

Molecular phylogeny and biogeography of the temperate Gondwanan family Triaenonychidae (Opiliones : Laniatores) reveals pre-Gondwanan regionalisation, common vicariance, and rare dispersal

Caitlin M. Baker^{A,D}, Kate Sheridan^A, Shahan Derkarabetian^A,
Abel Pérez-González^B, Sebastian Vélez^C and Gonzalo Giribet^A

^AMuseum of Comparative Zoology, Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, 26 Oxford Street, Cambridge, MA 01238, USA.

^BDivisión de Aracnología, Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales ‘Bernardino Rivadavia’ – CONICET, Avenida Ángel Gallardo 470, C1405DJR Buenos Aires, Argentina.

^CBiology Department, Worcester State University, 486 Chandler Street, Worcester, MA 01602, USA.

^DCorresponding author. Email: baker02@g.harvard.edu

Abstract. Triaenonychidae Sørensen *in* L. Koch, 1886 is a large family of Opiliones with ~480 described species broadly distributed across temperate forests in the Southern Hemisphere. However, it remains poorly understood taxonomically, as no comprehensive phylogenetic work has ever been undertaken. In this study we capitalise on samples largely collected by us during the last two decades and use Sanger DNA-sequencing techniques to produce a large phylogenetic tree with 300 triaenonychid terminals representing nearly 50% of triaenonychid genera and including representatives from all the major geographic areas from which they are known. Phylogenetic analyses using maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference methods recover the family as diphyletic, placing *Lomanella* Pocock, 1903 as the sister group to the New Zealand endemic family Synthetonychiidae Forster, 1954. With the exception of the Laurasian representatives of the family, all landmasses contain non-monophyletic assemblages of taxa. To determine whether this non-monophyly was the result of Gondwanan vicariance, ancient cladogenesis due to habitat regionalisation, or more recent over-water dispersal, we inferred divergence times. We found that most divergence times between landmasses predate Gondwanan breakup, though there has been at least one instance of transoceanic dispersal – to New Caledonia. In all, we identify multiple places in the phylogeny where taxonomic revision is needed, and transfer *Lomanella* outside of Triaenonychidae in order to maintain monophyly of the family.

Additional keywords: Insidiatores, phylogeny, vicariance.

Received 21 November 2019, accepted 5 May 2020, published online 14 August 2020

Introduction

Triaenonychidae Sørensen *in* L. Koch, 1886, is the fourth most diverse family of Opiliones, with ~480 described species and subspecies (Kury *et al.* 2014). They can be readily identified by their trident-shaped tarsal claws of the third and fourth legs, and, as with most Laniatores, their robust, armoured pedipalps, which are much larger than the chelicerae. All triaenonychids have similar basic habitat requirements, living in cool, dark, humid environments such as leaf litter, rotting logs, and caves. They are nocturnal predators, and, like most harvestmen, are believed to be dispersal-limited. Despite sharing these characteristics, the family contains remarkable morphological and behavioural diversity, with body sizes

that range from ~2 to 10 mm in length, variable levels of armature, striking colour pattern variation, both sexual dimorphism and male polymorphism, and even a documented instance of paternal care (Machado 2007) (Fig. 1).

Together with the New Zealand–endemic family Synthetonychiidae Forster, 1954 (14 species), Triaenonychidae is traditionally placed in the superfamily Triaenonychoidea. This group in turn is classified with the superfamily Travunioidea Absolon & Kratochvíl, 1932 (~78 species and subspecies) in the infraorder Insidiatores Loman, 1901, one of the two main lineages within Laniatores Thorell, 1876 (Kury *et al.* 2014; Derkarabetian *et al.* 2018). Despite this traditional classification scheme, the monophyly of



Fig. 1. Live habitus of members of Triaenonychidae. (A) *Fumontana deprehendor* MCZ IZ-46881; (B) *Pristobunus heterus* MCZ IZ-133243; (C) *Lomanella* sp. MCZ IZ-152652; (D) *Karamea lobata* MCZ IZ-152313; (E) *Glyptobunus ornatus*; (F) new genus MCZ IZ-138076; (G) *Hickmanoxymma* sp.; (H) *Austromontia* sp. MCZ IZ-49523; (I) *Triconobunus horridus* MCZ IZ-151590; (J) *Nuncia* sp. MCZ IZ-152266; (K) *Larifuga* sp. MCZ IZ-132879; (L) '*Nuncia*' *verrucosa* MCZ IZ-138139. Photographs A, B, F, H, K, and L by Gonzalo Giribet; C by Shahan Derkarabetian; D, I, and J by Caitlin Baker; E and G by Marshal Hedin.

Insidiatores has been inconsistently recovered. While a recent phylogenetic analysis using transcriptomic data did find a monophyletic Insidiatores (Fernández *et al.* 2017), other phylogenies based on Sanger DNA-sequencing data (Giribet *et al.* 2010; Sharma and Giribet 2011) and UCE sequencing (Derkarabetian *et al.* 2018) instead found either Synthetonychiidae or Travunioidea to be the sister group to all other Laniatores, rendering Insidiatores paraphyletic. It has been postulated that the limited taxonomic sampling of Triaenonychidae in these previous studies (each included no more than eight exemplars of the family) may have contributed to the inability to resolve these phylogenetic relationships (Sharma and Giribet 2011).

In addition to the uncertain placement of Triaenonychidae within Insidiatores, the phylogenetic relationships within the family are also subject to debate. Genera within the family are

traditionally classified in four subfamilies. Adaeinae Pocock, 1903 (40 species) is diagnosed by having a subtriangular or wedge-shaped sternum and primarily contains genera from South Africa, as well as a monotypic genus from Western Australia (*Dingupa* Forster, 1952). Members of the subfamily Sorensenellinae Forster, 1954 (16 species and subspecies) all have tarsal claws on the third and fourth legs in which the lateral prongs are longer than the median prong. Sorensenellinae is composed of two genera from New Zealand (*Sorensenella* Pocock, 1903 and *Karamea* Forster, 1954) and two monotypic genera from South Africa (*Lawrencella* Strand, 1932 and *Speleomontia* Lawrence, 1931), but the putative synapomorphy of the family is also found in the Tasmanian genus *Tasmanonyx* Hickman, 1958, classified in Triaenonychinae. The subfamily Triaenobuninae Pocock, 1903 (69 species and subspecies) is also diagnosed by

the shape of the sternum, which is wide and crescent-shaped on its posterior margin. It contains multiple genera from New Zealand and Australia, as well as two monotypic genera from Chile (*Americobunus* Muñoz-Cuevas, 1972 and *Araucanobunus* Muñoz-Cuevas, 1973) and the genus *Ankaratrix* Lawrence, 1959, from Madagascar. Finally, the bulk of diversity is classified in the subfamily Triaenonychinae Sørensen, 1886 (354 species and subspecies), all of which have a long, arrow-shaped sternum. However, this subfamily has been treated as a ‘catch-all’ clade and, as such, it demands phylogenetic investigation.

To date, only a few studies have addressed phylogenetic relationships within Triaenonychidae, most of which used morphological data only for a subset of species, and focused on specific landmasses (Hunt 1996; Mendes and Kury 2008). In an unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Mendes (2009) addressed the broader Insidiatores phylogeny using morphological data. Although none of the taxonomic actions proposed there have validity, she placed the Tasmanian–South Australian *Lomanella* Pocock, 1903 and the Tasmanian monotypic genus *Pyenganella* Hickman, 1958 in a ‘new’ family, Lomanellidae (*nomen nudum*), which then formed a clade with Synthetonychiidae, but this result was only obtained under implied weights; in other analyses they nested within Triaenonychidae. Hunt (1996) also found *Lomanella* (but not *Pyenganella*) to be the sister group to all other Australian triaenonychids, whether using equal weights or successive weighting, but as this analysis lacked representatives outside of Australia it is hard to compare with other analyses. Phylogenetic relationships in the family were also addressed using Sanger DNA sequencing in another unpublished thesis (Vélez 2011) that focused on the New Zealand taxa and provided a dated chronogram in

order to test the Oligocene drowning hypothesis (Landis *et al.* 2008; Giribet and Boyer 2010).

Most triaenonychid diversity is found in the Southern Hemisphere, across South America, southern Africa, Madagascar, Australia, and New Zealand (Fig. 2). This geographic pattern reflects a classic temperate Gondwanan distribution, inviting biogeographic comparisons to other groups such as Pettalidae Shear, 1980 (Opiliones) (Shear 1980; Boyer and Giribet 2007; Giribet *et al.* 2016; Baker *et al.* 2020), Neopilionidae Lawrence, 1931 (Opiliones) (Taylor 2011; Vélez *et al.* 2014), Peripatopsidae Bouvier, 1907 (Onychophora) (Muriénne *et al.* 2014; Giribet *et al.* 2018), Orsolobidae Cooke, 1965 (Araneae) (Chousou-Polydouri *et al.* 2019), and Bothriuridae Simon, 1880 (Scorpiones) (Sharma *et al.* 2018). However, along with its temperate Gondwanan members, the family also contains monotypic genera in eastern North America (*Fumontana deprehendor* Shear, 1977 (Thomas and Hedin 2008)), and Sardinia (*Buemarinoa patrizii* Roewer, 1956 (see Karaman 2019)), a species from the oceanic Crozet Islands in the Southern Ocean (*Promecostethus unifalculatus* Enderlein, 1909), and two species from Grande Terre in New Caledonia (*Triconobunus horridus* Roewer, 1914 and *Diaenobunus armatus* Roewer, 1915). Grande Terre’s basement geology is derived from Gondwanan terranes, but subsequently experienced long periods of marine inundation, and is therefore more accurately thought of as a functionally Darwinian island (Grandcolas *et al.* 2008; though see discussion in Giribet and Baker 2019).

Given this largely temperate Gondwanan distribution, Triaenonychidae has been suggested as another example of a Gondwanan vicariant group, comparable to the examples listed above. Nevertheless, their presence in the Northern

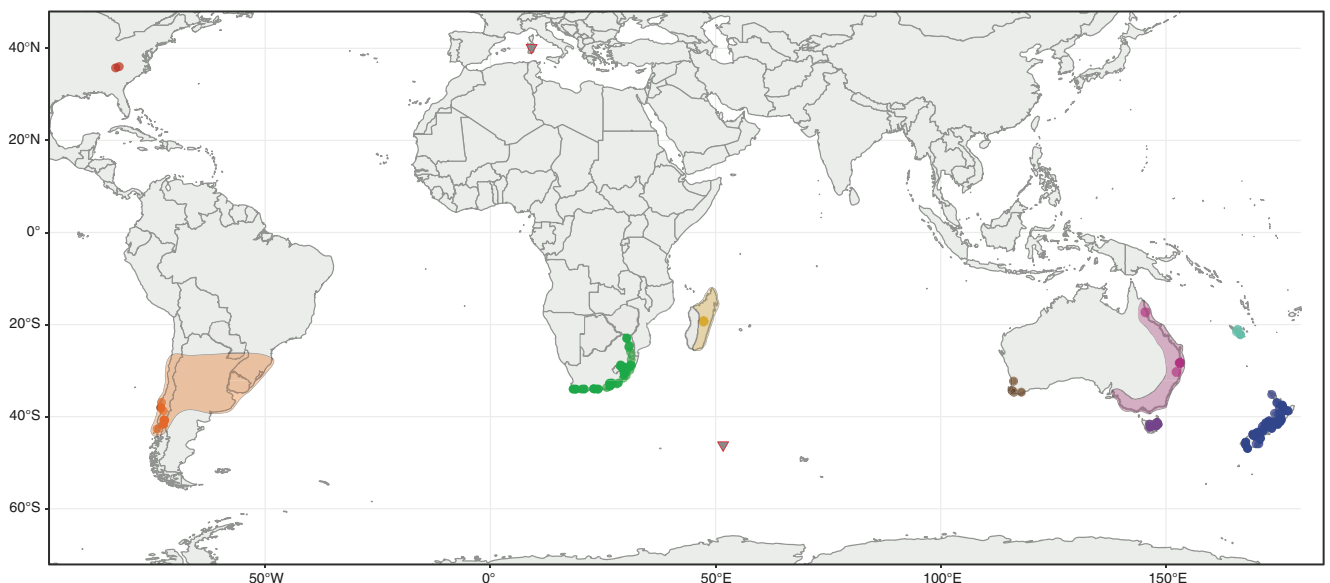


Fig. 2. The distribution of Triaenonychidae samples used in the present study, with points coloured by region. Outlined shapes in South America, Madagascar, and eastern Australia reflect the known distribution of Triaenonychidae on those landmasses that extends beyond our study’s sampling. Triangles correspond to the phylogenetically and biogeographically important, but unsampled, lineages of *Buemarinoa patrizii* (Sardinia) and *Promecostethus unifalculatus* (Crozet Islands). For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the online version of this article.

Hemisphere and the morphological affinities of those Northern Hemisphere species to the genus *Flavonuncia* Lawrence, 1959 from Madagascar (Karaman 2019) suggest either ancient relictualism or else more recent dispersal to these areas, as dispersal explains their occurrence on multiple Darwinian islands. It is also unknown whether the different continental landmasses contain monophyletic assemblages of taxa, as one might expect under a Gondwanan vicariant scenario. None of these biogeographic hypotheses have been interrogated using time-calibrated molecular phylogenetics. However, the limited triaenonychid sampling in the dated phylogenies of Giribet *et al.* (2010), Vélez (2011), Sharma and Giribet (2011), and Fernández *et al.* (2017) estimated the family's origin at some point between the Cretaceous and the Permian, suggesting an ancient origin for the group.

To address these gaps in our knowledge of a major lineage within Opiliones, we herein present a densely sampled time-calibrated molecular phylogeny of Triaenonychidae. This marks the first phylogeny focused on the family using broad molecular data, and allows us to evaluate both the taxonomy and major biogeographic patterns of the group.

Materials and methods

Taxon sampling

Specimens used in this study were collected mostly by the authors by leaf-litter sifting or direct hand collection between 2003 and 2018. Animals were immediately preserved in 95% ethanol and later stored at -20°C or -80°C . All specimens used in this work are stored at the Museum of Comparative Zoology (MCZ) or at Worcester State University (WSU), and locality data are available online through MCZBase (<https://mczbase.mcz.harvard.edu>, accessed March 2020) and Table 1. All specimens acquired by the authors for this project were collected under valid permits (New Zealand multiple permits [38002-RES]; Australia [NSW #SL101324; Qld #WITK00845202; WA Permits #OF000190, #CE000648, #SF004565]; New Caledonia [#609011-75/2018]; Chile [Autorización #026/2014]; South Africa [Easter Cape permits #CRO 108/11CR and CRO 109/11CR; KZN #OP 4085/2011; Western Cape Permit #AAA007-00344-0035]; USA [Great Smoky Mts N.P. Permit #GRSM-2014-SCI-02335]) or by donation from local collectors and museums.

Taxonomic identification was done using light microscopy examination of somatic and genitalic characters, and specimens were then selected for molecular work, focusing our sampling on representing as many genera and species as possible. We also used multiple specimens per genus and species whenever possible so as to test the monophyly of those groups. Our sampling spans ~50% of all currently accepted genera (50 of 108 genera, plus 1 undescribed genus) and includes representatives from all the major geographic areas from which triaenonychids are known, with the exception of Sardinia and the Crozet Islands. In total, our dataset includes 329 terminals, 300 of which are currently classified as triaenonychids. For our outgroup sampling, we included three Dyspnoi Hansen & Sørensen, 1904, three Eupnoi Hansen & Sørensen, 1904, eight Grassatores Kury *in* Giribet, Edgecombe, Wheeler & Babbitt, 2002, thirteen

Travunioidea, and two *Synthetonychia* Forster, 1954, an endemic New Zealand genus classified as a separate family, Synthetonychiidae (Table 2).

