#### AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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GENER	IC REVISION OF THE FAMILY TYDEIDAE (ACARI:		
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Abstract appr			

The organotaxy of the family Tydeidae is reviewed in light of the fundamental paradigms of Grandjean. The system of designation previously used to describe the tydeid idiosoma is replaced by a notation system based on chaetotaxy and poroidotaxy. A preliminary survey of dorsal sigillotaxy also is included. The phanerotaxy of each leg segment is analyzed in depth, particularly from the standpoint of variation. The degree of fusion and muscle relationship of the interfemoral joint on leg IV is given special attention. The basic structure of gnathosoma is summarized and an interpretation of the palp phanerotaxy is presented.

Based on the results of these studies, 41 genera are proposed. Proctotydaeus Berlese 1911 sensu Fain & Evans 1966 is returned to the Tydeidae. Two genera are defined as new combinations (Proctotydaeus and Tydeus Koch 1835) while 21 others are listed as new. The genera are distributed in seven new subfamilies as follows:

Australotydeinae (Australotydeus Spain 1969); Meyerellinae (Meyerella Baker 1968); Pretydeinae (Fretydeus n. gen. and Prelorryia n. gen.); Pronematinae (Apopronematus n. gen., Homeopronematus n. gen., Metapronematus n. gen., Naudea Meyer & Rodrigues 1965, Parapronematus Baker 1965, Pausia Kuznetzov & Livshits 1972, Proctotydaeus n. comb., Pronecupulatus Baker 1965, Pronematulus Baker 1965, Pronematus Canestrini 1886 sensu Baker 1965); Triophtydeinae (Apotriophtydeus n. gen., Metatriophtydeus n. gen., Pretriophtydeus n. gen. and Teletriophtydeus n. gen.); Tydaeolinae (Aesthetydeus n. gen., Coccotydaeolus Baker 1965, Lasiotydeus Berlese 1908 sensu Baker 1965, Metatydaeolus n. gen., Microtydeus Thor 1931 sensu Baker 1965, Paratriophtydeus Baker 1966, Paratydaeolus n. gen., Primotydeus n. gen., Pseudotydeus Baker & Delfinado 1974, Tydaeolus Berlese 1910 sensu Baker 1965, Tyndareus Livshits & Kuznetzov 1972) and Tydeinae (Afrotydeus Baker 1970, Apolorryia n. gen., Eotydeus Kuznetzov 1973, Homeotydeus n. gen., Idiolorryia n. gen. Krantzlorryia n. gen., Metalorryia n. gen., Neolorryia n. gen., Orthotydeus n. gen., Perafrotydeus n. gen., Tydeus n. comb. and Tydides Kuznetzov 1975).

Eight species are described: Meyerella marshalli, Metatriophtydeus lebruni, Homeopronematus vidae, Apopronematus bakeri, Paratydaeolus lukoschusi, Metatydaeolus joannis, Paratriophtydeus coineaui, and Primotydeus strandtmanni. The study concludes with a brief discussion of the systematic position of the family.

# Application of the Study of Organotaxy to a Generic Revision of the Family Tydeidae (Acari: Actinedida).

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Henri M. André

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# APPROVE: Redacted for Privacy

Professor of Entomology in charge of major

# Redacted for Privacy

Head of the Department of Entomology

# Redacted for Privacy

Dean of Graduate School

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APPLICATION OF THE STUDY OF ORGANOTAXY

TO A GENERIC REVISION OF THE FAMILY

TYDEIDAE (ACARI: ACTINEDIDA).

CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION

#### A. The nature and necessity of paradigms

"No natural history can be interpreted in the absence of at least some implicit body of intertwined theoretical and methodological belief that permits selection, evaluation and criticism" (Kuhn, 1970:16). In other words, as summarized by Bertalanffy, science is not simply an accumulation of facts. Facts become knowledge only when they are incorporated into a conceptual system. This body of belief or this conceptual system, called a "paradigm" by Kuhn, may be considered as a basic feature of scientific activity. Kuhn analyzes some consequences of the absence of a paradigm:

- all the facts that could possibly pertain to the development of a given science are likely to seem equally relevant;
- early fact-gathering is a nearly random activity and is usually restricted to the wealth of data that is readily at hand;

- this sort of fact-collecting produces a morass.

This above description by Kuhn is not unlike the situation that prevailed in acarology some years ago and that in fact is still appropriate in several taxa, including the family Tydeidae. Some examples from tydeid literature clearly illustrate Kuhn's remarks. The ornamentation of the cuticle is generally considered to be as relevant as chaetotaxy in distinguishing genera. The chaetotactic formula generally given for leg I of the tydeid subfamily Pronematinae is wrong; only the eupathidia (which are very long) and an easily seen seta have been taken into account. However, a preliminary study of leg I of a variety of tydeids showed that, in addition, setae (u) were always present, even in the Pronematinae. Such inconsistencies produce great confusion. As pointed out by Strandtmann (1967), it is sometimes difficult to know to what genus a species belongs. As a case in point, the genus Lorryia as defined by Baker (1965) illustrates several chaetotactic formulae, some of which are common to other genera.

Therefore, following a period of time devoted to accumulating materials, and after the first syntheses by Baker (1965) and Kuznetzov (1973), I felt it was time to review the Tydeidae. I decided that such a revision must be based on elaborate morphological observations; since any description must be partial, the typical natural history study often omits just those details that later scientists find to be sources of important information (Kuhn, 1970: 16). In addition, it was decided that such a revision must rest on established paradigms in order to avoid an unmethodical and fruitless approach. Before

defining these paradigms, it should be emphasized that a paradigm is not a rule and that scientists can agree in their <u>identification</u> of a paradigm without agreeing on, or even attempting to produce, a full <u>interpretation</u> or <u>rationalization</u> of it. "Lack of a standard interpretation or of an agreed reduction to rules will not prevent a paradigm from guiding research" (Kuhn, 1970: 44).

#### B. A fundamental paradigm

Evolution cannot be considered as a random phenomenon; on the contrary, evolution is supposed to be governed by laws and to follow a strategy. This point of view is well expressed by the famous Simon's fable of the two watchmakers (1965). Briefly, two watchmakers, Hora and Tempus, make watches consisting of a thousand parts each. Hora assembles his watches part by part whereas Tempus puts together sub-assemblies of ten parts each, assembling these into a larger sub-assembly of a hundred units; ten of these larger sub-assemblies make the whole watch. At each disturbance, the watch Hora tries to assemble falls to pieces and he has to start over again. On the contrary, if there is a disturbance, Tempus has to repeat at most nine assembling operations, and possibly none at all. At a ratio of one disturbance in a hundred operations, Hora will take 4000 times longer to assemble a watch than will Tempus. This fable illustrates the properties of hierarchial systems. These are the systems that have time to advance and are characterized by incomparably greater stability and resilience. Evolution follows such a strategy (Koestler, 1972).

The general properties of an element of such a hierarchy - called holon by Koestler or integron by Jacob (1970) - are closely developed by Koestler (1967). Some of them are fundamental and deserve some comment here.

- "l. Functional holons are governed by fixed sets of rules and display more or less flexible strategies.
- 2. The rules referred to as the system's canon - determine its invariant properties, its structures, configuration and/ or functional pattern.
- 3. While the canon defines the permissible steps in the holon's activity, the strategic selection of the actual step among permissible choices is guided by the contingencies of the environment.
- 4. The canon determines the rules of the game, strategy decides the course of the game.
- 5. The evolutionary process plays variations on a limited number of canonical themes. The constraints imposed by the evolutionary canon are illustrated by the phenomena of homology, homeoplasy, parallelism, convergence and the <u>loi</u> <u>du balancement</u>" (Koestler, 1967).

The goal of Grandjean was no doubt to try to understand the <u>canons</u>, the laws which guide the evolution of mites. In logic, such canons are expressed in terms of <u>relations</u>. A relation between sets  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ , ...  $A_n$ , is a subset of the cartesian product  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ :

$$R_{1 \leq i \leq n} (A_i) \subseteq X_{1 \leq i \leq n} A_i$$

A good example is offered in figure 5 (chapter II, C). Set  $A_1$  includes six aggenital elements and  $A_2$  comprises six genital elements. Thus, the cartesian product involves 36 possible combinations, among which only a few really exist. Consequently, there is a relation between these two sets which could be expressed as a law. The work of Grandjean contains numerous observations which lead to formulating such rules or canons.

The purpose of this work is to gain an understanding of the rules governing the evolutionary behavior and strategies of the holon called Tydeidae. Such an undertaking is of course impossible without the help of an adequate methodology, and without having recourse to some of the concepts already expressed by Grandjean.

#### C. Methodology

Methodology in an acarological study essentially consists of acute observation of the object under study in three-dimentional view, and its eventual description by graphic processes or by formulae. The iconographic description of a mite should be devised as a drafting as well as a drawing. "Orthographic projections are views of an object taken at right angles to the object and arranged in specific relative positions on the drawing" (Bethune, 1977). Surely, it is not necessary to describe a mite in such a way. However, from the six rossible orthogonal views of an object (front, top, bottom right side, left side and rear views), three are usually used: the top view (i.e. a dorsal view), the bottom view (i.e. a ventral view), and a lateral view. These views have to be orthogonal, which means that, in the case of a dorsal view, the symmetry plane must be vertical or, practically speaking, that a pair of homologous organs must stay in the same horizontal plane. Even if the three orthogonal views are not reproduced in the published description, the study of a mite from these three points of view (and sometimes from intermediate points of view) remains the only way to understand a mite as a threedimensional object.

These three views are useful for understanding the morphology of the body, but the study of appendages is a bit more complex. In this case, one has to distinguished, in addition to the dorsal and ventral views, the two side views. The right and left lateral views are not homologous in that a leg is divided by a pseudosymmetrical plane and the prime face (') may be distinguish from the second face ("). The prime side is the anterior aspect of the appendage when it is perpendicular to the body. A given aspect of an appendage or part of an appendage will also be spoken of as the paraxial  $(\pi)$  or the antiaxial  $(\alpha)$  face depending on whether the side is towards the body or not. Lastly, as a segment or a leg may be considered a cylinder, they may be studied in end view. This allows one to know exactly where the setal insertions lie. Indeed, it may be difficult to decide whether a seta is antiaxial or paraxial in lateral view. Moreover the end view is sometimes the only way to know how many setae arise from the end of minute terminal segments, such as the palp tarsus.

It goes without saying that a description of the type described above requires good examination techniques. The observation of mites in cavity slides has been described previously (Grandjean, 1949; Travé, 1965; van der Hammen, 1972; Coineau, 1974). As emphasized by Coineau (1974), this is the best method for morphological studies with a microscope. The medium used is lactic acid, which provides the advantages of low refraction index, low volatily, reasonably good preservation qualities and miscibility in water in any proportion. Permanent slides

present many disadvantages. Specimens flattened in permanent mounts are often impossible to use in a critical morphological study. It is difficult or even impossible to understand a three-dimensional object when it is observed only from one point of view. For example, the paraproctal suckers of Tydeidae, which are sometimes very well developed, have almost always been "forgotten" because they are difficult to discern in dorsal or ventral views. Furthermore, an ideal orientation for making valid comparisons is rarely obtained in a permanent mount. In fact, getting a good orientation even in a cavity slide is sometimes difficult and it often takes more time to put the specimen in the right position than to draw it. Some details are visible only from a very special angle; e.g. the famulus of Pseudotydeus perplexus (figure 25B). Lastly, some details are difficult to see in permanent mounts even when the orientation is satisfactory. For example, the palp solenidion of genus Meyerella could not be discerned in a permanent slide, so that it was necessary to transfer the specimen to a cavity slide. The refraction index of the medium is very important here, especially when working at the resolution limit of the microscope. Some eupathidia also are difficult to see in permanent slides, often because of poor orientation and the transparency of the structure. Lastly, dissecting a specimen is sometimes the only one way to check a feature. For instance, the palp is difficult to study in end view on a whole specimen because other appendages tend to confuse the view.

Working with a light microscope was found to present some difficulties during the course of this study. For instance, it often was difficult to verify the presence of vestigial setae with a light system. A better understanding may have been gained through use of the scanning microscope. This method was not used here for several reasons, the main one being that such a study would have to be considered secondary. Scanning microscopy is a fairly exotic technique which is not generally used for "routine" identification. For this reason, every observation reported in this work has been based on study with a light microscope equipped with phase contrast.

## D. Some fundamental paradigms of Grandjean

Stase and ontogeny. The concept of stase is fundamental in the work of Grandjean (1938d, 1951, 1957, 1959). It differs in basic ways from the other ontogenic concepts, such as that of "instar", for instance. The terms "instar" and "stadium" refer to an animal or to a period of its life between two successive moltings (Jones, 1978). The difference between these terms is just a matter of convention. A problem arises because words are discrete units used to describe a continuum (1), the life of an animal.

A stase is one of the successive forms through which an animal passes, these forms being different from one another by the criterion of "all or none". The change in character is emphasized, not the change of skin. In other words, a stase is an animal at any level of its ontogeny.

<sup>(1)</sup> This continuum is sensed as a series of discrete units at a particular time resolution level: a butterfly is a nymph on one day, and an image the next. But if a finer resolution level is chosen, the development is of course continuous.

As a consequence, a stase is always an instar, but not the reverse. Logically, stase is a proper subset of the set "instar".

There exists seven forms through which a mite passes (2): the egg, prelarva, larva, protonymph, deutonymph, tritonymph and adult. By definition, all but the egg are considered as stases (3). They are idionymic, which is another fundamental difference between the concepts of stase and instar.

Two particular stases were emphasized by Grandjean. Elattostasis (1957) is a stase whose mouthparts are reduced in such a way that the animal is unable to eat. Calyptostasis (1951) differs from elattostasis in that calyptostatic forms lose the appendages or at least their use, particularly the legs (4). Calyptostasis is quite common in the Insecta. A typical case is the chrysalid of a butterfly.

<sup>(2)</sup> In "mites", I include only the Actinotrichida or Acariformes. The stases found among the Parasitiformes are not homologous with the stases of Actinotrichida. In other words, a larva of Gamasida does not belong to the same ontogenic level as a larva of Tydeidae (Athias-Henriot, 1975)

<sup>(3)</sup> Grandjean excluded the egg as a stase in 1957 (Remark 11) and in 1970. Most prelarva are calyptostatic and have no chaetotaxy because they have lost their setae. An egg has no setae either, not because the egg has lost its setae but rather because chaetotaxy does not exist at this level (otherwise, it should be considered as a special calyptostasis). It is thus impossible to make any real comparison between an egg and the other forms; therefore, the egg is not considered as a stase. As pointed out by Grandjean (1957), a problem arises because the term "absence" is ambiguous. Later, "absence" will be shown to mean disappearance following presence.

<sup>(4)</sup> Once again, words are discrete units and some particular cases fall somewhere "between" calypto- and elattostasis.

The theory of "l'évolution selon l'âge". Stases, therefore are steps through ontogeny characterized by features which are discrete units, by characters of "all or none". Grandjean was interested in the relation between ontogeny (defined as a succession of steps) and phylogeny, and advanced the idea that each level of development has its own phylogeny. In other words, an animal has as many phylogenies as stases, and it is pointless to speak about THE phylogeny of a species. This is nothing less than a scientific revolution sensu Kuhn (1970) and upsets many existing interpretations. Grandjean's stase concept is closely explained in two detailed papers (1951, 1957) (5); and is summarized by van der Hammen (1964) and Coineau (1974).

One of the features of mites which intrigued Grandjean and led him to the theory of the "evolution selon l'âge" is the occurence of calyptostasis at any level of mite ontogeny. Calyptostatic inhibition occurs once or several times throughout the ontogeny, seemingly at random, between homeo- and heteromorphic stases. This special and very advanced type of evolution seems thus a stochastic process whose true meaning is not yet understood. The only consistent explanation for calyptostasis is that this very regressive state is a stase which followed its own evolution; it is not an intercalary or added state allowing a metamorphosis. Thus, the chrysalid is not a transition state between the caterpillar and the butterfly. There are two (and not one) "metamorphoses": one from the caterpillar into the chrysalid and a second from the

<sup>(5)</sup> These ideas had already been expressed in earlier papers. However, these two references are essential to understanding.

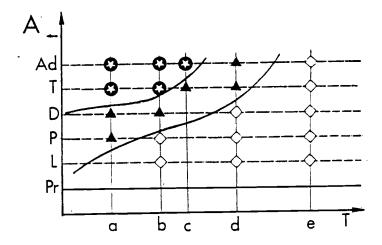
chrysalid into the adult. The old concept of a transition state between the caterpillar and the butterfly loses credence when one observes calyptostasis occurring between homeomorphic mite stases. This type of regression, or more precisely this type of inhibition (6), seems rather special and is called a "deficiency level" by Grandjean (1951).

It must be mentioned that independent phylogeny in a given stase describes a possibility, not an obligation. In other words, the phylogeny of a stase may be quite divergent from that of any other stase or the different phylogenies may be parallel and the stases homeomorphic. In any case, the conclusions will be the same, as seen below.

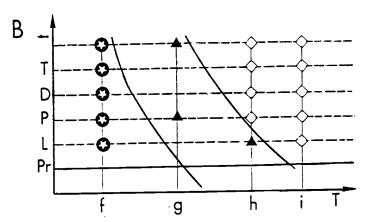
Ontogeny and phylogenies. The principle that "ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny" is a famous phylogenetic concept. Some biologists agree with it, some others do not. The following examples point out that the concepts of independent stase and of ontogenic recapitulation are essentially different.

Let P be a primitive character, i.e. a character which through phylogenic time <u>T</u>, precedes a derived or secondary character, S. There is no intermediate step between P and S and they are exclusive. What happens through ontogenic time <u>t</u>? A priori, these are three possibilities: P precedes S or P comes after S, or thirdly either P or S may be present through the entire ontogeny. The three situations are found among tydeid mites and are illustrated by ontophylogenic diagrams (Grandjean, 1957b) (figure 1).

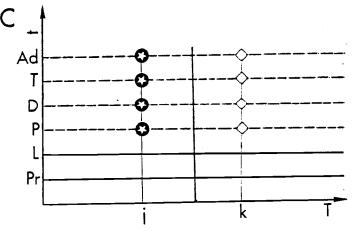
<sup>(6)</sup> Coineau (1974: 110) prefers the term "inhibition" rather than "regression".



- ② (<u>it</u>) eupathidial
- ▲ (<u>it</u>) not eupathidial
- $\Diamond$  (<u>it</u>) absent



- ② apotele I normal
- ▲ apotele with vestigial claws



- protonymphal genital acetabula present
  - ogenital acetabula absent

Figure 1: Ascendent (A), Descendent (D) and Vertical harmony (C). T = phylogenetic time; t = ontogenetic time; a = Meyerella sp.; b = Metatriophtydeus sp.; c = Teletriophtydeus sp.; d = Coccotydaeolus sp.; e = Tydeus sp.; f = Tydeus; g = Pronecupulatus sp.; h: Homeopronematus; i = Proctotydaeus sp.; j = Tydeus sp.; k = Proctotydaeus.

Diagram A refers to the tarsal setae (it) which are sometimes eupathidial. The eupathidial character is considered to be the most primitive state, while the normal setae is the derived state; the absence of the setae is a character which is still more advanced. These three states are plotted against ontogenic time, t, and the phylogenic time,  $\underline{T}$ . Lines may be drawn to separate the three states. Plotting of this data results in what Grandjean (1951) called an ascendent harmony or, since it is a regression along time  $\underline{T}$ , a retroprogression. This means that, through ontogeny, the character S precedes the character P or, briefly, that the larva is "more advanced" than the adult in this respect. This example negates the recapitulation theory of earlier authors. Diagram B refers to another 3-state character. P is represented by the presence of apotele I, the derived state is the presence of vestigial claws, and the very advanced state is the complete disappearance of the apotele. The resulting diagram is the reverse of the previous one, in that the separating lines are descendent. This is a descendent harmony or, since it is a regression along time T, a retroregression. The character P precedes the character S both through ontogeny and phylogeny, and the larva is "less advanced" than the adult in this respect.

Diagram C refers to the third possibility, and deals with the protonymphal genital acetabula. Either these genital acetabula are formed in the protonymph (larva is at a deficiency level in this respect, as is the prelarva) and are present through the entire ontogeny, or the acetabula do not appear in the protonymph, or in fact in any of the later stases (i.e. the acetabula are eustatic).

This is called a <u>vertical</u> <u>harmony</u> or, since it is a regression, a vertical regression. Proving whether a character state in Tydeidae is primitive or derived is beyond the scope of this work. A global knowledge of mites as a whole will be necessary to define the direction of evolutionary changes. The Tydeidae, as emphasized by Grandjean (1938) are well advanced mites and cannot be expected to provide in themselves further information on acarine evolution as a whole.

character, the ontogeny of a species, or the ontogenies of a group, are cut only once by the line PS (except of course when there is a dysharmony resulting from a deficiency level) (7). If several ontogenies are studied along time T and if there is no dysharmony, then the harmony remains of the same type. Hence, the principle of concordance in harmonic evolution which states that, if a change occurs only once through any ontogeny, then it occurs only in one way in the considered group.

<sup>(7)</sup> There are a few apparent exceptions which are explained by different orthogeneses: two different processes acts at the same time and independently at two different levels (for further particulars, see Grandjean, 1951).

#### CHAPTER II : IDIOSOMA

# A. Prodorsum (8) (figure 2)

The chaetotaxy of the prodorsum of Tydeidae is noteworthy in being constant. There is one pair of trichobothria (s), and three pairs of setae identified as pl, p2 and p3 by Baker (1965). However, the insertions of (pl), the most paraxial pair, vary from a position anterior to (p2) and (s) to a posterior position between and behind the bothridia. The same variation in position also appears in Ereynetidae (Fain, 1970). This criterion has never been used in systematic studies of Tydeidae. However, this movement is more important than it appears, in that it is related to the shape of the dehiscence line, S (the "Guirlande" of Thor, 1933 or the "garland" of Marshall, 1970), a linear breach in the normal striation pattern. The breach line extends around the three pairs of prodorsal setae in the immatures and may extend beyond the das furrow. When setae (pl) are in an anterior position. the line is recurved. However, when setae (pl) move posteriorly, the line follows the movement and becomes procurved in its paraxial portion. In other words, the prodorsum may be referred to as procurved or recurved depending on this shape. Anyway, the dehiscence line of Tydeidae is of prodorsal type (Coineau, 1974).

Only one anomaly was noticed in the prodorsal setation

<sup>(8)</sup> This area is still referred to as the propodosoma by several authors. However, following the theory of Grandjean and his terminology, the term prodorsum is preferred.

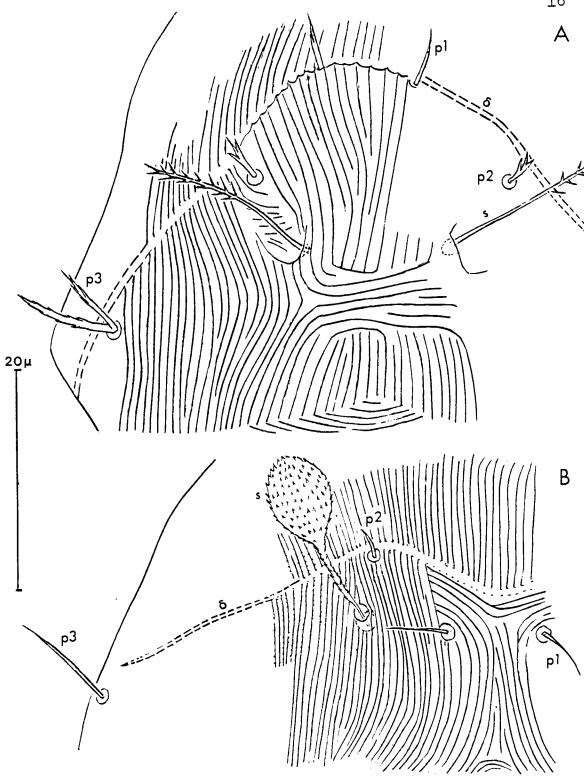


Figure 2: Prodorsal types: Prodorsum recurved (A) (deutonymph of <u>Meyerella marshalli</u>), and procurved (B) (larva of <u>Paratydaeolus lukoschusi</u>).

In a <u>Proctotydaeus schistocercae</u> nymph, one setae <u>p</u> disappeared and the other moved just onto the sagittal plane. The striation which usually demarcates two clear circular areas around the setal insertions demarcates only one of them in this specimen. I will refer later to such a phenomenon (disappearance of a seta followed by the movement of the remaining element of the pair onto the sagittal plane) as a bisynthesis.

In some other cases, the pair (p2) disappears (Parapronematus acaciae, Parapronematus citri) or is reduced (9) (Parapronematus geminus).

The shape of the bothridia may be more or less complex. In some cases, it is a mere pit (as in Triophtydeinae); on the other hand, the bothridia may present a more complex shape (as in Coccotydaeolus...). The trichobothridial setae may be simple, plumose, or clublike... (figures 20C and D; 21D; 23C).

Lastly, Tydeidae may have some eye-spots, generally silver (three in Metatriophtydeus and Meyerella, two in Tydeus, Lasiotydeus...) or they may be absent (Homeo-pronematus). This character is little used as these "eyes" disappear when the specimens are cleared. The eye pigment is internal.

<sup>(9)</sup> It is heuristic to distinguish the diminution of a seta ("amoindrissement" sensu Coineau, 1974) which leads to a persistent state, from the reduction ("nanisme" sensu Coineau, 1974) which leads to the relatively quick disappearance of a seta.

# B. Dorsal face (10) of the opisthosoma (figure 3)

Following Coineau's findings in the Caeculidae, the basic chaetotactic network of the dorsal face of a Tydeid should include ten pairs of dorsal setae plus the setae h and ps. Coineau found that Caeculidae have three lyrifissures; however, the tydeid genus Australotydeus has four pairs of lyrifissures, nine setae on the dorsal side, plus one pair at the posterior tip and one pair in the anal area. To name the first lyrifissuresis easy and partly already done by Marshall (1970): from front to back are successively met ia, im and ip.

If we compare the network comprised of the chaetotaxy and the poroidotaxy of <u>Australotydeus</u>, it is clear that a seta pair is missing between <u>im</u> and <u>ip</u>, i.e. the third pair of setae from the lateral series. Thus there are two pairs of anterior setae <u>dl</u> and <u>ll</u>; the lyrifissures <u>ia</u>, <u>d2</u> and <u>l2</u>, <u>im</u>, <u>d3</u>, <u>ip</u>, <u>d4</u> and <u>l4</u> and lastly <u>d5</u> and <u>l5</u> (l1). Setae <u>l3</u> are not present.

This interpretation is all the easier to advance as a lateral view shows that the setae have kept the primitive and theoretical alignment. Australotydeus is thus orthotactic.

If <u>Australotydeus</u> is compared to all the other Tydeidae, two features may be noted:

<sup>(10)</sup> A difference is made between the dorsal side - which is the area visible from above, i.e. in dorsal view - and the dorsal face which is the superior area from the anus to the mouth parts. A part of the dorsal face may not be visible in dorsal view.

<sup>(11)</sup> The setal nomenclature is that of Baker (1965). Homologies with Coineau's system are easy to make.

