

## The duration of copulation in spiders: comparative patterns

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**Abstract** – The duration of copulation in spiders varies both within and between species, and in the latter by several orders of magnitude. The sources of this variation are explored in comparative analyses of the duration of copulation and other life-history variables of 135 species of spiders from 26 families. The duration of copulation is correlated with body size within several species, but the pattern is not consistent and more generally there is no inter-specific covariation between these variables. The duration of copulation within orb-weaving spiders is associated with both the location of mating and the frequency of sexual cannibalism, suggesting that the length of copulation is limited by the risk of predation. Finally, entelegyne spiders copulate for longer than haplogyne spiders, a pattern that can be interpreted in terms of male mating strategies or the complexity of their copulatory apparatus.

### INTRODUCTION

It is widely recognised that there are conflicts of interest between males and females in the choice of mating partner and the frequency of mating (e.g. Elgar 1992). Thus, while the principal function of copulation is to transfer gametes, the act of mating may have several additional functions, such as mate assessment or ensuring sperm priority, and activities other than sperm transfer can take place during copulation. These additional activities may be time-consuming, and thus the time spent copulating may not simply reflect the amount of time required to transfer gametes. Despite the potential benefits of these activities, the additional time spent copulating may also incur costs, such as reducing the amount of time available to find other mates (e.g. Parker 1970a). Therefore, the considerable variation in the duration of copulation that occurs both within and between species may be at least partly attributable to the different costs and benefits of various durations.

There are several reasons why copulation may be longer than is necessary to transfer sperm. Eberhard (1985) argues that copulation for some species may represent an additional component of courtship, allowing the female to exercise some degree of mate choice. Supporting evidence for this view is provided by species in which copulation takes place without insemination, such as the linyphiid spider *Lepthyphantes leprosus*, in which the male courts and then copulates with the female, even though the male is unable to transfer sperm (van Helsdingen 1965). It may also explain why insemination does not always occur immediately

after the copulatory organ has been inserted. In species in which females mate with several males, copulation may provide the male with the opportunity to manipulate the sperm of other males that previously mated with that female. For example, copulating male damselflies not only transfer their own sperm, but also remove the sperm of rival males (e.g. Waage 1979; Siva-Jothy and Tsubaki 1989). Finally, copulating males may also deposit a sperm plug that prevents the sperm of rival males from fertilising the eggs of the female (e.g. Lorch *et al.* 1993; Masumoto 1993).

While longer copulations may provide opportunities to increase mating success, there are several costs of mating that may favour shorter durations (see Daly 1978; Lewis 1987). For some species, the additional time spent copulating may reduce the time available to males for seeking and courting other females (e.g. Parker 1970a), and the time available to females for foraging. Copulating pairs may also be more vulnerable to predators because they are more obvious or less able to escape. Finally, the proximity necessary for mating may increase the likelihood that parasites and infectious diseases are transmitted between the mating partners.

Studies of the factors responsible for the variation in the duration of copulation have focussed primarily on single species, and particularly the relationship between the duration of copulation and sperm competition (e.g. Parker 1970a; Jackson 1980; Siva-Jothy and Tsubaki 1989; Lorch *et al.* 1993). In contrast, few studies have examined the patterns of inter-specific variation in

the duration of copulation (but see Parker 1970b). The aim of this study is to both describe the variation in the duration of copulation in spiders, and explore some of the factors that may explain this variation.

Male spiders lack primary copulatory organs, and instead transfer sperm using modified pedipalps. As a consequence, the transfer of gametes in spiders involves two phases. The initial phase, called sperm induction, involves the transfer of sperm from the male gonopore to his palps. First the male constructs a sperm web, usually a small, horizontally-suspended, triangular structure. He then presses his abdomen against the surface of this web, moving his abdomen up and down, until a drop of sperm emerges from his genital opening and is deposited on the sperm web. The male dips his pedipalps into the sperm, which is taken up into the palps. Females can only mate after they have completed their final moult, and following a successful courtship, the male copulates with the mature female by inserting his palpal organ into her genital opening. There are differences between species in the frequency of palpal insertions, and whether the palps are inserted simultaneously or consecutively. Further details of the copulatory behaviour of spiders are provided by Foelix (1982).