Molecular data generation

DNA extractions were done using Qiagen's DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit with an overnight incubation. We sequenced three markers, including two conserved nuclear ribosomal genes (18S and 28S rRNA) and the more variable mitochondrial gene cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I (hereafter '*COI*'), totalling to almost 4 kb of sequence data. 18S rRNA was amplified in three fragments using primer pairs 1F–5R, 3F–18Sbi, and 18Sa2.0–9R (Giribet *et al.* 1996; Whiting *et al.* 1997). 28S rRNA was sequenced in two fragments using primer pairs 28Sa–28Srd5b and 28Srd4.8a–28Srd7bi. Some specimens were also amplified for the first fragment of 28S rRNA using primer pair 28Srd1a and rd4b, but due to difficulty getting clean sequences for this fragment, these were excluded from the final analysis (for details on the 28S rRNA primers see Giribet and Shear 2010). *COI* was amplified with the primer pair LCO1490–HCO2198 (Folmer *et al.* 1994). PCR reactions were carried out with 1–2 μL of DNA template, using either GoTaq DNA polymerase in a 25- μL reaction, Bioline Biolase in a 10- μL reaction, or with GE beads in a 25- μL reaction. Gel electrophoresis was used to visualise amplification reactions, and successful reactions were cleaned using ExoSAP in a 1:5 dilution. Cycle sequencing proceeded with 0.5 μL of BigDye, and final cycle sequencing products were sequenced on an ABI 3730 in the Bauer Core at Harvard University. New sequences are deposited in GenBank under accession numbers MT224318–MT224908 and MT240314–MT240477 (Table 1).

Sequence data were quality-checked, trimmed, and assembled in Geneious (ver. 10, see <https://www.geneious.com>), with additional outgroup sequences downloaded from GenBank. Each locus was then aligned in MAFFT using the Geneious plug-in (ver. 1.4.0, Biomatters Ltd, see <https://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/software/>; Katoh and Standley 2013), with automatic model selection. The 28S rRNA alignment was further edited to remove long gaps at the ends of the alignment. Alignments were concatenated in SequenceMatrix (ver. 1.8, see <https://code.google.com/p/sequencematrix/>; Vaidya *et al.* 2011) and the concatenated dataset was then subjected to phylogenetic analysis.

Phylogenetic inference

Model testing and phylogenetic analysis was initially performed in W-IQ-TREE (ver. 1.6.9, see <https://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/>; Nguyen *et al.* 2015), implementing the ModelFinder function (Kalyaanamoorthy *et al.* 2017) and partitioning by locus (Chernomor *et al.* 2016). Nodal support was assessed with Shimodaira–Hasegawa approximate likelihood ratio testing (SH-aLRT) and ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot) (Hoang *et al.* 2018), specifying 1000 replications for each measure. We also inferred a tree with RAXML-HP2 (ver. 8.2.10, see <https://cme.h-its.org/exelixis/web/software/raxml/>; Stamatakis 2014)

Table 1. Collection information and GenBank accession numbers for specimens used in this study
Sequences newly generated for this study are shown in bold

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Equitus doriae</i>	MCZ-134630	Triaenonychinae	Australia (NSW)	U37003	GQ912788	EF108590	—	—
<i>Holonuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-134219	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Qld)	MT224370	MT224762	MT240352	−28.194	153.18692
<i>Triaenobunus armstrongi</i>	MCZ-134473	Triaenobuninae	Australia (NSW)	G0912724	GQ912794	MT240354	—	—
<i>Triaenobunus armstrongi</i>	MCZ-58944	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Qld)	MT224527	MT224671	—	−17.3109	145.62625
<i>Triaenobunus bicarinatus</i>	MCZ-134879	Triaenobuninae	Australia (NSW)	GQ912724	GQ912795	GQ912878	−30.1475	152.44389
<i>Triaenobunus minutus</i>	MCZ-134218	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Qld)	MT224369	MT224761	—	−28.194	153.18692
<i>Triaenobunus minutus</i>	MCZ-134220	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Qld)	MT224371	MT224763	MT240353	−28.194	153.18692
<i>Glyptobunus ornatus</i>	WSU-10076	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224610	MT224656	MT240476	−41.6406	148.2417
<i>Glyptobunus ornatus</i>	WSU-10077	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224611	MT224657	MT240477	−41.6406	148.2417
<i>Glyptobunus ornatus</i>	WSU-10090	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224614	MT224660	—	−41.3223	148.1319
<i>Glyptobunus signatus</i>	WSU-10028	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224598	MT224644	—	−41.3083	147.9389
<i>Glyptobunus signatus</i>	WSU-10049	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224605	MT224651	—	−41.3214	147.9247
<i>Glyptobunus signatus</i>	WSU-10050	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224606	MT224652	MT240472	−41.3214	147.9247
<i>Glyptobunus</i> sp.	WSU-10008	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224584	MT224630	—	−41.2245	147.9689
<i>Glyptobunus</i> sp.	WSU-10026	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224596	MT224642	—	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Glyptobunus</i> sp.	WSU-10044	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224601	MT224647	MT240468	−42.2867	146.4569
<i>Rhynchobunus arrogans</i>	WSU-10001	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224580	MT224626	MT240457	−41.624	148.2556
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10006	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224582	MT224628	MT240458	−41.624	148.2556
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10016	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224589	MT224635	MT240460	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10017	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224590	MT224636	MT240461	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10020	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224592	MT224638	MT240462	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10021	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224593	MT224639	MT240463	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10023	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224594	MT224640	MT240464	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10024	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224595	MT224641	MT240465	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10060	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224607	MT224653	MT240473	−42.0042	147.8517
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10069	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224608	MT224654	MT240474	−41.6406	148.2417
<i>Triaenobunus asper</i>	WSU-10070	Triaenobuninae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224609	MT224655	MT240475	−41.6406	148.2417
<i>Hickmanoxymma gibbergunyar</i>	MCZ-134907	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224374	MT224767	—	−41.5803	146.34389
<i>Hickmanoxymma gibbergunyar</i>	MCZ-135687	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224407	MT224800	—	−41.5994	146.40528
<i>Hickmanoxymma</i> cf. <i>tasmanicum</i>	WSU-10005	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224581	MT224627	MT240466	−41.624	148.2556
<i>Hickmanoxymma</i> cf. <i>tasmanicum</i>	WSU-10032	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224599	MT224645	—	−41.5344	148.1756
<i>Hickmanoxymma</i> cf. <i>tasmanicum</i>	WSU-10082	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224612	MT224658	—	−41.5608	148.095
<i>Lomanella raniceps</i>	WSU-10045	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224602	MT224648	MT240469	−42.2867	146.4569
<i>Lomanella raniceps</i>	WSU-10046	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224603	MT224649	MT240470	−42.2867	146.4569
<i>Lomanella raniceps</i>	WSU-10047	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224604	MT224650	MT240471	−42.2867	146.4569
<i>Lomanella</i> sp.	WSU-10011	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224587	MT224633	—	−41.2245	147.9689
<i>Lomanella</i> sp.	WSU-10038	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224600	MT224646	MT240467	−41.5344	148.1756
<i>Lomanella</i> sp.	WSU-10089	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224613	MT224659	—	−41.3223	148.1319
<i>Nucina dispar</i>	WSU-10018	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224591	MT224637	—	−41.9483	147.8742
<i>Nunciella tasmaniensis</i>	WSU-10009	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224585	MT224631	—	−41.2245	147.9689
<i>Nunciella tasmaniensis</i>	WSU-10010	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224586	MT224632	—	−41.2245	147.9689
<i>Nunciella tasmaniensis</i>	WSU-10027	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224597	MT224643	—	−41.3083	147.9389
<i>Nunciella</i> sp.	WSU-10014	Triaenonychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224588	MT224634	—	−41.2245	147.9689

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Odontonuncia saltuensis</i>	WSU-10007	Triakonnychinae	Australia (Tas.)	MT224583	MT224629	MT240459	-41.2245	147.9689
<i>Calliuncus cf. labyrinthus</i>	MCZ-132901	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224352	MT224744	MT240343	-34.3419	115.86191
<i>Calliuncus cf. labyrinthus</i>	MCZ-99185	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224578	MT224721	MT240336	-34.3419	115.86191
<i>Calliuncus cf. labyrinthus</i>	MCZ-99220	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224579	MT224722	MT240337	-34.3905	115.86077
<i>Nunciella karriensis</i>	MCZ-132904	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224353	MT224745	MT240344	-34.6759	117.8717
<i>Nunciella</i> sp.	MCZ-132908	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224354	MT224746	MT240345	-32.2711	116.16604
<i>Nunciella</i> sp.	MCZ-99182	Triakonnychinae	Australia (WA)	MT224577	MT224720		-34.7002	116.2223
<i>Americobunus ringueleti</i>	MCZ-138157	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224504	MT224896	MT240440	-38.7291	-72.59149
<i>Diasia michaelsonii</i>	MCZ-138126	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224496	MT224888		-40.7372	-72.31062
<i>Diasia</i> sp.	MCZ-138056	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224480	MT224873	MT240321	-38.0126	-73.18517
<i>Nuncia americana</i>	MCZ-59011	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224537	MT224681		-40.7372	-72.30647
<i>Nuncia americana</i>	MCZ-59016	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224538	MT224682	MT240322	-40.7372	-72.30647
<i>Nuncia americana</i>	MCZ-59020	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224539	MT224683	MT240323	-40.7372	-72.30647
<i>Nuncia americana</i>	MCZ-59021	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224540	MT224684	MT240324	-40.7372	-72.30647
<i>Nuncia cf. americana</i>	MCZ-138110	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224490	MT224882		-41.5935	-72.59359
<i>Nuncia cf. americana</i>	MCZ-138115	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224491	MT224883	MT240436	-40.7355	-72.32894
<i>Nuncia chilensis</i>	MCZ-138133	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224498	MT224890		-40.7135	-72.50297
<i>Nuncia verrucosa</i>	MCZ-138097	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224488	MT224880	MT240432	-41.5783	-72.55828
<i>Nuncia verrucosa</i>	MCZ-138122	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224492	MT224884	MT240434	-40.7372	-72.31062
<i>Nuncia verrucosa</i>	MCZ-138139	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224500	MT224892	MT240437	-40.7375	-72.30875
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-138091	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224484	MT224877	MT240429	-41.5881	-72.58122
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-138093	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224485/MT224486	MT224878	MT240430	-41.5785	-72.55692
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-59030	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224541	MT224685		-42.662	-74.01062
<i>Triakonnyx chilensis</i>	MCZ-138132	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224497	MT224889	MT240435	-40.7135	-72.50297
<i>Triakonnyx dispersus</i>	MCZ-138125	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224495	MT224887		-40.7372	-72.31062
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138029	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224479	MT224872		-36.876	-72.99386
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138074	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224481	MT224874	MT240426	-38.0163	-73.17902
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138096	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224487	MT224879	MT240431	-41.5783	-72.55828
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138109	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224489	MT224881	MT240433	-41.5935	-72.59359
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138124	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224494	MT224886		-40.7372	-72.31062
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138140	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224501	MT224893	MT240438	-40.7375	-72.30875
cf. <i>Triakonnyx arrogans</i>	MCZ-138077	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224483	MT224876	MT240428	-38.0163	-73.17902
<i>Valdivionyx crassipes</i>	MCZ-138123	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224493	MT224885		-40.7372	-72.31062
<i>Valdivionyx crassipes</i>	MCZ-138138	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224499	MT224891		-40.7375	-72.30875
<i>Valdivionyx crassipes</i>	MCZ-138150	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224502	MT224894		-40.7381	-72.31139
<i>Valdivionyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138151	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224503	MT224895	MT240439	-40.7381	-72.31139
<i>Triakonnyx</i> sp.	MCZ-138076	Triakonnychinae	Chile	MT224482	MT224875	MT240427	-38.0163	-73.17902
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 2		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224322	MT224615		-19.3546	47.31128
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 3		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224323	MT224616	MT240451	-19.35062	47.30402
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 4		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224324	MT224617	MT240452	-19.35217	47.30753
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 5		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224325	MT224618	MT240453	-19.35062	47.30402
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 6		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224326		MT240454	-19.35062	47.30402
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 7		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224327	MT224619	MT240455	-19.35062	47.30402
<i>Acumonia</i> sp. 8		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224328	MT224620		-19.35062	47.30402
<i>Flavonuncia</i> sp. 9		Triakonnychinae	Madagascar	MT224329/MT224330	MT224624	MT240456	-19.3546	47.31128

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Flavonuncia</i> sp. 10		Triaenonychinae	Madagascar	MT224319	MT224621	MT240450	-19.3546	47.31128
<i>Flavonuncia</i> sp. 11		Triaenonychinae	Madagascar	MT224320	MT224622		-19.3546	47.31128
<i>Flavonuncia</i> sp. 12		Triaenonychinae	Madagascar	MT224321	MT224623		-19.35217	47.30753
Triaenonychidae sp. 1		Triaenonychinae	Madagascar	MT224318	MT224625	MT240449	-19.35217	47.30753
<i>Diaenobunus armatus</i>	MCZ-151609.1	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224512	MT224904	MT240444	-22.1706	166.50861
<i>Diaenobunus armatus</i>	MCZ-151609.2	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224513	MT224905	MT240445	-22.1706	166.50861
<i>Diaenobunus armatus</i>	MCZ-151609.3	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224514	MT224906	MT240446	-22.1706	166.50861
<i>Diaenobunus armatus</i>	MCZ-151611.1	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224515	MT224907	MT240447	-22.1708	166.50833
<i>Diaenobunus armatus</i>	MCZ-151611.2	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224516	MT224908	MT240448	-22.1708	166.50833
<i>Diaenobunus sp.</i>	MCZ-134884	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224372	MT224765	MT240355	-21.6167	165.88333
<i>Triconobunus horridus</i>	MCZ-151590.1	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224510	MT224902	MT240442	-21.1116	165.87869
<i>Triconobunus horridus</i>	MCZ-151590.2	Triaenonychinae	New Caledonia	MT224511	MT224903	MT240443	-21.1116	165.87869
<i>Karamea lobata australis</i>	MCZ-136031	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224431	MT224824	MT240391	-42.0369	171.38972
<i>Karamea lobata lobata</i>	MCZ-136011	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224428	MT224821	MT240389	-41.7967	172.04944
<i>Karamea lobata lobata</i>	MCZ-136012	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224429	MT224822	MT240390	-41.7967	172.04944
<i>Karamea tricerata</i>	MCZ-135504	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224397	MT224790	MT240365	-40.883	172.81083
<i>Karamea tricerata</i>	MCZ-135507	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224398	MT224791	MT240366	-40.883	172.81083
<i>Sorensenella prehensor prehensor</i>	MCZ-133201	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224364	MT224756		-36.9466	174.61005
<i>Sorensenella rotata</i>	MCZ-148131	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224508	MT224900		-38.6474	176.90794
<i>Sorensenella</i> n. sp.	MCZ-133130	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224362	MT224754		-35.1904	173.45557
<i>Sorensenella</i> n. sp.	MCZ-133380	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224367	MT224759		-39.4654	175.09003
<i>Sorensenella</i> n. sp.	MCZ-133429	Sorensenellinae	New Zealand	MT224368	MT224760	MT240350	-38.26	175.0998
<i>Cenëfia cf. adaeiformis</i>	MCZ-135771	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224408	MT224801		-41.0868	174.13811
<i>Pristobonus henopoeus</i>	MCZ-135974	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224412	MT224805		-41.3453	174.93167
<i>Pristobonus acuminatus acanthis</i>	MCZ-136194	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224465	MT224858	MT240415	-40.6388	175.32236
<i>Pristobonus heterus</i>	MCZ-133351	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224366	MT224758		-40.2445	175.54205
<i>Pristobonus</i> sp.	MCZ-133205	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224365	MT224757	MT240349	-39.2738	174.09365
<i>Pristobonus</i> sp.	MCZ-135678	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224406	MT224799	MT240372	-41.1377	173.51675
<i>Pristobonus</i> sp.	MCZ-148111	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224506	MT224898		-43.2859	170.401
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-136244	Triaenobuninae	New Zealand	MT224469	MT224862	MT240418	-46.897	168.09228
<i>Algidia chiltoni chiltoni</i>	MCZ-135458	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224383	MT224776	MT240358	-38.6757	176.699
<i>Algidia chiltoni chiltoni</i>	MCZ-136192	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224464	MT224857	MT240414	—	—
<i>Algidia chiltoni longispinosa</i>	MCZ-135437	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224379	MT224772	MT240356	-41.1133	175.34944
<i>Algidia cuspidata multispinosa</i>	MCZ-136151	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224453	MT224846	MT240407	-42.5421	173.45244
<i>Algidia homerica</i>	MCZ-135537	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224400	MT224793	MT240368	-43.4126	170.17722
<i>Algidia cf. homerica</i>	MCZ-136061	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224437	MT224830	MT240397	-43.4882	170.03259
<i>Algidia interrupta interrupta</i>	MCZ-136008	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224427	MT224820	MT240388	-41.7967	172.04944
<i>Algidia marplei</i>	MCZ-135672	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224405	MT224798	MT240371	-45.8803	170.61022
<i>Algidia nigriflava</i>	MCZ-136171	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224457	MT224850	MT240410	-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Algidia cf. nigriflava</i>	MCZ-136202	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224467	MT224860	MT240417	-40.7213	175.24561
<i>Algidia</i> sp.	MCZ-148126	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224507	MT224899	MT240441	-41.348	174.93093
<i>Hedwigia manubriata</i>	MCZ-135637	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224404	MT224797	MT240370	-46.897	168.09228
<i>Hedwigia manubriata</i>	MCZ-136129	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224450	MT224843	MT240404	-46.8942	168.10402
<i>Hedwigia manubriata</i>	MCZ-136258	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224473	MT224866	MT240421	-44.7006	170.96756
<i>Hedwigia manubriata</i>	MCZ-136259	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224474	MT224867	MT240422	-44.7006	170.96756