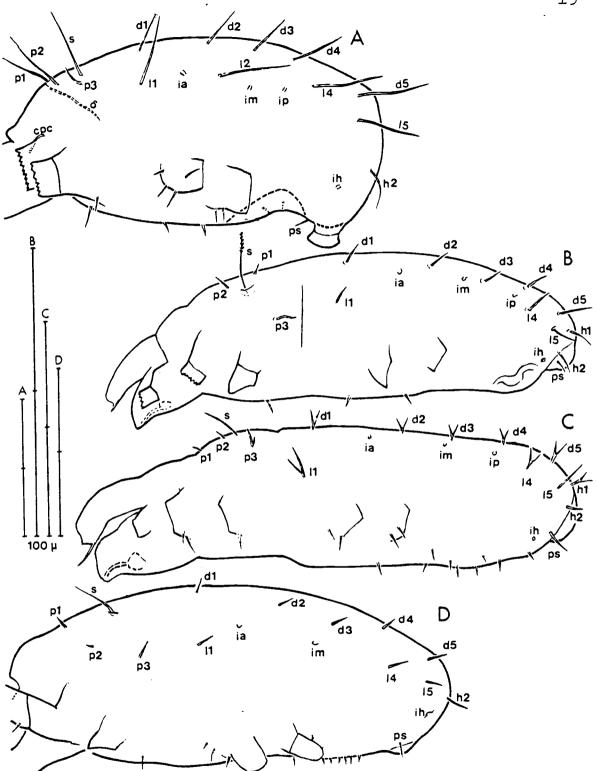


Figure 3: lateral habitus of Tydeidae: Australotydeus kirstenae (tritonymph) (A), Microtydeus sp. (B), Meyerella marshalli (tritonymph) (C), Tydeus tridactylus (D). Some ventral setae are not represented.

- 1°) the disappearance of 12 in all genera except for Australotydeus. Indeed, there are no setae between is and im, which are always present,
- 2°) the disappearance of <u>ip</u> in several general (Tydeus...).

Except for these two features, the organotaxy remains remarkably constant throughout the family.

Only one pair of setae is found between <u>d5-15</u> and the anal area in <u>Australotydeus</u> and certain other genera (<u>Tydeus...</u>), while two pairs are seen in many other genera. These setae may only be (<u>h1</u>) and (<u>h2</u>) of segment <u>H</u>. It seems that (<u>h1</u>) are weak setae; its bisynthesis has been observed in a nymph of <u>Prototydaeus schistocercae</u> (<u>12</u>). In a few cases (<u>Idiolorryia macquillani</u> and cf. <u>macquillani</u>, <u>Apolorryia congoensis...</u>) both (<u>h1</u>) and (<u>h2</u>) disappear.

The setae of the anal area often appear at the larval stase, which means that they are not anal setae but, by definition, pseudanal setae, (ps). In a few cases, these setae are absent at the adult stase (Parapronematus) or only at the larval stase (Proctotydaeus schistocercae) (13). This leads to the question as to whether there is another segment posterior to the pseudanal segment in Tydeidae. When working on mites with heavy sclerites, the answer to such a question may be obvious. Unfortunatelly, the idiosoma of Tydeidae is without a shield and there are no setae posterior to (ps). It is therefore difficult to determine wether a new segment appears in the protonymph.

<sup>(12)</sup> This seems coincide with the opinion of Coineau (1974) about the origin of hs in Caeculidae.

<sup>(13)</sup> This setae is present in the deutonymph, unfortunatelly, the protonymph is still unknown.

Nevertheless, two elements provide a possible solution to this question. The first is the presence of paraproctal suckers in virtually all Tydeidae. These suckers are particularly well developed in Australotydeus, Proctotydaeus schistocercae, and Parapronematus. They seem to arise from the adamal segment, inasmuch as such suckers do not exist in the larva. A fine example is provided by Proctotydaeus schistocercae where, in the larva, the anal aperture is ventral and bordered by two striated lips. In the nymphs, the anal aperture is terminal and bordered by the suckers. The presence of striated lips in the larva and their substitution by suckers whose integument is thin and smooth parallels the situation observed in Apopronematus, Paratydaeolus, Microtydeus, Metatriophtydeus and Homeopronematus. A more or less accentuated movement toward the terminus of the idiosoma goes with this substitution. The only known exception to this scenario is the larva of Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus, which has smooth anal lips. This suggests that the pseudanal segment could participate in the formation of the suckers. The other element of importance in determining whether a postpseudanal segment is present is the location of the setae (ps). In the genus Tydeus, where paraproctal lips are striated in every stase, (ps) of the larva are on the lips themselves. At the protonymphal stase, a movement away from the paraproctal lips is observed. Such a migration also occurs in the other tydeid genera which have suckers. The presence of paraproctal suckers, and the position of (ps), suggest the presence of an adamal segment. According to this interpretation, the regressive evolution of Tydeidae is such that there would be a four-level paraproctal atrichosy in most Tydeidae, with a five-level

atrichosy occuring in Proctotydaeus schistocercae.

The role of the lyrifissures is not clear. They are presently considered to be proprioreceptors (Krantz, 1978). Their structure in the Tydeidae has been particularly well studied in Australotydeus kirstenae, a large species, but is the same throughout the Tydeidae. Each lyrifissure consists of a small socket, oval at the surface, parrowing into a funnel and ending in a circle pore. The lateral aspects of the socket seem to be reinforced. Each integumental striation breaks down in neightborhood of a lyrifissure, demarcating at both ends of the lyrifissure a kind of channel with no striation. This could suggest an excretory role, but their position supports the hypothesis of a proprioreceptor as they are often located in folds (lyrifissure ia in a furrow smd of Tydaeolus is an example) or in an area which is easily folded when the mite is mounted. This sometimes makes it difficult to locate them. In addition the lyrifissures are oriented in the same direction as the integumental fold. The two "channels" which extend the lyrifissure, as well as the lyrifissure itself, could be interpreted as a weak line allowing a degree of folding and the concommitant perception of this movement.

Another noteworthy element of organotaxy is the sigillotaxy. Once again, the absence of sclerites poses a problem and makes such a study difficult. Nevertheless some sigilla are fairly obvious in some "Lorryia" and have been referred to as "rosettes" by Baker (1965) and by Marshall (1970). A pair of large sigilla is located near the das furrow anterior to dl: ma. This sigillum is connected with two large muscles which extend ventrally and a bit laterally to the venter. Two sigilla are found

between dl and d2. The anterior one, mbl, is quite indistinct and bears only one muscle which is inserted on the ventral side. The posterior sigillum, mb2, is a true apodeme on which two large muscles originate. This apodeme is the "rosette" of Baker (op. cit.), and usually observed; it extends paraxially into a scale. From there originate three bundles of muscles extending anteriorly to das and a second group of bundles extending posteriorly. Another indistinct sigillum, mc, exists between d2 and d3. An important sigillum, md, is located between d3 and d4and is connected with two large muscles. The second longitudinal bundles are attached in the sagittal area mds, from which point a third pair extends posteriorly to mes. This pair of sigilla is located almost sagittally between  $\underline{d4}$  and  $\underline{d5}$  and also bears muscles extending to the anal area. Another sigillum, me, is more antiaxial and is connected with a muscle extending to a sclerite located in the posterior area of the genitalia. These observations have been carried out on a specimen of Tydeinae (genus Eotydeus ) in which muscles were preserved, and in some other species where only sigilla were visible. The muscles of a Meyerella specimen also were observed and were found to exhibit some differences from the Tydeinae described above. For example, a pair of muscle was observed between d5 and hl which had never been noted in the Tydeinae (Eotydeus).

The posterior tip of the idiosoma may exhibit some other features. There exists in <u>Pseudotydeus perplexus</u> a kind of "tail" overhanging an inward fold where the anus opens and where (<u>ps</u>) are located. This fold exhibits some structures difficult to define and has been mistaken for genitalia in the past. The same fold with the same

kind of structure has also been seen in <u>Homeopronematus</u> but on a smaller scale. In <u>Pausia magdalenae</u>, the anal area is located on a kind of terminal cone. In addition to the two paraproctal suckers, there is a third one located posteriorly at the tip of the anal cone. These structures seem typical of the Pronematinae and likely reflect some particular adaptation, which should receive more attention in the future.

In summation, the dorsal idiosomal paleotaxy of Tydeidae is as follows:

chaetotaxy: <u>dl</u>, <u>ll</u>, <u>d2</u>, <u>l2</u>, <u>d3</u>, <u>d4</u>, <u>l4</u>, <u>d5</u>, <u>l5</u>, <u>h1</u>, <u>h2</u>, <u>ps</u>.

poroidotaxy : ia, im, ip, ih.

Hence, no tydeid mite is paleotrichial since Australotydeus has only one setae h and 12 is missing in every other known tydeid; i.e. they are all PROTOTRICHIAL The setae likely to be lost are 12, hl, h2 and ps. On the other hand, most of the setae keep the same relative location and therefore tydeids are ORTHOTRICHIAL. There is no movement of 12 as previously imagined (Baker, 1965). This is important in that the basic classification of the family has previously been based on this character. The only setae which migrate are (d3) which tend to move so as to fill the gap following the disappearance of (12) and (13). However this movement never goes beyond the lyrifissure im and the setae d3 always remain behind it.

Regarding poroidotaxy, only  $\underline{ip}$  is likely to be lacking.

Lastly, it could be supposed that segment Ad still exists. In this case, it shoud be a paraproctal atrichosy derived from the protonymph or even from the larva. This interpretation, however, is without experimental support at present.

## C. Ventral face of the opisthosoma

The vental face includes primarily the genital area and the inferior part of the podosoma.

The genitalia are complex and their study is beyond the field of this work. However several misinterpretations of the genital area must be corrected. The first of these concerns what is usually called the genital aperture. It is in fact the progenital aperture and its shape may vary considerably. The true genital aperture, also called eugenital aperture, is within the progenital chamber. The chamber is vanishing in Tydeidae. Generally it has quite disappeared in the nymphs. In Australotydeus there remains only a progenital depression in the tritonymph, and in Meyerella (deuto- and tritonymphs) and Teletriophtydeus wadei (trito-), a progenital groove (14); some signs of the anterior apex of the chamber also are visible in the tritonymphs of Pretydeus <u>lwiorensis</u> and <u>P. kevani</u>. As for the adults, the chamber is closed in Triophtydeinae males and the progenital aperture is longitudinal. The chamber tends to become less and less hermetic and opens at both ends. In this condition, the aperture has the shape of a recumbent letter H. In Pausia, the progenital aperture is longitudinal but there is a movement of the fore part of the genital area (from each corner of the aperture) backward and over the lateral lips which shrink; this results in an aperture with five branches. If this

<sup>(14)</sup> This groove coincides exactly with Grandjean's theory on the formation of the progenital chamber (1969). It could be said that there remains only what Grandjean called the progenital ridges.

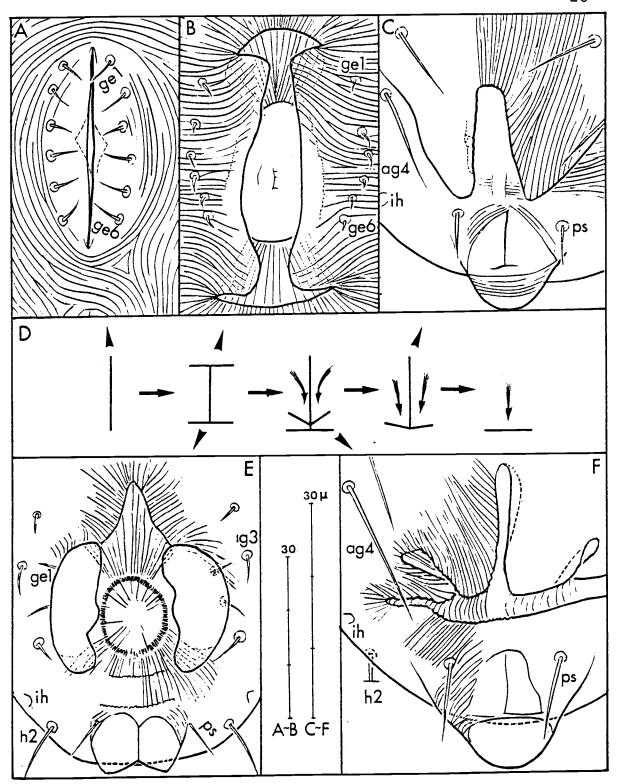


Figure 4: Genital area of Tydeidae: Tydeus tridactylus  $\sigma'(A)$  and  $\varrho(B)$ ; Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus  $\varrho(C)$ ; Tydeeolus sp  $\varrho(E)$ ; Pausia magdalenae  $\varrho(F)$ . Figure 4D is a schematic diagram expressing the evolutionary trend in the shape of the progenital aperture.

movement is magnified, it creates a T-aperture (Proctotydaeus pyrohyppeus), or even a completely transverse aperture as in Proctotydaeus schistocercae (figure 4).

A progenital aperture does not exist in immature tydeids as the progenital chamber has disappeared. This means that the genital acetabula are external, with no shelter. In fact, what is visible are not the genital acetabula themselves but rather the diachile slots (Grandjean 1938, 1969) of the invaginations within which are located the genital acetabula. The genital acetabula s. str. have been observed only in a Meyerella female and are difficult to see. These invaginations may sometimes be quite deep as in Australotydeus, but often are no more than a slight depression. Generally there are one pair of diachile slots in the protonymph and two in the deuto- and tritonymphs. In several cases, the pairs are fused into one simple aperture as in Tydeus. In Metapronematus leucohippeus only one pair of diachile slots may be seen. The number of genital acetabula - or what are usually called genital acetabula - is of course the same in the adult as the number of diachile slots in the deutonymph and tritonymph, but they are small, sheltered in the progenital chamber and not easy to see.

The genital chaetotaxy includes the eugenital (eu), genital (ge) and aggenital (ag) setae. The eugenital seate are special because they are, as usual, eupathidia and the only setae of the cis-acetabulal area (Grandjean, 1969) (15). Their number is greatly reduced in most

<sup>(15)</sup> There is however an exception. The genitals of Pseudotydeus perplexus are cis-acetabulal as far as the 8-shaped structure drawn by Baker and Delfinado (1974) are considered as genital discs.

Tydeidae and always smaller in females than in males. The maximum is six. The cis-acetabulal area seems to be shriking in the adults, if chaetotaxy may be considered as an indicator of its magnitude. In the nymphs this area is certainly vanishing as the result of fusion of the diachile slots in several genera.

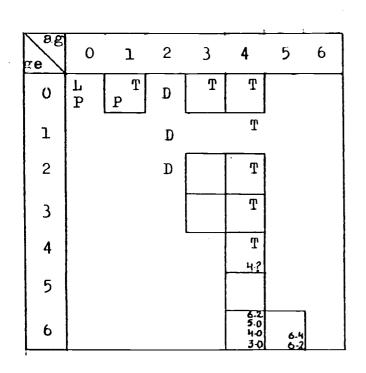
The maximum of genital setae in Tydeidae is six, and the maximum known number of aggenital setae, five. However, it could not be surprising to find a tydeid with six aggenital pairs. There exist only a small number of genital setal formulae, and these are summarized in the figure 5. This figure shows that the decrease in genital chaetotaxy is obviously not a random phenomenon in the adults or in the immatures.

The left side of the figure deals with phylogeny; the right side concerns ontogeny.

First, let us consider the ontogeny formulae. Only a few are known but nevertheless, a first interpretation seems justified. In figure 5, the formulae are ranked from the richest in setal number to the poorest. Group A includes successions starting with no genitals and only one pair of aggenitals in the protonymph (0-1). Both groups B and C start with (0-0) but group C is unique in that aggenitals are absent throughout ontogeny. special formulae are grouped in D.

Three preliminary statements on the ontogeny of genital chaetotaxy may be made:

- 10) Not all ontogenies are initiated with one pair of aggenitals (0-1); some start with (0-0) in the protonymph.
- 2°) Any setal number in an ontogenic succession is never higher than the homologous number following it.



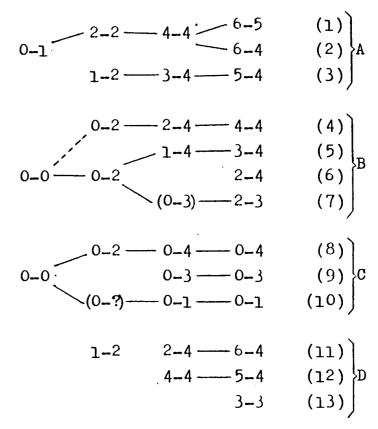


Figure 5: Left: combination of the number of genital and aggenital setae at each stase (immatures designated by abbreviations L, P, D, T; adult represented by a square including the number of eugenitals in female and male observed for each combination. Right: ontogenic formulae commencing from the protonymph.

3°) The maximum value is six pairs of genitals and five pairs of aggenitals (6-5).

A method developed by Grandjean (1961) may be used to determine whether the regression of genital chaetotaxy is eustatic or amphistatic. To apply this approach, the genital and aggenital setae will be treated together as a whole (i.e. 11 setae). If the setae are considered to be independant, and if the three preliminary remarks noted above are taken into account, it may be shown that there are 572 possible formulae for genital chaetotaxy in Tydeidae. The paucity of known formulae (see figure 5) indicates that every genital or aggenital setae may not be amphistatic. If, on the other hand, the starting succession is the first one, and if the setae are assumed eustatic and independent, then the number of possible successions is reduced to 160. Following Grandjean (1961), the more restrictive hypothesis must be chosen; i.e. the setae are assumed to be generally eustatic and there exists a priority among them.

Is this hypothesis consistent with the observations? Grandjean (op. cit.) was working with ten pairs of genital setae, and one of them was consistently present from the protonymph. In the primitive Tydeidae there are 11 pairs, but a distinction between the genitals and the aggenitals is often possible; this is an advantage.

The first succession noted at the top of the figure (Al) shows one pair of aggenitals in the protonymphal stase (agl) (16). In the deutonymph, three setal pairs appear: one aggenital ( $\underline{ag2}$ ) and two genitals ( $\underline{ge2}$ ',  $\underline{ge2}$ "). In the tritonymph, four additional setae appear: two aggenitals

<sup>(16)</sup> This is an ontogenic notation, and not a designation based on location.

(ag3', ag3'') and again two genitals (ge3', ge3''). Lastly in the adult appear three new setae: one aggenital (ag4) and once again two genitals (ge4', ge4''). This succession is met only in Meyerellinae and in most Triophtydeinae.

The second succession (A2) is similar to the first, the only one difference being the disappearance of <u>ag4</u> (which consequently should be considered the weakest pair).

The third succession (A3) differs from the second in the disappearance of ge2 (ge2' or ge2") Hence, ge2 is stronger than ag4 and the eustasy hypothesis is consistent with this group of three ontogenies (group A).

In group B, only one ontogeny is known in its entirety (B5). A stase is missing in formula B7 and B4 and three in B6. Setae <u>agl</u> disappear in group B, but there are two aggenitals in the deutonymph. One is <u>ag2</u> and the second can only be <u>agl</u> which is thus delayed in appearance. The amphistasis hypothesis applies to <u>agl</u>. Moreover, the second setae <u>ge2</u> also disappears. The sequel of development is normal in the formula B4. The priority list becomes (<u>ge2'</u>, <u>ge2'</u>, <u>ag4</u>) with <u>agl</u> delayed to the deutonymph.

Formula B5 differs from B4 in the disappearance of one ge3. The priority list becomes (ge3', ge2', ge2', ag4) with agl delayed.

The last two formulae of group B unfortunately are incomplete. These formulae likely imply the disappearance of the second <u>ge3</u> and lastly of one <u>ag3</u>. The priority list should be (<u>ag3', ge3', ge3', ge2', ge2', ag4</u>).

Group C is unique and quite homogenous. It is characterized by the complete disappearance of the genital setae followed by the loss of the aggenitals. All pronematine tydeids belong to this group.

Group D includes only special cases. Formula Dll is similar to formula A2, but the delay in appearance of one ge2 and one ge3 must be taken into account. Formula Dl2 is doubtful because <a href="Pretydeus lwiorensis">Pretydeus lwiorensis</a> has too many vertitions (cft. § about this genus). Formula Dl3 is obviously too poor to establish relationships.

In conclusion, the number of ontogenic successions in tydeid genital chaetotaxy is low, but it is likely that much remains to be discovered. However, it may be said that the chaetotaxy of the genital area is primarily eustatic; some setae are amphistatic and only debyed in appearance. The complete disappearance of the genitals is noteworthy among Pronematinae. However, it is not surprising since the primitive pair of progenital lips on which genital setae are always located, are vanishing in this group. The shortening of the progenital lips appears to be a general phenomenon among Tydeidae and even seems to precede the disappearance of the genital setae. Shortened lips with a maximum of setae do exist, but not entire lips with few setae. On the other hand, it is premature at this time to finalize ontogenic priorities.

The left portion of figure 5 deals with phylogeny. It illustrates that, as a whole, eugenitals are the weakest (although they are eupathidia). The matrix shows two groups of formulae separated by a gap ((1-4) does not exist in adults). This breach separates Pronematinae (which lose all genital setae with the disappearance of the progenital lips) from the other Tydeidae in that other tydeids do not go through as drastic a regression of the progenital lips and genital setae. However, the aggenitals commonly illustrate a trend toward loss of the aggenitals, a situation approaching the primitive deutonymphal formula

The genital setae are likely idionymic, as are the aggenitals. However, the homologies are difficult to establish (17) although vertitions which are frequent in this area may reveal some trends. An example is offered by Paratriophtydeus coineaui. In this species, the nine males studied have four pairs (4+4) of genital setae. Among the 20 females studied, 14 specimens have three pairs of genital setae (3+3), five have three pairs of genital setae on one side and four on the other side (4+3), and only one has four setae on each progenital lip (4+4). This means that the appearance frequency of four ge on a progenital lip of a female is 0.175. Hence, it is easy to show that the frequency distributions of the three formulae (4+4), (4+3) and (3+3) coincide with a random distribution. This is a basic characteristic of a vertition as defined by Grandjean (1972) who also developed a probability approach to the phenomenon. In females with a heterogenous formula, the two posterior pairs of ge are opposite one another whereas the third seta on a lip is on a level with the anterior pair of the opposite lip. On one specimen, the two anterior setae of a four setae alignment share the same basis and have a common root, both of which are larger than usual (18). The tritonymph of Pretydeus lwiorensis has only five ge; the

<sup>(17)</sup> This is the reason why a designation system is used to name the setae. Agl merely means that an aggenital setae is the first of the alignment, and does not entail any homology between different species or stases.

<sup>(18)</sup> This has also been observed in other species where two genitals share the same basis but keep their own root. With the shortening of the progenital lips, one may imagine a sequence in which the genital setae converge and share a common base, and finally share a common root.

unpaired element is anterior and very much undersized. This suggests that the anterior pair of ge disappear first. However, the process could be more complex; in Teletriophtydeus wadei male for instance, setae ge are plumose except for the extreme anterior and posterior pairs, which are smooth. This could be interpreted as a sign of weakness in these setae.

As for the aggenital setae, the process seems to be different. When a specimen with four (ag) is compared with one having two (ag), the two missing pairs are obviously the posterior ones. However, in a tritonymph of Apopronematus, it was noted that there are only seven ag because of a vertitionel absence of one of the four anterior ag. This suggests that the priority list in the aggenital alignment is different from the list of the genital alignment.

As might be expected, the genital area offers the primary characters for distinguishing males from females (19). The shape of the progenital lips often varies between sexes as does genital chaetotaxy. The eugenital setae are always less numerous in females than in males. The genital setae have a different shape in males and females of Pretriophtydeus tilbrooki. There are three pairs of genitals in female Paratriophtydeus and four in males. However, based on observations on P. coineaui, this evolution is vertitional. A different genital chaetotaxy between females and males is also met in Homeopronematus. Here, the females have four (ag) whereas males have only one (ag). Such a regression entails a sexual dimorphism

<sup>(19)</sup> Sexual dimorphism also is expressed in secondary characters. Males usually are smaller than females and may have an excrescence on femur IV or distinctively shaped empodia and paraproctal suckers.

in the tritonymph which has either four  $(\underline{ag})$  (female tritonymph) or only one  $(\underline{ag})$  (20).

The ventral side of the podosoma is difficult to interpret. As no precise boundary exists between the ventral or sternal area and the coxae, this area will be called the coxisternal or epimeral area, and its setae will be referred to as coxisternal or epimeral setae. The paleotrichous formula of the tydeid venter is (3-1-4-3). In the adults, there are only two other formulae: (3-1-3-3) or (3-1-4-2). This means that either seta 3d or seta 4c is missing, but never both together. The 3-1-3-3 formula is found in Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae, and the 3-1-4-2 formula in Pronematinae and Tydeinae. The basic chaetotaxy is (3-1-2-(0)) in every species studied. From that, three ontogenies exist:

$$(3-1-2-0)$$
— $(3-1-3-2)$ — $(3-1-3-3)$  (a)  
 $(3-1-2)$ — $(3-1-3-0)$ — $(3-1-4-2)$ — $(3-1-4-3)$  (b)  
 $(3-1-4-2)$  (c)

The first ontogeny (a) is unique because a suppression exists on the third metameron from the protonymph to the adult. The two other ontogenies (b and c) are quite similar, differing only in the presence or absence of <u>4c</u> in the tritonymph and adult. The coxisternal area is also the site for the paired Claparède organs in the larva. These organs have been located in a <u>Tydeus</u> species and in <u>Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus</u>. Each consists of a small and obscure depression in the antiaxial area of the posterior edge of the epimere I, near <u>1b</u>. As organs have been seen in the advanced subfamilies Tydeinae and Pronematinae it may be supposed that they exist throughout the family.

<sup>(20)</sup> In fact, the only one "male" tritonymoh observed during the course of this study has only a single ag.

Another feature of the coxisternum are the "coxal organs" found by Karg (1973) in several Tydeinae and likely to be a specific character in that genus. Coxal organs exist in all known Tydeinae, Prototydeinae and in Australotydeus, as paired microprotuberances on epimere I. Such a character has not been found in the other Tydeidae.

#### CHAPTER III : LEGS

Legs generally comprise six segments in Tydeidae. These are the trochanter, femur, genu, tibia, tarsus and apotele (21). In some genera, femur IV is composed of a basi- and a telofemur. Following the introductory statements to this section, a paragraph will be devoted to each leg segment, beginning with the most distal.

The setiform organs of the legs are idionymic but different migrations of the setae make difficult the establishment of homologies. Therefore a designation system — or descriptive nomenclature — is considered appropriate for all segments but the tarsus where a notation system is possible. Two basic concepts will be applied to this data:

- 1°) Grandjean's parallel homology law and conformity
   to this law,
- 2°) the verticil theory.

Grandjean (1961: 216) made a distinction between the parallel homology law which is an hypothesis based on an archetype (i.e. on a primitive position where each segment is supposed to be identical on the four legs), and the conformity to this law, which deals with the evolution i.e. with derived characters. The conformity may be entire or partial, it does not matter. From some of the preliminary observations, it might be worthwhile to study the conformity to the law proposed by Grandjean as it applies to the Tydeidae. For instance, genual, III and IV

<sup>(21)</sup> According to van der Hammen (1977), Actinotrichida do not have coxae.

of Pretydeinae are nude. This parallel regression is a good sign of conformity.

The second concept is based on the assumed presence of five setal whorls or verticils on the legs of Tydeidae. The designations used (one dorsal,  $\underline{d}$ ; two laterals,  $\underline{l'}$  and  $\underline{l''}$ ; two ventrals,  $\underline{v'}$  and  $\underline{v''}$ ) imply this assumption which, however is debatable. The setae found in a given segment of a tydeid leg could belong to different primitive verticils, as clearly indicated at least for the femora.

# A. Apotele (Figure 6)

The apotele is a free segment comprising a basal sclerite which represents the remnant of the body of this segment, two claws and an empodium (comprising at times a third unpaired claw) which are nothing more than specialized setae (Grandjean, 1941), and muscles originating in the preceding segment, i.e. the tarsus.

The basal sclerite may be located by means of three adjacent well sclerotized structures. Two are lateral and constitute the cotyloid cavities ( $\cot$ ) which are connected with the condylophores ( $\pm \cdot$ ph.). The third is found proximal and ventral to the empodial root.

Because of their setal derivation, lateral claws (22) and the empodium are birefringent and have a root and a development (23) similar to that of a seta. The lateral

<sup>(22)</sup> The french word "ongle" used by Grandjean is translated as "claw". The set of three "ongles" is called "griffe" by Grandjean. In french, a distinction is made between "griffe" (=claw) and "ongle" (=nail) depending on whether the structure is innervated by a muscle or not.

