eligible for considerable international funding. Losing these important opportunities is a huge loss for Brazilian biodiversity conservation and for science, especially when investments are so scarce.

Fine scale red lists (i.e., country and state) are mandatory to know biodiversity and to plan short and mid-term conservation actions. However, consolidating those smaller pictures in a global database is also essential, because of their intrinsic value to science. For example, all the Myriapoda species assessed for the IUCN Red List are from Africa ( $98 \%$ ) and Southeast Asia (1 \%). But myriapods are globally distributed, which suggests that there is a huge geographic gap in Myriapoda assessed data in the IUCN. As the endemic Brazilian myriapods were already assessed according to IUCN criteria but the data have not been yet sent to IUCN, analyzing the IUCN Red List alone could led to an erroneous conclusion that myriapods are only threatened in Africa and Southeast Asia. Besides that, Brazilian data have a significant impact on the knowledge of threatened Myriapoda considering also the diversity of the group, as the Brazilian Red List encompasses more families and genera than the IUCN Red List, especially for Diplopoda species. Then, adding national data to IUCN global database increases scientific knowledge of a given group, as it gathers scattered information into a single source. Second (and in a more applied sense), consolidating those smaller pictures in a global database is important to concentrate efforts for biodiversity conservation allowing priorities to be set at a global scale - which, in the red list case, would include countries' red lists information which is not yet encompassed by IUCN global database. Besides that, it also allows endemic threatened species to be eligible for international funding. Then, countries that elaborate their national red lists based on IUCN methods (guidelines are available at its website) must take the final step of submitting their data to the

IUCN staff for validation and inclusion in the red list. Submitting national red lists data to IUCN allows countries to achieve international funding and also helps to fill in the gaps in biodiversity knowledge and in the IUCN global database.

## Myriapoda threatened species in Brazilian protected areas

The myriapod species in the Brazilian Red List are not widely distributed across Brazil. Our results show that there are more threatened species in threatened habitats. Among threatened myriapods, $40 \%$ are in the Atlantic Forest, and $33 \%$ in the Cerrado - the biomes with the lowest proportion of remaining vegetation in Brazil: 8.5 \% (MMA 2017) and $45 \%$ (Coura et al. 2011), respectively. Oliveira et al. (2017) found that most species of vertebrates, arthropods (including millipedes) and angiosperms in their dataset had less than $30 \%$ of their geographical distribution within Brazilian PAs. Our results, which include centipedes, and exclude non-myriapod groups, are consistent with theirs, as only $33 \%$ of species among the threatened Brazilian Myriapoda occur inside PAs. Added to these low percentages there are PADDD events (downgrading, degazettement or downsizing of PAs) and intense and unregulated tourism representing great threats to biodiversity conservation within PAs in Brazil. In fact, there is an urgent call to designate new PAs in the Atlantic Forest and the Cerrado to prevent species loss due to the potential impact of the human population growth and agricultural expansion (Junk et al. 2006, Overbeck et al. 2015). The Cerrado, particularly, is the most coveted biome for agribusiness expansion (Overbeck et al. 2015, Strassburg et al. 2017). Even though invertebrates play essential ecological roles in ecosystem functioning, the pollination function developed by bees is probably the most common argument for conserving invertebrates. In Brazil, there are two cases of PAs created for invertebrate's conservation (the velvet worm Epiperipatus acacioi (Marcus and Marcus 1955) and dragonfly communities), both PAs in Brazil Southeast. However, these are clearly exceptions in the Brazilian conservation agenda. Unfortunately, without the creation of PAs and protection of the threatened myriapod species, their extinction becomes more probable.