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Hendea bucculenta</i>	MCZ-136167	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224454	MT224847	MT240408	-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Hendea maitia</i>	MCZ-135991	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224421	MT224814		-41.0867	174.13806
<i>Hendea myersi</i>	MCZ-135987	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224418	MT224811	MT240380	-41.7075	174.78611
<i>Hendea myersi</i>	MCZ-136170	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224456	MT224849	MT240409	-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Hendea myersi</i>	MCZ-136173	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224459	MT224852		-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Hendea philippisi</i>	MCZ-136180	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224460	MT224853	MT240411	-41.0733	175.14631
<i>Hendea sp.</i>	MCZ-135543	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224401	MT224794		-43.7104	169.26714
<i>Hendea sp.</i>	MCZ-136005	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224426	MT224819	MT240387	-41.7956	172.59722
<i>Hendea sp.</i>	MCZ-136055	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224436	MT224829	MT240396	-43.4235	170.168
<i>Nuncia arcuata aorangiensis</i>	MCZ-136113	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224447	MT224840	MT240402	-46.1095	167.69026
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-135438	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224380	MT224773		-41.065	175.35283
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-135486	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224394	MT224787		-41.065	175.35283
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-136041	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224433	MT224826	MT240393	-43.0211	171.595
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-136043	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224434	MT224827	MT240394	-43.0211	171.595
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-136091	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224443	MT224836		-44.0769	169.38656
<i>Nuncia coriacea coriacea</i>	MCZ-58942	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224525	MT224669	MT240316	-42.5421	173.45244
<i>Nuncia coriacea ovata</i>	MCZ-136038	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224432	MT224825	MT240392	-43.0211	171.595
<i>Nuncia dentifera</i>	MCZ-135460	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224384	MT224777	MT240359	-37.5974	175.86158
<i>Nuncia heteromorpha</i>	MCZ-136022	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224435	MT224828	MT240395	-42.7145	172.10556
<i>Nuncia levis</i>	MCZ-136049	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224430	MT224823		-41.4244	172.10556
<i>Nuncia nigriflava parva</i>	MCZ-135989	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224419	MT224812	MT240381	-41.0867	174.13806
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-135970	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224410	MT224803	MT240374	-41.3475	174.92694
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-135975	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224413	MT224806	MT240376	-41.2944	174.75132
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-135980	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224414	MT224807	MT240377	-41.2656	174.7575
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-135984	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224416	MT224809	MT240378	-41.2667	174.75833
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-136198	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224466	MT224859	MT240416	-40.6388	175.32236
<i>Nuncia obesa grimmeri</i>	MCZ-136206	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224468	MT224861		-40.5755	175.48147
<i>Nuncia obesa obesa</i>	MCZ-136265	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224476	MT224869	MT240423	-41.2944	174.75132
<i>Nuncia obesa obesa</i>	MCZ-136076	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224438	MT224831	MT240398	-43.9381	169.28824
<i>Nuncia obesa obesa</i>	MCZ-136137	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224451	MT224844	MT240405	-45.9047	169.98778
<i>Nuncia obesa obesa</i>	MCZ-136169	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224455	MT224848		-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Nuncia obesa rotunda</i>	MCZ-136172	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224458	MT224851		-41.1558	174.96519
<i>Nuncia cf. obesa rotunda</i>	MCZ-149353	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224509	MT224901		-46.8985	168.10016
<i>Nuncia oconori paucispinosa</i>	MCZ-135469	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224388	MT224781	MT240362	-37.4668	175.77125
<i>Nuncia pallida</i>	MCZ-136099	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224444	MT224837		-45.5733	167.61987
<i>Nuncia roeweri demissa</i>	MCZ-135439	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224381	MT224774		-41.065	175.35283
<i>Nuncia roeweri gelida</i>	MCZ-135468	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224387	MT224780		-37.4668	175.77125
<i>Nuncia roeweri humilis</i>	MCZ-135463	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224395	MT224778	MT240360	-37.5974	175.86158
<i>Nuncia roeweri humilis</i>	MCZ-135487	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224438	MT224788	MT240364	-37.5974	175.86158
<i>Nuncia roeweri roeweri</i>	MCZ-136116	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224448	MT224841		-46.8942	168.10402
<i>Nuncia roeweri roeweri</i>	MCZ-136147	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224452	MT224845	MT240406	-44.7006	170.9675
<i>Nuncia roeweri seditiosa</i>	MCZ-136112	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224446	MT224839		-46.1095	167.69026
<i>Nuncia smithi</i>	MCZ-135436	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224378	MT224771		-41.065	175.35283
<i>Nuncia smithi</i>	MCZ-135479	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224390	MT224783		-40.722	175.64019
<i>Nuncia smithi</i>	MCZ-135484	Trienonychinae	New Zealand	MT224392	MT224785	MT240363	-37.4668	175.77125

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Nuncia stewartia stewartia</i>	MCZ-136086	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224440	MT224833	MT240399	-43.9381	169.28824
<i>Nuncia stewartia stewartia</i>	MCZ-136087	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224441	MT224834	MT240400	-44.0769	169.38656
<i>Nuncia stewartia stewartia</i>	MCZ-136127	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224449	MT224842	MT240403	-46.8942	168.10402
<i>Nuncia stewartia tumosa</i>	MCZ-136088	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224442	MT224835	MT240401	-44.0769	169.38656
<i>Nuncia sublaevis</i>	MCZ-135481	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224391	MT224784		-37.5974	175.86158
<i>Nuncia sublaevis</i>	MCZ-135485	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224393	MT224786		-37.4668	175.77125
<i>Nuncia variegata deli</i>	MCZ-135985	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224417	MT224810	MT240379	-41.2667	174.75833
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-134924	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224375	MT224768		-43.9381	169.28824
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135475	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224389	MT224782		-40.6388	175.32236
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135515	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224399	MT224792	MT240367	-41.27	172.13325
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135610	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224402	MT224795	MT240369	-45.4511	167.68042
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135973	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224411	MT224804	MT240375	-41.3478	174.92583
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135983	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224415	MT224808		-41.2667	174.75833
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135990	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224420	MT224813	MT240382	-41.0867	174.13806
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135994	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224422	MT224815	MT240383	-41.0867	174.13806
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135998	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224423	MT224816	MT240384	-41.3003	173.57111
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-135999	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224424	MT224817	MT240385	-41.1892	172.74222
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136000	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224425	MT224818	MT240386	-41.1892	172.74222
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136079	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224439	MT224832		-43.9381	169.28824
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136111	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224445	MT224838		-46.1095	167.69026
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136182	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224461	MT224854		-41.0752	175.14672
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136183	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224462	MT224855	MT240412	-41.0752	175.14672
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136250	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224470	MT224863	MT240419	-43.0211	171.595
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136251	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224471	MT224864		-44.0769	169.38656
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136252	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224472	MT224865	MT240420	-42.5421	173.45244
<i>Nuncia</i> sp.	MCZ-136261	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224475	MT224868		-46.1095	167.69026
<i>Prasma tuberculata mearosa</i>	MCZ-136190	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224463	MT224856	MT240413	-40.6388	175.32236
<i>Prasma</i> sp.	MCZ-117475	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224331	MT224723	MT240338	-46.1106	167.68966
<i>Prasma</i> sp.	MCZ-133199	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224363	MT224755	MT240348	-36.9466	174.61005
<i>Prasma</i> sp.	MCZ-135491	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224396	MT224789		-41.1856	173.48772
<i>Prasma</i> sp.	MCZ-135614	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224403	MT224796		-45.4511	167.68042
<i>Prasma</i> sp.	MCZ-147580	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224505	MT224897		-39.3561	175.47643
<i>Triregia fairburni fairburni</i>	MCZ-135467	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224386	MT224779	MT240361	-37.4668	175.77125
<i>Triregia fairburni fairburni</i>	MCZ-135963	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224409	MT224802	MT240373	-37.8809	175.91147
<i>Triregia fairburni grata</i>	MCZ-135450	Triaenonychinae	New Zealand	MT224382	MT224775	MT240357	-38.7979	177.12372
<i>Adaeulum areolatum</i>	MCZ-30072.1	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224518	MT224662	MT240314	-32.6823	26.49135
<i>Adaeulum bicolor</i>	MCZ-126991.2	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224332	MT224724		-28.745	31.13596
<i>Adaeulum godfreyi</i>	MCZ-138019	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224478	MT224871	MT240425	-32.889	28.05258
<i>Adaeulum humifer</i>	MCZ-59004	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224532	MT224676		-22.996	30.26447
<i>Adaeulum moruliferum</i>	MCZ-138016	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224477	MT224870	MT240424	-28.7117	28.9342
<i>Adaeulum robustum</i>	MCZ-132883	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224350	MT224742	MT240342	-29.3221	30.26258
<i>Adaeulum supervidens</i>	MCZ-127214	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224336	MT224728	MT240340	-30.6311	29.71596
<i>Adaeum</i> sp.	MCZ-73548.1	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224561	MT224705	MT240328	-32.5704	26.9403
<i>Adaeum</i> sp.	MCZ-73548.2	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224562	MT224706	MT240329	-32.5704	26.9403
<i>Larifuga capensis</i>	MCZ-133938	Adaeinae	South Africa		GQ912792	MT240351	-33.9792	18.45

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-127211.3	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224335	MT224727	MT240339	-33.9521	22.91155
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-132879	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224347	MT224739	MT240341	-33.9942	20.45868
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-132909.2	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224355	MT224747		-33.9749	23.14712
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-49519	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224524	MT224668	MT240315	-34.0424	18.87395
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-98386	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224574	MT224718	MT240335	-34.0424	18.87395
<i>Larifuga</i> sp.	MCZ-132913	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224358	MT224750	MT240347	-30.5326	29.68318
<i>Larifugella</i> cf. <i>afra</i>	MCZ-98385	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224573	MT224717	MT240334	-30.5326	29.68318
<i>Larifugella zuluana</i>	MCZ-98906.5	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224573	MT224717		-28.745	31.13596
cf. <i>Larifugella</i> sp.	MCZ-132921.1	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224361	MT224753		-24.5697	30.86031
cf. <i>Larifugella</i> sp.	MCZ-30078	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224521	MT224665		-32.6871	26.4937
<i>Paradaeum</i> sp.	MCZ-73504	Adaeinae	South Africa	MT224551	MT224695		-33.9839	20.82532
<i>Speleomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-132910.1	Sorensenellinae	South Africa	MT224356	MT224748	MT240346	-33.9856	18.40128
<i>Amatola</i> sp.	MCZ-127202	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224334	MT224726		-29.6028	30.3464
<i>Amatola</i> sp.	MCZ-128699	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224346	MT224738		-30.5326	29.68318
<i>Amatola</i> sp.	MCZ-132881	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224348	MT224740		-29.8635	30.98691
<i>Amatola</i> sp.	MCZ-132882	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224349	MT224741		-29.3221	30.26258
<i>Amatola</i> sp.	MCZ-73541.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224557	MT224701		-32.6823	26.49135
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127281.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224338	MT224730		-33.9521	22.91155
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127282.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224339	MT224731		-33.9521	22.91155
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127678	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224343	MT224735		-33.9262	22.93821
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-134926	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224376	MT224769		-33.6858	25.8342
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73450.3	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224545	MT224689		-33.9673	18.94315
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73484.3	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224547	MT224691		-33.9749	23.14712
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73488	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224549	MT224693		-33.9876	18.40547
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73505.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224552	MT224696		-33.9839	20.82532
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73525.3	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224555	MT224699	MT240332	-33.9657	23.9286
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-88579.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224571	MT224715	MT240333	-34.0042	18.38316
<i>Austromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-88580	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224572	MT224716		-34.0042	18.38316
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127587	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224342	MT224734		-34.0235	23.89033
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-132917	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224359	MT224751		-31.6061	29.5385
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73478.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224546	MT224690		-33.9262	22.93821
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73512	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224554	MT224698		-33.966	23.66401
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73544	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224560	MT224704		-33.9749	23.14712
<i>Biacumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-87095.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224564	MT224708		-33.9749	23.14712
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127009	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224333	MT224725		-31.0629	30.17422
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-135001.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224377	MT224770		-33.3399	26.58824
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-30077.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224520	MT224664		-32.6871	26.4937
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-58943.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224526	MT224670	MT240317	-34.0235	23.89033
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73543.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224559	MT224703	MT240327	-32.6871	26.4937
<i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-88282	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224568	MT224712		-33.3399	26.58824
cf. <i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-58945.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224528	MT224672		-32.6868	28.37712
cf. <i>Ceratontia</i> sp.	MCZ-58945.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224529	MT224673	MT240318	-32.6868	28.37712
<i>Graemontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73486.1	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224548	MT224692		-33.9749	23.14712
<i>Graemontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73506.2	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224553	MT224697	MT240326	-33.9839	20.82532
<i>Graemontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73526	Trienonychinae	South Africa	MT224556	MT224700		-33.9749	23.14712

(continued next page)

Table 1. (continued)