<sup>(23)</sup> The development of a claw has been followed in several larvae, beginning with their formation in the prelarval anoderm. Initially, they are, like a seta, very clear and

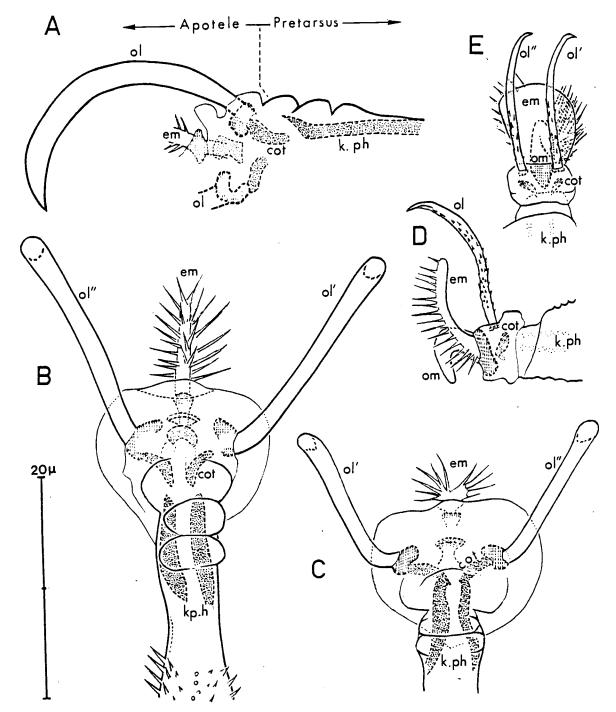


Figure 6: Apotele. Proctotydaeus schistocercae: lateral (A) and dorsal views (B) of apotele IV of a male, dorsal view of apotele II of a tritonymph (C). Pretydeus lwiorensis: lateral (D) and dorsal views (E) of apotele I of a tritonymph.

claws are more or less hooked and often have small teeth on the lower face. In <u>Meyerella</u>, they are setiform and look serrate. The third unpaired element becomes what is usually called an empodium, i.e. a padlike structure with ventral rows of very thin filaments. The empodium has a root from wich arises a rather large excrescence which expands into a real claw in some genera or species like the "true" claws; it is birefringent.

The cotyloid cavities are connected with two condylophores which are very much developed in Pronematinae These condylophores are less distinctive in the other tydeid subfamilies. The basic structure coincides with that of Caeculidae (Coineau, 1974) or Camisia segnis (Grandjean, 1941) and is the same on each leg except in Pronematinae. Pronematinae are interesting because anotele I is very much reduced or even lost. Such a phenomenon is known in some other actinedid families and has been studied extensively by Grandjean (1966) in two species of Staurobatidae (Oribatida). As in the latter family, two steps in regression of the apotele have been observed in Tydeidae. The first step is seen in some adults of the genera Naudea, Pausia and Pronecupulatus as well as in larvae of Metapronematus and Homeopronematus. Only the larva of Homeopronematus was studied in depth because it alone was prepared in lactic acid. The size of the apotele is reduced but the empodium remains obvious. A close study shows that, in addition to the empodium, every element of a normal apotele is present: the two lateral claws which are vestigial, the basilar sclerite, and even the condylophores. Therefore, as in the oribatid

<sup>...</sup> with no root. In Oribatida, claws are subject to vertitions (Grandjean, 1961).

Staurobates schusteri, the apotele is assumed to have retained its mobility. The major difference when compared to the usual leg I of tydeids is the great development of the tarsial eupathidia, exactly as in Staurobatidae. The second step in regression of the apotele is the complete disappearance of the segment. This is associated with the dissapearance of the condylophores belonging to tarsus I as in Stauroma cephalotum. The tarsal eupathidia are again more slender than usual.

Grandjean (1966) advanced an interesting hypothesis dealing with the phenomenon of regression. He referred to it as "palpian evolution". Where the apotele drops out, no new organ seems to appears on tarsus I, but a substantial lengthening of the existing eupathidia is noticed. According to Grandjean, this lengthening precedes and even "causes" the loss of the apotele, which becomes quite unable to assume its usual function.

Lastly, the few immatures known suggest that the regressive evolution of the apotele is of a descendent harmony type (figure 1B).

## B. Tarsus (figure 7)

The phanerotaxy of the tarsus is the most complex of all the leg segments particularly that of tarsus I. However, the homologies are easy to establish at the adult stase since each setiform organ retains its fixed location.

The adult chaetotaxy of tarsus I includes as many as 12 setae, of which eight may be eupathidial. The most primitive pattern is found in <u>Meyerella</u> which has 12 setae, of which eight are eupathidia. The 12 other chaetotactic

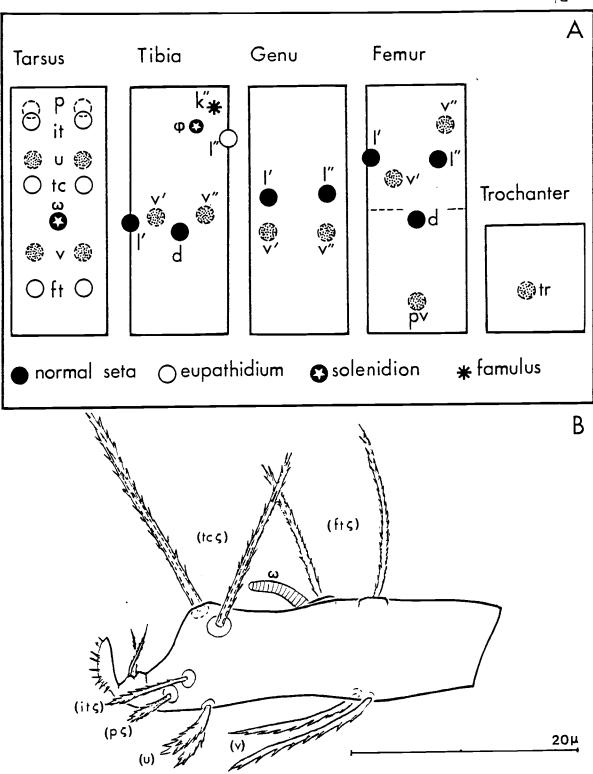


Figure 7: Leg segment phanerotaxy in the Tydeidae.

Diagram of a leg segment phanerotaxy in dorsal view
(archetype) (A); antiaxial view of tarsus I of Meyerella
marshalli (tritonymph) (B).

formulae for tarsus I are summarized in table I.

It may be seen in table I that setae (<u>it</u>) are eupathidial in formulae 1 to 4. These formulae, as well as formula 6 characterize — the subfamilies Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae. The priority list for — tarsus I is:

$$(\underline{\text{ft'}}, (\underline{\text{tc}}), (\underline{\text{p}}), (\underline{\text{u}})), \underline{\text{ft''}}, ((\underline{\text{it}}), \underline{\text{v''}}), \underline{\text{v'}}$$
 (1)

Some exceptions to this priority list do occur; e.g. formulae 9 and 10 which represent Australotydeus kirstenae Aesthetydeus setsukae and Tyndareus eloquens. The problem arises because (it) and (v) do not obey the same regression type. The latter are eustatic and the former amphistatic (see paragraph on ontogeny). Once again, ontogenetic data are necessary to understand these exceptions.

The chaetotaxy of tarsi II-IV is straightforward in that every seta keeps its location throughout ontogeny. Therefore, the homologies are clear. A metameric priority list may be drawn up from table I as follows:

 $(\underline{\text{ft'}}, (\underline{p}), (\underline{u})), \underline{\text{tc''}}, \underline{\text{tc'}}, \underline{\text{ft''}}, ((\underline{\text{it}}), \underline{\text{v''}}), \underline{\text{v'}}$  (2) This latter list is more precise than that for tarsus I but contains a contradiction regarding the relative strengths of ft' and  $(\underline{\text{tc}})$ .

A list of eupathidial priorities may also be built from the data summarized in table  ${\tt I}_{\:\raisebox{1pt}{\text{\circle*{1.5}}}}$ 

p", p', (tc), ft", ft', (it) (3)

It will be seen that this list does not coincide with lists (1) and (2). For instance, ft' is more persistent than ft" but this seta is more often eupathidial. The strength of the eupathidial character does not necessarily imply that the setae itself is strong.

Table I also prompts other comments about eupathidia. The eupathidial character of  $(\underline{it})$  seems stronger in

TABLE I. CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE OF TARSI (ADULT).

		( <u>f</u>	<u>'t</u> )	( <u>t</u>	<u>c</u> )	( <u>i</u>	<u>t</u> )	( <u>ī</u>	)	( <u>u</u>	ı)	(7	<u>,</u> )
I ·	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13.	EEENNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNNN	EEENENENENEN -	8888888888			E T E E N N N N I I I I		ннынттаныны	N N N N N N N N	N N N N N N N N N	- N N -	N - N N N N N N
	PF ESF	100	99 84	100 100	100 100	40 11	40 11	100 100	100 100	100	100	22 -	40 -
II	1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	N N N N N N	E N N N N N N			-		N E N N N	E N E N N N	N N N N N	N N N N N N	- - - -	
	PF ESF	100	100 7	26 <b>-</b>	36 -	- -	-	100 2	100 12	100	100	- -	-
III-IV	1 · 2 · 3 · 4 ·	N N E	- - -	_ _ _	N N	- - -		M M N M	N N N	N N N	N N N	- - -	<u>-</u> - -
III	PF ESF	100 6	-	33 -	41 -	<b>-</b>	_	100	100	100	100	_	-
IV	PF ESF	100 6		33	38 -	<i>-</i>	_	100	100	100	100	_	_

Symbols : E : eupathidial setae ; N : normal setae ;
-: setae absent ; \* : undersized. PF : presence frequency
(in %) based on 81 species ; ESF : eupathidial state
frequency (in %).

Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae than in other groups. Either proral may be eupathidial on tarsus II, which means that , primitively, the pair had to be eupathidial. Mention should also be made of the presence of eupathidia on tarsi which have already lost one or several setae. This suggests heretefore unobserved setal conditions may exist. On the other hand, most formulae for tarsus I are paired, one of them having ft" eupathidial, the other ft" normal. The loss of the eupathidial character has been observed in several very different genera (Tydeus, Apopronematus, Lasiotydeus...) and is thus a secondary character. Lastly, table I suggests that the eupathidial condition is more frequent in antiaxial than in paraxial setae, although additional information will be necessary to verify this point.

The larval chaetotaxy of tarsus I is more difficult to interpret for the setae assume various positions. When tarsus I of the larva of Prelorryia indionensis is observed for the first time, six setae are obvious and seem easy to name:  $(\underline{ft})$ , two large tectal eupathidia  $(\underline{tc})$  and  $(\underline{p})$ . On the other hand, the fundamental chaetotaxy of tarsus I of Tydeus seems very strange and could be interpreted at first sight as being:  $(\underline{ft})$ ,  $\underline{tc}$ ,  $\underline{p}$ ,  $(\underline{v})$ . Both interpretation are wrong.

The solution of the problem is found in the larva of two species of <u>Metatriophtydeus</u>. Two large eupathidia exist as in <u>Tydeus</u>; the more distal one is <u>p'</u> and occupies the usual location, while the other the other is situated at the typical position of <u>ft"</u>. In addition, a distal pair of setae is found on the ventral side and

another pair,  $(\underline{ft})$ , on the dorsal side apparently completes the count. Closer study, however, shows that there are two additional setae, rather small and slender, and inserted near the eupathidium occupying the location of  $\underline{ft}$ . These two setae have to be named and the only consistent formula becomes:

 $(\underline{ft})$ ,  $(\underline{tc})$  both undersized,  $(\underline{p})$ ,  $(\underline{u})$ .

In this interpretation, all the strongest setae of the priority list are present and accounted for and the eupathidia may be identified as the prorals, which is the established rule (figure 8). However, the strange location of p" must be explained. A backward and upward setal migration must be assumed, a type of movement already seen in several families by Grandjean (1944) and in a Caeculidae by Coineau (1964). As noted by Coineau (1974), such a migration is more than a mere disjunction. This phenomenon is herein referred to as "anabasis" (24).

The position of the dorsal setae in <u>Metatriophtydeus</u> is only the first step of a more important process involving the reduction and eventual loss of (<u>tc</u>). The tectals are undersized in <u>Metatriophtydeus</u> and keep their own insertion. A further step is met in <u>Pretydeus kevani</u> and <u>Tydeus</u> spp., where both tectals are vestigial and the

<sup>(24)</sup> From  $\alpha v\alpha$ , meaning both upward and backward, and  $\beta \alpha v \epsilon_i v$ , to go, to walk.

Anabasis may occur on tarsus I or II, as in several genera of the family Stigmaeidae. It may be simple or double depending on whether only one or both prorals emigrate. It may be inside as in Apostigmaeus navicella (figure 5 of Grandjean, 1944) where the prorals are situated between the tectals or outside of them as in Tydeidae. Lastly, a simple anabasis may be prime (which was the only case known until now and observed in Raphignathoidea, Cheyletidae, Erythraeidea, Bdellidae and Caeculidae) or second as in Tydeidae.

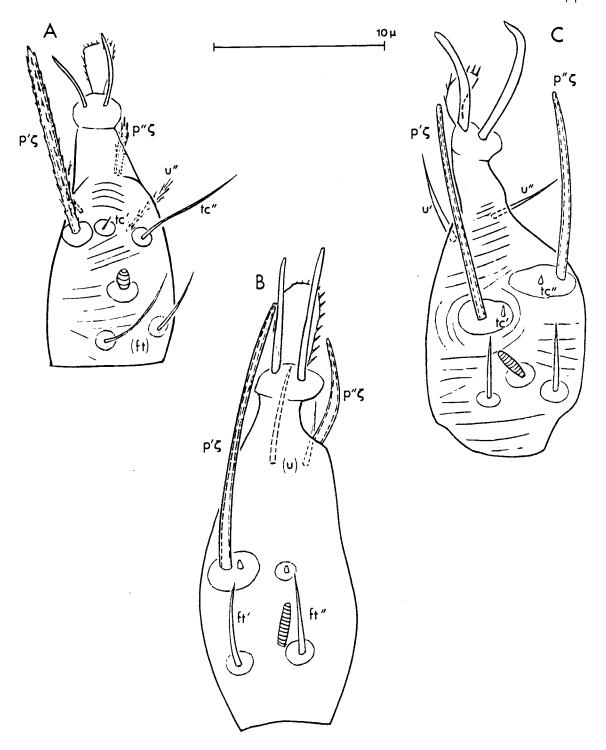


Figure 8: Anabasis. Tarsus I of larva of Metatriophtydeus sp. (A), Tydeus sp. (B) and Prelorryia indionensis (C).

insertion of to" begin to amalgamate with the insertion of p"g. The next phase is the anabasis of p'g as in Prelorryia indionensis or Tydaeolus: (tc) are vestigial but both share the same insertion with (pg). The last step involves the complete disappearance of (tc). This may be the case in Homeopronematus vidae whose (tc) could not be found (25). In any case there is a substitution for the tectals (which are weak setae but apparently have an important role) by the prorals which are stronger than the tectals. This process is a typical case of anhomologous tautergy, a common phenomenon among mites (Grandjean, 1962 1964). The tautergy is anhomologous only between the larva and protonymph; subsequently, it is homologous.

Table II summarizes data on fundamental chaetotaxy of each tarsus.

TABLE II. FUNDAMENTAL CHAETOTAXY OF TARSI

		( <u>f</u> t)	$(\underline{tc})$	$(\underline{it})$	( <u>p</u> )	( <u>u</u> )	$(\underline{\mathbf{v}})$
I	2 · I	N N N N N N N N	N *N * N *N * N *N * -? -?	  	E E E E E E	N N N N N N N N	N N - N 
II		N N		 	N E N N	N N N N	
III-IV	1.	И —			N N	N N	
	PF 10	0 50	7 <sup>7</sup> 7		100 100 25 29	100 100	4 7

Symbols: the same as in the previous table.

<sup>(25)</sup> To be sure, it would be enough to check if  $(\underline{tc})$  are eupathidial or normal in the protonymph (since eupathidia first appear as normal setae through ontogeny). Unfortunately, the protonymph was not available for study

Ontogeny of the setae. As far as is known, the fastigials become eupathidial at the deutonymphal stase. Seta ft" disappears in Apolorryia congoensis, a loss which is preceded by a reduction in setal size in protonymphs and larvae of several species (Microtydeus sp. Tydeus bedfordiensis, Proctotydaeus schistocercae...). Seta ft" becomes eupathidial on tarsus II in the tritonymph and on tarsi III and IV in the adult. There is, therefore a metameric delay in the acquisition of the eupathidial state from leg I to IV. These setae seem to be eustatic which is the usual state of fundamental setae (Grandjean, 1942: 3).

The tectals become eupathidial on tarsus I of the protonymph. Seta to" appears on tarsus II at the trito-nymphal stase in Meyerella marshalli and Proctotydaeus schistocercae while both tectals, (tc), appear together in the deutonymph of Paratydaeolus and Tydaeolus frequens, and in the tritonymph of Paratriophtydeus. Setae (tc) exist on tarsi III and IV at the adult stase in Microtydeus and Tydaeolus but not in the deutonymph (unfortunatelly, their tritonymphs are unknown). In Coccotydaeolus, (tc) appear at the deutonymphal stase on tarsus III but are delayed to the tritonymph on tarsus IV. The unpaired tectal seta, tc', is formed at the deutonymphal stase on tarsus III of Homeopronematus but only in the adult on tarsus IV. The tectals are thus amphistatic.

Iterals are typically amphistatic. Four iteral formulae are known for tarsus I from the protonymph to the tritonymph:  $(NN) - (\xi N) - (\xi \xi) - (\xi \xi)$ ;  $(--) - (NN) - (\xi \xi) - (\xi \xi)$ ;  $(??) - (??) - (NN) - (\xi \xi)$  and (--) - (--) - (NN) - (NN). From formula (3) (page 43), this arrangement

permits more precision in arriving at eupathidial priorities:

The ventral setae  $(\underline{v})$  are a special case in that they are eustasic from the larval stase.

Both regression types, i.e. eustasy and amphistasy, are found on tarsus I of tydeids. Tectals and iterals are amphistatic while fastigials and ventrals are eustasic, which helps explain the difficulties encountered in building a setal priority list.

<u>Parallel homology</u> in tydeid leg chaetotaxy and the degree of conformity to this may be approached by table III.

Formula 8 is the most complete and may be considered as being paleotrichious for the Tydeidae. In sorting all the other formula, two trends may be distinguished. Either the depilation relative speed of tarsus I is high (left part of table III), or this relative speed is slow following fast depilation of the other tarsi (right part of the table III). The latter trend characterizes the Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae, while the former is met in the other subfamilies.

TABLE III. TARSAL CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE

	l	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
I II IV	7 6 5 5	8 6 5 5	8 6 5	8 6 6 6	8 7 6 6	8 7 7 7	11 8 7 7	12 8 7 7	12 7 7 7	12 7 5 5	12 6 5 5	11 6 5 5	10 6 5 5

Solenidiotaxy of tydeid legs is simple and entails only one solenidion  $(\omega)$  on tarsi I and II. Solenidion  $\omega$ I is present in every species and, as far as ontogenies are known, is eustatic from the larva;  $\omega$ II is missing in a few species of Tydeinae.

Some special features or particular adaptations of the tarsal chaetotaxy must be pointed out. The eupathidia of tarsus I are very long and slender in Pronematinae, a feature which is related to the disappearance of apotele I. However, this lengthening does not affect the eupathidial strength of the setae. As in the other subfamilies, ft" tends to lose its eupathidial character. In Apopronematus, ft" is a normal setae and is no longer than ft'.

The subfamily Pronematinae displays another special condition which has been observed in three different species (Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus, Metapronematus leucohippeus and Homeopronematus vidae). The second fastigial ft", on tarsus II and the prime fastigial, ft', on tarsi III and IV are always the most proximal. They have a smaller root than do the other setae and are slender. The meaning of this observation is unclear, but the condition is useful for recognizing which setae persist on tarsi with the minimum of five setae.

There is often a second disjunction of the fastigials on tarsus I, which usually is slight, but which is extreme in <u>Pseudotydeus perplexus</u>. The eupathidium <u>ft"</u> is situated on a conical protuberance, well ahead of <u>ft'</u>. The migration is such that the tectals are displaced forward to the tip of the tarsus while the iterals are displaced to the sides. However, the most surprising

development is the tarsal cluster which includes  $\omega I$  and  $\underline{ft'}$ . Such a pairing has already been described in an  $\underline{Ereynetes}$  species by Grandjean (1939). However, in that species, the cluster characterizes tarsus I of the male only, while it is observed at least starting with the tritonymph in Pseudotydeus. (figure 25)

#### C. Tibia

The study of the tibia is more difficult than that of the tarsus because the relative locations of the tibial setae often are poorly defined. The archetype (figure 7) includes five normal setae of which one may be expathidial, a famulus k'' and a solenidion  $\gamma$ .

If only the normal setae are taken into account, the chaetotactic formula for the tibia is  $(\underline{d}, \underline{l'}, \underline{l''}, \underline{v''}, \underline{v''})$ , signifying a typical five setae verticil. If such a verticil is supposed to have existed on each of the four tibiae, and if we assume that at least one seta always occurs on a segment and that the setae are quite independent, then the number of different possible formulae describing the four legs rises to 625. If the above assumptions are followed, the number of possible formulae between the two observed extremes: (5-3-2-2) and (2-1-1-1) (table IV), is still high: 48. With the inclusion of one additional assumption; i.e. that a segment may not carry more setae than a more anterior segment, the number of possibilities drops to 25. However, formula 8 of table IV cannot be included in the set. A last assumption may be added here: there is a priority between the setae, simple (i.e. amphistasy and

eustasy do not coexist) and absolute. The number of possible formulae is then reduced to eight. Of these eight formulae, one has not been observed and is missing in table IV, (3-2-2-1) while formulae 8 and 9 do not belong to the set of eight. This mathematical exercise shows clearly that setal loss on the tibiae is not a stochastic phenomenon.

TABLE IV. CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE OF THE FOUR TIBIAE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I II IV	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2

However a leg setal tabulation (26) may be dangerous and lead to errors. Indeed, the four setae of tibia I of Metatriophtydeus are not the same as the four setae of tibia I of Tydaeolinae; i.e. they are not homologous. Figure 9 depicts the homologies and chaetotactic regression of the tibial five-setae verticil. In the case of tibia I, the designation used at starting may be interpreted as a notation; for tibiae II-IV, however, designation still remains the only means of defining a seta.

The first element of formula 1 of table IV refers to tibia I of Meyerella (figure 9, A) which have five setae, one of which is eupathidial (1"9). The seta  $\underline{v}$ " appears in the deutonymph. The first step in setal regression of tibia I occurs in Metatriophtydeus (B), where  $\underline{v}$ " first

<sup>(26)</sup> This term is taken from Vercammen-Grandjean (1971).

appears in the tritonymph. Seta v" is thus amphistatic. Likewise, a seta disappears from the lateroparaxial area at each stase. However, the missing setae is d rather than 1' as might be expected. Figure 9 A' and A" explain this circumstance and refer respectively to Ereynetes a (Grandjean, 1939) and to Pseudotydeus perplexus. A' is similar to A except that  $\underline{v}$  is delayed to the tritonymph. A" differs from A' in that & is reduced. Seta d may consequently be supposed to become unable to assume its role because of its reduced size, and in light of the movement of  $1"\xi$ , which seemingly is usurping its location. Seta 1" in Pseudotydeus is easily recognized since it is eupathidial. Inasmuch as there is no more logical way to name the five setae, the interpretation calling for seta l" to substitute for  $\underline{d}$  seems consistent. In fact, each normal seta moves slightly and in such a way that their insertions are situated at right angles to one another. In Metatriophtydeus (figure 9 B), the same assumption may be made for d, but in this case seta d completely disappears and l substitutes for it. Theoretically, the substitution of  $\underline{d}$  by  $\underline{l}$  is as likely as by  $\underline{l}$ . Moreover, such a substitution has been observed as will be described in the following paragraph.

Figure 9 C depicts another regressive step: the complete absence of v" from all stases, but with seta destill present. Such a pattern is found in Coccotydaeolus, Microtydeus, and Tydaeolus... However, one species, Tydaeolus frequens (Grandjean, 1938) shows, once again, the reduction of defigure 9 C'). Here again, movement of a lateral setae is observed, but in this case, it is setal which movesto the dorsal face while 1" retains its

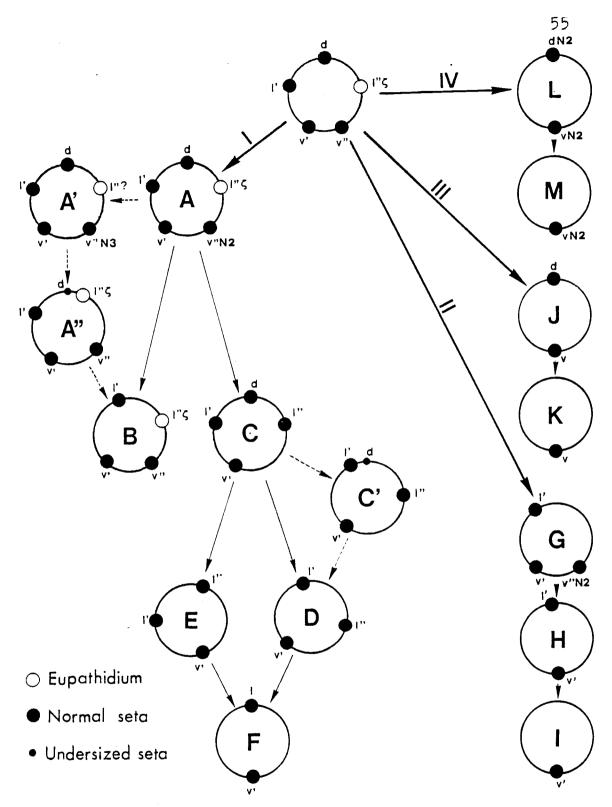


Figure 9: Schematic regressive pattern in tibial chaetotaxy in Tydeidae. Roman figures refer to the four legs.

typical position in relation to <u>v'</u>. To go from figure 9 C' to D requires only the loss of seta <u>d</u>. Figure 9 D depicts tibia I of most Pronematinae, which have three setae of which one is dorsal and another, antiaxial. However, seta <u>d</u> is missing and the formula is (<u>l'</u>, <u>v'</u>, <u>l"</u>). There are also three setae in <u>Tydeus</u> but the lateral seta is paraxial (figure 9 E). A final supposition assumes the substitution of <u>d</u> by <u>l"</u>. The most regressive chaetotaxy is found, for instance, in <u>Parapronematus</u>, which has only two setae on tibia I. The ventral seta is likely <u>v'</u> while the setae on the dorsal face should be a lateral one (figure 9 F).

In tibia II, the richest formula includes three setae whose designations are <u>l'</u>, <u>v'</u>, <u>v"N2</u> (figure 9 G). To homologize <u>v"II</u> with <u>v"I</u> is tempting as both are amphistatic. However such an hypothesis needs more support. Seta <u>v"</u> is found to disappear (figure 9 H) and, lastly, <u>l'</u> drops out (figure 9 I). Tibiae III and IV are similar except that the setae of leg III are already present in the larval stase whereas the setae of the leg IV are formed first in the deutonymph (figure 9 J, K, L, M). Both tibia III-IV lose the setae situated on the dorsal face.

Among the normal setae, k" deserves special attention. This seta is hollow and is present in every species and stase. It is likely a famulus and should be homologous to k" in the family Caeculidae. The seta is situated dorsoantiaxially but is slightly more antiaxial and a bit more distal than solenidion  $\mathcal{F}I$  (27). In Pseudotydeus perplexus, seta k" forms a cluster with l"

<sup>(27)</sup> However, an exception is known in the generic unit Tl where these positions are reversed.

as in <u>Ereynetes</u> as described by Grandjean (1939); it is slender and lies side by side with the setae except at the tip, so that it is difficult to see.