Additionally, the majority of threatened Myriapoda species is only known for subterranean habitats, considered as fragile environments with a high degree of endemism and morphological, ecological, and behavioral specialization among its communities (Bichuette and Trajano 2010). Among many aspects of nature that have a great potential for tourism, caves stand out due to their unique features, both scientific and esthetic, resulting in a high degree of attractiveness (Lobo et al. 2013). However, excessive human visitation is pointed as one of the major causes of impact for subterranean faunas, as a result of the considerable development of speleology as sport and adventure, overcrowding many caves (Bichuette and Trajano 2010). Being at the same time fragile and attractive, cave conservation turns to be a huge challenge concerning whole endemic invertebrate communities. The IUCN (1992) lists tourism as the sec-
ond major threat to protected areas (after exotic fauna). Globally, terrestrial PAs receive approximately 8 billion visits per year (Balmford et al. 2015). On the other hand, Brazil's national parks received 6.5 million visits in 2014 (Castro et al. 2015). Tourism related to nature or wildlife is a rapidly growing economic activity, especially in developing countries, which are more biodiverse and where it can generate income for local communities and governments (Curtin and Kragh 2014). Then, the lack of management plans in PAs represents a barrier to the development of ecotourism (Tortato and Izzo 2017). If carefully planned, managed and controlled, ecotourism in caves can minimize or even avoid most negative effects (Gossling 1999), and generate economic opportunities for local communities. For example, the economic benefits accrued from jaguar observation tourism far outweighed the costs of cattle losses in private ranches in Brazil, where local people still engage in the persecution and killing of large cats (Tortato et al. 2017). So, even if controversial, cave ecotourism can contribute to safeguard biodiversity and ecosystem functions in developing countries, even though meeting the requirements for ecotourism is extremely difficult (Gossling 1999).

The whole picture of PAs in Brazil, considering both the PADDD events and unregulated tourism, suggests that the PAs network in Brazil tends to fail in conserving biodiversity and needs to be strengthened to achieve conservation goals in the long run. However, the political scenario in Brazil is not optimistic. Ironically, politicians defending the agriculture industry, hydropower system and mineral extraction expansion have a strong influence on environmental political decisions in Brazil, and frequently succeed in getting polemic decisions quickly approved without public and technical consultations (Fearnside 2015). It seems that mineral extraction pressure will not cool down in the near future in Brazil, considering national government's recent proposition of attracting private investments to explore minerals in the Amazon, among other measures of the Brazilian Mineral Industry Revitalization Program (DNPM 2017). Then, our analysis suggests that Myriapoda species extinction risks are likely to be worse than those stated in the 2014 Brazilian Red List, once the high number of Data Deficient species ( $42 \%$ ) may hide a significant number of species in threatened conditions. Besides, this scene may be similar, or worse, when considering other invertebrate groups. The total number of myriapods assessed for the 2014 Brazilian Red List represents $35 \%$ of all species registered from Brazil of its two major classes (Chilopoda and Diplopoda). The proportion of other invertebrate groups assessed was much smaller, such as Lepidoptera (3 \%), Hymenoptera (3 \%), Arachnida (2 \%), and Coleoptera ( $0.005 \%$ ). These important data gaps in scientific knowledge probably hide a significant number of terrestrial invertebrate species not being protected by the Brazilian PAs system. The current PA system fails to protect the majority of endemic species in Brazil (Oliveira et al. 2017) and here it also fails when considering Myriapoda endemic species in Brazil, and likely other terrestrial invertebrate groups.

Then, rather than a specific case for Myriapoda and for Brazil, the points discussed here can be related to arthropods (Lewinsohn et al. 2005, Diniz-Filho et al. 2010, Cardoso et al. 2011) and for the tropics, as most diverse countries are mainly emerging
economies facing similar challenges in assessing species extinction risks, PAs network management, and science funding. Therefore, we recommend:

- Investing in taxonomic and ecological studies concerning myriapods and other arthropods in the tropics;
- Investing in biodiversity inventories within PAs networks in the tropics;
- Stimulating individual countries to submit their national red lists data to the IUCN.