#### METHODS AND DATA

Data on the duration of copulation, assembled from the literature and unpublished data, were obtained for 135 species of spiders in 27 families. The number of observations of copulations used to yield a species value varied from study to study, and in some cases may represent a single observation. It is unlikely that this is an exhaustive summary of the available data. Furthermore, the values for particular species may change with the accumulation of more observations. Additional information on male and female body length, and several behavioural characters, were also obtained for most of these species. These data, together with the sources, are given in the Appendix. The taxonomy of spiders are still poorly understood, despite considerable progress over the last twenty years (see Coddington and Levi 1991), and hence the species names given in the Appendix may differ from the original sources. It also seems inevitable that some of the generic names listed in the Appendix will change.

#### Analysis

In general, species within lower taxonomic categories have similar characteristics as a result of their most recent shared ancestry. Hence, species can rarely be assumed to represent independent data points for the purposes of statistical analyses

(Ridley 1989). Nevertheless, character differences between species within lower taxonomic categories can, and do, arise through evolutionary processes. Consequently, comparative studies are frequently plagued with the problem of distinguishing patterns that arise through convergent and/or parallel evolution from those that arise from shared ancestry (Harvey and Pagel 1991).

This problem has stimulated the development of increasingly sophisticated statistical methods for comparative analyses (Harvey and Pagel 1991), all of which require an accurate phylogenetic arrangement of the data. Unfortunately, the phylogenetic relationships of spiders are still unclear, and in many taxa the systematics are incomplete (Coddington 1990; Coddington and Levi 1991). Hence, these statistical techniques are unlikely to be appropriate for the present study and have not been used. Instead, a simple approach has been used in which values for higher taxonomic levels are the units of analysis (e.g. Elgar *et al.* 1990). In most cases, this is the family, and the value calculated is the average of the constituent values for the genera. The generic values are the averages of their constituent species values. This is not an ideal procedure, and hence the patterns revealed by this analysis should be interpreted cautiously, since it is possible that the patterns may reflect phylogenetic affinities, rather than convergent or parallel evolution.

The duration of copulation and body length values were logarithmically transformed in order to normalise their distributions. Statistical analyses were performed using procedures in the Systat 5.2 computer package (Wilkinson 1991).

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The duration of copulation in the present sample of spider species varied by several orders of magnitude. In some species, especially web-building spiders, copulation is completed in less than half a minute (e.g. Bristowe 1958; Robinson and Robinson 1980; Elgar and Nash 1988). In contrast, copulation in the salticid spider *Pseudicius* can last up to 15 hours (Jackson 1986a). The distribution of the data favoured short copulations; almost three-quarters of the families surveyed copulated for less than an hour, and representatives of only three families copulated for longer than two hours (see Fig. 1).

#### Body size

The duration of copulation may be influenced by body size in several ways, if the number of sperm transferred is positively correlated with the duration of copulation (e.g. Austad 1982; Fahey 1992; but see Jackson 1980; Watson 1991). For example, larger females may produce more eggs

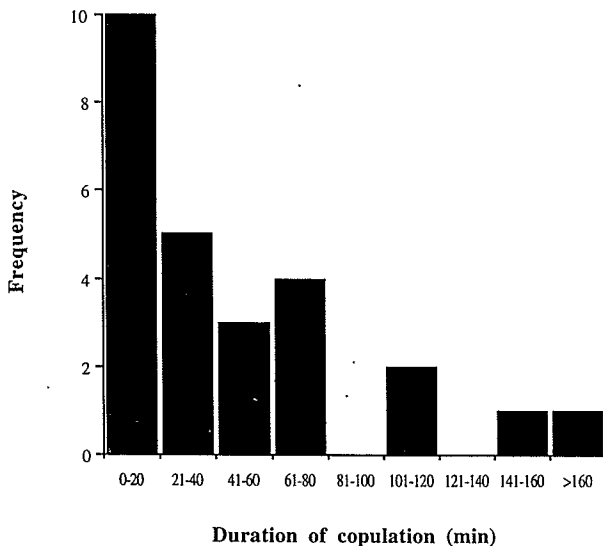


Figure 1 Frequency distribution of the duration of copulation across 26 families of spiders.