The solenidiotaxy of the tibiae indicates only two solenidia,  $\varphi$  I and  $\varphi$  II. The latter exists only in Meyerellinae and is recessed. Solenidion  $\varphi$  I, on the other hand, is found in several subfamilies. It may be external as in Meyerellinae and Tydaeolinae, partially recessed as in Pretydeinae, or completely recessed within the segment as in Pseudotydeus. Solenidial recession is typical in mites and sometimes precedes their disappearance. However, such a phenomenon could also be adaptative as Zacharda (1979) hypothetizes for the Rhagidiidae.

### D. Genu

The genu is more difficult to interpret than the tibia since there are only four setae present with no other reference point. Table V summarizes the genual chaetotactic formulae. It may be seen that the richest is (4-4-3-1) and the most regressive are (2-0-0-0) and (1-1-0-0). If the previous mathematical treatment (page 52) is again applied to the genu, there are 160 possible formulae between the abovementioned extremes if the regression is stochastic. However, if a genual segment is considered not to carry more setae than a more anterior segment, and if there exists a simple and absolute priority, the number is reduced to 52. The relatively high number of formulae reveals that the regression is a less simple phenomenon than observed on the tibia. This diversity, plus the lack of reference points and the absence of variation throughout ontogeny, makes

TABLE V. GENUAL CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
I II III	4	4	4	3	2 <b>1</b>	3 2	3 2	3	2	2	1	1	2	1	i	0	2 0 0 0	Ö

# TABLE VI. FEMORAL CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	<b>1</b> 9
I II III TV	6 4 3 2	7	2		7	1	- ₹		•			_	_			۲.			

interpretation difficult. The only positive feature seems to be the disappearance of  $\underline{v}$  on the first genu. However, this should be considered only as a designation since setal migrations similar to those observed on the tibiae are likely also on the genua.

Formula 4 of the table V refers to the genua of Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae; as with tibia III in those genera, genu III is the most regressive of the genua.

#### E. Femur (figure 7)

The femur is special in that it consists of two primary segments: a basi- and a telofemur (28), which usually are fused following a proregressive evolution (Grandjean, 1952, 1954). van der Hammen (1970) draws the same inference on the basis of his study of different types of joints. The division of femur IV in Tydeidae is a commonly used generic character, but it has not been throughly studied. Observations have revealed that the joint between basi- and telofemora IV is vanishing, even in Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae. In these subfamilies, there is a degree of flexibility at each leg joint except for the interfemoral junction where flexion does not appear to occur. If strong pressure is exerted on leg IV, then it is possible to elicit flexion even at the interfemoral joint. However, the flexion is less pronounced than at other joints. This difference in degree of flexibility is easy to understand when leg segment

<sup>(28)</sup> or, respectively, a femur 1 and a femur 2 after the nomenclature of van der Hammen (1970).

musculature is studied (29).

Each joint from the tarsus to the basifemur is monovalent as explained by van der Hammen (1970). Several muscles originate from the ventral and proximal area of a segment (30) and are proximally attached to the dorsal face of the two (or more) preceding segments. The need for several muscles at a single point is easily understood if muscle orientation with regard to line of action (31) of the articulation is taken into account. Specifically, the further distally a muscle is inserted, the closer to the line of action is the muscular force vector, and the larger is its projection onto the line of action. Thus, the muscle has a maximum force when its force vector becomes coincident with the line of action. At this point, a limit is reached beyond which the motion may not continue. Here, another muscle, more proximally inserted, may take up the action with minimum stress.

It may also be stated that, the more proximal the joint, the greater the stress that it must endure. This implies that the leg musculature efficiency becomes more and more crucial as one moves proximally to the femur (32). In Eotydeus, the major stress joint is situated

<sup>(29)</sup> The musculature of three specimens was studied: an <u>Eotydeus</u> adult and a <u>Meyerella</u> adult in cavity slide and a <u>paratype of Apotriophtydeus wilkesi</u> in permanent slide Only leg IV was examined closely.

<sup>(30)</sup> The tendons could not be seen. In any case, their attachments must be more distal than the distal end of their muscles.

<sup>(31)</sup> More precisely, what is briefly called "line of action" refers to the line of action of the useful component of the muscular vector force.

<sup>(32)</sup> The trochanter is unimportant in this context since its joint with the femur is bivalent and devoted to forward and backward movement.

between the femur and genu (i.e. the primitive telofemurgenu joint). The position is the same in <a href="Meyerella">Meyerella</a>: the major joint is located between the telofemur and genu and not more proximally between the telo- and basifemur. The interfemoral joint is served by only one muscle which originates from the ventral side of the telofemur and is ventrally attached to the basifemur. Such a system is inefficient for two reasons:

- 1°) its orientation with regard to the line of action
   of the joint is disadvantageous (33),
- 2°) the muscle is regressive and much thinner than other leg muscles.

The efficiency of this arrangement is all the more important in that the joint is proximal and should be a major stress point. The joint is thus vanishing. In Eotydeus, the interfemoral muscle has dropped out entirely. The migration to the ventral side of the muscle acting on the telofemur and the resulting regression of the joint is likely to be related to the backward migration of all the muscles innervating the genu (i.e. the main joint).

In the absence of muscles, the interfemoral joint may be located by the presence of the dorsal condyle as observed, for instance, in <a href="Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus">Proctotydaeus pyrohippeus</a>. The presence of a joint membrane with no striation also aids in its location. The disappearance of the joint is likely gradual following reduction of the joint membrane, with the subsequent coalescence and finally the fusion of the two femora.

<sup>(33)</sup> except when the angle of flexion is null or close to zero.

Table IV summarizes the femur chaetotactic formulae. The richest is (6-4-3-2) and the most regressive is (2-2-1-1). Once again, the mathematical approach to the tarsus and tibia may be applied here. Between the two extreme formulae, noted above, there are 135 possible setal combinations on the femora if the regression is random, 52 if a given segment is supposed not to carry more setae than a more anterior segment, and lastly only 10 formulae if there exists a simple and absolute priority.

Several observations must be made here. First, the femoral chaetotaxy is independent of the fusion of the basi-and telofemora. The fused femur IV has fewer setae than the single femur of leg I. As for the tibiae and genua, femur III is often the poorest in Triophtydeinae and, in one case, femur II is the poorest (Apotriophtydeus). Australotydeus kirstenae also has the minimum number of setae on the third femur. This is in opposition to the general pattern, where legs are more and more regressive from the first to the fourth.

A basi- and telofemoral verticil may be found on each femur. The distal verticil is telofemoral and may consist of as many as four setae on femur I. The proximal basifemoral verticil keeps only two setae. Ontogenic study provides no information on setal derivation in the distal verticil, but the dorsal setae of the proximal verticil of femur IV are found in the tritonymph of Meyerella and Metatriophtydeus lebruni. The same setae would appear in the tritonymph of Metatriophtydeus lebruni on femur I, but the homology is not clear. In general, femoral setal homologies are as difficult to establish as those of the genu. Only the

proximoventral seta, <u>pv</u>, seems to be easy to recognize. This seta is the strongest on leg IV and among the strongest on the other legs.

All the setae of femur IV are formed in the deutonymph, as are those of genu and tibia IV. This sudden appearance of all the setae at the same stase is surprising. It implies that all the setae are delayed in appearance as eustatic setae or, conversely, that the setae are eustatic at the deutonymphal stase. Neither explanation seems satisfactory, since such a regularity in the behavior of the setae of all the species observed is unlikely. An explanation based on the phenomenon of deficiency (Grandjean, 1951) would be more cogent. The protonymphal level of Tydeidae may be regarded as being deficient with regard to femoral, genual and tibial chaetotaxy (34). Grandjean (1946) pointed out this denudation of the protonymphal leg IV in mites and interpreted it as a percursory sign of the disappearance of the leg.

Lastly, sexual dimorphism is observed on femur IV of adult Pronematinae. The males bear a dorsal spiniform excressence at the distal edge of the femur which is absent in the female. (figure 16 D and E)

#### F. Trochanter

Table VII summarizes the data regarding the trochanteral chaetotactic formulae. Of the total of 16 possible formulae, only six are known to exist. This means that a priority list based on table VII may be

<sup>(34)</sup> The case of the trochanter is a bit different as explained later.

induced. This list is (tr III, tr I, tr II, tr IV). It must be pointed out that formula 4 does not fit with this list. The different ontogenies reveal that the setae are all amphistatic. The seta tr III always appears first except after the disappearance of seta tr II; then, tr I seems to become as strong as tr III.

It must be pointed out that setae do not normally appear at the adult stase; they are formed at the latest in the tritonymph (35). This is a part of a more general phenomenon: the tritonymphs of Tydeidae have the same organotaxy as the adult except, of course, in the genital area.

TABLE VII. TROCHANTER CHAETOTACTIC FORMULAE

	1 .	2			3		4	5	6
		a.	ъ		a				
II III	ln2 ln1*	lN2 lL	1N2 1N1	IN3 IN1	O lNl	1N2 0 1N2 0	0	0 1	0

\* The larva is unknown.

<sup>(35)</sup> Two exceptions are known, (tc)III and IV are formed in the Meyerella bifurcatus adult as is tc"IV in Homeopronematus vidae.

#### CHAPTER IV : GNATHOSOMA

The gnathosoma represents a highly evolved and specialized body region and includes two main segments: the cheliceral frame and the infracapitulum (Grandjean, 1957; van der Hammen, 1968, 1970; Coineau, 1974) (36). The gnathosoma of Tydeidae was described by Grandjean (1938). A paragraph will be devoted to both segments while a third one will deal with taenidia.

#### A. Infracapitulum

A ventral view of the gnathosoma presents a few interesting points. Since there is no sclerite, no boundary is obvious between the mentum and genae. There are always two subcapitular setae, scl and sc2. In ventral orientation, the lateral lips appear as thick lobes which meet in the ventral commissure of the mouthparts. Usually, two pairs of adoral setae, (adl) and (ad2), arise close to the tip of the infracapitulum. These are difficult to see because they are small, recumbent and likely eupathidial. Dorsally, the preoral cavity is covered by the labrum. The three commissures are far anterior with the result that the lips form a long duct called a propharynx (37). In Australotydeus kirstenae, a large species, the lips seem to end with some small teeth. The dorsal wall is the

<sup>(36)</sup> The precheliceral segment is not taken into account here. According to van der Hammen (1970), a part of what is usually called infracapitulum should be included with that segment.

<sup>(37)</sup> I proposed this word earlier (1977) to designate such a preoral cavity.

cervix whose shape is standard. In <u>Meyerella</u>, the cheliceral grooves are very deep while the capitular saddle is slightly convex.

The infracapitular epimeron bears as appendages the palps whose shape is characteristic in Tydeidae. They are divided into four segments: trochanter, femorogenu, tibia and tarsus. The phanerotaxy is simple. The trochanter is nude and the femorogenu bears two setae: a dorso-genual (dg) and a dorso-femoral (df). The former drops out in only three species: Tydides ulter, Pseudotydeus perplexus, and Coccotydaeolus bakeri; the latter is always present. The tibia also bears two setae: t' and t''. One of them drops out in Pronematinae and in some tydeine genera. It would seem that t' is the setae which is missing, but this is not certain.

The palp tarsus has a solenidion,  $\omega$  which tends to be recessed. It is often difficult to find and sometimes impossible to see in a permanent mount. The paleotrichy of the palp tarsus includes eight setae of which four are eupathidial: (pg), acms, d5, l', l", v and ba. This situation is found in Meyerella, but the chaetotaxy is fundamentally similar throughout the family. The following differences occur in the other genera: d becomes normal; (p5) and acm5 progressively become a multiple eupathidium; ba becomes vestigial. The eupathidia are located and arise in such a way that they are directed forward when the palp is in its normal position. (figures 10, 14A, 17B, 20J, 21B)

The dorsal setae, <u>d</u>, is only eupathidial in <u>Meyerella</u> In other genera, it is often ornate, serrate (<u>Metatrioph-tydeus</u>), trifurcate (<u>Pseudotydeus</u>) or bifurcate (<u>Australotydeus</u>). The three anterior eupathidia become fused to form a tridentate multiple eupathidium. This is

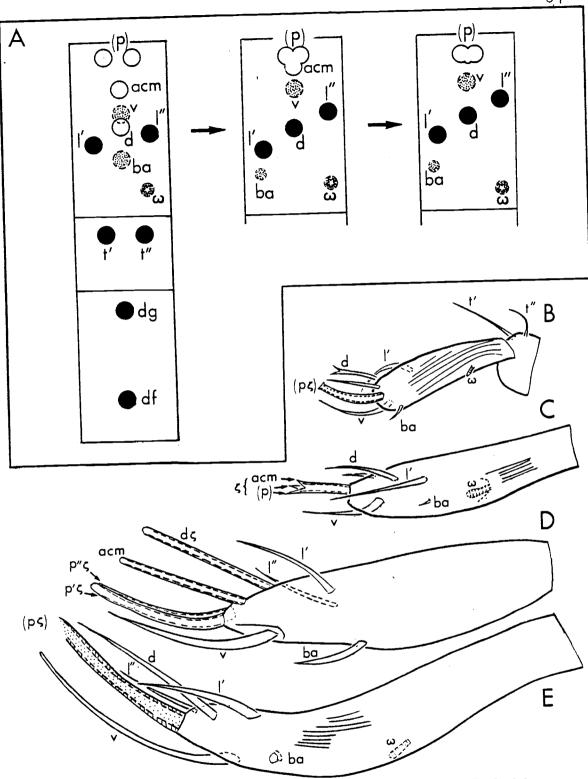


Figure 10: Palp segment phanerotaxy in the Tydeidae.

Diagram (dorsal view) with evolution of the tarsus (A)

(symbols as in figure 7A); palptarsus of Tydeus tri
dactylus (B), Paratriophtydeus coineaui (C), Meyerella

bifurcatus (C) and Lasiotydeus krantzi (D).

particularly obvious in Triophtydeinae whose three tines are still equal and well separated. In Paratriophtydeus, Microtydeus, and Pseudotydeus, the three times illustrate progressive coalescence; the time acm is smaller than the others and tends to form a small spine on the back side of a double eupathidium, (pg). In Prototydeinae, it is possible to distinguish the three times, but in Tydeinae, there remains only a single large eupathidium which seems double but, in fact, is triple. The terminal eupathidium of Pronematinae is similar to that of Tydeinae. Such an enlarged and modified eupathidium could conceivably produce silk, as does the terminal palpal eupathidium of spider mites. Seta ba is more or less spiniform but quite obvious in Tydeinae and Prototydeinae although it is often "forgotten" in the published formulae. In Triophtydeinae, ba is small or even vestigial. It is also small in Proctopyrohippeus. In Lasiotydeus krantzi, a large tydaeus species, ba is not difficult to see although it is vestigial. It still likely exists in Microtydeus as a vestige. As for the other genera, I am unable to state whether ba really drops out or is still vestigial. Tydaeolus is very regressive in this respect, as there remain only  $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$ ,  $\underline{\mathbf{d}}$  and the terminal eupathidium whose three tines are still distinguishable.

The palp phanerotactic formulae are as follows (numbers represent tarsus, tibia, femorogenu, trochanter; numbers in parentheses refer to solenidia):

- 8(1)-2-2-0 with four simple eupathidia,
- 6(1)-2-2-0 with a multiple eupathidium and ba present,
- 6(1)-1-2-0
- 5(1)-2-2-0 with a multiple eupathidium and no ba,
- 5(1)-1-2-0

5-6(1)-2-1-0 ba doubtful,

5(1)-1-1-0

3(1)-2-2-0

No variation has been observed through ontogeny.

#### B. The cheliceral frame

The chelicerae are very advanced and fused in great part. Moreover, there is no well defined limit between the cheliceral sheath and the chelicerae. The latter comprise only two elements: the apotele or digitus mobilis and the "principal segment" consisting of five fused primary segments: trochanter, femur, genu, tibia and tarsus. The digitus mobilis is articulated with the principal segment and bears a stylet which is birefringent and hollow. The stylet may be more or less slender but the basic structure remains constant. In some genera (Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae) there are some signs of the fixed digit. Over the digit(s), there is fleshy extension of the principal segment which contains several muscles and other structures described by Grandjean (1938). The principal segment bears an antiaxial excressence in some Triophtydeinae.

## C. Taenidia

There are two pairs of taenidia: the podocephalic canals and the peritremes. The podocephalic canals of Tydeidae were described by Grandjean in 1938. Each canal is bordered by two laterocoxal (or supracoxal) setae, el and ep which are always present in every species and stase. They originate at the cheliceral vault and their course is standard and constant throughout the family. Each canal runs on the surface of the body but the two

lips are in touch. At its posterior extremity, the canal runs internally and receives a small affluent ductus,  $\underline{dg3}$ . The connection with a coxal gland is difficult to establish (38).

The other taenidia are the peritremes which also originate from the cheliceral vault where the four stigmata open. The tracheal ducts, f(trx), open in the cheliceral vault by the stigmata (sti). The tracheal ducts (trx), run up before opening in the cheliceral vault by two stigmata so closely associated that they may be considered as only one, stx. This opening is extended forward and upward by two fused peritremes, vs, which form what Grandjean (1938) called the vestibulum. These peritremes which are fused on the sagittal plane run up between the chelicerae and open on the dorsal face at the neostigma, vs.

<sup>(38)</sup> The only one coxal gland observed was found within coxa II of a <u>Meyerella</u>. No connection with the podocephalic canal could be established.

# CHAPTER V: SYSTEMATICS AND GENERAL CLASSIFICATION

An extensive review of the role and purpose of sytematics is obviously beyond the field of this work. However, no classification may be advanced without some comments regarding the metholology used and its foundation.

#### A. Preliminary comments

Purpose and meaning of systematics. In the first chapter, I claimed that evolution follows a hierarchical strategy. Consequently, the living world may be comprehended as a hierarchy of open systems. In my opinion and in this frame, the aim of systematics is to represent that structure, i.e. what are the systematic relations between the elements constituting these systems. This point of view is not widely considered, but has recently been developed by Griffiths (1974): "The task of a scientific systematics is not to introduce order into the manifold of particular phenomena, but to investigate and represent their intrinsic order" (Hennig, 1950 quoted by Griffiths). The concept of time is of course essential in such an approach as in any biological field. To deny time amounts to excluding systematics from the biological sciences and confining it within a logico-mathematical framework (Sokal's (1974) system is an example).

The taxon as a holon. In the framework of the theory of organization levels, a taxon is considered as a holon and handled as such. This implies that the taxon must be comprehended as a whole, and not merely as the sum of its

elements. If a taxon is considered as an Aristotelian class or as an independent logical complex, it does not have these relationships to its elements, but rather it is characterized by the fact that all statements about it can be transformed into statements about its elements (Carnap, 1967: 9). A class is therefore defined as "the extension of property" (ibidem: 57). The later interpretation cannot be accepted here. Latter, in this work, a species will be described by the following statement "  $\sigma$ : 4(ge) (occurrence 100%) - q:3(ge) (occurrence: 17,5%)". It is obvious that such a statement is irrelevant for any particular individual, since it refers to the species as a system and not as a class sharing common characteristics with its constituents. The latter concept ignores variations among individuals. Grandjean's work, on the contrary, calls attention to these variations in his studies on mites.

Taxa and stases. Aristotelian philosophy is the source of the persistent and prejudicial notion that only mature individuals are important for classification since individuals do not fully manifest the essence of the species until they reach maturity (Griffiths, 1974). The prejudice is all the more important since each stase, according to Grandjean, follows its own phylogeny. Therefore systematics must be based on the entire ontogeny or at least on two extremes stases (the larvae and adults for example) (39).

<sup>(39)</sup> Some classifications are based on the larvae, such as the nepophylogeny of Vercammen-Grandjean (1969). This is relevant to some extent, insofar as larvae may be more advanced than adults in many respects.

Cladistic analysis. As already explained in Chapter I, the evolution of holons is influenced by two main groups of factors: its canons and the contingencies of the environment (40). Chaetotactic patterns are canonical and are more or less independent from environmental factors as noted by Grandjean and Gisin (1967). However, this independence is relative as shown by the concept of anhomologous tautergy. Based on what is understood about the rules governing chaetotactic pattern (41), the cladistic approach may be quite useful. Therefore, Camin and Sokal's (1965) method was chosen as a tool for building phylogenies. On the other hand, some nonchaetotactic features seem more linked to the contingencies of the environment and are thus believed to be adaptive. The extension of the eupathidia in Pronematinae or the development of paraproctal suckers are examples. Nothing is known about the rules governing the appearance of these structures; they are assumed to be irreversible. However, such adaptive characteristics may be useful to better characterize an evolutionary trend even if the rules and environmental conditions governing such an evolution are unknown. The only one restriction is that an evolutionary trend established in this way may not go against a canon.

Camin and Sokal's method. This method is strong and consistent as long as the preliminary assumptions are accepted. Two of these assumptions are not taken into account here. The first concerns use of the minimum

<sup>(40)</sup> This point of view is parallel with the concept of "anagenesis" and "cladogenesis". (Gama, 1971)

<sup>(41)</sup> Contrary to what Mayr (1969) states, it does not matter that the chaetotactic evolution is regressive.

number of evolutionary steps in establishing a phylogeny. This assumption is derived from Maupertuis' philosophical axiom "of least action" or parsimony. Taxa whose subdivisions have parallel evolutions are poorly handled by this method since it tends to blend the elements from different subdivisions in order to retain the minimum number of steps. Unfortunately, parallel evolutions seem to occur fairly frequently among mites. The Maupertuis axiom does not actually imply a minimum number of steps but rather the repeated use of the same canons throughout different branches of a cladogram. The problem above arises partly because the characters used are supposedly equal. Yet to each systematic level belongs a special set of characters and this exactly describes the theory of organization levels. The study of the canons allows a posteriori weighting of these characters. Therefore, Camin and Sokal's method was used after having imposed some priority among the characters used. Nevertheless, this method remains debatable, not because of its lack of consistency, but because it depends too much on the number of characters used and the number of species available. However, the method is heuristic in that it provides ideas about gaps between the different O.T.U.'s (Operational Taxonomic Unit).

Classification. As noted by Mayr (1974), the cladistic analysis does not necessarily imply a cladistic classification. The reconstitution of a phylogeny is a deductive process and a cladogram is supposed to call up the story of a group. Such a process is therefore susceptible to falsification, according to Popperian philosophy (Kitts, 1974). This is not a case of

classification which is essentially a matter of convention. A genus is separated from other taxa of the same rank by a decided gap (Mayr, 1969) but no one has ever defined the width of such a gap. Consistency within a group is the only rule. The problem arises from the fact that words are discrete units and are used to describe continuous phenomena.

#### B. The subfamilial level

The solenidiotaxy of the Tydeidae is greatly reduced and consists of only five solenidia: palpal  $\omega$ ,  $\omega$ I,  $\omega$ II,  $\varphi$ I, and  $\varphi$ II. Clearly, only very strong solenidia have persisted and these apparently are eustatic. Solenidion  $\varphi$ II exists only in Meyerella and always is recessed;  $\varphi$ I is more common, but sometimes is also recessed;  $\omega$ II is seldom absent and  $\omega$ I is always present. The strength of these solenidia and their special nature suggests that they can be a useful criterion for distinguishing the tydeid subfamilies. (42)

Lyrifissures number four pairs in Tydeidae except in Tydeus and some other genera. The canons regulating lyrifissures are not well known, but they seem eustatic. In any case, their presence is certainly not stochastic, and their disappearance within the family is somewhat surprising. Absence of lyrifissures (<u>ip</u>) (figure 3 D) separates Tydeus and other genera from the rest of the Tydeidae.

Genital acetabula are eustatic. The tritonymphal acetabular pair is missing in all the Tydeidae. The

<sup>(42)</sup> An exception will be made for  $\omega$  II which disappears only in a few specimens for which it would be premature to create a subfamily.

regression continues in some genera which lose one or two pairs of genital acetabula.

The disappearance of apotele I or at least its regression and the concomitant elongation of the adjacent eupathidia seems to be another subfamilial criterion. While this phenomenon has occured in several families (even among Oribatida), it is not common. Certainly it is doubtful that it occurs more than once among the tydeid subfamilies.

The shape of the dehiscence line of the prodorsum (figure 2 ) is another useful subfamilial character even if some intermediate cases exist between the procurved and the recurved types. The number of eyes could be another good criterion but further information is necessary on this point. There are three eyes in Meyerella, Apotriophtydeus, and Metatriophtydeus, and only two in Tydeus and Lasiotydeus. No eyes were seen in Homeopronematus.

Some other chaetotactic characters are of interest. A case in point is the coxisternal or epimeric chaetotaxy. The epimeric chaetotaxy is (3-1-4-3) and has been seen only in Tydaeolinae, and in Australotydeus. Either seta 3d drops out (Meyerella, Metatriophtydeus...) or 4c is absent (Tydeus). Seta 12 is especially interesting in that it has been observed only in the genus Australotydeus (figure 3 A). It is not only absent in other Tydeidae, but also in the tydeoid family Ereynetidae and apparently in the Paratydeidae. It is thus a special and primitive character, the presence of which makes it necessary to classify Australotydeus apart from the other tydeid genera. Anabasis is simple in several genera but double in others. Other characters may be of value in better describing subfamilies, but what is important is the set of criteria

selected above and expressed in figure 11. These criteria distinguish seven subfamilies, all of which are new since no subfamilies were created in previous revisions. These are the Australotydeinae, Meyerellinae, Triophtydeinae, Tydeinae, Pretydeinae, Pronematinae and Tydaeolinae.

An interpretation of the general phylogeny (43) of Tydeidae as an amalgam of these subfamilies is proposed in figure 11. The number of evolutionary steps sensu Gisin (1967) (44) is expressed in the ordinate. This scale rests only on organotactic characters, such as phanerotaxy and idiotaxy, i.e. on discrete or discontinuous characters (Grandjean, 1951) as well as on apotele I. Some characters of an adaptative nature could be introduced in a third dimension but such characters are more difficult to quantify even arbitrarily. Of course, the selected scale is also arbitrary and the resulting pattern is all the more relative.

Subfamilies are represented by terminal leaf-like expansions. Each expansion has a lower and an upper limit which respectively represents the number of evolutionary steps of the less and the more advanced species in respect to organotaxy. The width of the expansion was determined in such a manner that its area is more or less proportional to the number of species described in the subfamily (45). Since the subfamilies are well advanced in

<sup>(43)</sup> In this particular case, it is not too wrong to speak about the general phylogeny of Tydeidae as long as phylogenies of different stases are in harmony. Of course, the prelarva is calyptostatic.

<sup>(44)</sup> Contrary to the opinion of Griffiths (1974), it is not immaterial as to whether one uses time or evolutionary steps as the ordinate. The resulting diagrams are somewhat different due to different points of view in data analysis.

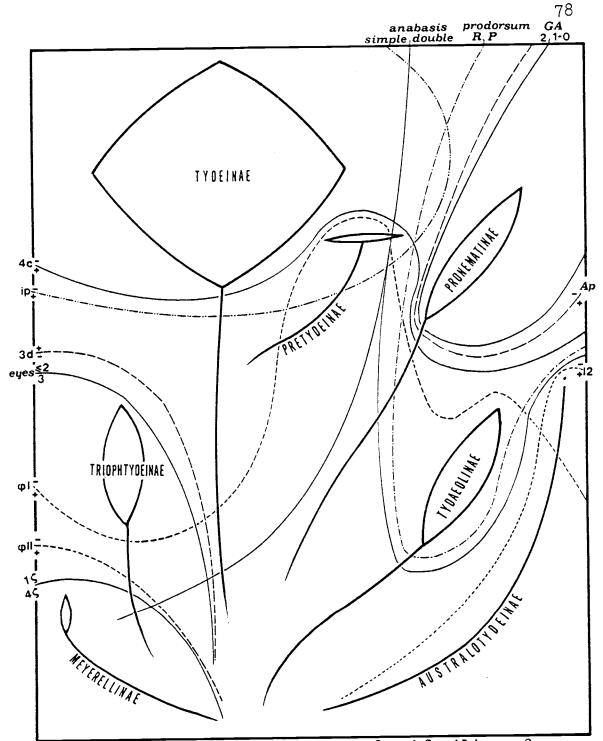


Figure 11: Hypothetical phylogeny of subfamilies of Tydeidae. "Contour" lines delimit the occurrence of certain characters used in defining the subfamilies (special abbreviations: GA: genital acetabula; Ap: apotele I; R: recurved; P: procurved; 15 and 45 refer to the palp eupathidia; +: present; -: absent (or reduced when apotele I is concerned)).

their own directions on the basis of the criteria used, it is difficult to determine how they may have begun their own evolution. It is the reason why the origins of the different subfamilies are expressed as free entities in the diagram. The diagram also has "contour" lines which delimit the presence of certain characters used in defining the subfamilies.