Species	Accession number	'Subfamily'	Region	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI	Latitude	Longitude
<i>Lizamonitia</i> sp.	MCZ-132885	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224351	MT224743		-28.9602	29.22588
<i>Mensamontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127856	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224344	MT224736		-33.9942	20.45868
<i>Micromontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73445.1	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224544	MT224688		-33.9679	18.94161
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73542.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224558	MT224702		-29.0535	29.38516
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127314	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224340	MT224732		-28.7435	31.13804
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-127324	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224341	MT224733		-28.7316	28.91859
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-128564	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224345	MT224737		-28.9602	29.22588
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-132918	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224360	MT224752		-28.8882	31.37523
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-30065.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224517	MT224661		-32.5704	26.9403
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-35537	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224522	MT224666		-27.545	31.28185
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-58975.3	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224531	MT224675		-22.996	30.26447
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73245.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224542	MT224686		-22.996	30.26447
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73250	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224543	MT224687		-22.996	30.26447
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-87149.3	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224565	MT224709	MT240331	-24.5697	30.86031
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-87608	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224567	MT224711		-30.5326	29.68318
<i>Monomontia</i> sp.	MCZ-88573.1	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224570	MT224714		-25.997	31.11646
<i>Planimontia</i> sp.	MCZ-134889	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224373	MT224766		-34.0042	18.38316
<i>Planimontia</i> sp.	MCZ-73493.3	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224550	MT224694	MT240325	-29.0535	29.38516
<i>Planimontia</i> sp.	MCZ-88571	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224569	MT224713		-34.0042	18.38316
<i>Roeverania</i> sp.	MCZ-127275.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224337	MT224729		-28.7316	28.91859
<i>Roeverania</i> sp.	MCZ-30076.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224519	MT224663		-32.6823	26.49135
<i>Roeverania</i> sp.	MCZ-84507.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224563	MT224707		-32.6823	26.49135
<i>Roeverania</i> sp.	MCZ-87385.1	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224566	MT224710	MT240330	-28.9602	29.22588
<i>Rostrumontia capensis</i>	MCZ-133944	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	GQ912723	GQ912793		-33.9792	18.45
<i>Rostrumontia</i> sp.	MCZ-132911	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224357	MT224749		-33.9854	18.40135
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-58974	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224530	MT224674	MT240319	-24.8742	30.71744
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-59007.1	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224533	MT224677		-33.3399	26.58824
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-59007.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224534	MT224678		-33.3399	26.58824
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-59008.1	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224535	MT224679	MT240320	-33.3399	26.58824
Triaenonychidae sp.	MCZ-59008.2	Triaenonychinae	South Africa	MT224536	MT224680		-33.3399	26.58824
<i>Fumontana deprehendor</i>	MCZ-134565	Triaenonychinae	United States	GQ912721	GQ912790/MT224764	EU162780	36.04833	-82.4
<i>Fumontana deprehendor</i>	MCZ-46881	Triaenonychinae	United States	MT224523	MT224667	EU162788	35.75681	-83.21165

Table 2. GenBank accession numbers for outgroup taxa used in this study

Species	Family	Higher group	18S rRNA	28S rRNA	COI
<i>Acropsopilio chilensis</i>	Acropsopilionidae	Dyspnoi	KF963305	KF955592	GQ912899
<i>Ceratolasma tricantha</i>	Ischyropsalididae	Dyspnoi	AF124943	GQ912764	GQ912865
<i>Hesperonemastoma modestum</i>	Taracidae	Dyspnoi	AF124942	EF108577	KU875193
<i>Caddo agilis</i>	Caddidae	Eupnoi	KF963310	KF955597	MF816271
<i>Eurybunus brunneus</i>	Sclerosomatidae	Eupnoi	JQ437010	JQ437102	
<i>Alloepedanus</i> sp.	Epedanidae	Grassatores	JF786480	JF786572	
<i>Euepedanus</i> sp.	Epedanidae	Grassatores	JF786479	JF786571	
<i>Pseudobiantes japonicus</i>	Epedanidae	Grassatores		LC176242	LC176240
<i>Pseudoepedanus dolensis</i>	Epedanidae	Grassatores	GQ912731	GQ912807	
<i>Acutisoma longipes</i>	Gonyleptidae	Grassatores	GQ912736	GQ912815	JF786441
<i>Pachyloides thorellii</i>	Gonyleptidae	Grassatores	PTU37007	U91508	KF726794
<i>Remyus</i> sp.	Phalangodidae	Grassatores	JF786470	JF786608	JF786431
<i>Zalmoxis cardwellensis</i>	Zalmoxidae	Grassatores	JN885755	JN885734	JN885769
<i>Synthetonychia</i> sp.	Synthetonychiidae		GQ912720	GQ912787	GQ912875
<i>Synthetonychia</i> sp.	Synthetonychiidae		KT302218	KT302254	KT302305
<i>Briggsus flavescens</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea		HM056643	HM056726
<i>Erebomaster flavescens</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea	GQ912716	GQ912781	HM056722
<i>Holoscotolemon jaqueti</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea	GQ912717	GQ912783	GQ912873
<i>Peltonychia clavigera</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea	FJ796479	GQ912785	FJ796491
<i>Speleonychia sengeri</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea		GQ205667	HM056727
<i>Theromaster brunnea</i>	Cladonychiidae	Travunioidea	GQ912718	GQ912784	HM056723
<i>Cryptomaster leviathan</i>	Cryptomastriidae	Travunioidea		HM056641	HM056724
<i>Speleomaster lexi</i>	Cryptomastriidae	Travunioidea		HM056642	HM056725
<i>Metanonychus setulus</i>	Paranonychidae	Travunioidea		HM056649	HM056732
<i>Paranonychus brunneus</i>	Paranonychidae	Travunioidea		HM056645	HM056728
<i>Sclerobunus nondimorphicus</i>	Paranonychidae	Travunioidea		HM056659	GQ870663
<i>Zuma acuta</i>	Paranonychidae	Travunioidea	AF124951	AF124978	EU162817
<i>Trojanella serbica</i>	Travuniidae	Travunioidea	GQ912719	GQ912786	GQ912874

using the CIPRES Science Gateway (ver. 3.3, see <https://www.phylo.org>), partitioning by locus and using the GTR+ Γ substitution model for all partitions. Nodal support in RAXML was assessed using both standard non-parametric bootstrapping (–b) and rapid bootstrapping (–x) mapped onto the best tree. Finally, we analysed our dataset in BEAST (ver. 2.4.6, see <https://www.beast2.org>; Bouckaert *et al.* 2014), using the results of IQ-TREE's ModelFinder to define substitution models for each partition independently. In order to determine the best clock model and tree prior for our dataset, we used an iterative strategy using the stepping-stone Path sampler application (ver. 1.3.4, see <https://github.com/BEAST2-Dev/model-selection>; Xie *et al.* 2011) in BEAST (ver. 2.4.6). First, we ran three path sampling analyses, all under a Yule tree prior with 100 steps of 1 million generations, corresponding to a strict clock, an exponential relaxed clock, and a lognormal relaxed clock. Marginal likelihood estimates were compared using Bayes Factors to select the optimal clock model. We then ran another path sampling analysis under the optimal clock model, but using a birth–death tree prior. Again, marginal likelihood estimates for the two analysed tree priors were compared using Bayes Factors, and the optimal clock model and tree prior combination was used for lineage age inference.

BEAST chronograms were calibrated using known Opiliones fossils to constrain crown-group ages of specified nodes, all under uniform distributions with a maximum age for each calibration set to 514 million years (Ma), corresponding to the age of the oldest fossil chelicerate, *Wisangocaris*

barbarahardyae Jago, García-Bellido & Gehling, 2016, from the Emu Bay Shale (Wolfe *et al.* 2016). The following nodes were calibrated: (1) Dyspnoi was constrained to a minimum age of 305 Ma, reflecting the age of the fossil *Ameticos scolos* Garwood, Dunlop, Giribet & Sutton, 2011, from the Montceau-les-Mines Lagerstätte, the upper limit of which is biostratigraphically dated to c. 305 Ma (Garwood *et al.* 2011); (2) The age of Eupnoi was constrained to a minimum of 305 Ma, reflecting the age of *Macrogyion cronus* Garwood, Dunlop, Giribet & Sutton, 2011, also from the Montceau-les-Mines Lagerstätte (Garwood *et al.* 2011); (3) Epedanidae Sørensen, 1886, was constrained to a minimum age of 105 Ma, reflecting the age of *Petrobunoides sharmai* Selden, Dunlop, Giribet, Zhang & Ren, 2016, from Burmese amber from the lowermost Cenomanian (c. 100 Ma) (Selden *et al.* 2016). While the placement of this fossil in Epedanidae has not been verified in the context of a total-evidence phylogeny, unlike the other fossils used in our calibrations (Garwood *et al.* 2014; Sharma and Giribet 2014), its assignment to Epedanidae is based on multiple morphological characters such as its elongate, raptorial pedipalps, the tarsal formula, and the shape of the ocularium (Selden *et al.* 2016); (4) The root age of all Opiliones was constrained to a minimum of 405 Ma, corresponding to the age of the oldest known Opiliones fossil, *Eophalangium sheari* Dunlop, Anderson, Kerp & Hass, 2003 (Dunlop *et al.* 2003; Garwood *et al.* 2014). Four different BEAST analyses were run for 200 million

generations each and combined after burn-in. Stationarity was confirmed in Tracer (ver.1.6, see <https://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer/>), with all ESS values >200.

All individual gene alignments (in phylip format), concatenated trees and trees inferred from individual loci (in Newick format), and the BEAST xml file are available as supplementary information in the Harvard Dataverse (<https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/ULZIHT>).

Results and discussion

Composition of Triaenonychidae and its position within Insidiatores

Analysis of our partitioned dataset recovered a non-monophyletic Triaenonychidae (Fig. 3–6). Across all analyses

with maximal support, we instead found a sister-group relationship between the Australian triaenonychid genus *Lomanella* and the New Zealand–endemic *Synthetonychia*, the only genus in the family Synthetonychiidae (red star in Fig. 3–5). *Lomanella* and *Synthetonychia* share several morphological affinities, specifically in terms of their penis structure (both have reduced dorsolateral plates along the truncus) and tarsal claws (many *Lomanella* species and all *Synthetonychia* species have a complex branching peltonychium rather than the typical triaenonychid trident claw), as previously discussed by Hunt and Hickman (1993), and in part supported by the work of Mendes (2009) (although she also included *Pyenganella* in this clade). However, Hunt (1996) did not place *Pyenganella* with *Lomanella*, instead finding *Lomanella* as the sister

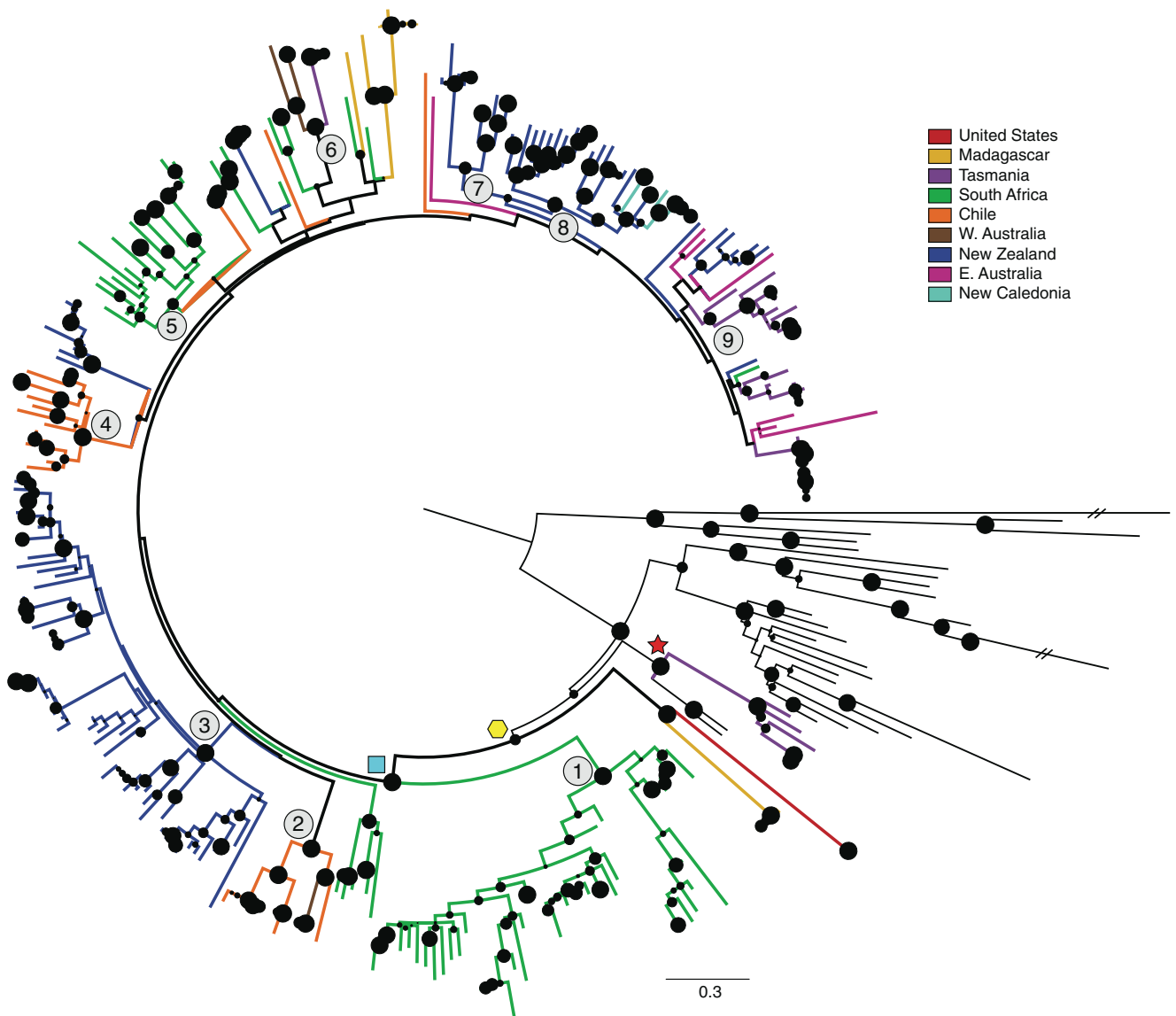


Fig. 3. Result of RAXML analysis, partitioned by locus. Branches are coloured by landmass as shown in the key and in Fig. 2. Circles at nodes are scaled according to rapid bootstrap support values. Star denotes the clade of *Lomanella* + *Synthetonychia*. Hexagon denotes Triaenonychidae including *Fumontana* + *Flavonuncia*. Square shows Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae. Numbered nodes correspond to well-supported clades across all analyses (see Results and Discussion for details). For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the online version of this article.