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## Supplementary material I

Myriapoda threatened species geographic coordinates
Authors: Manoela Karam-Gemael, Thiago Junqueira Izzo, Amazonas Chagas-Jr
Data type: occurence
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# VIRMISCO - The Virtual Microscope Slide Collection 

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#### Abstract

Digitisation allows scientists rapid access to research objects. For transparent to semi-transparent threedimensional microscopic objects, such as microinvertebrates or small body parts of organisms, available databases are scarce. Most mounting media used for permanent microscope slides deteriorate after some years or decades, eventually leading to total damage and loss of the object. However, restoration is labourintensive, and often the composition of the mounting media is not known. A digital preservation of important material, especially types, is important and an urgent need. The Virtual Microscope Slide Collection - VIRMISCO project has developed recommendations for taking microscopic image stacks of three-dimensional objects, depositing and presenting such series of digital image files or z -stacks as an online platform. The core of VIRMISCO is an online viewer, which enables the user to virtually focus through an object online as if using a real microscope. Additionally, VIRMISCO offers features such as search, rotating, zooming, measuring, changing brightness or contrast, taking snapshots, leaving feedback as well as downloading complete $z$-stacks as jpeg files or video file. The open source system can be installed by any institution and can be linked to common database or images can be sent to the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz. The benefits of VIRMISCO are the preservation of important or fragile material, to avoid loan, to act as a digital archive for image files and to allow determination by experts from the distance, as well as providing reference libraries for taxonomic research or education and providing image series as online supplementary material for publications or digital vouchers of specimens of molecular investigations are relevant applications for VIRMISCO.


## Keywords

Database, digitisation, morphology, museum collection, soil invertebrates, type material, visualisation

## Introduction

Recent advantages in digitisation facilitate use, processing, duplication, distribution, archiving, and playback on common media devices, and improved applications for inquiries and comparison. Furthermore, digital copies protect the originals or serve as documentation in case of loss or damage. There are many strategic initiatives to digitise collection material from natural history museums, such as ultra-high resolution images of e.g., insect boxes, labels or three-dimensional scans (e.g., skulls, taxidermy mounts) (Mantle et al. 2012, Blagoderov et al. 2012, Holovachov et al. 2014, Copes et al. 2016, Short et al. 2018). While projects on virtual microscopy in biology or micropalaeontology are rare, in medical applications virtual microscopy and virtual (histological) slide collections are well known and acknowledged as beneficial e.g., for documentation, teaching, diagnoses, and research (Kumar et al. 2004, Gu and Ogilvie 2005, Helin et al. 2005, Krippendorf and Lough 2005, Goldberg and Dintzis 2007, Mikula et al. 2007, Dee 2009, Weinstein et al. 2009). However, these are mostly restricted to two-dimensional histological slices or cell biology, are not open source, are not accessible publicly online, restricted to a specific manufacturer or do not comply with the needs of a soil zoological collection.

Permanent microslides in collections often lose their quality due to ageing and physico-chemical alterations of the mounting media. Whereas some mounting media like Canada balsam, Euparal and glycerol-paraffin sealed with Glyceel show proper quality even after 50 to more than 150 years, others darken or deteriorate by dehydration, contraction, oxidation, or crystallisation of the media (Brown 1997, Brown and De Boise 2006, Allington and Sherlock 2007, Neuhaus et al. 2017). Additionally, the former collection owners may have used several different mounting media or the composition was changed by the producers or manufacturers in the course of time. Thus, the mounting media are not known for all slides. Cleaning, re-mounting and restoration is very labour-intensive or even impossible for some mounting media. Furthermore, the object may be damaged during the re-mounting process (Upton 1993, Brown and De Boise 2006, Neuhaus et al. 2017). In practice, objects are already irretrievably damaged or partly destroyed when alterations are noticed by the curator. Several microscope slide collections have already been lost or will be lost within the next decades (Upton 1993, Jersabek et al. 2010, Lillo et al. 2010, Neuhaus et al. 2017).

Unfortunately, most institutions and collections do not have staff with experience on microscope slide restoration and no financial resources for this time-consuming task. Often the general storage and conservation conditions of the collection (e.g., temperature, humidity, light exposure, volatiles) require replacement or new investments (e.g., cabinets).

To rescue at least the relevant information of the valuable collection specimens an equivalent digital documentation, especially of type material, is crucial. However, digital images can never replace the original specimen and restoration of a microscope slide collection should be the first goal of a curator or institution.

In this publication we introduce the open source system "the Virtual Microscope Slide Collection - VIRMISCO" to present digital microscope images of different focal planes. General recommendations for digitisation of three-dimensional collection objects on permanent microscope slides of soil fauna and other small organisms are also provided.