The different subfamilies may be described as follows:

## Australotydeinae n. subfam.

Prodorsum recurved (46); setae ( $\underline{12}$ ) present on the opisthosoma (unique) (figure 3 A); four pairs of lyrifissures; two pairs of genital acetabula, eugenitals present at least in  $\mathcal{O}$ , longitudinal progenital aperture in  $\mathcal{O}$ , progenital depression in nymphs, cis-acetabulal area absent in nymphs; epimeric formula (3-1-4-3) in the adults, coxal organ present; femora IV fused, setae  $\underline{\text{tr}}$  I, II and III present in adults, two solenidia on the legs ( $\omega$ I,  $\omega$ II), five eupathidia on tarsus I, none on other segments; terminal eupathidium at the tip of the palp tarsus seemingly double.

Paraproctal suckers are well developed in the only one species known. (figure 14C)

# Meyerellinae p. subfam.

Prodorsum recurved with three eyes; four pairs of lyrifissures (figure 3 C); two pairs of genital acetabula,

<sup>(45)</sup> Only the species mentioned in the revisions of Baker and Kuznetzov, and those amply described before or subsequently, are taken into account here.

<sup>(46)</sup> This does not refer to the shape of the prodorsum but to the shape of the dehiscence line and the location of the prodorsal setae as explained in chapter II.

eugenitals present in Q and  $\sigma'$ , longitudinal progenital aperture; progenital groove in nymphs with cis-acetabulal area; epimeric formula (3-1-3-3) in adults, femur IV divided, four solenidia on the legs ( $\omega$ I,  $\omega$ II,  $\varphi$ I,  $\varphi$ II) (unique), eight eupathidia on tarsus I, one on tibia I and another on tarsus II; four distinct eupathidia at the tip of the palp tarsus (unique).

The Meyerellinae is the only subfamily with setae tr IV but their appearance is delayed until the tritonymphal stase; their total disappearance in some species would not be surprising. The subfamily may also be characterized by its particular leg chaetotactic regression as described in chapter III.

## Pretydeinae n. subfam.

Prodorsum recurved; opisthosoma with three pairs of lyrifissures ( $\underline{ip}$  absent); two pairs of genital acetabula, eugenitals present only in  $\mathscr O$ , longitudinal progenital aperture in  $\mathscr O$ , recumbent-H shaped in  $\mathscr O$ , no cis-acetabulal area in nymphs but a sign of the anterior apex of the progenital chamber; epimeric formula (3-1-4-2) in adults, coxal organ present; femora IV undivided; leg chaetotaxy reduced; genua II, III and IV nude,  $\underline{tr}$  I, II and III present in adults; three solenidia on the legs,  $\omega$  I,  $\omega$  II and  $\mathscr O$  I (the latter absent in one case), slightly recessed particularly  $\mathscr O$  I; at the most five eupathidia on tarsus I, eupathidia absent on the other leg segments; simple or double anabasis; multiple eupathidium at the tip of the palp tarsus, with three terminal times.

The anagenesis of the Pretydeinae is characterized by the appearance of the empodial claw as in some Tydeinae.

#### Pronematinge n. subfam.

Prodorsum procurved, no eyes at least in one genus, sensilla may be clublike; four pairs of lyrifissures; two to zero pairs of genital acetabula, no eugenitals or genitals, progenital aperture varying from a five-branches shape to a transverse split, cis-acetabulal area in nymphs absent or very reduced; paraproctal suckers often well developed; epimeric formula (3-1-4-2) in adults; apotele I with vestigial claws or absent; pretarsi II, III and IV with strong condylophores; femur IV divided or undivided; tr III always present in adults and tr IV always lacking; three solenidia on the legs ( $\omega$ I,  $\omega$ II and  $\varphi$ I); generally, five eupathidia on tarsus I, very long; in a few cases, a eupathidial seta on tarsus II; double anabasis; terminal eupathidium of the palp tarsus seemingly double; only one seta on the palp tibia.

The regression of apotele I could be interpreted as being recent. However, femur IV is still divided in several pronematine genera and seta  $\underline{p}'$  II of Parapronematus has retained the eupathidial condition. This indicates that the subfamily began its "palpian evolution" pretty early. The different location of the progenital aperture in d and q, the structure of genitalia and the presence of a dorsal excressence on femur IV suggest that true mating may occur among pronematinae. Direct sperm transfer is highly advanced strategy when compared to reproduction by means of spermatophores as has been observed in Tydeinae (Schuster, 1970). Such a difference would be quite important from an evolutionary standpoint.

Several pronematine species have been taken on insects, and certain adaptive characters suggest this type of relationship; i.e. slender pretarsi, strong

condylophores, paraproctal suckers, and pulvillus.

## Triophtydeinae n. subfam.

Prodorsum recurved with three eyes; four pairs of lyrifissures; two pairs of genital acetabula, eugenitals in  $\varrho$  and  $\sigma'$ , progenital aperture longitudinal in  $\sigma'$  and recumbent-H shaped in  $\varrho$ , cis-acetabulal area present in nymphs; epimeric formula (3-1-3-3) in adults; femur IV generally divided; (it) present on tarsus I in adults but not always eupathidial, three other pairs of eupathidia on tarsus I; often with other eupathidia on tibia I, and on tarsi II, III and IV; simple anabasis; two solenidia on the legs ( $\omega$  I and  $\omega$  II); triple eupathidium at the tip of the palptarsus.

As in Meyerellinae, the subfamily is characterized by its special leg chaetotactic regression as explained in chapter III. It is noteworthy that most members of the Triophtydeinae are found in the Arctic or Antarctic realms or in particularly uncogenial environments such the cortical medium on trees.

# Tydaeolinae n. subfam.

Prodorsum procurved with probably two eyes, sensillum sometimes clublike; four lyrifissures; two pairs of genital acetabula, eugenitals present only in  $\mathscr O$ ; progenital aperture longitudinale in  $\mathscr O$ , recumbent-H shaped in Q, cis-acetabulal area absent in nymphs; epimeric formula (3-1-4-3) in adults; leg chaetotaxy rich; (it) present but not eupathidial in adults, at most, five eupathidia on tarsus I, eupathidia absent on other segment, femur IV undivided; setae  $\underline{\mathrm{tr}}$  I, II and III present in adults; three solenidia on legs ( $\omega$ I,  $\omega$ II and  $\mathscr F$ I);

double anabasis; trifurcated eupathidium at the end of the palp tarsus.

As in the Tydeidae, the subfamily is cosmopolitan and occurs in diverse habitats such as soil, plants and birds. The paraproctal lips are always smooth.

#### Tydeinae n. subfam.

Prodorsum recurved with two eyes; opisthosoma with three pairs of lyrifissures ( $\underline{ip}$  absent); two pairs of genital acetabula, eugenitals only in  $\sigma$ , progenital aperture longitudinal in  $\sigma$ ; without a cis-acetabulal area in nymphs; epimeric formula (3-1-4-2) in adults, coxal organ present; leg chaetotaxy reduced; at maximum, with five eupathidia on tarsus I, eupathidia absent on other segments; setae  $\underline{tr}$  II and IV absent, others may sometimes be absent; two solenidia on the legs ( $\omega$ I and  $\omega$ II, latter missing in a few cases; simple anabasis; terminal eupathidium of the palp tarsus seemingly double.

The anagenesis of the Tydeinae is characterized by the appearance of the empodial claw in some genera, the development of paraproctal suckers or the lengthening of chelicera in others. The subfamily is cosmopolitan and occurs in many habitats including soil, plants, birds, and mammals.

Based on the data gathered, other subfamilial classifications for the Tydeidae could be proposed:

Meyerellinae and Triophtydeinae could be combined as a single group, as could the Tydeinae and Pretydeinae. On the other hand, the Pronematinae and Tydaeolinae seem quite distinct in all aspects. Australotydeus has the typical habitus of a tydeine, but the two groups differ in organotaxy.

### C. Generic level

Even after having applied the Camin and Sokal approach, the problem of defining the genera of Tydeidae is not solved. Indeed, several classifications may be built on a single genealogical tree. Moreover, this genealogy is far from being finalized and needs further inputs on new species and on the ontogeny of already described species. Certainly the most predictable character states used in cladistic analyses of tydeid subfamilies were derived from leg chaetotaxy. As a consequence, grouping species with too different chaetotaxies seemed a debatable option. Therefore, generic units heve been defined by a particular chaetotaxy (defined on all the stases when possible) and on certain related chaetotactic characters (47). As a result, the number of genera has been increased substantially, although some previously recognized genera have been united. Some arguments could be advanced against this extensive division at the generic level. Strandtmann (1967) feels there are too many tydeid genera, but such a statement is without meaning as long as generic criteria are not defined. In fact, the problem is more a matter of the magnitude of the gaps between the genera than a matter of number.

Mayr (1969) states that "splitters" almost without exception classify characters rather than groups of organisms. Inasmuch as a taxon is recognized by a particular combination of characters, and since a set of characters express the individuality of a taxon,

<sup>(47)</sup> A related chaetotactic character would be one which is not significant at a generic level. For instance,  $\underline{ft}$  I may be expathidic or not, in almost every group. This is obviously not a generic character.

this statement is difficult to accept. It is true that some genera in the classification presented here are monospecific, especially in the Triophtydeinae. However, it is not surprising that this primitive group is represented only by a few species representing different genera which probably were much richer in earlier times. A great number of tydeid species probably remain to be discovered, even in the Triophtydeinae, so that there is little chance that any genus will remain monospecific for long.

It is felt that chaetotaxy provides a sound basis for that generic division in the Tydeidae, at least at our present state of knowledge. The gaps between the genera proposed are based on particular chaetotaxies; i.e. they are of the "all of none" type. It should be remembered also that every change in the adult often means changes through ontogeny, i.e. through several stases. This does not mean that a great number of specific variations may not be played on a single chaetotactic theme, or that several adaptive characters may not arise from a single chaetotactic pattern.

The subfamilies and genera of Tydeidae are listed below. The Australotydeinae is a very special subfamily (see diagnosis on page 79), and is monogeneric and monospecific. The Meyerellinae comprises only one genus, Meyerella, with three species. The special shape of the bifurcate idiosomal setae (figure 19) is not considered a subfamilial character. The generic unit (M1) (48) has a

<sup>(48)</sup> To describe a new genus from one or two specimens is felt to be inadvisable except when the specimen(s) exhibit very special characteristics. However, it may be useful to indicate the existence of its chaetotactic pattern. Therefore, some generic units are acknowledged but are not officially described.

habitus similar to that of Triophtydeus, and will be described later. At the present time, the Pretydeinae comprise only five species distributed in two new genera which differ in their solenidiotaxy and anabasis. It would have been pointless to create a subfamily for Prelorryia, which differs from the four other species in these characters. Reducing the above criteria to the specific level also would not provide a consistent solution. Therefore, it was necessary to create two genera. The Pronematinae illustrate many new chaetotactic formulae, and others must be expected when new species are discovered The genus Proctotydaeus is returned to the Tydeidae, from which it was removed by Baker (1965). Fain and Evans (1966) pointed out that the genus was closely related to the Tydeidae. The Triophtydeinae comprise new genera. Many of them are represented by species from Antarctica described by Strandmann (1967), who was unable to key them out with Baker's (1965) key. Other problems arose in that any species with three eyes and an undivided femur IV was assigned to the genus "Triophtydeus" regardless of the chaetotaxy. The genus "Triophtydeus" is not included in this treatment since its chaetotaxy is unknown. The type, which is in the Oudemans collection at Leiden, is in need of remounting before additional study will be possible. Since a synonymy is easier to correct than an homonymy, it is considered advisable not to use "Triophtydeus" until the generic type can be studied again. The Tydaeolinae is a quite homogenous subfamily. Only the genera Pseudotydeus and <u>Lasiotydeus</u> seem somewhat atypical. Both are discussed in the next chapter. Some new tydaeoline genera are described because of the diversity of their leg chaetotaxy. The Tydeinae represent the biggest tydeid subfamily.

Unfortunately, their systematic history is extremely confused. A single genus was found to include several species with different -sometimes very different-chaetotaxies, while species with identical chaetotaxy were distributed in several genera. This confusion arose because of adherence of many recent workers to the old generic concept of Canestrini, Berlese, Thor and Oudemans, a concept which was based mainly, or only, on variations in skin ornementation. The systematics of the Tydeidae has been completely reorganized in this interpretation.

Australotydeinae: Australotydeus Spain 1969.

Meyerellinae: Meyerella Baker 1968,

( + one generic unit, M1).

Pretydeinae: Pretydeus n. gen.,

Prelorryia n. gen..

Pronematinae: Apopronematus n. gen.,

Homeopronematus n. gen.,

Metapronematus n. gen.,

Naudea Meyer & Rodrigues 1965,

Parapronematus Baker 1965,

Pausia Kuznetzov & Livshitz 1972,

Proctotydaeus Berlese 1911 sensu Fain &

Evans 1966,

Pronecupulatus Baker 1965,

Pronematulus Baker 1965,

Pronematus Canestrini 1886 sensu Baker 1965.

Triophtydeinae: Apotriophtydeus n. gen.,

Metatriophtydeus n. gen.,

Pretriophtydeus n. gen.,

Teletriophtydeus n. gen.,

( + one generic unit : TR1).

Tydaeolinae:

Aesthetydeus n. gen.,
Coccotydaeolus Baker 1965,
Lasiotydeus Berlese 1908, sensu Baker
1965.

Metatydaeolus n. gen.,

Microtydeus Thor 1931, sensu Baker 1965,

Paratriophtydeus Baker 1965,

Paratydaeolus n. gen.,

Primotydeus n. gen.,

Pseudotydeus Baker & Delfinado 1974,

Tydaeolus Berlese 1910, sensu Baker 1965,

Tyndareus Livshitz & Kuznetzov 1972,

( + one generic unit, Gl).

Tydeinae:

Afrotydeus Baker 1970,

Apolorryia n. gen.,

Eotydeus Kuznetzov 1973,

Homeotydeus n. gen.,

Idiolorryia n. gen.,

Krantzlorryia n. gen.,

Metalorryia n. gen.,

Neolorryia n. gen.,

Orthotydeus n. gen.,

Perafrotydeus n. gen.,

Tydeus Koch 1835, n. comb.,

Tydides Kuznetzov 1975,

( + two generic units, TY1 and TY2).

Generic descriptions and keys are presented in chapter VI.

## D. Infrageneric or specific level

Some new genera are monospecific but, as noted earlier, for most of them, this is not likely to be a permanent situation. A great number of new tydeid species is expected to be described. The old systematics was an obstacle to such an achievement because of its lack of consistency.

At the present time, for each taxon described by a particular chaetotactic formula, a great deal of variation may be expected in the condition of chelicerae, empodia, setae, and striations, and in the clustering of certain setae... For example, in the collection kindly sent by Dr. Marshall, several species were labelled as "Coccotydaeolus sp." based on the old classification. These species were extracted from different types of litter and are distinctive in their pattern and density of striation, setal shape, and sensilla. All of these characters will have to be considered in the future for proper species identification.

Dr. Marshall's collection also is interesting from an ecological point of view in that it reveals that the Tydeidae may be expected to occur in a particular habitat type, as already suggested by André (1975, 1979). But, once again, serious ecological studies require precise specific identification, or at least, they must rest on strong generic concepts. Misidentifications of tydeids have had some interesting zoogeographical consequences. For instance, Tydaeolus frequens is thought to occur in many locations throughout the world. However, the drawings of the sensillum published by Weis-Fogh (1948) and Wood (1965) suggest that there are, in fact, several species. It is

significant that the minute size of seta <u>l"</u> on tibia I of <u>Tydaeolus frequens</u> as described by Grandjean (1938) has never since been recorded in other collections of this "species".

# CHAPTER VI : GENERIC DESCRIPTIONS AND KEYS

The genera of Tydeidae are ranked alphabetically and described below. The descriptions are followed by:

- 1°) a key to the stases,
- 20) a key to the subfamilies valid for any stase, and
- 3°) a key to the genera only valid for the adults.

Certain conventions have been used in drafting the descriptions. Only generic information is utilized; i.e. characters common to all the Tydeidae (as the supracoxal setae for instance) are not mentioned. Utilization of the terms "procurved" and "recurved" in reference to the prodorsum does not refer to its shape but rather to the shape of the dehiscence line and the location of the prodorsal setae, as explained in chapter II. If there are no modifying comments regarding the prodorsum, it should be assumed to be normal, with four pairs of setae present  $((\underline{p}1), (\underline{p}2), (\underline{p}3))$  and  $(\underline{s}))$ . The number of eyes is noted when it is known.

A variety of information is included under the term. "opisthosoma". The number of pairs of dorsal setae is noted under "dorsal chaetotaxy" and followed by the names of missing setae in parentheses (except for seta 13, which is never present in Tydeidae). The number of lyrifissures is listed under "poroidotaxy"; it is not deemed necessary to identify the missing lyrifissure since only (ip) is likely to disappear. "Genital organotaxy" is described by a seriesof formulae preceded by the abbreviation of the stase involved (Ad, T, D, P or L). The adult formula comprises three values separated by hyphens: the number of eugenitals, genitals and aggenitals (eu -

ge - ag). If a setal number differs between sexes, both values are given and separated by a comma; the first refers to the female (for example: (eu q, eu o - ge-ag)). For the nymphs, only the number of genitals and aggenitals (ge - ag) are mentionned; the convention relative to sexual variation, as noted above, is applied where necessary. The number of pairs of genital acetabula in the adult also is noted, but only if other than two. Lastly, the epimeral formula is presented and the presence of coxal organs is mentioned when necessary.

Leg chaetotaxies are indicated by a series of conventional formulae preceded by the abbreviation of the stase. Eupathidia are then listed in ontogenic notation (49) and the number of solenidia is given. The palp is described by the conventional formula and some additional comments. Further information on essential particulars may conclude the description.

Species that should belong to a particular genus according to published accounts but have not been studied here are mentioned under the heading "other species".

Similarly, species of special but not exceptional morphological interest which are represented by only one or two specimens are described as "generic units" (G.U.), and listed at the end of the generic diagnoses.

<sup>(49)</sup> This means that the stase at which the seta becomes eupathidial is indicated when necessary.

## A. Generic descriptions

#### Aesthetydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Strandtmann (1967).
- -SYNONYM: Tydeus (sensu Strandtmann 1967).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: A. Setsukoae (Strandtmann 1967) (monotypic), log paratype (Antarctica), 2 q labelled "N. Victoria Land, Possession Is. 150m, Antarctica, Nov. 8.1964, Gressit" and nymphs labelled "Bishop Museum, Antarctica Possession I. D. XI. 64, Single large stone, J.L. Gressitt".
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and h1 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,5-6-4), T(4-4),
  D(2-2); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). Legs:
  chaetotaxy: I(10-5-4-4-1) II(6-2-4-4-1) III(5-2-2-3-1) IV(5-2-1-2-0) in the adults and tritonymphs;
  eupathidia on tarsus I: (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy:
  3; femur IV undivided. Palp: 6(1)-2-2 with ba well
  developed and a terminal eupathidium apparently
  double.

## Afrotydeus Baker 1970

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1970).
- -SYNONYM: <u>Tydeus</u> (<u>Afrotydeus</u>) Baker 1970 (in part)
- -SPECIES STUDIED: A. kenyensis Baker 1970, 1 q holotype (Kenya); Afrotydeus sp. 3 q + 1 deutonymph labelled "on tree, Turrialba, Costa Rica, April 3, 1959. E.W. Baker Coll." NM NH nº 3189.
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and h1 missing); poroidotaxy:

3; genital organotaxy: Ad(0-4-4), D(0-2); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-2-1-0) III(5-2-1-1-0) IV(5-2-1-0-0) in the deutonymph and adult; eupathidia on tarsus I: ft'', (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$ , with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other features: as in Perafrotydeus but unlike the other Tydeinae, the paraproctal suckers are well developed. Seta 1' on the tibia is slender with a small root.

-OTHER SPECIES: likely some other species belonging to the subgenus Afrotydeus as defined by Baker 1970.

#### Apolorryia new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1968b).
- -SYNONYM : Lorryia (Baker 1968b in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: A. congoensis (Baker 1968) (monotypic), Q holotype and paratype (Zaīre).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (12, h1 and h2 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; reticulate pattern; genital organotaxy: (0-3-3); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(7-3-1-2-0) II(6-1-1-2-0) III(5-1-0-1-0) IV(5-1-0-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. Palp: (5?-1-2) +  $\omega$  with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

# Apopronematus new genus

-SPECIES STUDIED: A. bakeri n. sp. (monotypic), 3 \varphi + l tritonymph.

- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (l2 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0-0-3), T(0-3), no genital acetabula; epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). Legs: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-2-3-1) II(6-2-2-3-1) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (p) and (tc); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV seemingly divided. Palp:  $(5-1-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.
- -DESCRIPTION of A. bakeri (50): the species is described by figures 12 and 13. Material 3 \rho labelled "Paicines, Calif. Hilltop Flot, Ex Pinot noir Bark, IV 24- 1969, coll. D. Kinn", 1 tritonymph labelled "Napa Valley, winery, St Helena, Calif. I 26 '70 Ex. Grape Bark, var.: Sauvignon vert Coll. O. Kinn".

## Apotriophtydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Strandtmann (1967).
- -SYNCNYMS: <u>Tydeus</u> (<u>sensu</u> Strandtmann 1967), <u>Trioph</u>-<u>tydeus</u> (Baker 1970).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: A. erebus (Strandtmann 1967): 1 tritonymph paratype (Antarctica), 1 of labelled "Moss and lichen Tottan Mts Z92H T.J. Tilbrook 1965"; A. wilkesi (Strandtmann 1967): 1 tritonymph paratype (Antarctica), 2 of labelled "Bishop Museum Dufek Rge Pensacolas Flotation Loc. 67 82° 37S 52° 56W II XII 1965 O.R. Wilkes" and

<sup>(50)</sup> This species is named for Dr. E. W. Baker who has worked extensively on Tydeidae and who has very kindly sent me a great number of type specimens for study.

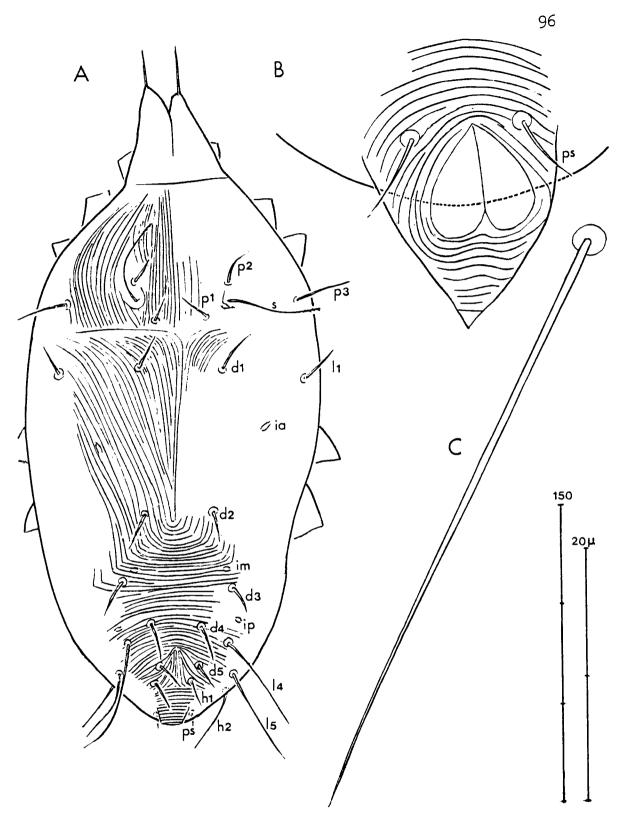


Figure 12: Apopronematus bakeri. Dorsal habitus (A); "tail" and anal area of tritonymph (B); seta 15.

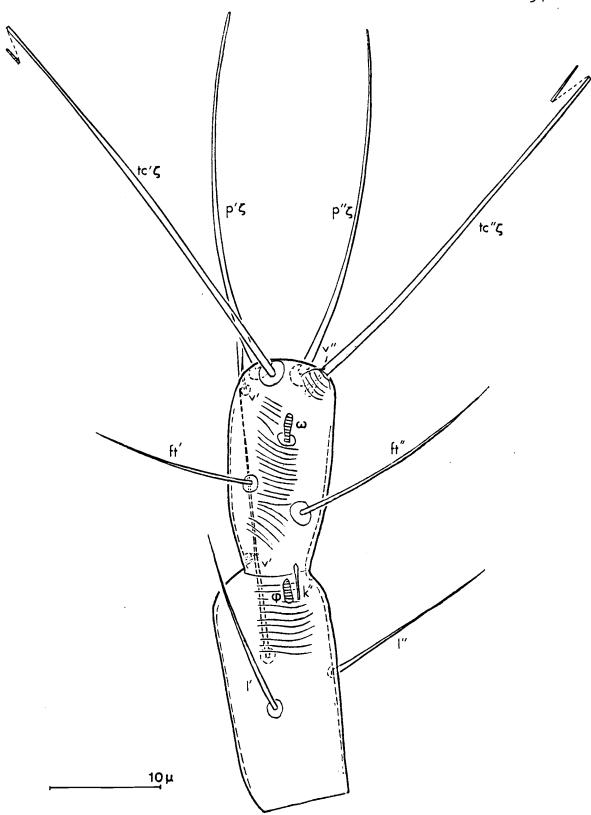


Figure 13: Apopronematus bakeri. Tarsus and tibia I.

- "Bishop Musem Antarctic, Loc. 108, 1830 m Summit Dufeck range 82°38S 52°20W Flotation 26 Dec. 1965 0. R. Wilkes"; <u>A. alaskensis</u> (Baker 1965) q and of types (Alaska).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved; three eyes.

  Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing);
  poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(2,6-6-5), T(4-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-3-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(11-5-3-5-1) II(6-3-2-4-1) III(5-2-2-3-1) IV(5-2-2-(1-2)-0); eupathidia variable (see below); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV divided. Palp: (6-2-2) +  $\omega$  with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.
- -FURTHER COMMENTS: The species are easily distinguished on the basis of eupathidia. A. alaskensis has the maximum eupathidial number; i. e. eight on tarsus I  $((\underline{ft}), (\underline{tc}), (\underline{it})$  and  $(\underline{p}))$ , two on tarsus II (ft" and p") and one on tarsi III and IV, ft . A. erebus has the same condition minus ft"II, ft III and ft IV. A. wilkesi has only five eupathidia ((tc I), (p I) and p"II). A. wilkesi and A. erebus are thus two species contrarily to the opinion of Rounsevell (1977). Lastly, Strandtmann (1967) described a typical form of "Tydeus tilbrooki" and a variety. The typical form belongs to the new genus Pretriophtydeus while the variety has the chaetotaxy described above. The eupathidia of this variety are (te I), (pI), ft" II, p'II, ft III and ft IV. Only one specimen was available for this study but a redescription should be undertaken since the variety is "variable" according to Strandtmann (1967).

-OTHER SPECIES: none.