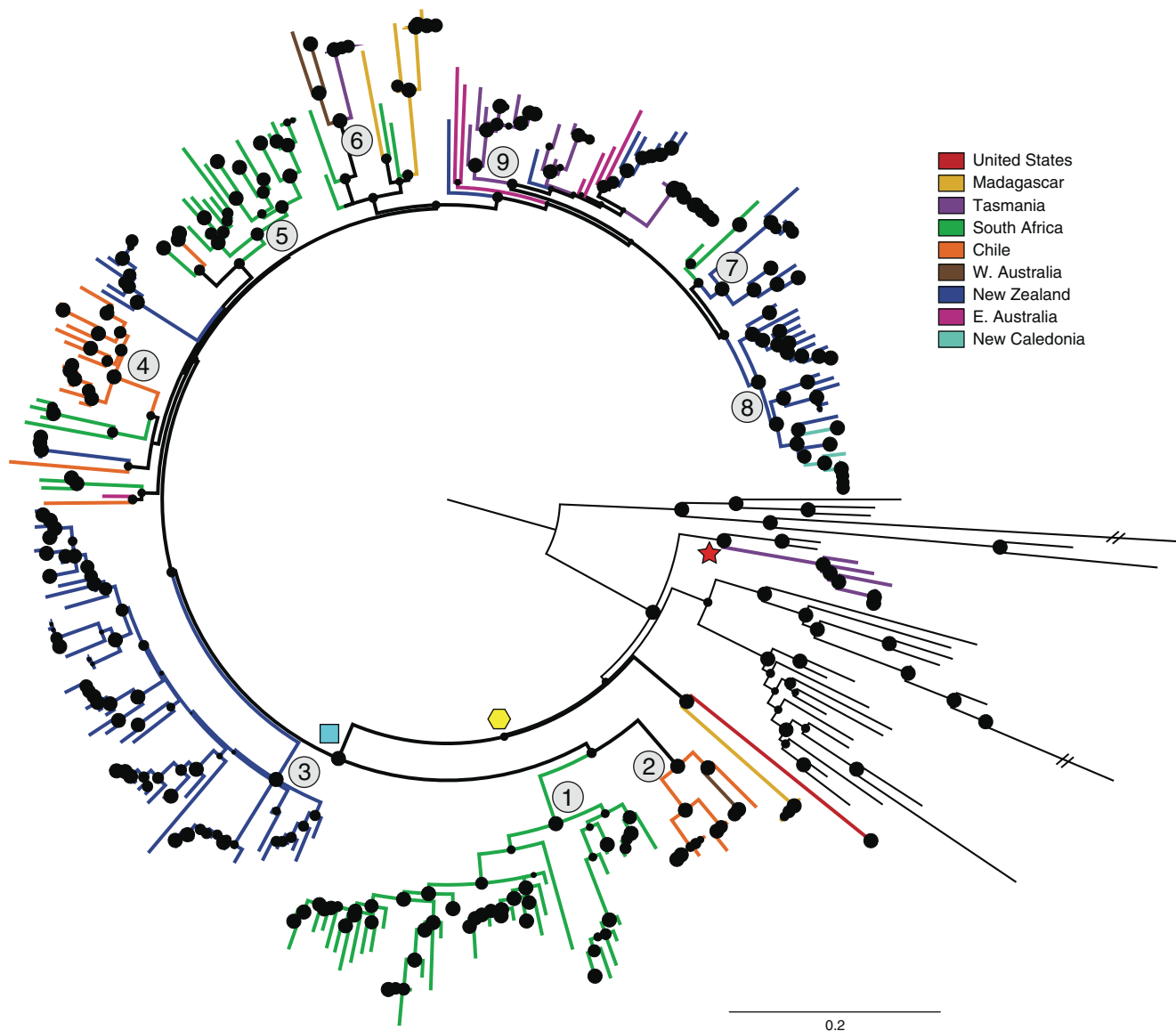
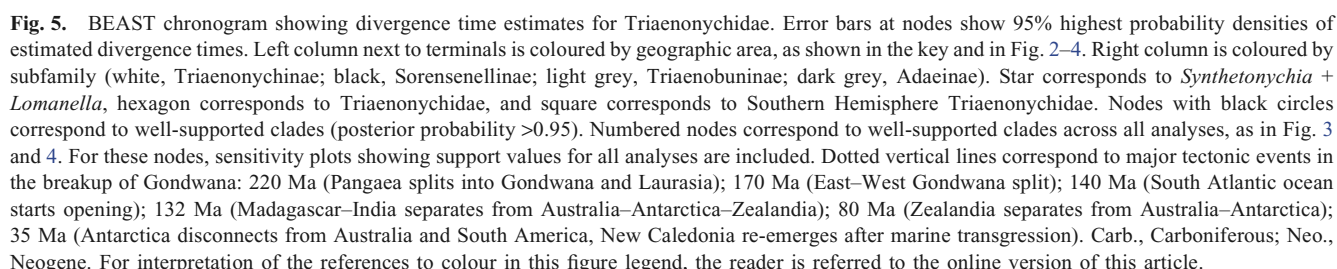


Fig. 4. Result of IQ-TREE analysis, partitioned by locus. Branches are coloured by landmass as indicated in the key, and in Fig. 2 and 3. Circles at nodes are scaled according to ultrafast bootstrap support values. Star corresponds to *Synthetonychia* + *Lomanella*, hexagon corresponds to Triaenonychidae, and square corresponds to Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae. Numbered nodes correspond to well-supported clades across all analyses, as in Fig. 3. For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the online version of this article.

group to all remaining Australian triaenonychids. The placement of this clade of *Lomanella* + *Synthetonychia*, however, was inconsistent across analyses (Fig. 6). In our RAxML tree, it was recovered as the sister group to all other triaenonychids, albeit without support (47% rapid bootstrap support, RBS, and 30% standard bootstrap support, BS, in RAxML). In our BEAST tree, it was recovered as the sister group to Travunioidea, again without support (posterior probability (PP) 0.91) but consistent with the results of Fernández *et al.* (2017) (though that study did not include *Lomanella*). Finally, our IQ-TREE phylogeny placed the group as the sister lineage to all other Laniatores (100% SH-aLRT and 100% UFBoot), in line with the results of Giribet *et al.* (2010) and Sharma and Giribet (2011), who

found *Synthetonychia* (*Lomanella* was not sampled) to be the sister group to the remaining Laniatores. Given this low and inconsistent support for the relationship of *Lomanella* + *Synthetonychia* to other triaenonychid genera, and the fact that other studies have found *Synthetonychia* not to be related to other triaenonychids, even when using phylogenomics (Fernández *et al.* 2017), we believe this constitutes a unique and distinct evolutionary lineage, as proposed earlier by Mendes (2009). However, until *Pyenganella* is examined, we refrain from erecting new taxa, yet recognise that *Lomanella* should be moved out of Triaenonychidae.

We also failed to recover a monophyletic Insidiatores in two of three analyses, and instead found a sister group relationship between Grassatores and Travunioidea with



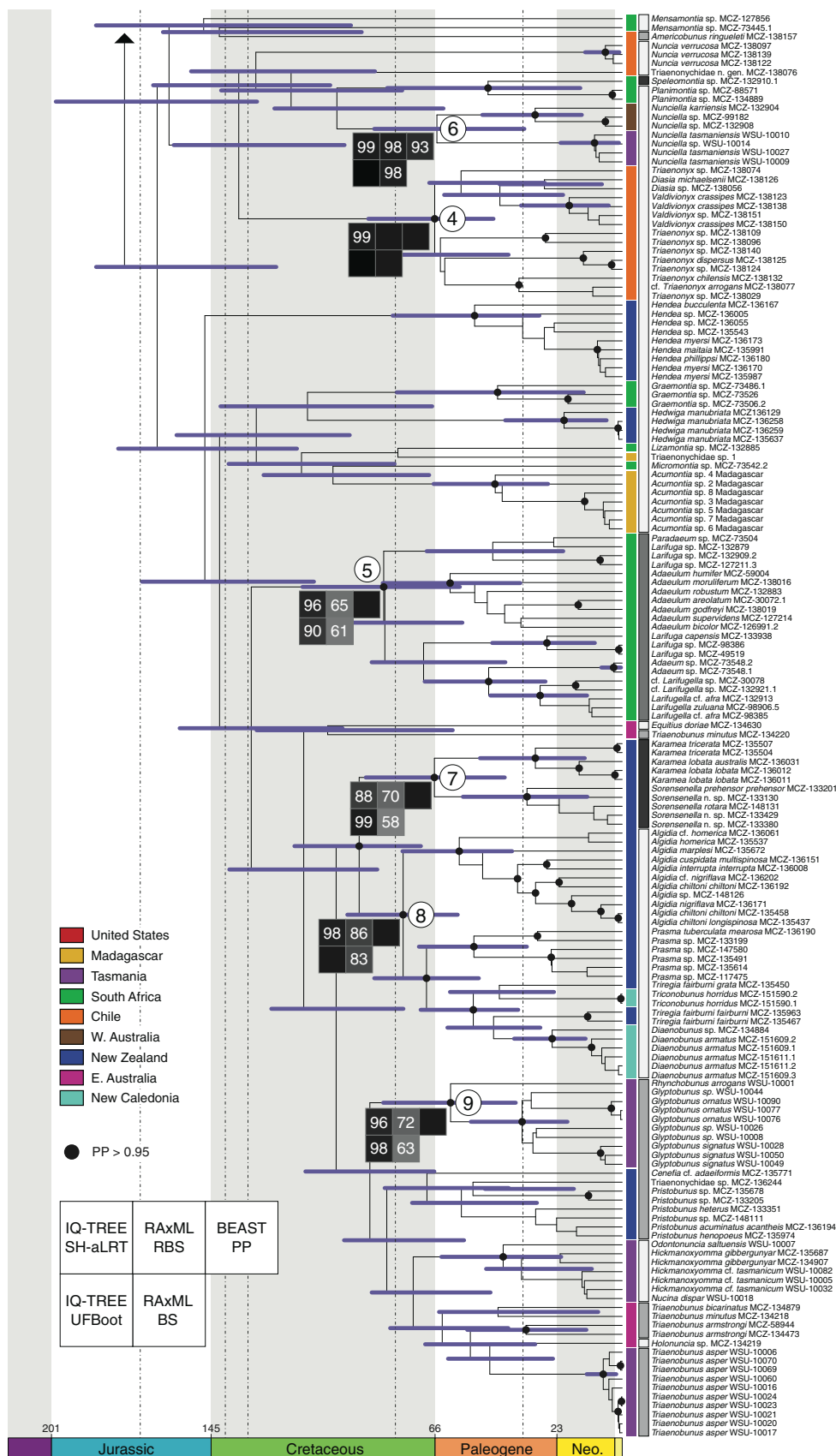


Fig. 5. Continued.

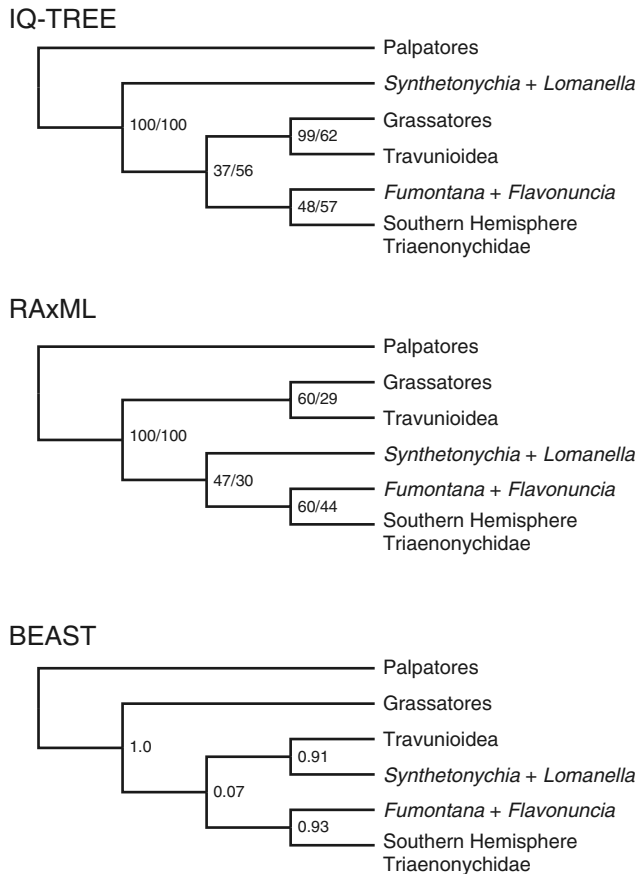


Fig. 6. Summary of major relationships of Laniatores from three phylogenetic analyses. Numbers at nodes show support values for depicted relationships (IQ-TREE: SH-aLRT/UFBOT; RAxML: RBS/BS; BEAST: PP).

variable levels of support in IQ-TREE (99% SH-aLRT, 62% UFBOT) and RAxML (60% RBS, 29% BS). This relationship contrasts with the results of previous analyses to include Travunioidea, Grassatores, and Triaenonychidae. For example, Derkarabetian *et al.* (2018) found a relationship of Grassatores + Triaenonychidae to the exclusion of Travunioidea in most analyses, and Sharma and Giribet (2011) found monophyly of Insidiatores except for *Synthetonychia*. Our BEAST analysis did recover a monophyletic Insidiatores, but with extremely low support (0.07 PP). This result was, however, recovered by Fernández *et al.* (2017) using transcriptomic data. Given the generally low nodal supports of our analyses and the limited number of loci used in our study, we prefer to leave this issue aside until additional data become available.

Triaenonychidae (excepting *Lomanella*, which we now consider to be the sister group of Synthetonychiidae) was monophyletic in all analyses, though with low support (IQ-TREE: 47% SH-aLRT, 57% UFBOT; RAxML: 60% RBS, 44% BS; BEAST: 0.93 PP). This poorly supported bipartition corresponds to a split between two monotypic genera, the eastern North American *Fumontana deprehendor* and *Flavonuncia pupilla* Lawrence, 1959, from Madagascar, and

all other triaenonychids (herein 'Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae'). The relationship of *Fumontana* + *Flavonuncia* received high support in all analyses, and together with the Sardinian monotypic genus *Buemarinoa* Roewer, 1956, has been proposed as a tribe of Triaenonychinae, Buemarinoini Karaman, 2019, on the basis of their similar male genital morphology (Karaman 2019). While our data supported the clade Buemarinoini, they did not support its status as a tribe within Triaenonychinae. Likewise, the clade of the Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae received strong support in all analyses. We therefore accept the placement of *Fumontana* as a *bona fide* member of Triaenonychidae despite its geographic isolation. However, we acknowledge that given the low support for this relationship, *Fumontana* + *Flavonuncia* (=Buemarinoini) may represent a distinct evolutionary lineage, and its placement within the family should be further tested using more robust high-throughput sequencing methods, since the divergence between these two main lineages occurred between the Carboniferous and the Triassic (Fig. 5).

Phylogenetic relationships within Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae

Within the Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae, nodal supports along the backbone of the phylogeny were uniformly low, though some smaller clades were recovered consistently with high support (Fig. 3–5). These included (1) a clade of several South African genera classified in the subfamily Triaenonychinae (*Amatola* Lawrence, 1931, *Austromontia* Staręga, 1992, *Biacumontia* Staręga, 1992, *Ceratontia* Roewer, 1915, *Monomontia* Staręga, 1992, and *Rostromontia* Staręga, 1992); (2) a clade of Chilean and Western Australian taxa (*Calliuncus* Roewer, 1931 and some *Nuncia* Loman, 1902 spp. with few spines – the South American *Nuncia* bear little morphological resemblance nor are closely phylogenetically related to the real *Nuncia* from New Zealand, as discussed below); (3) The New Zealand *Nuncia*; (4) a clade of some South American Triaenonychinae (*Diasia* Sørensen, 1902, *Triaenonyx* Sørensen, 1886, *Valdivionyx* Maury, 1988); (5) the South African genera in the subfamily Adaeinae (*Adaeulum* Roewer, 1915, *Adaeum* Karsch, 1880, *Larifuga* Loman, 1898, *Larifugella* Staręga, 1992, *Paradeum* Lawrence, 1931); (6) the genus *Nunciella* Roewer, 1931, from both Western Australia and Tasmania; (7) the New Zealand Sørensenellinae genera *Sørensenella* and *Karamia*; (8) a clade of several spiny Triaenonychinae genera from New Zealand (*Algidia* Hogg, 1920, *Prasma* Roewer, 1931, *Triregia* Forster, 1948) and the two genera from New Caledonia (*Triconobunus* and *Diaenobunus*); and (9) a clade comprising two Tasmanian Triaenobuninae genera, *Glyptobunus* Roewer, 1915 and *Rhynchobunus* Hickman, 1958.