## Objectives

The Virtual Microscope Slide Collection - VIRMISCO project at the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz aims to develop recommendations for methods and procedures for digitisation of three-dimensional microscope objects and to make their information accessible online for free public use (open access database). Such an (almost) complete documentation with digital images of microscopic objects guarantees the permanent conservation at least of the relevant taxonomic information of most of the objects. Within VIRMISCO recommendations for light microscopic documentation of slide mounts were developed and a wide range of microscopic methods (e.g., phase contrast, differential interference contrast, confocal microscopy, digital microscopy) were tested in order to receive optimal results. Digital image files are made available by an online database via an open access internet platform. Metadata of specimens, collections, localities, sampling and the production of image sets are provided to optimise search and retrieval of the data in the internet.

Specimens, types or voucher for which molecular data are available, e.g., via Barcode of Life Data Systems (BOLD) or/and GenBank, documented with digital images may be deposited on the VIRMISCO platform. Such correlation of morphological and genetic information fulfils the demands of integrative taxonomy. Within the last three years, specimens or permanent microscope slides (including type material from more than 400 species) of various taxa of soil fauna (Acari, Collembola, Protura, Myriapoda, Plathelminthes, Tardigrada, Nematoda) from the collections of the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz (SMNG) have been digitised (Table 1).

Table I. Number of digitised specimens, taxa and types available online in VIRMISCO (1 February 2018).

|  | Taxa | Specimens | Types |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gamasina | 87 | 215 | 198 |
| Uropodina | 34 | 116 | 116 |
| Oribatida | 5 | 15 | 1 |
| Collembola | 23 | 58 | 21 |
| Tardigrada | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Protura | 3 | 4 | 0 |
| Diptera | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Myriapoda | 21 | 100 | 18 |
| Nematoda | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| Plathelminthes | 5 | 11 | 0 |

The open source internet platform comprises a viewer and the digitised material may be employed for a wide range of applications: (1) Digital preservation of important or fragile material, especially of type material, to avoid loss or damage e.g., during loan; (2) archival of digital image files from collections or project data to verify taxonomic information; (3) determination from the digital images by experts; (4) creation of a reference library for taxonomic research or education; (5) provision of image series of type specimens (digitypes) or supplementary information for publication (e.g., series of specimens); (6) provision of image series of voucher specimens (or type material) for which molecular data is available.

The VIRMISCO system offers features such as interface to link it to other databases, search functions, rotating, zooming, measuring (two- or three-dimensional), changing brightness or contrast, taking snapshots, leaving feedback, downloading complete $z$-stacks as jpeg files or video file as well as a wide range of metadata fields on the collection object and the technical data (e.g., used camera, microscope, settings).

## Implementation

The open source system VIRMISCO can be set up individually by any institution on a server. It can be linked to or integrated in an already existing system of databases or data warehouses using the featured interfaces. Other modifications, adaptations or upgrading according to the individual needs are possible.

## Search engine

A search engine provides a full-text search. Advanced searches are also possible, e.g., hierarchical availability for locality (country, province, region, place), filtering of a taxon with hierarchical order (higher taxon, genus, species) and date or period of sampling.

Image stacks that meet the criteria specified by the query are grouped by objects (Fig. 2). General information about the selected object is displayed. An (animated) preview of the image stack video is visible and (if available) an overview image with a marking of the digitised part of the object the image stack refers to. The selected objects to be shown in the viewer can be sorted or removed.

## Viewer

The core of the viewer (Fig. 3) is the image display, where an image or image series are presented (OGG/Theora file). The display area can be moved by dragging. On a thumbnail, the current display area of the image display is indicated in the total image with a snap frame.

Search for digital photomicrographs
Full-text search


Figure I. Screenshot of the VIRMISCO "Search" page.

## virmisco | Select digital photomicrographs



Figure 2. Screenshot of the VIRMISCO "Results" page.