# Australotydeus Spain 1969 (Figure 14)

- -DESCRIPTION: Spain (1969).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: Australotydeus kirstenae Spain 1969 (monotypic): 1 & paratype, 1 tritonymph paratype (New Zealand).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: ll setae (hl missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,3-4-6), T(4-4);
  epimeral formula: (2-1-4-3); coxal organ present.
  Legs: chaetotaxy: I(10-5-3-5-1) II(6-2-3-3-1)
  III(5-2-1-1-1) IV(5-2-0-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I
  ft", (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV
  entire. Palp: (6-2-2)+ω, with d bifurcate and with
  large double terminal eupathidium. Other features:
  two large paraproctal suckers, progenital depression
  in the tritonymph, dorsal setae of idiosoma hollowed
  (except (ps)).

# Coccotydaeolus Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: <u>C. krantzi</u> Baker 1965: 1 q holotype (California); <u>C. bakeri</u> Wood 1965: 1 q holotype (Yorkshire, Great-Britain); <u>Coccotydaeolus</u> sp.: 1 q labelled "20 6 60, Ex Acer Mull, Morgan Arboretum, P.2. Canada, Hoger's 17 7 63, Gurr's 24 7 63, coll. V. Marshall".
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved; the species studied have clublike sensilla. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 11 (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0,?-3-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-4-4-1) II(8-2-

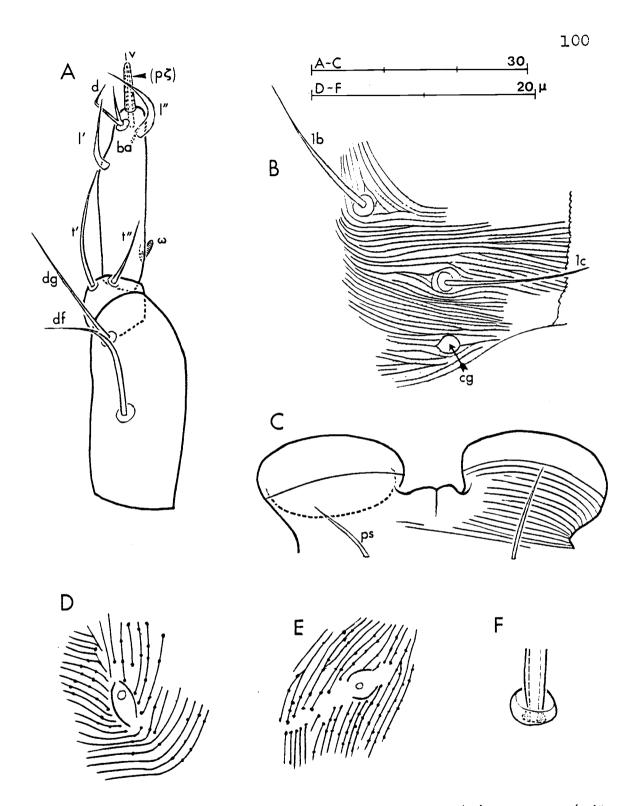


Figure 14: Australotydeus kirstenae. Palp (A); coxal (D) organ (B); paraproctal suckers (C); lyrifissures ip and ih (E); insertion of seta 12 (F).

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2-3-1) III(7-2-1-2-1) IV(7-2-0-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (\underline{tc}), (\underline{p}) and sometimes (\underline{ft''}); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV undivided. Palp: (5-2-2) or (5-2-1) + \omega with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

-OTHER SPECIES: none.
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#### -orner precies : none.

### Eotydeus Kuznetzov 1973

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-DESCRIPTION: Kuznetzov (1973).

-SYNONYM: Tydeus (Eotydeus) (Kuznetzov 1973).

-SPECIES STUDIED: Eotydeus sp.: 1 φ labelled "29 -

IV - 62 ex. Balsam fir duff, Maynooth, Ont. Coll.

J.H. Martin, Canada Dpt. Forestry & Rural Development".

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and h1 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: (0-2-3); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp: (6-2-2) +

ω with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

-OTHER SPECIES: Eotydeus mirabilis Kuznetzov 1973.
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## Homeopronematus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Schruft (1972).
- -SYNONYM: Pronematus (Schruft 1972).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: <u>H. staercki</u> (Schruft 1972): several individuals without specific label; <u>H. vidae</u> n.sp.
- -DIAGNOSIS : Prodorsum : procurved ; no eyes.

```
Opisthosoma : dorsal chaetotaxy : 11 (12 missing) ;
poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad & T(0-0-
4.1). D(0-2.?). P(0-0); one pair of genital
acetabula; epimeral formula: Ad, T & D(3-1-4-2)
P(3-1-4-0), L(3-1-2). Legs: no apotele I but the larva
which has an apotele I with vestigial claws;
chaetotaxy : I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-3-3-1) III(6-2-2-2-2-3-3-1)
1) IV(6-2-1-2-0) in the adults and tritonymphs;
deutonymph with one seta less on tarsi III and IV
 (\underline{tc"}) and with no \underline{tr}I, \underline{tr}II; the protonymph as the
deutonymph except IV(5-0-0-0-0); larval chaetotaxy:
 I(6-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-3-3-0) III(5-2-2-2-0);
 eupathidia on tarsus I : ft", (tc), (p); double
anabasis in the larva: solenidiotaxy: 3; femur
 IV entire. Palp: (5-1-2) + \omega with a double
 eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.
-DESCRIPTION of \underline{H}. \underline{\text{vidae}} n. sp. (51) (figures 15 and 16).
H. vidae is distinguished from H. staercki by the
 density of striation; the shape and length of the
 idiosomal setae. Material: \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{Q}, and nymphs in
 a vial labelled "Tydeidae ex lab culture, Univ.
 Calif. Berkeley, 24 - III - 78, M.A. Hoy" ; 1 \varphi
labelled "Christian Brothers, Napa Co, Calif., IV -
 3 - '69, ex cut cames of Zinfandel grape, coll. R.L.
 Doutt. D.N. Kinn".
-OTHER SPECIES: none.
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#### Homeotydeus new genus

-DESCRIPTION : Baker (1970).

<sup>(51)</sup> The species is named for Mrs V. Krantz whose hospitality during my sojourn at Oregon State University was greatly appreciated.

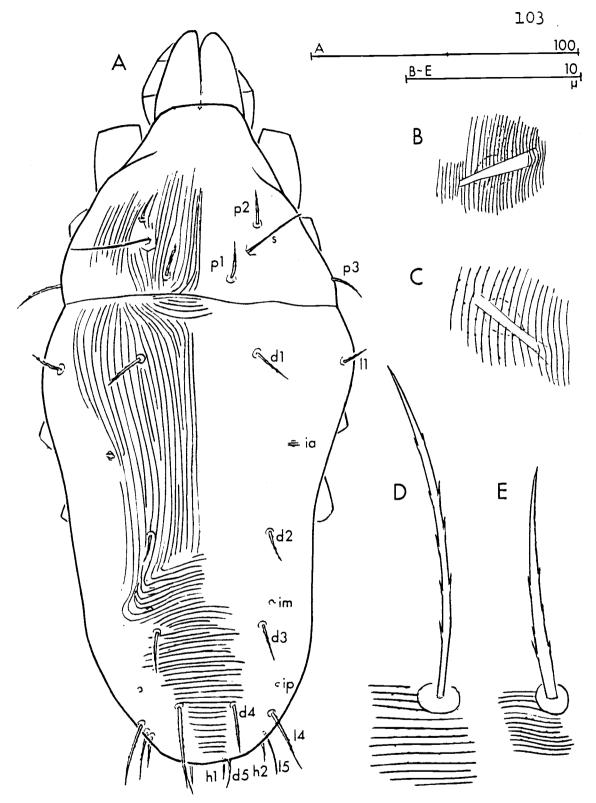


Figure 15: Homeopronematus vidae. Dorsal habitus (A); lyrifissure ia (left) (C) and seta 11 (D). Homeopronematus staercki : lyrifissure ia (right) (B) and seta 11 (E).

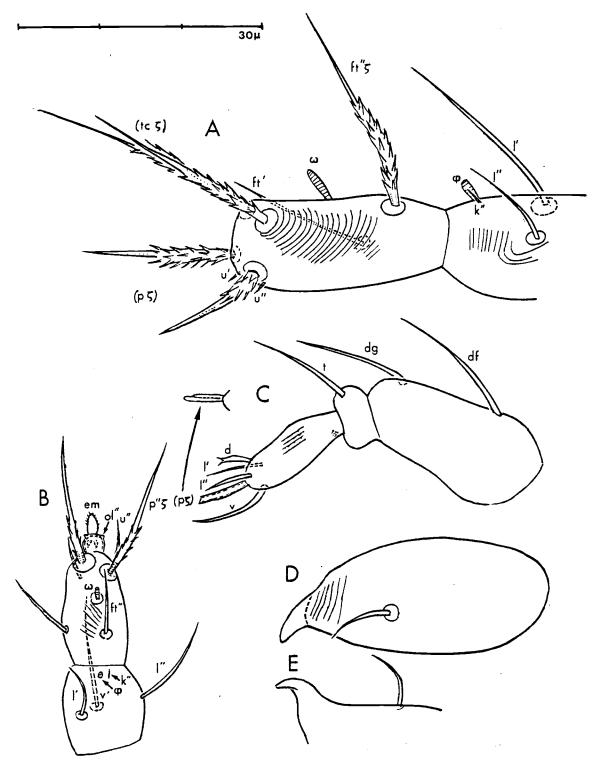


Figure 16: Homeopronematus vidae. Tarsus and tibia I of adult (A) and larva (B); palp in antiaxial view (C); femur IV of male in dorsal (D) and antiaxial (E) views.

- -SYNCNYMS: Lorryia (Baker 1944b); Paralorryia (Baker 1965, 1968d in part); Tydeus (Baker 1970 in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: H. cumbrensis (Baker 1944), ptype;
  H. shawi (Baker 1943), paratype of Melanotydeus
  brachipalpus synonymized with Tydeus shawi by Baker
  (1970); H. arthurbakeri (Baker 1944), paratype. It
  must be pointed out that all the species were
  collected from high altitudes in Mexico.
- -DIAGNOSIS: Frodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and h1 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: (0-4-6); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-1-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus  $I:(\underline{tc})$ ,  $(\underline{p})$  and sometimes  $(\underline{ft''})$ ; solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

## Idiolorryia new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1968b).
- -SYNCNYM : Lorryia (Baker 1968 in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: <u>I. macquillani</u> (Baker 1968), (monotypic): q holotype (Ireland) + tritonymph (same data); <u>Idiolorryia</u> sp.: q and tritonymph from bark, Ruette - StMard (Belgium).
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: recurved. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (<u>12</u>, <u>h1</u> and <u>h2</u> missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,?-6-4), T(2-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-2-3-0) II(6-1 or 2-1-3-0)

III(5-1-1-2-1) IV(5-1-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I:  $\underline{ft"}$ ,  $(\underline{tc})$ ,  $(\underline{p})$ ; solenidiotaxy: 1; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(6-1-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus. Other feature: gnathosoma elongate with movable chelae very long and straight; palpal tarsus long and slender, as are the setae it bears. Reticulate striation.

## Krantzlorryia new genus (52)

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1968b).
- -SYNONYM: Lorryia (Baker 1968b in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: K. grewia (Baker 1968) (monotypic): 1 Q holotype (Zaire).
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: recurved. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (<u>12</u> and <u>hl</u> missing); reticulate striation; poroidotaxy: 3; genital chaetotaxy: (0-6-4); epimeral formula (3-1-4-3); coxal organ. <u>Legs</u>: I(8-3-2-2-0) II(6-2-1-2-0) III(5-2-0-1-1) IV(5-2-0-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus  $I:(\underline{tc})$ , ( $\underline{p}$ ); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. <u>Palp</u>: (6-1-2) + $\omega$  with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

## Lasiotydeus Berlese 1908 sensu Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: L. krantzi Baker 1965: \$\oldsymbol{\rho}\$ holotype (California); L. krantzi \$\oldsymbol{\rho}\$ and \$\oldsymbol{\sigma}\$ labelled "77 IX -

<sup>(52)</sup> This genus is named for Dr. G.W. Krantz, under whom this work was achieved.

- 20 , ex K 76 C 3A, coll. V.G. Marshall, Canadian forestry service" from Kamloops, B.C., Canada.
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: recurved or slightly procurved, two eyes. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (<u>12</u> missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0,4-6-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). <u>Legs</u>: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-3-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (<u>tc</u>) and (<u>p</u>); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. <u>Palp</u>: (6-2-2) with <u>ba</u> vestigial and a terminal eupathidium apparently double. <u>Other feature</u>: a well developed empodial claw.
- -REMARKS: This genus is closely related to <u>Primotydeus</u>. Its habitus recalls a Tydeinae as does its empodial claws, palp eupathidium, and the prodorsal chaetotactic pattern.
- -OTHER SPECIES: L. volaticus Livshitz 1973.

#### Metalorryia new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1968b).
- -SYNONYM : Lorryia (Baker 1968b in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: M. armaghensis (Baker 1968): tritonymph, holotype (Ireland); specimens (adult, trito- and deutonymph from Belgium).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: 3; reticulate striation; genital organotaxy:
  Ad(0,4-6-4), T(4-4) D(2-2); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-3-2-3-0)
  II(6-2-1-2-0) III(5-2-1-1-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0) in the adult, trito- and deutonymph; eupathidia: ft', (tc),

- (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(6-1-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the end of the palp.
- -OTHER SPECIES: likely M. magdalenae (Gerson 1968).

#### Metapronematus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Treat (1970).
- -SYNONYM: Pronematus (Treat 1970).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: M. leucohippeus (Treat 1970)

  (monotypic): 2 q paratype, one tritonymph paratype

  (Massachusetts). A larva was described by Treat but,

  unfortunatelly, was lost.
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad & T(0-0-3); one
  pair of genital acetabula; epimeral formula: Ad &
  (3-1-4-2), L(3-1-1). Legs: apotele I with no, or at
  least reduced, claws in the larva; apotele I absent
  in the tritonymph and adult; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-33-1) II(6-2-3-3-1) III(6-2-2-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0) in
  the tritonymph and adult; in the larva: I(6-4-3-30) II(6-2-3-3-0) III(5-2-2-2-0); eupathidia on
  tarsus I: ft", (tc) and (p); larva with double
  anabasis; solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV undivided.
  Palp: (5-1-2) with a double eupathidium at the tip
  of the tarsus.

## Metatriophtydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Wood (1965).
- -SYNONYM: Triophtydeus (Wood 1965; André 1975).

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-SPECIES STUDIED: M. lebrupi n. sp. (all stases);
M. craveni (Wood 1965) : p holotype and paratype;
Metatriophtydeus sp. : 2 @ labelled "L. Martini
winery, St Helena, Napa Co., Calif., I - 15 - 70, Ex.
Budscale: var. Sauvignon Vert. Coll.: D. Kinn" and
 "Martini vineyards, St Helena, Calif. VII - 10 - 69,
Ex Sauvignon vert, coll. D. Kinn) and l larva
labelled "Christian Brothers, Napa Co., Calif., IV -
 3 - 69, Ex cutcanes of Zinfandel grape, coll. R.L.
Doutt. D.W. Kinn".
-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved; three eyes.
Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 11 setae (12
missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy:
Ad(2.6-6-5or4). T(4-4). D(2-2). P(0-1); epimeral
formulae: Ad & T(3-1-3-3), D(3-1-3-2), P(3-1-2-0),
L(3-1-2). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(10-5-3-5-1) II(6-2-2-1)
4-1) III(5-1-2-1-1) IV(5-2-2-(1-2)-0) in adult and
tritonymph, deutonymph: idem but I(10-4-3-4-0)
II(6-2-2-4-0), protonymph: I(8-4-3-4-0) II(6-2-2-4-
0) III(5-1-2-1-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0), larva : same chaeto-
taxy as the protonymph but without leg IV; eupathidia
on tarsus I: (ft N2), (tc N1), (it N3), (p), on
tarsus II : ft"N3, p", on tarsus III : ft Ad, and IV :
ft N3; solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. Palp:
 (6-2-2) + \omega with a triple eupathidium on the tarsus.
-DESCRIPTION of Metatriophtydeus lebruni n. sp. (53)
 (figure 17). Organotaxy defined in the generic
description; five pairs of aggenitals in the adult
(instead of four pairs in M. craveni). The presence
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<sup>(53)</sup> This species is called for Dr. Ph. Lebrum, who introduced me to mites and their ecology.

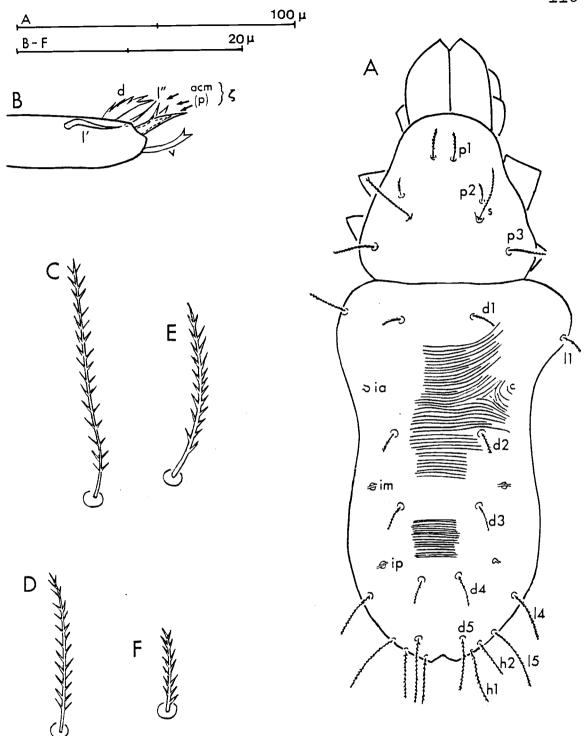


Figure 17: Metatriophtydeus lebruni. Dorsal habitus (A); tip of the palptarsus (B); setae 14 (C) and p3 (D). Metatriophtydeus craveni: setae 14 (E) and p3 (F).

- of  $(\underline{ps})$  is vertitionel. <u>Material</u>: all the stases collected in Belgium (Ruette and St Mard) on bark of different tree species (the ecology of  $\underline{M}$ . <u>lebruni</u> is defined by André in 1975 (under the old name "<u>Triophtydeus</u>") and 1979.
- -OTHER SPECIES: M. flatus (Livshitz 1973).

#### Metatydaeolus new genus

- -SPECIES STUDIED: Metatydaeolus sp. A: 2 labelled
  "Ex Aspen Mull, Morgan Arboretum, P.2. Canada, 15 VI 65, Coll. J.R. Hill"; Metatydaeolus sp. B: 1
  labelled "20 6 60 H-A, Tsuga Mor, Morgan
  Arboretum, P.2., Canada, Coll. V. Marshall";
  Metatydaeolus joannis n. sp..
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved; clublike sensillum. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0-4-3); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-4-4-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-2-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus  $I: \underline{ft}$ ,  $(\underline{tc})$ ,  $(\underline{p})$ ; solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV undivided. Palp:  $(5-2-2) + \omega$  with a triple eupathidium.
- -DESCRIPTION of Metatydaeolus joannis (54) (figure 18) Organotaxy as described above. Material: 3 \$\mathcal{Q}\$ (one in bad state) labelled "22 8 60 L+F, Ex Fagus mor, Morgan Arboretum, P.2. Canada, Coll. V. Marshall".
  -OTHER SPECIES: none.

<sup>(54)</sup> This species is named for my father, Jean André.

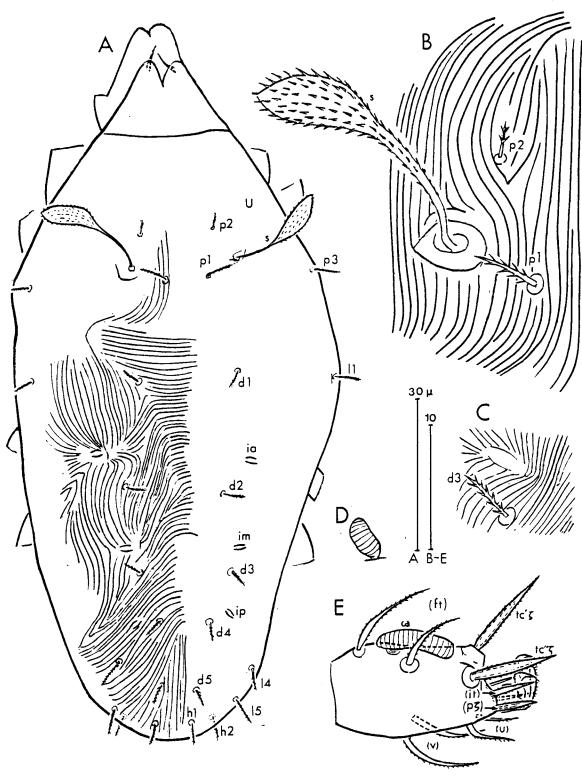


Figure 18: Metatydaeolus joannis. Dorsal habitus (A); detail of prodorsum (B) and of opisthosoma (C); solenidion  $\omega$ II (D) and tarsus I in antiaxial view (E).

## Meyerella Baker 1968

- -DESCRIPTION: Baker (1944), Baker (1968).
- -SYNONYM: Tydeus (Baker 1944b).
- -SPECIMENS STUDIED: M. bifurcatus Baker 1944: 1 \( \rho\)
  holotype (Mexico); M. marshalli n. sp. (\( \rho\) and
  the three nymphs).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: ll setae (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(4-6-5), T(4-4),
  D(2-2), P(0-1); epimeral formulae: Ad & T(3-1-3-3),
  D(3-1-3-2), P(3-1-2-0). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-6-4-5-1) II(7-3-3-4-1) III(7 or 5-2-2-3-1) IV(7 or 5-2-3-(1-2)-1) in the adult, in the tritonymph: idem but tarsi III and IV always with only five setae, in deutonymph: tarsus II with only six setae and no
  tr IV, in the protonymph: I(12-5-4-5-0) II(6-2-2-4-0) III(5-2-2-3-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0), eupathidia on tarsus
  I: (ft N2), (tc), it'N2, it"N3, (p) and on tarsus II: p"; solenidiotaxy: 4; femur IV divided. Palp:
  (8-2-2) +ω with four tarsal eupathidia.
- -DESCRIPTION of Meyerella marshalli n. sp. (55).

  Organotaxy is defined in the generic description.

  Tarsus III and IV with five setae in the adults.

  Figures 19, 20 illustrate the new species. It differs from M. bifurcatus in the following characters: d4 bifurcate rather than simple, the shape of the palp eupathidia are different (compare figures 10C and 20C), shape of the opisthosomal setae (compare figures

<sup>(55)</sup> This species is named for Dr. V.G. Marshall whose help during this study was greatly appreciated.

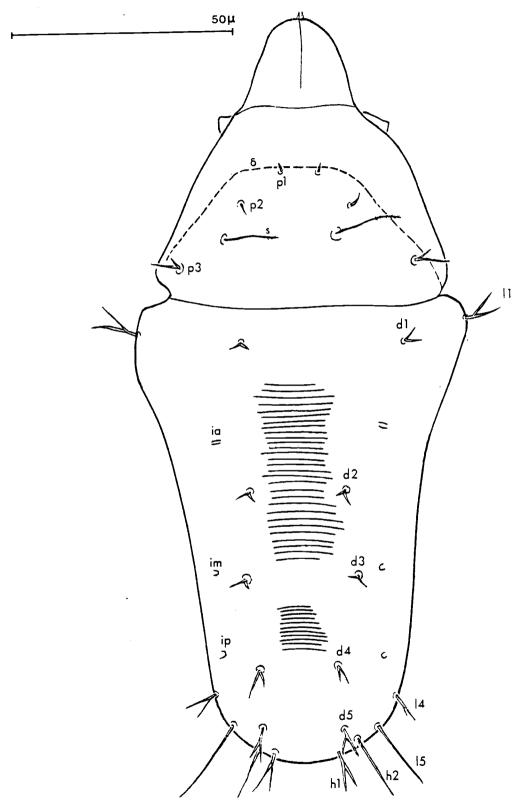


Figure 19: Meyerella marshalli dorsal habitus of a deutonymph.

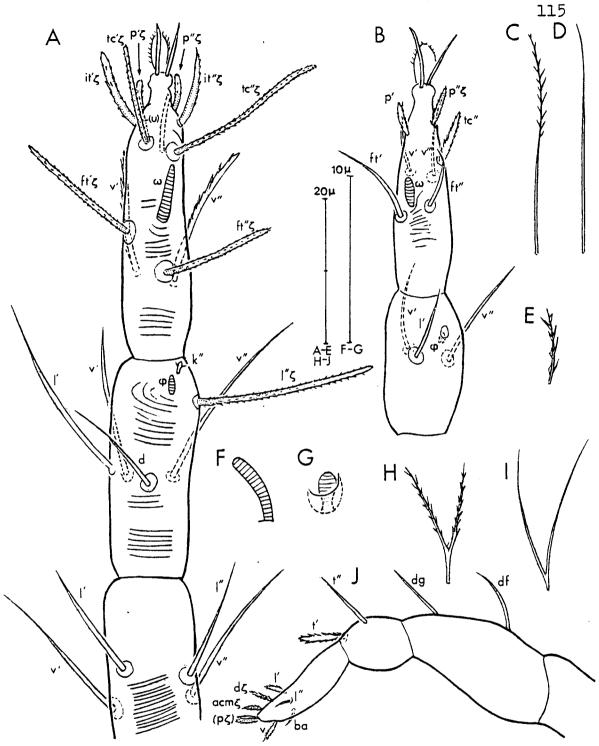


Figure 20: Meyerella marshalli. Tarsus, tibia and genu I in dorsal view (A); tarsus and tibia II in dorsal view (B); sensillum (C); seta 1a (E), solenidia YI (F) and YII (G), seta hl (H) and palp in antiaxial view (J). Meyerella bifurcatus: sensillum (D) and seta hl (I).

20H and I), <u>la</u> serrate rather than smooth, with five setae on tarsi III and IV in adult rather than seven. The description is based on the three nymphs and a q found in the Dr. Marshall's collection. The labels give as information the date (16 - V - 76) or (77 - 9 - 20) and a code number (K-D-75-#1A, K-D-75-#2A, K-76-D: 2A, K-76-D: 5A, K-76-D: 6A or K-76-C: 5A). All the slides bear the following: "Coll. V.G. Marshall. Canadian Forestry Service". The mites were collected in Kamloops, B.C., Canada.

-OTHER SPECIES: <u>M. petua</u> Livshitz 1972 (which has also 14 simple).

### Microtydeus Thor 1931, sensu Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: Microtydeus beltrani Baker 1944:

  φ paratype (Mexico); Microtydeus subterraneus

  Wood 1965: φ holotype + paratype (Yorkshire, Great

  Britain); Microtydeus sp.: l φ labelled "Host Parus
  caeruleus, Loc. Nijmegen, Date 7 VI 73,

  Lukoschus coll"; Microtydeus sp.: φ (in Evernia
  prunastri on Populus, St Mard, Belgium, Sept. 1974);

  Microtydeus spp.: φ, deuto- and tritonymph, larva
  (ex litter, mull... Morgan Arboretum, P.2., Canada,
  Coll. V.G. Marshall).
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: procurved. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (<u>12</u> missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,?-2-3), D(0-2), P(0-0); epimeral formula: Ad(3-1-4-3), D(3-1-4-2), P(3-1-3-0), L(3-1-2). <u>Legs</u>: chaetotaxy: I(11-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-1-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0) in the

adults; deutonymph as the adults but with two setae less on tarsi ((it) on tarsus I and (tc) on the other); protonymph: I(9-5-4-6-0) II(6-2-4-4-0) III(5-2-1-3-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0); larva as the protonymph but minus leg IV and with double anabasis and (tc) vestigials on tarsus I; eupathidia on tarsus I: ft"N2, (tc N1), (p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV undivided. Palp: 6(1)-2-2 with ba vestigial and a triple terminal eupathidium.

-OTHER SPECIES: Microtydeus bellus Livshitz and Kuznetzov 1973.

#### Naudea Meyer and Rodrigues 1965

- -DESCRIPTION: Meyer and Rodrigues (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED : none.
- -DIAGNOSIS: (according to Meyer & Rodrigues 1965 as well as Baker & Delfinado 1976): Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy:?; genital organotaxy: (0-0-4)?; epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(7-2-3-3-1) III(7-2-2-2-1) IV(7-2-1-(1-1)-0); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV divided.Palp: (5-1-2). Other features: claws vestigials or absent on apotele I.
- -REMARK: The only one species: <u>Naudea richinda</u> Meyer and Rodrigues 1965 was not available for this study.

## Neolorryia new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1968b).
- -SYNONYM : Lorryia (Baker 1968b in part).

-SPECIES STUDIED: N. boycei Baker 1968: 1 q holotype with a trito- and a deutonymph (Mexico); N. pandana Baker 1968: 1 q holotype (Hawaii).

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (12, hl and h2 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; reticulate pattern; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,?-4 or 5-4), T(3-4), D(1-2); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: I(8-3-2-2-0) II(6-1-1-2-0) III(5-1-0-1-1) IV(5-1-0-1-0) in the adult, trito- and deutonymphs; eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p): solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp: (6?-1-2) + \omega, with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

### Orthotydeus new genus

-OTHER SPECIES: none.

- -DESCRIPTION: Marshall (1970).
- -SYNONYM : Lorryia (Marshall 1970).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: 0. lindquisti (Marshall 1970)

  (monotypic): 1 of from Chalk River Ontario, Pine litter. coll. V.G. Marshall.
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,4-6-4), D(2-2); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-2-2-0) III(5-2-1-1-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus  $I: \underline{ft}$ , (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$ , with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

## Parapronematus Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. acaciae Baker 1965: 1 9 holotype (Zaire); P. geminus Meyer and Rodrigues 1966: 2 specimens from South-Africa sent by Meyer (slide no Acy 70/533 and Acy 467/273).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved; (p2) undersized or missing. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (12, h1, ps missing); poroidotaxy: 4?; genital organotaxy: (0-0-3); only one pair of genital acetabula; epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). Legs: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-3-2-3-1) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5 or 6-2-2-2-1) IV(5 or 6-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I, ft', (tc), (p) and on tarsus II, p'; solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp: (5-1-2) with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.
- -OTHER SPECIES: P. citri Salviejo 1969.

## Paratriophtydeus Baker 1965

deutonymphs.

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SYNONYM : Tydeus (Baker 1943).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. protydeus: Q holotype (Mexico);
  P. plummeri: M holotype (Mexico); Paratriophtydeus
  sp.: Q and M labelled "Anaktaouk Pass, Alaska VI 12 68, ex clump of Claytonia" Paratriophtydeus sp.:
  5 labelled "14 X 68 Ex pine duff, Maynooth
  Ont. Hoyer's 1 XI 68 Coll J. Martin"; Paratriophtydeus coineaui n. sp.: Q, M, trito- and
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma:

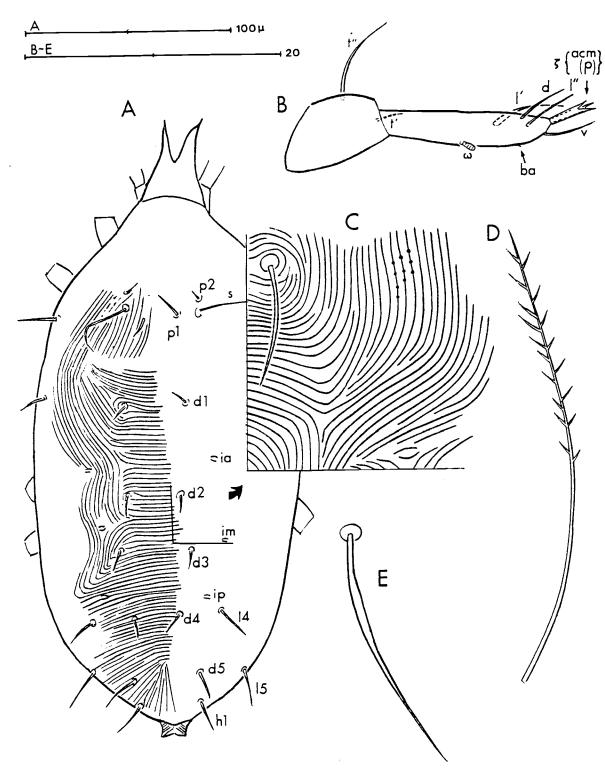


Figure 21: Paratriophtydeus coineaui. Dorsal habitus (A); palp in antiaxial view (B); detail of opisthosoma (C); sensillum (D); seta 15 (E).

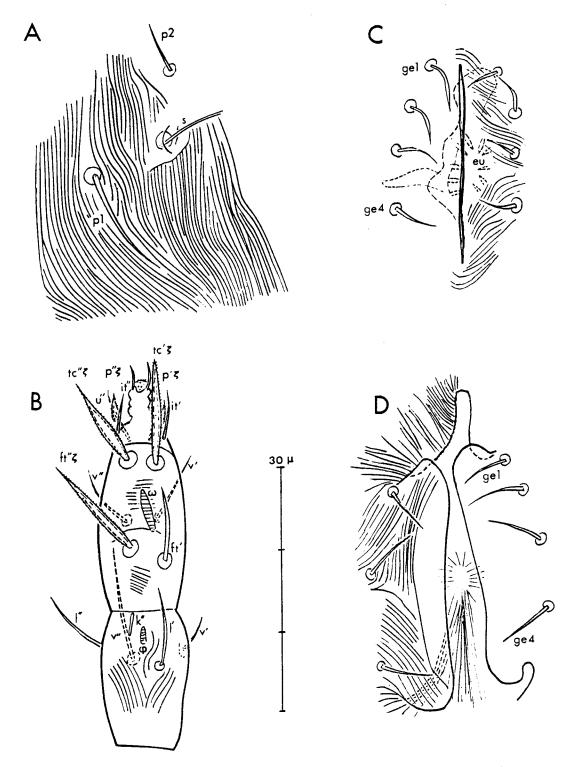


Figure 22: Paratriophtydeus coineaui. Detail of prodorsum (A); tarsus and tibia I in dorsal view (B); genital area of male (C) and female (D).

dorsal chaetotaxy : ll (12 missing) ; poroidotaxy : 4 ; genital organotaxy : Ad(0,4 or 5-3,4-4), T(1-4), D(0-2) ; epimeral formula : Ad & T(3-1-4-3), D(3-1-4-2). Legs : chaetotaxy : I(12-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-2-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0) in the adults and tritonymphs ; deutonymph similar to the adults but with two setae less on each tarsus ((it) on tarsus I and (tc) on the other) ; eupathidia on tarsus I : ft", (tc), (p) ; solenidiotaxy : 3 ; femur IV entire. Palp :  $(5 \text{ or } 6-2-2)+\omega$  with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other features : sensilla simple or clublike.

- -DESCRIPTION of <u>Paratriophtydeus coineaui</u> n. sp. (figures 21, 22) (56). Organotaxy as described above; 5 pairs of eugenitals in males; vertition of genitals in female: with 4 genitals on a genital lip (frequency = 0,175); males always with four pairs of genitals. Seta <u>ba</u> is vestigial. <u>Material</u>: 20 \( \rho\$, 7 \( \delta\$, 2 tritonymphs, 1 deutonymph labelled "Winnipeg, Man. Ex Wheat. Coll. R.N. Sinha Oct. 20 1969", some slides are dated "Nov. 13 1968".
- -OTHER SPECIES: none.

#### Paratydaeolus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION : Wood (1965).
- -SYNONYM: Coccotydeus (Wood 1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. loadmani (Wood 1965): q holotype (Great Britain); P. lukoschusi n. sp.: q, trito-

<sup>(56)</sup> The species is named for Dr. Y. Coineau who welcomed me into his laboratory at Banyuls-sur-Mer (France).

and deutonymphs, larva; Paratydaeolus sp.: 7 adults, 2 trito- and 1 protonymphs labelled "Ex Sexsmith, Alberta, Hoyer's 21 - X - 68, Coll. R.N. Sinha". -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved; the sensilla clublike. Opisthosoma : dorsal chaetotaxy : 11 (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0,?-3-4), T(1-4), D(0-2), P(0-1); epimeral formula: Ad & T(3-1-4-3) or (3-1-4-2), D(3-1-4-2), P(3-1-3-0)L(3-1-2). Legs: I(12-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-3-1) III(7-2-4-6-1)1-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0) in adults and tritonymphs; tarsus I with only 10 setae and tarsus IV with 5 in deutonymphs; protonymph : I(10-5-4-6-0) II(6-2-4-3-0)III(5-2-1-3-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0); larva: I(8?-5-4-6-0)II(6-2-4-3-0) III(5-2-1-3-1) with double anabasis; eupathidia on tarsus I : ft"N2, (tc N1), (p); solenidiotaxy : 3 ; femur IV entire. Palp : (5-2-2)  $+\omega$  with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the palp. -DESCRIPTION of P. <u>lukoschusi</u> (57). Organotaxy is defined in the generic description. Figures 2B and 23 describe the species. Material : 5  $\varphi$  , 2 tritonymphs, 5 deutonymphs and 1 larva labelled: "Host Parus caeruleus; Loc. Nijmegen; Date 7 - VI - 73; Lukoschus Leg." -OTHER SPECIES: P. expressus (Kuznetzov 1973) and P. lanceoclaviger (Livshitz 1973) (they differ from P. lukoschusi by the lenght and the shape of setae and the shape of sensillum).

<sup>(57)</sup> This species is named for Dr. F. Lukoschus who kindly sent me his collection of Tydeidae.

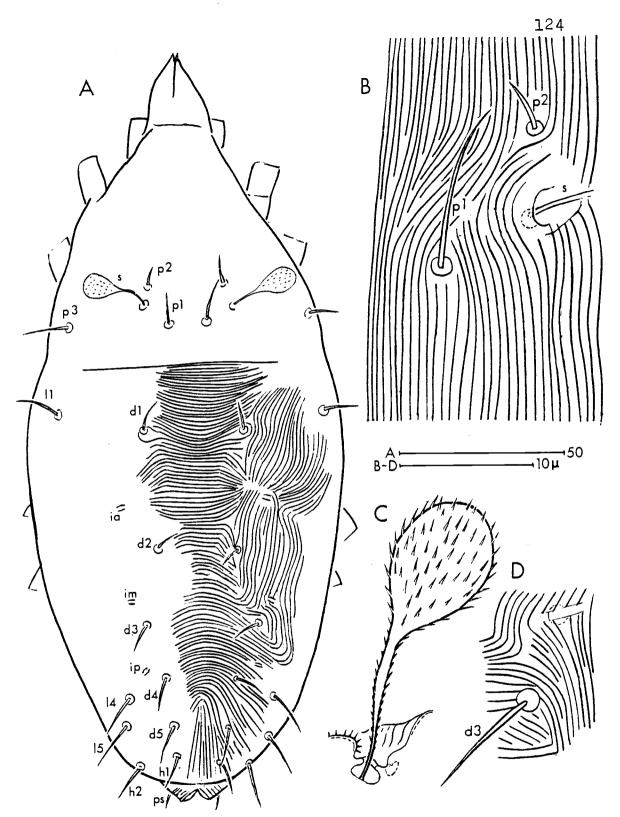


Figure 23: Paratydaeolus lukoschusi. Dorsal habitus (A); detail of prodorsum (B); sensillum and bothridia (C); detail of opisthosoma (D).

#### Pausia Kuznetzov and Livshitz 1972

- -DESCRIPTION: Kuznetzov and Livshitz (1972).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. magdalenae (Baker and Delfinado 1976): 1 q holotype (Greece/Boston).
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: procurved. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (<u>12</u> missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0,?-0-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). <u>Legs</u>: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-3-3-1) III(6-2-2-2-1) IV(5-2-1-(1-1)-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: <u>ft"</u>, (<u>tc</u>), (<u>p</u>); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV divided. Palp:  $(5-1-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus (figure 4F).
- -OTHER SPECIES: Pausia taurica Kuznetzov 1972.

#### Perafrotydeus new genus

- -SYNONYM: Tydeus (Afrotydeus) Baker (1970 in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. meyerae Baker 1970 (monotypic):
  - 1 tritonymph in pupation , holotype (Kenya).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: Ad(0-4-4), T(2-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-4-3-1) II(6-2-2-1-0) III(5-2-1-1-0) IV(5-2-1-0-0) in the adult; tritonymph similar but with no tr I and with nude femur III; eupathidia on tarsus I: (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy: 1; femur IV undivided. Palp: (6-2-2) + ω with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other features: as in Afrotydeus, paraproctal suckers well developed and 1' on tibia I slender and with a small root.

#### Prelorryia new genus

-DESCRIPTION: Baker (1968b). -SYNONYM : Lorryia (Baker 1968b). -SPECIES STUDIED: P. indionensis (Baker 1968) (monotypic) : 1 q holotype (Java). -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (12, hl and h2 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy (0-?,6-4); epimeral formula : Ad(3-1-4-3) ; coxal organ. Legs : chaetotaxy : I(8-4-2-3-1) II(6-2-0-3-1) III(5-2-0-3-1)1-1) IV(5-2-0-0-0) in the adult; larva: I(8-4-2-3-1)0) II(6-2-0-3-0) III(5-2-0-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I : ft, (tc), (p) in the adult; double anabasis with (tc) vestigial in the larva (figure 8C); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp: (6-2-2) +  $\omega$ , with a triple eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

## Pretriophtydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Strandtmann (1967, 1970).
- -SYNONYM: Tydeus (Strandtmann 1967), Triophtydeus (Baker 1970)
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. tilbrooki (Strandtmann 1967)
  (typical form): l tritonymph paratype (Antarctica),
  ltritonymph labelled "Bishop Museum, Antarctica,
  Norsel pt. Anvers I ex Alaskozetes exoskeleton
  cender rock 9-I-1966 J. Strong", l & labelled
  "Bishop Museum Antarctica Norsel Pt. Anvers I lichen incrused Moss 3-XI-65 J. Strong".
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 11 setae (12 missing); poroido-

taxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(2,6-6-4), T(4-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-3-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-3-5-1) II(7-3-2-4-1) III(5-2-2-3-1) IV(5-2-2-(1-2)-0); eupathidia on tarsus  $I:(\underline{ft})$ ,  $(\underline{tc})$ ,  $(\underline{it})$ ,  $(\underline{p})$ , on tarsus II,  $\underline{ft}$  and  $\underline{p}$ , and on tarsi III and IV,  $\underline{ft}$ ; solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV divided. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$  with a triple eupathidium on the tarsus. -OTHER SPECIES: (The varietal form of "Tydeus tilbrooki" should belong to the genus Apotriophtydeus)

#### Pretydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Baker (1968b, d), Marshall (1970).
- -SYNONYMS: Retetydeus (Baker 1944c, 1947); Lorryia (Baker 1944b, 1947, 1965, 1968b, 1970 in part); Paralorryia (Baker 1968d in part).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. hondurensis (Baker 1968): Q
  holotype (Honduras); P. doddsi (Baker 1944): Q
  holotype, and tritonymph paratypes (Mexico);
  P. lwiorensis (Baker 1965): 1 Q holotype and 2
  tritonymphs (Zaire) (figure 6D, E); P. kevani
  (Marshall 1970): 1 Q holotype and paratypes (deuto-
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,4-6-4), T(4-4),
  D(2-4); epimeral formula: Ad & T(3-1-4-3) D(3-1-4-2)
  L(3-1-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-2-3-1) II(6-2-0-3-1) III(5-2-0-1-1) IV(5-1-1-1-0) in
  the adult and tritonymph; deutonymph similar but
  without trI and trII; larva: I(8-4?-?-?-) II(6-2-0-?-?) III(5-2-?-?-?); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft"

nymph, tritonymph, larva and prelarva) (Man. Canada).

(not always), (tc), (p); simple anabasis in the
larval stase with (tc) vestigials; solenidiotaxy:
3 (φI partly recessed); femur IV entire. Palp: (62-2) +ω with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the
tarsus. Other feature: empodial claws well developed.
-REMARK: The genital chaetotaxy of P. lwiorensis is
variable in tritonymphs; four different formulae
were observed on two specimens: (3-4) (2-4?) (4-4)
and (4-3).
-OTHER SPECIES: Maybe P. panitae (Baker 1968),
P. marcandrei (Baker 1968)... (i.e. the group

#### Primotydeus new genus

"lwiorensis" of Baker (1968b)).

-SPECIES STUDIED: Primotydeus strandtmanni n. sp. (58) (monotypic) φ and σ, tritonymph and deutonymph.

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,5-2,6-4), T(2-4), D(1-2); epimeral formula: Ad & T (3-1-4-3), D(3-1-4-2). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-3-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0) in the adults and tritonymph; deutonymph similar but with two setae less on each tarsus ((it) on tarsus I and (tc) on the other) and with no tr II; eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp: (6-2-2) + ω with ba vestigial and a

<sup>(58)</sup> This species is named for Dr. R.W. Strandtmann who kindly sent me a collection of Tydeidae for this study.

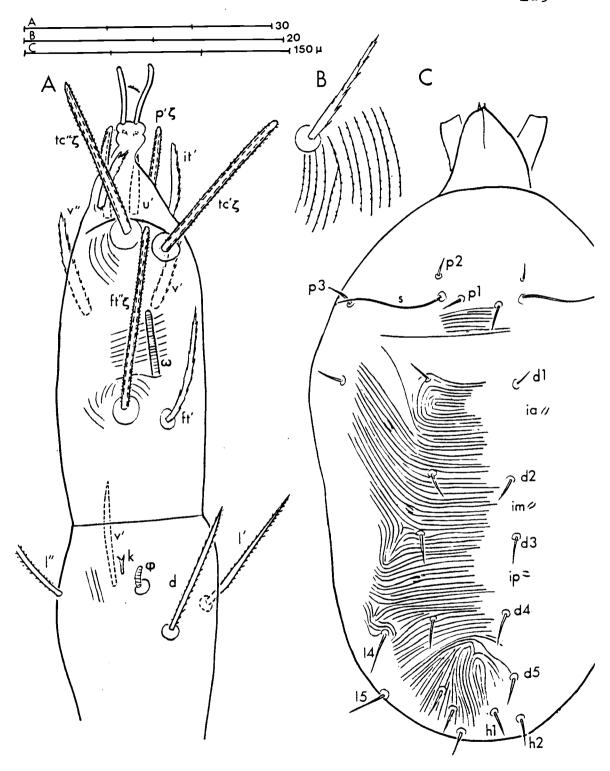


Figure 24: Primotydeus strandtmanni. Tarsus and tibia I in dorsal view (A); seta p2 (B); dorsal habitus (C).

triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

-DESCRIPTION of <u>Primotydeus strandtmanni</u> n. sp.

(figure 24). Organotaxy as described above. <u>Material</u>:

4 \( \rho \), 3 \( \sigma^{\sigma} \), 1 deuto- and 1 tritonymph labelled

"Nuwak, Alaska, Snow Bunting Nest, 12-VII-67 R.W.S.".

## Proctotydaeus Berlese 1911 sensu Fain and Evans 1966

- -DESCRIPTION: Fain and Evans (1966)
- -SYNONYM: Pronematus (Baker and Wharton 1952; Treat 1961); Pronematulus (Treat 1967, 1970); Oriola (Baker 1968); Oriolella (Baker 1969).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: Proctotydaeus schistocercae Fain and Evans 1966: o, o, trito- and deutonymphs, larva (all paratypes); P. pyrohippeus (Treat 1961): two adults labelled "Ex right tympanic recess of Acronycta dactylina Grote o, at light, Tyringham, Mass., 19 July 1963, A.E. Treat leg." and "in left tympanic recess of Acronycta morula G & R, 70-32 &, Tyringham Mass, 27 July 1970" and a larva labelled "reared from egg found on 71-6 o, Acronycta dactylina (Grote), Tyringham Mass., 29 June to 10 July 1971"; P. farbae (Baker 1968): 1 o holotype; Proctotydaeus sp. (description of this species by Flechtmann and Camargo still in press) (figures 4C; 6A, B, C).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0-0-4), T(0-4), D(0-2); only one pair of genital acetabula; epimeral formula: Ad, T, D(3-1-4-2), L(3-1-2). Legs: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) III(7-2-3-3-1) III(7-2-2-2-

- 1) IV(7-2-1(1-1)-0) in the adults and tritonymphs; deutonymph similar minus tr I and tr II, tc" II, (tc) III and (tc) IV; larva: I(6-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-3-3-0) III(5-2-2-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft"N2 (tc), (p); anabasis in the larva; solenidiotaxy:

  3. Palp: (4 or 5-1-2) with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other feature: femur IV divided or not; paraproctal more or less developed; sensilla clublike in the species described by Flechtmann and Camargo (in press).
- -OTHER SPECIES: P. rusticus (Meyer and Rodrigues 1965),
  P. oblongus (Kuznetzov 1973), P. galapagosensis Fain
  and Evans 1965.
- -REMARKS: Most of the known species of <u>Proctotydaeus</u> have been found associated with insects (gallery of bark beetle, bee-hive, phoretic on Lepidoptera or Orthoptera). <u>P. rusticus</u> (found on <u>Gossypium</u>) and <u>P. oblongus</u> (found on a Greek nut tree) are exceptions. These species are involved in special adaptations to their environment. This genus is a good example of the variations played by the evolutionary process on a chaetotactic theme.

## Pronecupulatus Baker 1944

- -DESCRIPTION: Baker (1944a, 1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. anahuacensis Baker 1944 (monotypic): 1 & holotype and 1 protonymph found on the same tree but later by Baker.
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: procurved. <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (l2 missing); poroidotaxy: 4?; genital organotaxy: Ad(?) (holotype twisted),

P(0-0), epimeral formula: Ad(?), P(1-3-3-0). Legs: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-1-3-1) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-2-0) in the adult; I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-1-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-0) in the protonymph; eupathidia on tarsus  $I: \underline{ft'}$  (not in the protonymph),  $(\underline{tc})$ ,  $(\underline{p})$ ; solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp: ? (in too bad a state).

## Pronematulus Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. vandus Baker 1965 (monotypic): 9 holotype (Florida).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Description: recurved. Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (l2 missing); poroidotaxy:
  4; genital organotaxy: (0-0-4); epimeral formula:
  (3-1-4-2). Legs: no apotele I; chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(7-2-2-3-1) III(6-2-2-2-1) IV(6-2-1-2-0);
  eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV seemingly divided. Palp: (5-2-2)
  with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

# Pronematus Canestrini 1886 sensu Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION: Baker (1965), Baker (1968).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: P. ubiquitus (McGregor 1932): 2 specimens from the collection of Dr. M.K.P. Meyer (South Africa, found on plants) (slides AcY 76/351 and AcY 77/473) and P. rykei Meyer and Rodrigues 1965: three specimens sent by Dr. Meyer from South Africa (slides AcY 74/456, AcY 74/260 and AcY 74/224).

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-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma:
dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing);
poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0-0-4);
epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2). Legs: no apotele I;
chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-3-3-0) III(5-2-2-2-1) IV(5-2-1-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc),
(p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV undivided. Palp:
(5-1-2).
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-OTHER SPECIES: undetermined.

# Pseudotydeus Baker and Delfinado 1974

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-DESCRIPTION: Baker and Delfinado (1974).
-SPECIES STUDIED: P. perplexus Baker and Delfinado
 1974 (monotypic): 1 tritonymph paratype (Ohio).
-DIAGNOSIS : Prodorsum : recurved. Opisthosoma :
 dorsal chaetotaxy : 11 (12 missing) ; poroidotaxy :
 4 ; genital organotaxy : T(4-4) ; epimeral formula :
 (3-1-4-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-6-4-6-1) II(7-2-6-4-6-1)
 3-3-1); eupathidia on tarsus I: \underline{ft'}, (\underline{tc}), (\underline{p}) and
 on tibia I (1"); solenidiotaxy: 3 (\varphi I recessed);
 femur IV entire. Palp: (5-1-1) + \omega with a triple
 eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other feature:
 there are two clusters, one (\omegaI-\underline{ft}') on tarsus I and
 (k"-1"5) on tibia I; the species has a long tail
 like caudal extension overhanging an inward fold.
-REMARK: Pseudotydeus was considered the type genus
 of a new subfamily by Baker and Delfinado. This
 opinion is not followed here. It must be pointed out
 that the clusters observed in this species exactly
 coincide with a description of a member of the tydeoid
 family Ereynetidae by Grandjean (1939) (figure 25).
```