Regarding the subfamilies of Triaenonychidae, our results confirmed the polyphyletic 'catch-all' status of Triaenonychinae, as well as the polyphyly of Triaenobuninae and Sørensenellinae. While we did recover a monophyletic Adaeinae in our trees, we were unable to

include the Western Australian genus *Dingupa*, the only member of that subfamily found outside of South Africa. Mendes (2009) previously identified the inconsistency of these subfamilial classifications, instead proposing a division of the family into two subfamilies, Adaeinae and Triaenonychinae. However, the constituent taxa in her emended subfamilies were either not sampled by us or else not closely related to each other in our phylogenies, making comparison and reconciliation difficult, and indeed the most recent catalogue of Opiliones still uses the traditional subfamilies (Kury *et al.* 2014). All told, we find the current categorisation of the four subfamilies to be uninformative at best and evolutionarily misleading at worst, and therefore recommend that their use be discontinued. However, we refrain from proposing any new classification scheme here given the low nodal support and inconsistent topology along the backbone of the tree.

New Zealand–New Caledonia

Wherever possible, we sequenced multiple individuals per genus in order to test their validity (i.e. monophyly). Of these, most genera from New Zealand were found to be monophyletic with high support in all analyses (*Hendea* Roewer, 1931, *Hedwiga* Roewer, 1931, *Algidia*, *Sorensenella*, *Karamea*, and *Prasma*). The New Zealand genus *Pristobunus* Roewer, 1931, was monophyletic in both IQ-TREE (96% SH-aLRT, 99% UFBoot) and RAxML (61% RBS, 49% BS) phylogenies, but potentially not in the BEAST tree, where one juvenile that could only be confidently identified to the subfamily ‘Triaenobuninae’ (MCZ-136244) fell within the clade (0.72 PP). In contrast to the ambiguous monophyly of *Pristobunus*, the New Zealand genus *Triregia* was paraphyletic with respect to the two genera from New Caledonia (*Triconobunus* and *Diaenobunus*) in all cases. Furthermore, *Triconobunus* and *Diaenobunus* were never found to be sister taxa, though support values for these internal relationships are generally low. It is clear, however, that this clade requires a thorough revision, including the incorporation of the type species *Triregia monstrosa* Forster, 1948, from Three Kings Islands.

Nuncia and Ceratomontia – transoceanic genera?

Currently, *Nuncia* and *Ceratomontia* are the only genera in Triaenonychidae known from multiple landmasses. *Ceratomontia* has previously been shown to be non-monophyletic, with one clade in South America and a possible grade in South Africa that also includes other genera (*Austromontia*, *Monomontia*) (Mendes and Kury 2008). We were not able to include South American *Ceratomontia* specimens in our study, so this hypothesis remains untested with molecular data, but our analyses showed that the South African *Ceratomontia* were deeply nested within a South African clade of triaenonychids.

Likewise, *Nuncia* was found in both New Zealand (which is home to the type species, *Nuncia sperata* Loman, 1902, junior synonym of *Triaenonyx obesus* Simon, 1899) and South America, in Chile and Argentina. *Nuncia* is by far the most diverse genus in the family, with 63 accepted species and

subspecies (Kury *et al.* 2014), and it is characterised by a smooth carapace and a relative lack of spines and tubercles (see Fig. 1J). Despite being defined more by a lack of features than by the presence of any character in particular, all *Nuncia* from New Zealand constituted a clade with full support in all our analyses, unlike in the unpublished thesis of Vélez (2011). Lower-level relationships within the New Zealand *Nuncia*, though, indicate that many morphological species and subspecies are not valid, and this group requires substantial taxonomic revision.

The included *Nuncia* from South America were not at all closely related to the true New Zealand *Nuncia*, as suggested by a recent study of their genitalia (Porto and Pérez-González 2019), and indeed the South American species were found in two distinct places in the phylogeny. One of these clades corresponded to the species *Nuncia verrucosa* Maury, 1990 (and, based on morphology, presumably *N. spinulosa* Maury, 1990, though this species was not available for this study), the ‘grupo *spinulosa*’ of Maury (1990). As implied by their specific epithets, both of these species are replete with spines and tubercles (see Fig. 1L and fig. I, III in Maury 1990), and in his original descriptions Maury (1990) noted that perhaps they should not be placed in *Nuncia* at all given their morphological dissimilarity to both the New Zealand *Nuncia* and the other South American *Nuncia* species. Our phylogenetic results validate this scepticism, and while redescribing these species under a new genus name is outside the scope of this paper, we recommend such a transfer. The other clade of *Nuncia* from South America contained the species *Nuncia americana* Roewer, 1961 and *Nuncia chilensis* (H. Soares, 1968), as well as the species *Calliuncus cf. labyrinthus*, from Western Australia. While the members of this clade do lack spines and large tubercles and therefore superficially look similar to *Nuncia* from New Zealand, this clearly also constitutes a distinct evolutionary lineage. Again, without a thorough morphological examination of both *Calliuncus* (including its type species, *Calliuncus ferrugineus* Roewer, 1931) and the smooth-bodied South American *Nuncia* species, we refrain from taking any nomenclatorial action here, but our phylogenetic results highlight the need for revision.

Chile

Apart from the *Nuncia* from South America in our tree, we also recovered a clade of several other genera from Chile. The genus *Valdivionyx* was monophyletic in all analyses with high support. The closely related genus *Diasia* was monophyletic in both the RAxML and BEAST trees, but paraphyletic with respect to *Valdivionyx* in the IQ-TREE result. These two genera were closely related to the genus *Triaenonyx* in all analyses, which was recovered as monophyletic in the IQ-TREE and RAxML phylogenies, but was paraphyletic with respect to *Valdivionyx* and *Diasia* in the BEAST tree. The monotypic genus *Americobunus* does appear to be a distinct evolutionary lineage in the family, as it sat on a long branch and resolved in different locations in each of the three trees. Furthermore, we included an exemplar of an animal that morphologically does not correspond to any described

species (MCZ IZ-138076: Fig. 1F). It, too, was recovered as a distinct evolutionary lineage and, together with its unique morphology, corroborates its status as a new genus that will need to be described.

South Africa

Within South Africa, some genera were recovered as monophyletic in all analyses (e.g. *Adaeum*, *Adaeulum*, *Amatola*, *Austromontia*, *Graemontia* Staręga, 1992, *Larifugella*, and *Monomontia*), but just as many were not (e.g. *Biacumontia*, *Ceratomontia*, *Larifuga*, *Mensamontia* Staręga, 1992, *Planimontia* Kauri, 1961, *Roewerania* Lawrence, 1934, and *Rostromontia*). In addition, South African members appeared in 7–10 independent clades, some of them connected to Madagascar. Many genera as they are currently defined are extremely hard to distinguish on the basis of morphology, and diagnostic characters at the genus level show overlapping variability between genera. Future taxonomic work will certainly be needed to revise those genera, including looking for morphological characters that correspond to phylogenetic groups.

Madagascar

Our taxonomic sampling in Madagascar was restricted due to the limited availability of molecular-grade specimens from these landmasses in our collections. We therefore are unable to say much about the validity of those taxa, especially since its 35 species include several genera with only one or two species each (*Ankaratrix*, *Antogila* Roewer, 1931, *Decarynella* Fage, 1945, *Flavonuncia*, *Hovanuncia* Lawrence, 1959, *Ivohibea* Lawrence, 1959, *Millomontia* Lawrence, 1959, *Millotonyx* Lawrence, 1959, and *Paulianyx* Lawrence, 1959) plus the more diverse *Acumontia* Loman, 1898, with 22 described species (Kury *et al.* 2014). Even more unfortunately, the animals from Madagascar used in this study were consumed during DNA extraction and no vouchers remain for morphological analysis. However, we did recover multiple distinct lineages on the island, including the relictual *Flavonuncia*, a clade of specimens corresponding to *Acumontia*, and an unidentified species that groups with *Lizamontia* Kury, 2004 from South Africa in all analyses. Further sampling of Madagascar species with techniques that allow using historical museum samples (e.g. Derkarabetian *et al.* 2019) should help resolve this mystery.

Australia

We similarly had few exemplars from mainland Australia, which reflects the relatively unexamined triaenonychid diversity of the continent. Most of our specimens, and indeed most of the described species in the country, came from Tasmania, which we treated as a separate region. (While we often discuss Tasmania as a distinct region, it cannot be considered a separate landmass from Australia given continental land bridge connections during the Quaternary: Lambeck and Chappell 2001). Given the large part of Australia without suitable recent habitat, we also treated Western Australia as separate from the east, a distributional pattern

that is not uncommon in short-range saproxylic animals (Giribet and Edgecombe 2006; Rix *et al.* 2015).

Here, we recovered a monophyletic *Glyptobunus* and found as its sister group the genus *Rhynchobunus*, also from Tasmania. However, some of our morphospecies were not monophyletic or had very old divergences, probably reflecting the poor taxonomy of the group. We also recovered a monophyletic *Nunciella*, which contained two reciprocally monophyletic lineages that corresponded to a group in Western Australia and a group in Tasmania. In contrast, we did not recover the monophyly of the genus *Triaenobunus* Sørensen, 1886, which is known from eastern and south-eastern mainland Australia as well as Tasmania. Similarly, the charismatic Tasmanian genus *Hickmanoxyomma* Hunt, 1990, which is easily identified by its extremely tall and pointed ocularium (Fig. 1G), was not recovered as a monophyletic group. Instead, we found two other Tasmanian species nested within the genus, *Nucina dispar* Hickman, 1958 and *Odontonuncia saltuensis* Hickman, 1958, neither of which have especially large spines on their ocularia (though in the BEAST tree *O. saltuensis* formed the sister group to this clade rather than nesting within it). The close relationship between *Hickmanoxyomma* and *Odontonuncia* was previously hypothesised by Hunt (1990). Lastly, as discussed above, the Western Australian genus *Calliuncus* was monophyletic in all analyses, and nested within the smooth-bodied clade of South American *Nuncia*.

Clearly, many different lineages within Triaenonychidae are in need of revision. Future work must focus on areas with significant taxonomic and phylogenetic discrepancies, such as the South American *Nuncia*, the many para- and polyphyletic South African genera, the clade containing *Triregia* plus the New Caledonian triaenonychids, and the genus *Triaenobunus* in Australia. Furthermore, given the low nodal support along the backbone of our trees, future work should focus on resolving higher-level phylogenetic relationships using high-throughput sequencing techniques, including more genera, and, whenever possible, the type species of such genera.

Biogeographic results

With the exception of North America, which contains only the monotypic genus *Fumontana*, and Sardinia, with *Buemarinoa*, no major landmass on which triaenonychids are found contains a monophyletic assemblage of taxa. This result holds even accounting for the low nodal support values along the backbone of our tree. Indeed, even the two genera from New Caledonia were not recovered as sister taxa; instead, both nested within the New Zealand genus *Triregia*, as discussed above. In order to determine whether the non-monophyly of taxa in these Southern Hemisphere landmasses was attributable to ancient cladogenesis before Gondwanan breakup or more recent transoceanic dispersal, and to look for possible instances of Gondwanan vicariance, we performed a divergence dating analysis.

Comparison of marginal *L* estimates with Bayes Factors identified an exponential relaxed clock and a Yule tree prior as the optimal model for the dataset, with decisive support from Bayes Factors (BF = 15.59 compared to the next-highest

model's marginal *L* estimate). The use of a Yule tree prior on our dataset, which includes both inter- and intraspecific divergences, is a theoretical violation of that speciation model and as such could bias divergence time estimates. However, simulation-based analysis of mixed inter- and intraspecific datasets in a Bayesian dating framework has shown that in sampling schemes such as ours, where most nodes correspond to interspecies divergences, estimates of node times were robust to tree prior choice, and that model selection procedures such as ours were effective in rejecting models likely to cause highly inaccurate node time estimates (Ritchie *et al.* 2017).

Initial diversification of Triaenonychidae predates Pangaeian breakup

Our divergence dating results recovered an ancient origin for Triaenonychidae, with a mean age in the Permian, at 268 Ma (95% confidence interval, CI: 323–212 Ma) (Fig. 5). While the lower limit of the 95% CI did not quite predate the initial breakup of Pangaea *c.* 220 Ma (Ali and Aitchison 2008), for the most part these dates suggest that the family was diversifying before Pangaea began breaking up into the northern landmass of Laurasia and the southern landmass of Gondwana. The estimated age of the North America–Madagascar divergence, corresponding to the split between *Fumontana* and *Flavonuncia*, ranged from 234 to 101 Ma, with a mean age of 166 Ma, in the Jurassic. This age range approximately coincides with the timing of separation between Laurasia and Gondwana, and therefore implies that *Fumontana* is a relictual lineage in North America, just as *Buemarinoa* remains a relict in Western Europe. This parallels a similar pattern seen in other groups of arachnids, such as the oribatid mite family Malaconothridae Berlese, 1916, which has a cosmopolitan distribution and an estimated age of 333 Ma (Colloff 2013), as well as the dispersal-limited pseudoscorpion families Pseudotyranchothroniidae Beier, 1932 and Pseudogarypidae Chamberlin, 1923, which have representatives in both temperate Australia and the Holarctic (though the ages of these families have not been estimated using molecular dating methods, their divergence from their sister group are Palaeozoic for the first and early Mesozoic for the latter) (Harvey *et al.* 2017; Benavides *et al.* 2019). Similar signatures of Pangaeian breakup have also been detected in multiple groups of plants (Mao *et al.* 2012; Beaulieu *et al.* 2013) and amphibians (Pyron 2014).

The mean age of the Southern Hemisphere Triaenonychidae was estimated to be 198 Ma (95% CI: 246–156 Ma), in the Early Jurassic. Again, these dates suggest that the family was already diversifying well before Gondwana began breaking apart (initial rifting started in the Middle Jurassic, *c.* 170 Ma) (Ali and Aitchison 2008), and allows for the possibility that triaenonychids were able to colonise extensive continental areas via overland dispersal before continents separated. Palynological and isotopic records from this period suggest that during the Triassic and Jurassic, southern Gondwana experienced less climatic differentiation and a greater floristic uniformity dominated by

lycophytes, ferns, and tree ferns (McLoughlin 2001; Cantrill and Poole 2012). Given the large-scale biotic turnovers that followed the end-Permian extinction and the subsequent expansion of continuous stretches of suitable vegetation, overland expansion of Triaenonychidae during this period seems highly plausible, and would therefore follow a pattern seen in other saproxylic taxa such as pettaliid harvestmen (Baker *et al.* 2020) and peripatopsid velvet worms (Murienne *et al.* 2014; Giribet *et al.* 2018).

Relationships of taxa from disjunct landmasses

The Cretaceous period saw major rifting events, including the opening of the southern Atlantic Ocean, the separation of Madagascar–India from Australia–Antarctica–Zealandia, and the start of Zealandia's isolation (McLoughlin 2001; Ali and Aitchison 2008). Coinciding with this increased tectonism was the rise of angiosperms, and with it large-scale floristic turnovers and increased provincialism (McLoughlin 2001; McLoughlin and Kear 2010). All of these factors likely contributed to the inferred increase in cladogenesis of triaenonychids starting in the Cretaceous and continuing into the Paleogene (Fig. 5), as suitable forest habitat became more fragmented and populations in turn became more isolated. This may also have contributed to our difficulty resolving relationships between many clades in our phylogeny.