Functions: Several functions and features are available to control and modify the image video file, e.g., rotation, zoom, playback rate, brightness and contrast (the latter two only when paused). The user can choose any focal plane or set the start and end of the playback loop. Common media control buttons are available, e.g., pause, play forward/backward, skip to start/end, and endless loop.

Body parts or regions, e.g., tarsus or chaeta, can be measured when the magnification scale of the image or series is available. By choosing any two points on


Figure 3. Screenshot of the VIRMISCO "Viewer".
one or two different focal planes, the distances between the different axes (vertical $=\mathrm{X}$, horizontal $=\mathrm{Y}$, height $=\mathrm{Z})$ and/or the distance $(\Delta$ true $)$ between two points is indicated in the viewer. Snapshots of the currently displayed modified or whole image (the video frame) can be saved in a new frame.
Download images/videos: Image stacks as ZIP archive (JPEG) or in two video formats (OGG/Theora or H.264/MPEG-4 AVC).
Metadata: Information and metadata on the digitised object, image, and the equipment used is provided, e.g., taxon, collection, locality, sampling, microscope slide, settings, microscope, and camera used.
Feedback: Visitors can leave a message or feedback with reference to an actually viewed image stack using a contact form.

## Editor

Input of data and image stacks is done via an input form. Authorised users can import their biological and technical metadata offline and upload them later. This may be done manually or by using the import function.

Metadata fields: More than 20 information fields are currently available for each object (e.g., species, specimen, collection object, locality, sampling) and more than 80 values for each photograph (digitisation, microscope settings, microscope, camera, exposure settings, and histogram adjustments). According to the needs fields can be added or renamed.

Import: Technical metadata from a microscopes slide object are imported on a local server via a web-based form or by uploading the LAS files generated by Leica microscopic camera systems (image stack and technical metadata).

Alternatively cooperation with the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz can be considered to upload image stacks with the associated metadata of specimens to the Görlitz VIRMISCO system. The provider of the image files and data may choose a Creative Common (CC) license that condition the terms of use.
Conversion of images routine: TIFF-files are used as master file in VIRMISCO. The TIFF-files are automatically converted to JPEG and subsequently converted to final derivatives by an implemented conversion routine: ZIP archive with JPEG files, OGG/Theora and H.264/MPEG-4 AVC. In the JPEG files a footer with relevant information (e.g., direct link, species, collection number, institution logo) on the object is included. The conversion routine is scheduled for one time per day (midnight). Thus, derivatives are available one day later.

## Inventory of digitised objects at SMNG

VIRMISCO currently (1 February 2018) provides more than 4,700 image stacks of about 180 taxa and more than 350 types, basically from collection material of the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz (Tab. 1).

## Time required for digitisation

Once familiar with the microscoping technique and the VIRMISCO user interface it takes approximately one hour to take a 15 z -stack series of one specimen of Acari and import it into VIRMISCO. However, time depends on investigated taxa and used microscope systems. Storage space of all files amounts currently 1.1 TB , including original TIFFS, derivatives (videos), and total views.

## Recommendations for digitisation

The authors experiences in digitizing SMNG collection material, the comparison of different light microscopy types and feedback from colleagues of various institutions and different fields of biology or physics add up to general recommendations to be considered when digitizing or planning digitisation projects of permanent microscope slide mount collections of three-dimensional objects, especially soil organisms.

The photographic and microscopic equipment used depends on the fitting, needs and budget of the institution and the specific imaging demanded for certain taxa or characters. Generally, good results can be achieved with bright-field microscopy. Differential interference contrast microscopy (DIC) shows very good results regarding
lateral contrast. To capture three-dimensionality of an object a series of images at different focal planes should be taken. If available a digital motor-focus or macro-rail should be used to define the focus distances between the single images. Auto-montage images or focus stacks bear the risk of incorrect software calculations sometimes producing erroneous final montage-images or artefacts when applied to transparent or semi-transparent objects or using DIC microscopy (Neuhaus et al. 2017).