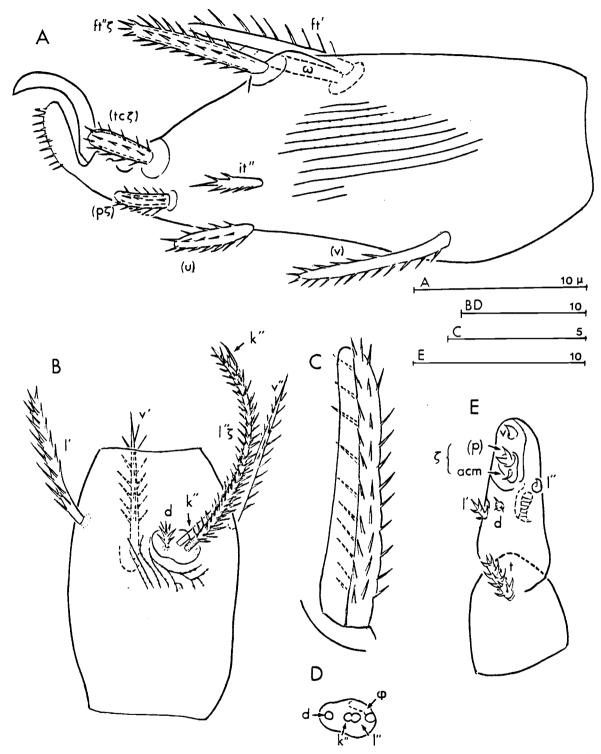


Figure 25 : Pseudotydeus perplexus. Tarsus I in antiaxial view (A) ; tibia I in dorsal view (B) ; cluster ( $\omega$ I-ft') in antiaxial view (C) ; location of  $\varphi$ I, with setae not drawn (D) ; palp in dorsal view (E).

#### Teletriophtydeus new genus

- -DESCRIPTION: Strandtmann (1967).
- -SYNONYM: Tydeus (Strandtmann 1967), Paratriophtydeus (Baker 1970)
- -SPECIES STUDIED: <u>T. wadei</u> (Strandtmann 1967) (monotypic): l tritonymph and l of paratypes (Antarctica).
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved, no bothridia.

  Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (l2 missing);
  poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(4,6-6-5), T(4-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-3-3). Legs:
  chaetotaxy: I(10-6-3-4-0) II(6-3-1-4-0) III(5-2-1-3-1) IV(5-2-1-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft', (tc),
  (it N3), (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV divided.

  Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$  with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

## Tydaeolus Berlese 1910 sensu Baker 1965

- -DESCRIPTION : Baker (1965).
- -SYNONYMS: <u>Tydeus</u> (Berlese 1910), <u>Coccotydeus</u> (Thor 1931, 1933; Baker and Wharton 1952).
- -SPECIES STUDIED: Tydaeolus tenuiclaviger (Thor 1931)
  sensu Baker 1965; Tydaeolus sp. (from different
  fungi (Penicillium, Trichoderma, Absidia), Winnipeg,
  Man. Canada, coll. H.A.H. Wallace or R.N. Sinha);
  Tydaeolus sp.: labelled "Parus caeruleus; Loc.
  Nijmegen, Date 7-VI-73, Lukoschus Lega".
- -DIAGNOSIS: <u>Prodorsum</u>: procurved; clublike sensillum· <u>Opisthosoma</u>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (<u>12</u> missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: Ad(0,?-2-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). <u>Legs</u>: (ontogeny after

Grandjean 1938): I(11-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-2-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0) in the adults; deutonymphs with two setae less on each tarsus, (it) on tarsus I and (tc) on the other; protonymph: I(9-5-4-6-0) II(6-2-4-4-0) III(5-2-2-3-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0); larva: I(7?-4-4-6-0) II(6-2-4-4-0) III(5-2-2-3-0) with double anabasis; eupathidia on tarsus I: ft"N2, (tc N1), (p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp: apparently only three setae on the tarsus, among which is the triple eupathidium, and the solenidion. However, Kuznetzov and Livshitz (1972) give the formula (5(1)-2-2).