Because there was limited support for relationships between genera from different landmasses, we refrained from employing any explicit biogeographic models of range evolution. Despite those limitations, we still found a few places in the tree that were well supported and that corresponded to divergences between taxa from different landmasses. For example, *Calliuncus* (Western Australia) and *Nuncia chilensis* (Chile) (Clade 2 in Fig. 3–5) had an estimated divergence time of 25–85 Ma, with a mean date of 53 Ma. As Australia and Chile were connected via Antarctica until *c.* 35–40 Ma, when Tasmania and Antarctica separated (McLoughlin 2001; Wei 2004), this divergence time is consistent with the process of Gondwanan vicariance, though we cannot rule out transoceanic dispersal, as its lower age estimate postdates continental separation by *c.* 10 Ma. Interestingly, *Nuncia chilensis* was originally described as *Parattahia chilensis* H. Soares, 1968, making it the second species in the genus erected for the Tasmanian species *Parattahia usignata* Roewer, 1915. The similarity between *Parattahia* and *Calliuncus* was recognised by Hunt (1996), who suspected *Calliuncus* to be a junior synonym of *Parattahia* (though without explicit morphological justification). While *Parattahia chilensis* was later transferred to *Nuncia* by Maury (1990), our results bolster the hypothesis of Soares (1968), who recognised the affiliation between the species from Chile and Tasmania. Sampling *P. usignata* and *Calliuncus ferrugineus* Roewer 1931 (the type species of *Calliuncus*) will be useful in further clarifying the potential trans-Antarctic nature of this clade.

Nearly all divergences between taxa from different landmasses in the family were estimated to have occurred

before the end of the Mesozoic (66 Ma), though the lower limits of several 95% CIs postdated this boundary. Similarly, most Gondwanan rifting events took place during the Mesozoic, from the initial split into East and West Gondwana *c.* 170 Ma to the separation of Zealandia from East Gondwana *c.* 80 Ma. The only major separation events that occurred in the Cainozoic were the disconnection of Australia and South America from Antarctica, which occurred *c.* 35–40 Ma and *c.* 30–35 Ma respectively (McLoughlin 2001; Wei 2004). This underscores the idea that the common mode of range expansion and diversification in Triaenonychidae was overland dispersal followed by subsequent isolation as continental blocks separated.

A well-known biogeographic debate exists surrounding the source of New Zealand's terrestrial biota. Briefly, the controversy suggests that following the separation of Zealandia (i.e. the small continent that contains New Zealand and New Caledonia (Mortimer *et al.* 2017)) from Australia–Antarctica *c.* 80 Ma, New Zealand experienced a prolonged marine transgression (often called the 'Oligocene drowning') (see Giribet and Boyer 2010). This period lasted from *c.* 36 to *c.* 23 Ma, and at its peak (23 Ma) land area was reduced to ~18% of its current area (Cooper and Cooper 1995; Wallis and Jorge 2018). However, some authors have gone so far as to say the archipelago was completely inundated, which extirpated any relicts of Gondwanan origin; the implication then is that all of New Zealand's modern biota is the result of more recent dispersals that postdate 23 Ma (Trewick *et al.* 2007). We find at least three clades of taxa from New Zealand whose 95% CIs completely predate the peak of the Oligocene drowning period: (1) the New Zealand *Nuncia* (mean age: 110 Ma; 95% CI: 83–140 Ma), (2) *Hendea* (mean age: 52 Ma; 95% CI: 29–81 Ma), and (3) a clade composed of *Sorensenella*, *Karamaea*, *Algidia*, *Prasma*, *Triregia*, and the New Caledonian *Diaenobunus* and *Triconobunus* (mean age: 93 Ma; 95% CI: 71–116 Ma). Triaenonychids therefore serve as yet another source of examples refuting the hypothesis of New Zealand's total submersion during the Oligocene, as suspected by earlier workers (Giribet and Boyer 2010).

While most divergences in the family concurred with Gondwanan vicariance or potentially pre-Gondwanan cladogenesis, there is at least one likely case of dispersal in the family: to New Caledonia. As stated previously, New Caledonia (specifically the main island of Grande Terre) is part of the small continent Zealandia, which separated from the eastern margin of Gondwana *c.* 80 Ma (McLoughlin 2001). Despite being part of the same crustal block, New Zealand and New Caledonia have never shared a terrestrial connection with each other. Unlike in New Zealand, where the geologic evidence for total submersion is inconclusive at best, there is strong geologic evidence that New Caledonia was submerged thousands of metres underwater during the Palaeocene, and subsequently thrust under oceanic crust during the Eocene, finally re-emerging *c.* 37 Ma (Grandcolas *et al.* 2008; Cluzel *et al.* 2012; Sutherland *et al.* 2020). New Caledonia is therefore functionally a Darwinian island and, accordingly, most endemic taxa that have been studied using time-calibrated molecular phylogenetics are found to have arrived to the

island no earlier than 37 Ma (Nattier *et al.* 2017; though see Giribet and Baker 2019). In the case of Triaenonychidae, we found both New Caledonian genera (*Diaenobunus* and *Triconobunus*) to be clearly nested within the New Zealand genus *Triregia*, which was in turn a part of a larger clade of New Zealand-endemic taxa (Clade 8 in Fig. 3–5). While we only had specimens of *Triconobunus* from a single locality and therefore cannot make any inferences about its origination and diversification time on the island, we did have sequence data for *Diaenobunus* from two different localities, separated by a linear distance of 16 km and constituting two putative species (although the genus remains monotypic). The estimated diversification time of *Diaenobunus* was 25 Ma (95% CI: 13–38 Ma), consistent with the idea that the genus dispersed from New Zealand and started diversifying on the island after its re-emergence *c.* 37 Ma. While nodal supports within this clade were relatively low across all analyses, they were consistent, so if these results do reflect the true topology it implies that triaenonychids dispersed from New Zealand to New Caledonia twice. It is also worth noting that the upper limit of the 95% CI for this diversification at 38 Ma allows us to reject the hypothesis that these animals are a Gondwanan relict, as this postdates Zealandia's split from Gondwana in the Late Cretaceous, *c.* 80 Ma.

Conclusions

We generated the first molecular phylogeny focused on Triaenonychidae, the fourth most speciose family of Opiliones, and inferred divergence times using fossil-derived calibrations. We found that the family, as traditionally defined, is not monophyletic, and transferred *Lomanella* out of Triaenonychidae, as it is the sister group to Synthetonychiidae, and this clade is not always related to the other triaenonychids. We also support *Fumontana* and *Flavonuncia* as a clade (*Buemarinoa* would be related to these, but was not sampled), which is the sister group to all other temperate Gondwanan triaenonychids. Despite low nodal support for relationships between many taxa, our results do highlight many places in which taxonomy does not reflect phylogeny, and which should therefore be revised. Complementary work by our group is already underway to resolve higher-level relationships using UCE (ultraconserved elements) sequencing (Faircloth *et al.* 2012). A well resolved phylogeny of this nature will be critical for further addressing evolutionary questions in the family, such as those about morphological stasis and disparity, sexual and male dimorphism, parental care strategies, niche conservatism, and diversification dynamics through time.

Through our divergence dating analysis, we also found that Triaenonychidae is an ancient family that predates Pangaeon and Gondwanan rifting, therein explaining their widespread but disjunct distribution across the Southern Hemisphere and North America and Western Europe. Indeed, nearly all divergences of taxa from different landmasses predate or coincide with Gondwanan tectonic events. However, we find at least one irrefutable case of dispersal, to the island of Grande Terre in New Caledonia. We suggest this is another

example of ‘common vicariance and rare dispersal’ in Opiliones (Hedin and McCormack 2017). There have likely been multiple dispersal events in the family, as evidenced by their presence in the oceanic Crozet Islands and on far offshore islands in New Zealand, such as the Chatham and Auckland Islands (Forster 1954). Future work will also be necessary to incorporate specimens from these islands into a phylogenetic framework so as to understand their biogeographic history and the capacity for dispersal within the family.

Conflicts of interest

G. Giribet is the Editor-in-Chief of *Invertebrate Systematics*. Despite this relationship, he took no part in the review and acceptance of this manuscript. The authors declare that they have no further conflicts of interest.

Declaration of funding

C. M. Baker was supported by a National Science Foundation (NSF) Graduate Research Fellowship. Funding for field expeditions resulted from multiple Putnam Expedition Grants from the Museum of Comparative Zoology to C. M. Baker, G. Giribet and S. Vélez, and from NSF Grants NSF #0236871: ‘Systematics, Biogeography and Evolutionary Radiations of the Cyphophthalmi’; NSF #1144417: ‘Collaborative Research: ARTS: Taxonomy and systematics of selected Neotropical clades of arachnids’; NSF #1457539: ‘Collaborative Proposal: Phylogeny and diversification of the orb weaving spiders (Orbiculariae, Araneae)’; and NSF #1754278: ‘Collaborative Research: The Opiliones of New Zealand: Revisionary synthesis and application of species delimitation for testing biogeographic hypotheses’.

Acknowledgements

This study would not have been possible without the collecting help of the following people over nearly two decades: Anthony Hitchcock, Barbara Baehr, Benjamin de Bivort, Charles Griswold, Charles Haddad, Duncan Hunter, Dane E. McDonald, Danilo Harms, Facundo M. Labarque, Fernando Álvarez Padilla, Geoffrey B. Monteith, Greg Edgecombe, Gustavo Hormiga, Hannah Wood, Jagoba Malumbres-Olarte, Jan A. Neethling, Jeremy Miller, Leon N. Lotz, Lorenzo Prendini, Mark S. Harvey, Martin J. Ramírez, Michael G. Rix, Michele K. Nishiguchi, Miquel A. Arnedo, Peter Swart, Phil Sirvid, Pierre Paquin, Ricardo Palma, Robert J. Kallal, Robert J. Raven, Rosa Fernández, Sarah L. Boyer, Savel R. Daniels, Stephanie W. Aktipis, and Zingisile Mbo. We thank Adam Baldinger, Penny Benson, Jennifer Trimble, and especially Laura Leibensperger for their help in sorting and cataloguing collections at the MCZ. Erin McIntyre helped generate preliminary sequence data for this project. Jean-Jérôme Cassan at the Direction du Développement Economique et de l’Environnement aided in acquiring collecting permits in Province Nord in New Caledonia. Jaime Pizarro Araya and CONAF aided in acquiring permits in Chile. We are deeply grateful to Adriano Kury and everyone behind the ARACNOLAB OmniPaper Project, whose efforts to make the taxonomic literature of Opiliones readily available online greatly aided this study. Associate editor Prashant Sharma, Mike Rix, and an anonymous reviewer provided comments that helped to improve this study.

References

Ali, J. R., and Aitchison, J. C. (2008). Gondwana to Asia: plate tectonics, paleogeography and the biological connectivity of the Indian sub-

continent from the Middle Jurassic through latest Eocene (166–35 Ma). *Earth-Science Reviews* **88**(3–4), 145–166. doi:10.1016/j.earscirev.2008.01.007

- Baker, C. M., Boyer, S. L., and Giribet, G. (2020). A well-resolved transcriptomic phylogeny of the mite harvestman family Pettalidae (Arachnida, Opiliones, Cyphophthalmi) reveals signatures of Gondwanan vicariance. *Journal of Biogeography* **47**, 1345–1361. doi:10.1111/jbi.13828
- Beaulieu, J. M., Tank, D. C., and Donoghue, M. J. (2013). A Southern Hemisphere origin for campanulid angiosperms, with traces of the break-up of Gondwana. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* **13**, 80. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-13-80
- Benavides, L. R., Cosgrove, J. G., Harvey, M. S., and Giribet, G. (2019). Phylogenomic interrogation resolves the backbone of the Pseudoscorpiones tree of life. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **139**, 106509. doi:10.1016/j.ympev.2019.05.023
- Bouckaert, R., Heled, J., Kuhnert, D., Vaughan, T., Wu, C.-H., Xie, D., Suchard, M. A., Rambaut, A., and Drummond, A. J. (2014). BEAST 2: a software platform for Bayesian evolutionary analysis. *PLoS Computational Biology* **10**(4), e1003537. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1003537
- Boyer, S. L., and Giribet, G. (2007). A new model Gondwanan taxon: systematics and biogeography of the harvestman family Pettalidae (Arachnida, Opiliones, Cyphophthalmi), with a taxonomic revision of genera from Australia and New Zealand. *Cladistics* **23**(4), 337–361. doi:10.1111/j.1096-0031.2007.00149.x
- Cantrill, D. J., and Poole, I. (2012). Icehouse to hothouse: the Permian–Triassic crisis and Triassic vegetation. In ‘The Vegetation of Antarctica through Geological Time’. pp. 105–160. (Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.)
- Chernomor, O., von Haeseler, A., and Minh, B. Q. (2016). Terrace aware data structure for phylogenomic inference from supermatrices. *Systematic Biology* **65**(6), 997–1008. doi:10.1093/sysbio/syw037
- Chousou-Polydouri, N., Carmichael, A., Szűts, T., Saucedo, A., Gillespie, R., Griswold, C., and Wood, H. M. (2019). Giant goblins above the waves at the southern end of the world: the biogeography of the spider family Orsolobidae (Araneae, Dysderoidea). *Journal of Biogeography* **46**(2), 332–342. doi:10.1111/jbi.13487
- Cluzel, D., Maurizot, P., Collot, J., and Sevin, B. (2012). An outline of the geology of New Caledonia; from Permian–Mesozoic Southeast Gondwanaland active margin to Cenozoic obduction and supergene evolution. *Episodes* **35**(1), 72–86. doi:10.18814/epiugs/2012/v35i1/007
- Colloff, M. J. (2013). Species-groups and biogeography of the oribatid mite family Malaconothridae (Oribatida: Malaconothroidea), with new species from the south-western Pacific region. *Zootaxa* **3722**, 401–438. doi:10.11646/zootaxa.3722.4.1
- Cooper, A., and Cooper, R. A. (1995). The Oligocene bottleneck and New Zealand biota: genetic record of a past environmental crisis. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London – B. Biological Sciences* **261**(1362), 293–302. doi:10.1098/rspb.1995.0150
- Derkarabetian, S., Starrett, J., Tsurusaki, N., Ubick, D., Castillo, S., and Hedin, M. (2018). A stable phylogenomic classification of Travunioidea (Arachnida, Opiliones, Laniatores) based on sequence capture of ultraconserved elements. *ZooKeys* **760**, 1–36. doi:10.3897/zookeys.760.24937
- Derkarabetian, S., Benavides, L. R., and Giribet, G. (2019). Sequence capture phylogenomics of historical ethanol-preserved museum specimens: unlocking the rest of the vault. *Molecular Ecology Resources* **19**(6), 1531–1544. doi:10.1111/1755-0998.13072
- Dunlop, J. A., Anderson, L. I., Kerp, H., and Hass, H. (2003). A harvestman (Arachnida: Opiliones) from the Early Devonian Rhynie cherts, Aberdeenshire, Scotland. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. Earth Sciences* **94**(4), 341–354. doi:10.1017/S0263593300000730