Non-compressed image files, e.g., TIFF format, are recommended as a common master image file. For subsequent size comparison or measurements a scale bar with the used linear measure labelled should be embedded into each image. Metadata on the taxon, specimen, collection, inventory number, type status, sex, and other label information (locality, sampling) must be provided for each image series. Furthermore, information on the documented part (e.g., body region), if not using a total view only, and the view of the object (e.g., ventral, lateral) is indispensable. Technical information like the microscope, camera and microscope settings used are helpful for documentation and data re-usability. An overview image of the object and/or the complete microscope slide documents and correlates original label information and gives a quick impression of the condition of the object or microscope slide. The expertise of an experienced taxonomist for the group investigated is crucial to select the characters of taxonomic relevance for documentation for digitisation. A single total view is usually not useful to document and preserve the information of the taxonomic characters of an object or type specimen.

## Outlook

The Senckenberg Museum of Natural History will continue to digitise important material (especially type material of soil organisms) and import existing series or image files (e.g., whole slide photographs). Other institutions are invited for a wide range of cooperation, e.g., to modify or upgrade VIRMISCO or to present their images on the VIRMISCO system of the SMNG. Updated versions will be available online on GitHub.

## Project Information

Project title: Development of standards for the photographic documentation of permanent microscope slide mounts in precarious mounting media. The photographs are available on the internet platform "VIRMISCO - The Virtual Microscope Slide Collection".

Funding: The project was funded by the DFG (XY 12/6-1) from May 2014 to December 2017.
Personnel: The project was conducted at the Senckenberg Museum of Natural History under the supervision of Willi Xylander and Axel Christian. Eberhard Wurst
(2014-2016) and Peter Decker (2016-2017) were involved as project managers. Diana Goernert (2014-2017) and Kerstin Franke (2014-present) provided technical assistance.
Design and Software: SednaSoft A. Schaffhirt and A. Wünsche GbR, Biesnitzer Straße 8, 02826 Görlitz, Germany and Senckenberg Museum of Natural History Görlitz.
Email address: virmisco@senckenberg.de
Suggested citation of VIRMISCO: Christian, A., Decker, P., Wurst, E. and W.E.R. Xylander: VIRMISCO - The Virtual Microscope Slide Collection. www.virmisco.org.
Microscope equipment used at SMNG: Leica DM5500B DIC microscope and Leica M165C stereomicroscope, both with Leica DFC295 camera.
Integration to other databases: All available digitised objects in the GBIF database on soil zoology, "Edaphobase" (http://www.edaphobase.org, see Burkhardt et al. 2014) are linked to the respective images series in the SMNG VIRMISCO.

## Manual

A manual for the VIRMISCO Search, Results, and Viewer pages is available online http://cms.virmisco.org/index.php/manual.html

## Web location (URIs)

Homepage: http:// www.virmisco.org
Project description SMNG: http://www.senckenberg.de/root/index.php?page_id=18729
ProjectdescriptionDFG:http://gepris.dfg.de/gepris/projekt/248331536?language=en

## Repository

Repository Type: GitHub.
Browse URI: https://github.com/virmisco/virmisco
Source code: CC0 1.0 Universal (CC0 1.0) Public Domain Dedication.

## Terminal equipment

Display: All control elements are accessible and all represented information is visible from 1,000 pixel width and 660 pixel height.
Browser: VIRMISCO can be used with almost every common computer browser, but had been optimised for Mozilla Firefox (v. 44/45.2), Microsoft Internet Explorer (v. 8), and Microsoft Edge (v. 38).

System Requirements: Fast internet connection and a mass storage are required.

Programming languages: JavaScript, HTML, PHP, shell script, SQL.
Utility software: Apache HTTP Server, Redis, MariaDB.
External frameworks: Behat (v. 2.5.5), Behat MinkExtension (v. 1.3.3), Behat MinkGoutteDriver (v. 1.1.0), Fabpot Goutte (v. 1.*), PHP Markdown (v. 1.6.0), Predis (v. 1.0.1). Composer file for automatically installing frameworks available in the GitHub repository https://github.com/virmisco/virmisco.

## Application programming interface

The data collected in the database are accessible as XML documents at any time. For this purpose, an HTTP-based data provider is used as the OAI-PMH, which uses METS as a container format. DarwinCore (including expedient extensions) is also to be used as a metadata format.

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