-OTHER SPECIES: Tydaeolus frequens (Grandjean 1938),
Tydaeolus shaeroclaviger Kuznetzov 1972.

### Tydeus Koch 1835 new combination

- -SYNONYMS: Tydeus Koch 1835 sensu Baker 1968 (in part); Lorryia Oudemans 1925 sensu Baker 1968 (in part), Paralorryia Baker 1965 (in part), Tydulosus Canestrini 1886 sensu Baker 1965.
- -SPECIES STUDIED: T. raphignathoides (Berlese 1910)

  sensu Baker 1968: labelled "from Apple, Bramley,
  Richhill, Co. Down, Ireland, 3-2-61, collector M.J.

  MacQuillan, Tritonymph"; T. reticulata Oudemans
  1928: "from rt. tympanic recess of? Feltia sp.

  killed by spider. Tyringham Mass, 9 october 1954, A.E.

  Treat, Det. E.W. Baker"; T. bedfordiensis (Evans
  1952): 1 q paratype (Great-Britain) (in addition,
  numerous specimens from Dr. Marshall's collection
  (Canada) and mine (Belgium)); T. turrialbensis
  (Baker 1968): 1 q holotype (Costa-Rica), the three

nymphs and the larval paratype; <u>T. tridactylus</u> (Weiss-Fogh 1948: 2 q and 1 d, deutonymphs (holotype and paratypes) (Danmark); <u>Tydeus</u> sp.: specimens from grape, Tessino, Switzerland; three other species from Belgium which will be described elsewhere.

- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved; two eyes. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and missing) : poroidotaxy : 3 ; genital organotaxy : Ad(0.4-6-4), T(4-4), D(2-2), P(0-1); epimeral formulae: Ad, T & D(3-1-4-2), P(3-1-3-0), L(3-1-2); coxal organ. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0) in the adult, trito- and deutonymphs; protonymph with no  $\underline{\text{tr}}$  I, sometimes with no tr III, and with only five tarsal setae on the fourth leg; larva: I(8-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft" N2, ( $\underline{tc}$  N1), ( $\underline{p}$ ); simple anabasis with ( $\underline{tc}$ ) vestigials in the larva; solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV undivided. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$  with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus. Other feature: the integument may be merely striated, partly or entirely reticulate or exhibit a "basketweave" pattern. A third unpaired empodial claw may be inconspicuous or obvious.
- -REMARKS: A number of generic entities have been synonymized here with <u>Tydeus</u> on the basis of chaetotaxy and ontogeny. However, the expanded genus may not necessarily be homogenous, since only a few ontogenies are known. For instance, <u>T. tridactylus</u>

is classified here in  $\underline{\text{Tydeus}}$  but the genital formula of its tritonymph is (2-4) rather than (4-4).

-OTHER SPECIES: According to the literature, about 200 species should belong to the genus <u>Tydeus</u>. However, further information must be gathered in order to clarify the status of many of these. For instance, Grandjean's (1938c) description of the leg chaetotaxy of <u>T. viviparus</u> (Thor) coincides with that described above for the genus except that the larva exhibit a double anabasis. This may constitute a specific difference.

#### Tydides Kuznetzov 1975 (monotypic)

- -DESCRIPTION: Kuznetzov (1975).
- -DIAGNOSIS: (according to Kuznetzov 1975) Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12 and hl missing); poroidotaxy: ?; genital organotaxy: (?-3-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ?. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp: (5-2-1) + ω, with a double eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.
- -REMARK: Tydides ulter Kuznetzov 1975 was not available for this study.

## Tyndareus Livshitz and Kuznetzov 1972

- -DESCRIPTION: Livshitz and Kuznetzov (1972).
- -DIAGNOSIS: (according to Livshitz and Kuznetzov 1972)

Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy:  $11(\underline{12} \text{ missing})$ ; poroidotaxy: 4?; genital organotaxy: (?-6-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(10 or 12-5-4-5-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-2-3-1) IV(7-2-1 or 0-2-0); (it) is missing or not on tarsus I; eupathidia on tarsus I:  $\underline{ft}$ , ( $\underline{tc}$ ), ( $\underline{p}$ ); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(5-2-2) + \omega$ .

-REMARK: The two species, <u>Tyndareus eloquens</u>
Livshitz 1972 and <u>Tyndareus rostratus</u> Kuznetzov 1972,
were not available for this study.

#### Generic Unit : Gl (Tydaeolinae)

Only 1 q labelled "Nawak Alaska, 12-VII-67, R.W.S, Snow bunting nest".

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: procurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing); poroidotaxy: ?; genital organotaxy: (0-2-3); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(12-5-4-6-1) II(8-2-4-4-1) III(7-2-3-3-1) IV(7-2-1-2-0); five eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc), (p); solenidiotaxy: 3; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$ , with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

#### Generic Unit : Ml (Meyerellinae)

Among the specimens of <u>Metatriophtydeus lebruni</u> collected in Belgium (Ruette - St Mard), a protonymph was found with a recessed solenidion on tibia II. It is thus a member of the Meyerellinae although the habitus coincides with that of the Triophtydeinae.

The idiosomal setae are not bifurcate as in <a href="Meyerella">Meyerella</a>.

-DIAGNOSIS: <a href="Prodorsum">Prodorsum</a>: recurved; three eyes.
<a href="Opisthosoma">Opisthosoma</a>: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing);

poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (0-1) and
only one pair of diachile slots in the progenital
groove; epimeral formula: (3-1-2-0). <a href="Legs">Legs</a>:
 chaetotaxy: I(10-5-4-4-0) II(6-3-2-4-0) III(5-2-2-2-1) IV(5-0-0-0-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (tc)
 and (p) and on tarsus II: p"; solenidiotaxy: 4;

femur IV entire. <a href="Palp">Palp</a>: (5-2-2) with a triple
eupathidium at the end of the palp.

#### Generic Unit Ml (Triophtydeinae)

The following generic unit diagnosis is based on two specimens (l φ and l σ ). Kindly sent by Dr. R.L. Smiley, U.S. National Museum, labelled "Inglis Motneka Kiwifruit leaves, 20-11-75 and 24-11-75".

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: ll (12 missing); poroidotaxy: 4; genital organotaxy: (2,6-6-5); epimeral formula: (3-1-3-3). Legs: chaetotaxy: I(10-5-3-5-1) II(6-2-2-4-1) III(5-1-2-1-1) IV(5-2-2-(1-2)-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: (ft), (tc), (it) and (p), on tibia I: 1" and on tarsus II: ft" and p"; solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV divided. Palp: (6-2-2) + ω, with a triple eupathidium at the tip of the tarsus.

#### Generic Unit TY1 (Tydeinae)

4 Q labelled "on Berlinia sp., Stanleyville, Belg Congo, April 18. 1955, E.W. Baker coll., n°33".

-DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved. Opisthosoma: dorsal chaetotaxy: 9 (12, hl and h2 missing); poroidotaxy: 3; genital organotaxy: (0-6-4); epimeral formula: (3-1-4-2); coxal organ present. Legs: chaetotaxy: I(8-4-3-3-1) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-0) IV(5-2-1-1-0); four eupathidia on tarsus I: (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy: 2; femur IV entire. Palp:  $(6-2-2) + \omega$ , with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

#### Generic Unit TY2 (Tydeinae)

- 1 d + 1 q labelled "Oregon Benton Co. near Rock Creek, Corvallis watershed, Ex Moss & Litter on Fir Stump, 11-13-76, Coll R.D. Sanders".
- -DIAGNOSIS: Prodorsum: recurved; Opisthosoma:
  dorsal chaetotaxy: 10 (12, hl missing); poroidotaxy:
  3; genital organotaxy: (0,4-6-4); epimeral formula:
  (3-1-4-2); coxal organ present. Legs: chaetotaxy:
  I(8-4-3-3-0) II(6-2-2-3-0) III(5-2-1-2-1) IV(5-2-1-1-0); eupathidia on tarsus I: ft", (tc) and (p); solenidiotaxy: 1; femur IV entire. Palp: (6-1-2) +
  ω, with a double eupathidium at the end of the tarsus.

#### B. Key to the stases

<del></del>
lCalyptostasis Prelarva
-"Normal" stase 2
2Three pairs of legs Larva
-Four pairs of legs 3
3Dehiscence line, 3, on prodorsum; genital
acetabula, if present, exposed; pro-
genital aperture absent Nymph 4
-Dehiscence line absent; with a progenital
chamber (sheltering genital acetabula when
they exist) opening through a progenital
chamber Adult
4Legs IV with only five setae, all arising
on the tarsus ; epimeral formula (3-1-2-
0) or $(3-1-3-0)$ ; no more than one pair
(eventually fused) of diachile slots Protonymph
-At least six setae on leg IV; epimeron IV
with two or three setae $\cdots \cdots \cdots$
5Epimeral formulae (3-1-3-2) or (3-1-4-2);
at most, with two pairs of genital setae
and two pairs of aggenitals Deutonymph (59)
-Epimeral formulae $(3-1-3-3)$ , $(3-1-4-3)$ or
(3-1-4-2) Tritonymph (59)

<sup>(59)</sup> In our present state of knowledge, it is impossible to distinguish between deuto- and tritonymphs in every case. Couplet 5, however, permits separation in most instances. The epimeral formula (3-1-4-2) is common to both nymphs, but the number of aggenital setae generally differs between the two stases. The key does not provide adequate information for certain genera, such as Homeopronematus male or Eotydeus where genital chaetotaxy regression occurs even in the adults. Further information on the ontogeny of these genera is required.

# C. Key to the subfamilies of Tydeidae (any stase)

1Leg solenidiotaxy : four ; four terminal
eupathidia at the tip of the palptarsus Meyerellinae
-Leg solenidiotaxy : three or less ;
multiple eupathidia at the tip of the
palp tarsus
2Leg solenidiotaxy: three 3
-Leg solenidiotaxy : two or less 5
3Apotele I absent or, at least, without
claws or with vestigial claws;
eupathidia very long on tarsus I; genital
setae absent, number of genital acetabula
varying from two pairs to none Pronematinae
-Apotele I normal ; genital setae present
at least commencing with the tritonymphal
stase; two pairs of genital acetabula
commencing with the deutonymph 4
4Genua II, III and IV nude; three pairs
of lyrifissures Pretydeinae (Pretydeus)
-Genu II with at least two setae;
genu III with at least one setae;
four pairs of lyrifissures Tydaeolinae
5Palptibia with two setae; genu II, III
and IV nude; multiple eupathidium at
the end of the palp with three small
tines Pretydeinae (Prelorryia)
-Without the above combination of
characters; double or triple
eupathidium at the end of the palptarsus 6
6Four pairs of lyrifissures; setae 12
present on the opisthosoma (fig. 3A)Australotydeinae

-Three or four pairs of lyrifissures;
setae <u>12</u> absent 7
7Three pairs of lyrifissures ; at most
three setae on femur I ; two eyes Tydeinae
-Four pairs of lyrifissures ; at least,
four setae on femur I; three eyes Triophtydeinae
D. Key to the genera (adults only)
1.—Tarus I with 12 setae · · · · · · · · · · · 2
-Tarsus I with 11 setae or less 11
2Tibia I with six setae (one of them
being eupathidial and another being
the famulus) and one solenidion;
tibia II also with a solenidion • • • • • Meyerella
-without the above combination of
characters
3Tibia I with six setae (one of them
being an eupathidium clustered with
the famulus) ; solenidion $arphi$ I
recessed; y II absent Pseudotydeus
-Tibia I with five setae 4
4Prodorsum recurved, (pl) clearly
anterior to (p2); femur IV divided Pretriophtydeus
-Prodorsum procurved, (pl) either
between $(\underline{p2})$ and $(\underline{s})$ or posterior
to $(\underline{s})$ ; femur IV not divided $\cdot \cdot 5$
5(pl) located posteriorly to (p2)
but anterior to $(\underline{s})$ ; strong double
eupathidium at the end of the palp
tarsus 6

-(pl) located between or posterior
to sensilla ; triple eupathidium
at the end of the palp 7
6Femur I with six setae ; genu III
with three setae Lasiotydeus
-Femur I with five setae ; genu III
with two setae Tyndareus (rostratus)
7Genu III with three setae; six
pairs of genital and four pairs
of aggenital setae Primotydeus
-Genu III with one or two setae 8
8Genu III with two setae ;
femur II with four setae 9
-Genu III with one seta ;
femur II with three setae 10
9Femur I with four setae Metatydaeolus
-Femur I with six setae Paratriophtydeus
10Femur I with six setae : femur
III with three setae <u>Paratydaeolus</u>
-Femur I with four setae ; femur
III with two setae Coccotydaeolus
llTarsus I with ll setae 12
-Tarsus I with 10 setae or less 14
12Prodorsum recurved ; femur IV
divided Apotriophtydeus
-Prodorsum procurved ; femur IV
not divided
13Three pairs of aggenital setae;
genu III with one seta Microtydeus
-Four pairs of aggenital setae ; genu
III with two setae Tydaeolus

14Tarsus I with ten setae	15
-Tarsus I with eight setae or less	19
15Tarsus I with a pair of ventrals	
(v) but without iterals ( $it$ ); genu	
<del>-</del>	16
-Tarsus I with a pair of iterals $(it)$	
but without ventrals $(\underline{v})$ ; genu II	
with one or two setae	18
16Prodorsum recurved ; 12 present on	
opisthosoma Australotyd	eus
-prodorsum procurved; 12 absent · · · · · ·	_
17Tarsi III and IV with seven setae;	
femur I with five setae · · · · Tyndareus (eloque	ns)
-Tarsi III and IV with five setae;	<u> </u>
femur I with four setae Aesthetyd	2119
	.645
18Genua II, III and IV with only	
	0110
one seta <u>Teletriophtyd</u>	
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd	
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd	<u>eus</u>
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae • Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent • • • • • • 2	eus 0
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae • Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	eus 0 0
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	eus 0 0
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae • Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent • • • • • • 2  -Apotele I present and normal • • • • • • • • • 2  -Apotele I absent • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	eus 0 0
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1 8 2
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1 8 2
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1 8 2
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or  with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1 8 22
-Genua II, III and IV with two setae . Metatriophtyd  19Apotele I with vestigial claws or with no claws; or apotele I absent	0 0 1 8 22

23Tarsus II with seven setae ; genu II
with two setae <u>Pronematulus</u>
-Tarsus II with only six setae ;
genu II with three setae 24
24Trochanters I and II with no setae;
Tarsi III and IV with five setae · · · Pronematus
-Trochanter I and II with one setae ;
Tarsi III and IV with six setae Homeopronematus of
25Only one pair of aggenital setae Homeopronematus of
-Three pairs of aggenital setae · · · · · · 26
26Genua I and II with three setae;
genu III with two setae · · · · · Metapronematus
-Genua I and II with two setae 27
27(p2) reduced or absent on the
prodorsum; genu III with two setae;
trochanter II nude · · · · · · · Parapronematus
(p2) normal; genu and trochanter II
with one setae · · · · · · · · Apopronematus
28Tarsi II, III and IV with seven setae · · · Naudea
-Tarsi II, III and IV with at most
six setae · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
29Tarsus III with six setae ; genu II
with three setae and genu III with
two setae · · · · · · · · · · · · · · Pausia
-Tarsus II with five setae ; genua II
and III with only one setae Pronecupulatus
30Genua II, III and IV nude; trochanter
II with one seta • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
-At least one seta on genu II;
trochanter II nude
31Solenidion $\varphi$ I present on tibia I <u>Pretydeus</u>
-Solenidion φ I absent · · · · · · Prelorryia

32.—Femur with two setae · · · · · · · · · · · · 33
-Femur III with only one setae 36
33Six pairs of genital setae and four
pairs of aggenitals
-Three or less pairs of genital setae 35
34Tibia III and IV with only one seta ;
ω2 absent <u>Idiolorryia</u>
-Tibia III and IV with two setae ; $\omega$ 2
present
35Two pairs of genital setae ; three or
four pairs of aggenitals Eotydeus
-Three pairs of genital setae ; four
pairs of aggenitals Tydides
36Genu I with three setae ; genu II
with two setae
-Genu I with one or two setae ;
genu II with one setae 40
37Femur IV nude ; four pairs of genital
setae
-Femur IV with one seta ; six pairs
of genital setae • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
38Solenidion ωII present · · · · · · . Afrotydeus
-Solenidion $\omega$ II absent $\dots \dots \underline{ ext{Perafrotydeus}}$
39Femur II with three setae Homeotydeus
-Femur II with two setae Crthotydeus
40Genua III and IV with one seta Metalorryia
-Genua III and IV nude 41
41Tibia II, III and IV with two setae Krantzlorryia
-Tibia II, III and IV with one seta 42
42Trochanter II with one seta; four or
five pairs of genital setae ; four
pairs of aggenitals Neolorryia

-Trochanter IV with no seta ; three pairs of genital and aggenital setae · · · Apolorryia

#### CONCLUSIONS

As emphasized by Athias-Henriot (1975), the elaboration of identification tools has nothing in common with systematic investigations. "For the first procedure, clearly visible morphological details are important. The second one requires a correct morphological understanding of the body components and an exhaustive study of their distribution and variability throughout the members of the whole group." (Athias-Henriot, 1975: 106). An exhaustive study of organotactic characteristics of the family Tydeidae is presented in chapters II to IV of this work. The data collected were subjected to cladistic analyses in order to construct a consistent phylogeny and classification for the family. The resulting scheme does not pretend to be free of error, especially in regard to the manner of weighting the characters used. However, at the very least, a frame of reference has been provided for future studies.

Future work on tydeid systematics may be oriented in one of two ways: either downward to the generic and specific levels, or upward to the superfamilial level. Many species will have to be redescribed either because of the poor quality of the first description, or because immatures were neglected. Such a study could be achieved by individual in-depth reviews of the proposed subfamilies or even of genera. The other possibility for a meaningful approach to future study of tydeid systematics is through an examination of the superfamily Tydeoidea. Krantz (1978) grouped three other families with the Tydeidae in the Tydeoidea: the Ereynetidae, Paratydeidae, and Iolinidae.

I have studied only a few specimens of Ereynetidae, Paratydeidae, and Iolinidae. On the basis of this limited study, however, some features are already obvious. The Paratydeidae are clearly distinct from Tydeidae; the peritremes of the former group are more developed and their solenidiotaxy is notably richer. However, the notation proposed here for the Tydeidae should be applicable to the Paratydeinae as well. The Ereynetidae pose a problem in that I am unable to demonstrate any differences between them and the Tydeidae. The so-called ereynetal organ of tibia I of Ereynetidae (designation still used by Fain 1964) was identified long ago as solenidion YI (Grandjean, 1939). This solenidion is deeply recessed in adult ereynetids but, in the larval stase, it does not differ from a recessed solenidion of tydeids. The solenidiotaxy of Ereynetidae is richer than that of the tydeid subfamily Tydeinae but poorer than that of Meyerellinae. The ereynetid chaetotaxy is surprisingly similar to that of the Tydeidae, even as regards the eupathidia. Paraproctal suckers are common to both families. A distinctive clustering of ( $\omega I$ -ft') and (k"-l" $\xi$ ) which has been observed both in an Ereynetes species and in Pseudotydeus. The number of genital acetabula is virtually identical in both families (the tydeid subfamily Pronematinae is an exception). Poroidotaxy is also similar. Therefore, it is likely that the two families will have to be amalgamated or at least reorganized along other lines. It would be necessary to study the Ereynetidae in depth and to apply a cladistic approach simultaneously to genera that presently are assigned to the Tydeidae or Ereynetidae. The Iolinidae, from which

the genus <u>Proctotydaeus</u> has been withdrawn, comprises only the genus <u>Tolina</u>. At first sight, Iolinidae could be included in the Tydeoidea as proposed by Krantz (1978). Differences may be found on the gnathosoma (palpsegments fused, styliform chelicerae).

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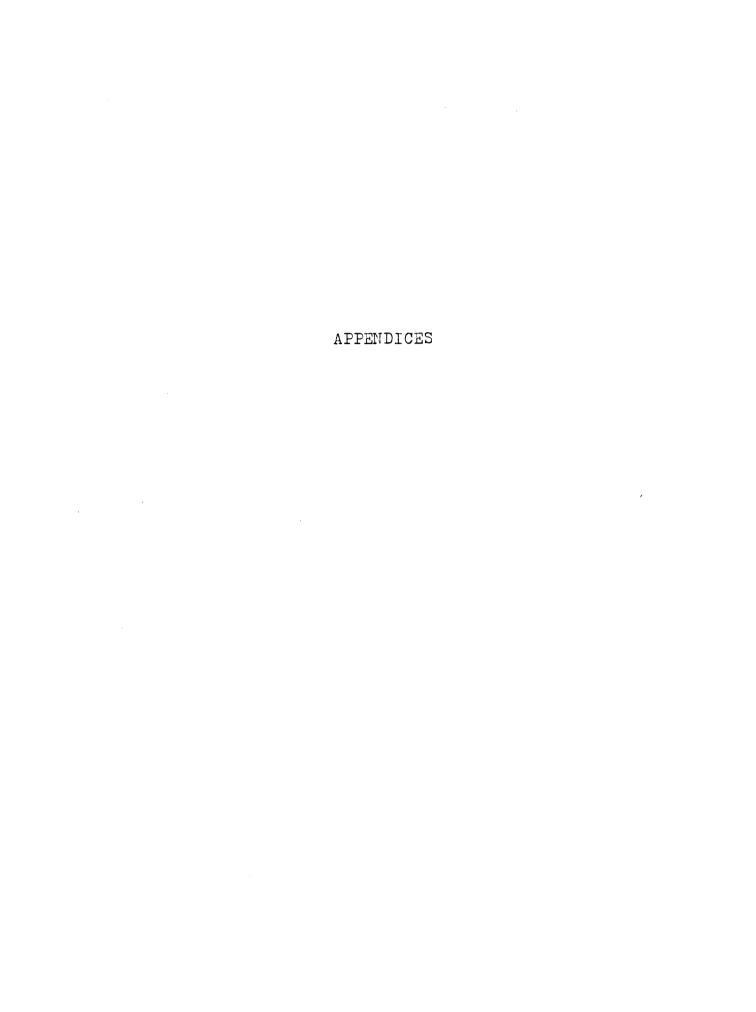
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#### Appendix I : Glossary of special terms

- AMPHISTASY: the quality of state of being amphistatic (ant. eustasy).
- AMPHISTATIC: not appearing at a particular stase (anteustatic).
- ANABASIS: migration of either or both proral setae of tarsus to the position on the tectal setae (see figure 8).
- ANHOMOLOGOUS TAUTERGY: repetition through ontogeny of a particular morphological character of (a) well defined organ(s) when the organs bearing this character are not the same from one stase to another but apparently keep the same location on the animal (adapted from Grandjean, 1964: 170).
- ANOMALY: individual and exceptional variation of any nature, almost always unilateral, to which no evolutionary significance may be attributed in the present state of knowledge (Grandjean, 1972: 455).
- ATRICHOSY: state or quality of an area or of a segment that has lost all of its setae.
- CHAETOTAXY: see organotaxy.
- DESIGNATION: a nomenclature system not based on idionymy but generally resting on location (cf. notation).
- DISJUNCTION: distal migration of either member of a setal pair on a leg segment.
- ERROR: variation of all or none (see anomaly, vertition).

- EUSTASY: the quality or state of being eustatic (antemphistasy).
- EUSTATIC: appearing at a particular stase (ant. amphistatic).
- IDIONYMIC: relating to a particular organ as distinct from other organs of the same nature. Consequently, an idionymic organ may be named; for example, a pair of setae is called "prorals" since they may be distinguished from all other tarsal setae, even when they migrate.
- IDIONYMY: the quality or state of being idionymic.
- NEOTRICHY: state or quality of being neotrichial (ant. prototrichy).
- NEOTRICHIAL: referring to an area, a segment or an animal some setae of which are secondarily formed (ant. prototrichial).
- NOTATION: a nomenclative system based on idionymy (cf. designation).
- ORGANOTAXY: Distribution pattern or "taxy" of organs specifically their number and their location.
  Organotaxy comprises chaetotaxy (setae), phanerotaxy
  (setiform organs), solenidiotaxy (solenidia),
  poroidotaxy(lyrifissures), sigillotaxy (muscle
  insertions), and adenotaxy (glands).
- ORTHOTRICHY: state or quality of being orthotrichial.
- ORTHOTRICHIAL: referring to an area, a segment or an animal the setae of which keep their primitive and original location.

PALECTRICHY: state or quality of being paleotrichial.

PALEOTRICHIAL: referring to a prototrichial area, segment or animal which keeps all the primitive setae.

PARALLEL HOMOLOGY: an hypothesis referring to a primitive state where each leg segment is supposed to be identical on all four legs.

FHANEROTAXY: see organotaxy.

POROIDOTAXY: see organotaxy.

FRICRITY LIST: a method for ranking setae according to their frequences of occurrence, in the normal or eupathidial state, from the strongest (high frequencies) to the weakest (low frequencies).

Grandjean (1942) distinguished four types of priority lists ontogenetic, vertitionel, metameric, and phylogenetic.

PROTOTRICHY: state or quality of being prototrichial (ant. neotrichy).

PROTOTRICHIAL: referring to an area, a segment or an animal the setae of which are primitive (ant. neotrichial).

SIGILLOTAXY: see organotaxy.

SOLENIDIOTAXY: see organotaxy.

VERTITION: a fundamentally unilateral "all or none" variation in an idionymic organ which is observed in individuals of the same species and at the same stase, which may be considered to have an evolutionary significance (from Grandjean, 1972: 455).

# Appendix II: List of abbreviations and symbols

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acm : anteroculminal seta (palptarsus) ;
adl, ad2 : adoral seta ;
agl to ag5 : aggenital setae ;
ba : basal seta (palptarsus) ;
cot : cotyloid cavities ;
cpc : podocephalic canal ;
d : dorsal seta (on a leg segment);
dl to d5 : first five setae of the paraxial aligment of
           the dorsal face of opisthosoma;
das: disjugal - abjugal - sejugal furrow;
dg : dorsogenual seta (palpgenu) ;
dg3: third ductus of podocephalic canal;
eI and ep : supracoxal spines (on legI and palp);
em : empodium ;
eul to eu6 : eugenital setae ;
ft: fastigial seta (tarsus);
gel to ge6 : genital setae ;
hl, h2: setae of segment H;
\underline{H}: segment anterior to the pseudanal segment (PS);
ia, im, ip and ih : lyrifissures ;
it : iteral seta (tarsus) ;
k" : famulus ;
k.ph : condylophore ;
l : lateral seta (on a leg segment);
11 to 15: first five setae of the antiaxial alignment of
           the dorsal face of opisthosoma.
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ma, mbl, mb2, mc, md, mds, me, mes: dorsal sigilla on
                                      opisthosoma :
n.st.: neostigma;
N1, N2, N3: the three nymphs;
ol : lateral claw :
om : empodial claw :
p : proral seta (tarsus) ;
pl to p3 : prodorsal setae :
ps : pseudanal seta :
pv : proximoventral seta (femur) ;
s : sensillum :
scl and sc2 : subcapitular setae ;
smd : furrow posterior to das ;
sti and st\pi: stigmata (anti- and paraxial);
t : seta on palptibia ;
tc : tectal seta (tarsus) :
tr : trochanteral seta :
tr \alpha, tr \pi: anti- and paraxial tracheae:
u: unguinal seta (tarsus);
<u>v</u>: ventral seta (on appendages);
vs : vestibulum ;
a : antiaxial ;
8 : dehiscence line ;
 5 : eupathidial ;
π : paraxial ;
 Φ: tibial solenidion:
 ω: tarsal solenidion:
la, 1b, 1c, 2a, 3a, 2b, 3c, 3d, 4a, 4b, 4c : epimeral setae.
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