- Faircloth, B. C., McCormack, J. E., Crawford, N. G., Harvey, M. G., Brumfield, R. T., and Glenn, T. C. (2012). Ultraconserved elements anchor thousands of genetic markers spanning multiple evolutionary timescales. *Systematic Biology* **61**(5), 717–726. doi:10.1093/sysbio/sys004
- Fernández, R., Sharma, P. P., Tourinho, A. L., and Giribet, G. (2017). The Opiliones tree of life: shedding light on harvestmen relationships through transcriptomics. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London – B. Biological Sciences* **284**, 20162340. doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.2340
- Folmer, O., Black, M., Hoeh, W., Lutz, R., and Vrijenhoek, R. C. (1994). DNA primers for amplification of mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I from diverse metazoan invertebrates. *Molecular Marine Biology and Biotechnology* **3**, 294–299.
- Forster, R. R. (1954). The New Zealand harvestmen (sub-order Laniatores). *Canterbury Museum Bulletin* **2**, 1–329.
- Garwood, R. J., Dunlop, J. A., Giribet, G., and Sutton, M. D. (2011). Anatomically modern Carboniferous harvestmen demonstrate early cladogenesis and stasis in Opiliones. *Nature Communications* **2**, 444. doi:10.1038/ncomms1458
- Garwood, R. J., Sharma, P. P., Dunlop, J. A., and Giribet, G. (2014). A Paleozoic stem group to mite harvestmen revealed through integration of phylogenetics and development. *Current Biology* **24**(9), 1017–1023. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2014.03.039
- Giribet, G., and Baker, C. M. (2019). Further discussion on the Eocene drowning of New Caledonia: discordances from the point of view of zoology. *Journal of Biogeography* **46**, 1912–1918. doi:10.1111/jbi.13635
- Giribet, G., and Boyer, S. L. (2010). ‘Moa’s Ark’ or ‘Goodbye Gondwana’: is the origin of New Zealand’s terrestrial invertebrate fauna ancient, recent or both? *Invertebrate Systematics* **24**(1), 1–8. doi:10.1071/IS10009
- Giribet, G., and Edgecombe, G. D. (2006). The importance of looking at small-scale patterns when inferring Gondwanan biogeography: a case study of the centipede *Paralamyctes* (Chilopoda, Lithobiomorpha, Henicopidae). *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society. Linnean Society of London* **89**(1), 65–78. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8312.2006.00658.x
- Giribet, G., and Shear, W. A. (2010). The genus *Siro* Latreille, 1796 (Opiliones, Cyphophthalmi, Sironidae), in North America with a phylogenetic analysis based on molecular data and the description of four new species. *Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology* **160** (1), 1–33. doi:10.3099/0027-4100-160.1.1
- Giribet, G., Carranza, S., Baguña, J., Riutort, M., and Ribera, C. (1996). First molecular evidence for the existence of a Tardigrada + Arthropoda clade. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **13**(1), 76–84. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.molbev.a025573
- Giribet, G., Vogt, L., González, A. P., Sharma, P. P., and Kury, A. B. (2010). A multilocus approach to harvestman (Arachnida: Opiliones) phylogeny with emphasis on biogeography and the systematics of Laniatores. *Cladistics* **26**(4), 408–437. doi:10.1111/j.1096-0031.2009.00296.x
- Giribet, G., Boyer, S. L., Baker, C. M., Fernández, R., Sharma, P. P., de Bivort, B. L., Daniels, S. R., Harvey, M. S., and Griswold, C. E. (2016). A molecular phylogeny of the temperate Gondwanan family Pettalidae (Arachnida, Opiliones, Cyphophthalmi) and the limits of taxonomic sampling. *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* **178**(3), 523–545. doi:10.1111/zoj.12419
- Giribet, G., Buckman-Young, R. S., Costa, C. S., Baker, C. M., Benavides, L. R., Branstetter, M. G., Daniels, S. R., and Pinto-da-Rocha, R. (2018). The ‘Peripatos’ in Eurogondwana? – Lack of evidence that southeast Asian onychophorans walked through Europe. *Invertebrate Systematics* **32**(4), 842–865. doi:10.1071/IS18007
- Grandcolas, P., Muriene, J., Robillard, T., Desutter-Grandcolas, L., Jourdan, H., Guilbert, E., and Deharveng, L. (2008). New Caledonia: a very old Darwinian island? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London – B. Biological Sciences* **363**(1508), 3309–3317. doi:10.1098/rstb.2008.0122
- Harvey, M. S., Rix, M. G., Harms, D., Giribet, G., Vink, C. J., and Walter, D. E. (2017). The biogeography of Australasian arachnids. In ‘Handbook of Australasian Biogeography’. (Ed. M. C. Ebach.) pp. 241–268. (CRC Press: Boca Raton, FL, USA.)
- Hedin, M., and McCormack, M. (2017). Biogeographical evidence for common vicariance and rare dispersal in a southern Appalachian harvestman (Sabaconidae, *Sabacon cavicolens*). *Journal of Biogeography* **44**(7), 1665–1678. doi:10.1111/jbi.12973
- Hoang, D. T., Chernomor, O., von Haeseler, A., Minh, B. Q., and Vinh, L. S. (2018). UFBot2: improving the ultrafast bootstrap approximation. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **35**(2), 518–522. doi:10.1093/molbev/msx281
- Hunt, G. S. (1990). *Hickmanoxymma*, a new genus of cavernicolous harvestmen from Tasmania (Opiliones: Triaenonychidae). *Records of the Australian Museum* **42**(1), 45–68. doi:10.3853/j.0067-1975.42.1990.106
- Hunt, G. S. (1996). A preliminary phylogenetic analysis of Australian Triaenonychidae (Arachnida: Opiliones). *Revue Suisse de Zoologie hors série* **1**, 295–308.
- Hunt, G. S., and Hickman, J. L. (1993). A revision of the genus *Lomanella* Pocock and its implications for family level classification in the Travunioidea (Arachnida: Opiliones: Triaenonychidae). *Records of the Australian Museum* **45**, 81–119. doi:10.3853/j.0067-1975.45.1993.131
- Kalyaanamoorthy, S., Minh, B. Q., Wong, T. K. F., von Haeseler, A., and Jermin, L. S. (2017). ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. *Nature Methods* **14**(6), 587–589. doi:10.1038/nmeth.4285
- Karaman, I. (2019). A redescription and family placement of *Buemarinoa patrizii* Roewer, 1956 (Opiliones, Laniatores, Triaenonychidae). *Biologia Serbica* **41**(1), 67–77. doi:10.5281/zenodo.3373487
- Katoh, K., and Standley, D. M. (2013). MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software Version 7: improvements in performance and usability. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **30**, 772–780. doi:10.1093/molbev/mst010
- Kury, A. B., Mendes, A. C., and Souza, D. R. (2014). World checklist of Opiliones species (Arachnida). Part 1: Laniatores – Travunioidea and Triaenonychoidea. *Biodiversity Data Journal* **2**, e4094. doi:10.3897/BDJ.2.e4094
- Lambeck, K., and Chappell, J. (2001). Sea level change through the last glacial cycle. *Science* **292**(5517), 679–686. doi:10.1126/science.1059549
- Landis, C. A., Campbell, H. J., Begg, J. G., Mildenhall, D. C., Paterson, A. M., and Trewick, S. A. (2008). The Waipounamu Erosion Surface: questioning the antiquity of the New Zealand land surface and terrestrial fauna and flora. *Geological Magazine* **145**(02), 173–197. doi:10.1017/S0016756807004268
- Machado, G. (2007). Maternal or paternal egg guarding? Revisiting parental care in triaenonychid harvestmen (Opiliones). *The Journal of Arachnology* **35**(1), 202–204. doi:10.1636/SH06-14.1
- Mao, K., Milne, R. I., Zhang, L., Peng, Y., Liu, J., Thomas, P., Mill, R. R., and Renner, S. S. (2012). Distribution of living Cupressaceae reflects the breakup of Pangea. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **109**(20), 7793–7798. doi:10.1073/pnas.1114319109
- Maury, E. A. (1990). Triaenonychidae Sudamericanos. VI. Tres nuevas especies del género *Nuncia* Loman 1902 (Opiliones, Laniatores). *Boletín de la Sociedad de Biología de Concepción* **61**, 103–119.
- McLoughlin, S. (2001). The breakup history of Gondwana and its impact on pre-Cenozoic floristic provincialism. *Australian Journal of Botany* **49**(3), 271–300. doi:10.1071/BT00023

- McLoughlin, S., and Kear, B. P. (2010). The Australasian Cretaceous scene. *Alcheringa* **34**(3), 197–203. doi:10.1080/03115518.2010.497264
- Mendes, A. C. (2009). Avaliação do status sistemático dos táxons supragenéricos da infra-ordem Insidiatores Loman, 1902 (Arachnida, Opiliones, Laniatores). Ph.D. Thesis, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- Mendes, A. C., and Kury, A. B. (2008). Intercontinental Triaenonychidae – the case of *Ceratomontia* (Opiliones, Insidiatores). *The Journal of Arachnology* **36**(2), 273–279. doi:10.1636/CH07-93.1
- Mortimer, N., Campbell, H. J., Tulloch, A. J., King, P. R., Stagpoole, V. M., Wood, R. A., Rattenbury, M. S., Sutherland, R., Adams, C. J., Collot, J., and Seton, M. (2017). Zealandia: Earth's hidden continent. *GSA Today* **27**(3), 27–35. doi:10.1130/GSATG321A.1
- Murienne, J., Daniels, S. R., Buckley, T. R., Mayer, G., and Giribet, G. (2014). A living fossil tale of Pangaeon biogeography. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London – B. Biological Sciences* **281**(1775), 20132648. doi:10.1098/rspb.2013.2648
- Nattier, R., Pellens, R., Robillard, T., Jourdan, H., Legendre, F., Caesar, M., Nel, A., and Grandcolas, P. (2017). Updating the phylogenetic dating of New Caledonian biodiversity with a meta-analysis of the available evidence. *Scientific Reports* **7**(1), 3705. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-02964-x
- Nguyen, L.-T., Schmidt, H. A., von Haeseler, A., and Minh, B. Q. (2015). IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **32**(1), 268–274. doi:10.1093/molbev/msu300
- Porto, W., and Pérez-González, A. (2019). Redescription of the New Zealand harvestman *Nuncia obesa obesa* (Opiliones: Laniatores: Triaenonychidae) and implications for the supposed transcontinental distribution of *Nuncia*. *The Journal of Arachnology* **47**, 370–376. doi:10.1636/0161-8202-47.3.370
- Pyron, R. A. (2014). Biogeographic analysis reveals ancient continental vicariance and recent oceanic dispersal in amphibians. *Systematic Biology* **63**(5), 779–797. doi:10.1093/sysbio/syu042
- Ritchie, A. M., Lo, N., and Ho, S. Y. W. (2017). The impact of the tree prior on molecular dating of data sets containing a mixture of inter- and intraspecific sampling. *Systematic Biology* **66**(3), 413–425.
- Rix, M. G., Edwards, D. L., Byrne, M., Harvey, M. S., Joseph, L., and Roberts, J. D. (2015). Biogeography and speciation of terrestrial fauna in the south-western Australian biodiversity hotspot. *Biological Reviews of the Cambridge Philosophical Society* **90**(3), 762–793. doi:10.1111/brv.12132
- Selden, P. A., Dunlop, J. A., Giribet, G., Zhang, W., and Ren, D. (2016). The oldest armoured harvestman (Arachnida: Opiliones: Laniatores), from Upper Cretaceous Myanmar amber. *Cretaceous Research* **65**, 206–212. doi:10.1016/j.cretres.2016.05.004
- Sharma, P. P., and Giribet, G. (2011). The evolutionary and biogeographic history of the armoured harvestmen – Laniatores phylogeny based on ten molecular markers, with the description of two new families of Opiliones (Arachnida). *Invertebrate Systematics* **25**(2), 106–142. doi:10.1071/IS11002
- Sharma, P. P., and Giribet, G. (2014). A revised dated phylogeny of the arachnid order Opiliones. *Frontiers in Genetics* **5**, 255. doi:10.3389/fgene.2014.00255
- Sharma, P. P., Baker, C. M., Cosgrove, J. G., Johnson, J. E., Oberski, J. T., Raven, R. J., Harvey, M. S., Boyer, S. L., and Giribet, G. (2018). A revised dated phylogeny of scorpions: phylogenomic support for ancient divergence of the temperate Gondwanan family Bothriuridae. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **122**, 37–45. doi:10.1016/j.ympev.2018.01.003
- Shear, W. A. (1980). A review of the Cyphophthalmi of the United States and Mexico, with a proposed reclassification of the suborder (Arachnida, Opiliones). *American Museum Novitates* **2705**, 1–34.
- Soares, H. E. M. (1968). Contribuição ao estudo dos opiliões do Chile (Opiliones: Gonyleptidae, Triaenonychidae). *Papéis Avulsos de Zoologia* **21**(27), 259–272.
- Stamatakis, A. (2014). RAXML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. *Bioinformatics* **30**(9), 1312–1313. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033
- Sutherland, R., Dickens, G. R., Blum, P., Agnini, C., Alegret, L., Asatryan, G., Bhattacharya, J., Bordenave, A., Chang, L., Collot, J., Cramwinckel, M. J., Dallanave, E., Drake, M. K., Etienne, S. J. G., Giorgioni, M., Gurnis, M., Harper, D. T., Huang, H. H. M., Keller, A. L., Lam, A. R., Li, H., Matsui, H., Morgans, H. E. G., Newsam, C., Park, Y. H., Pascher, K. M., Pekar, S. F., Penman, D. E., Saito, S., Stratford, W. R., Westerhold, T., and Zhou, X. (2020). Continental-scale geographic change across Zealandia during Paleogene subduction initiation. *Geology* **48**, 419–424. doi:10.1130/G47008.1
- Taylor, C. K. (2011). Revision of the genus *Megalopsalis* (Arachnida: Opiliones: Phalangioidea) in Australia and New Zealand and implications for phalangioid classification. *Zootaxa* **2773**, 1–65. doi:10.11646/zootaxa.2773.1.1
- Thomas, S. M., and Hedin, M. (2008). Multigenic phylogeographic divergence in the paleoendemic southern Appalachian opilionid *Fumontana deprehendor* Shear (Opiliones, Laniatores, Triaenonychidae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **46**(2), 645–658. doi:10.1016/j.ympev.2007.10.013
- Trewick, S. A., Paterson, A. M., and Campbell, H. J. (2007). Hello New Zealand. *Journal of Biogeography* **34**(1), 1–6. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2699.2006.01643.x
- Vaidya, G., Lohman, D. J., and Meier, R. (2011). SequenceMatrix: concatenation software for the fast assembly of multi-gene datasets with character set and codon information. *Cladistics* **27**(2), 171–180. doi:10.1111/j.1096-0031.2010.00329.x
- Vélez, S. (2011). Biogeography and speciation of arthropods across the Tasman Sea: *Craterostigma tasmanianus* (Chilopoda: Craterostigmomorpha: Craterostigmidae), Monoscutidae (Opiliones: Eupnoi: Phalangioidea), and Triaenonychidae (Opiliones: Laniatores). Ph.D. Thesis, Harvard University, Boston, MA, USA.
- Vélez, S., Fernández, R., and Giribet, G. (2014). A molecular phylogenetic approach to the New Zealand species of Enantiobuninae (Opiliones: Eupnoi: Neopilionidae). *Invertebrate Systematics* **28**(6), 565–589. doi:10.1071/IS14030
- Wallis, G. P., and Jorge, F. (2018). Going under down under? Lineage ages argue for extensive survival of the Oligocene marine transgression on Zealandia. *Molecular Ecology* **27**(22), 4368–4396. doi:10.1111/mec.14875
- Wei, W. (2004). Opening of the Australia–Antarctica Gateway as dated by nanofossils. *Marine Micropaleontology* **52**(1–4), 133–152. doi:10.1016/j.marmicro.2004.04.008
- Whiting, M. F., Carpenter, J. C., Wheeler, Q. D., and Wheeler, W. C. (1997). The Strepsiptera problem: phylogeny of the holometabolous insect orders inferred from 18S and 28S ribosomal DNA sequences and morphology. *Systematic Biology* **46**(1), 1–68. doi:10.1093/sysbio/46.1.1
- Wolfe, J. M., Daley, A. C., Legg, D. A., and Edgecombe, G. D. (2016). Fossil calibrations for the arthropod Tree of Life. *Earth-Science Reviews* **160**, 43–110. doi:10.1016/j.earscirev.2016.06.008
- Xie, W., Lewis, P. O., Fan, Y., Kuo, L., and Chen, M. H. (2011). Improving marginal likelihood estimation for Bayesian phylogenetic model selection. *Systematic Biology* **60**(2), 150–160. doi:10.1093/sysbio/syq085

Handling editor: Prashant Sharma