than smaller females, and thus longer durations of copulation may be required to transfer more sperm. The patterns obtained from studies of several species are not consistent. The duration of copulation is positively correlated with female size in the golden orb-weaver *Nephila plumipes* (Elgar, unpublished) and autumn spider *Metellina segmentata* (Prenter *et al.* 1994), but with male body size in the orb-weaver *Araneus diadematus* (Elgar and Nash 1988). However, there were no significant correlations between the duration of copulation and either male or female body size in the orb-weavers *Gasteracantha minax* or *Argiope appensa* (Elgar, unpublished). Interestingly, these intra-specific correlations are not apparent in comparisons across taxa. There is no correlation across taxa between the duration of copulation and either male body length ( $r = 0.22$ , ns,  $n = 26$ ) or female body length ( $r = 0.09$ , ns,  $n = 26$ ).

It is possible that the duration of copulation is influenced by size dimorphism. Perhaps copulation takes longer in strongly dimorphic species because the relatively smaller males will take longer to transfer larger quantities of sperm. The residuals from the regression equation of male size on female size are one measure of size dimorphism: families with males that are much smaller than females have negative residuals, while positive residuals indicates little size dimorphism (see Elgar *et al.* 1990). There is a significant positive correlation between male and female body size ( $r = 0.91$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 26$ ), but there is no evidence that size dimorphism (measured as residuals) and the duration of copulation are correlated ( $r = 0.34$ , ns,  $n = 26$ ).

#### Risk of predation

Animals *in copula* may be at a higher risk of predation because they are more easily detected or

have slower flight responses. Many spiders build silk nests, which may allow them to remain concealed and hence avoid predators (see Jackson 1986b). If the risk of predation is higher for spiders *in copula*, then spiders mating in the open should copulate for shorter periods than those that mate inside the nest. The results of studies of several cursorial spiders are consistent with this view. The duration of copulation is longer for spiders mating inside the nest than outside in the dysderid *Dysdera crocata* (Jackson and Pollard 1982), and in three salticids *Holoplatys* sp. (Jackson and Hardin 1982), *Plexippus paykulli* (Jackson and McNab 1989) and *Phidippus johnsoni* (Jackson 1980).

The location of copulation may similarly influence inter-specific variation in the duration of copulation. For example, *Portia* is a web-building salticid that never mates inside a nest, and also has a relatively short copulation time for a salticid (Jackson and Hallas 1986). Unfortunately, there are insufficient data to examine this possibility for cursorial spiders; although there are records of spiders living in nests, it is not always clear whether mating takes place within these nests. Nevertheless, a similar argument may apply to orb-weaving spiders, which mate in different locations on the web. In general, orb-weaving spiders copulate at either the central hub of the web, or while suspended from a specially constructed thread that is attached to either the orb-web or the supporting threads. Spiders copulating while suspended from a mating thread may be at a higher risk of predation than those copulating at the hub, because pairs on a mating thread can be attacked from any direction and may be less able to take evasive action, while pairs at the hub are protected at least from one side by the orb-web. The comparative data on the duration of copulation among orb-weaving spiders provide support for this view: genera that mate on the hub (*Argiope*, *Gasteracantha*, *Herennia*, *Isoxya*, *Mecynogea*, *Nephila*, *Nephilengys* and *Phonognatha*) remain *in copula* for significantly longer than genera that mate on a thread (*Araneus*, *Cyclosa*, *Cyrtophora*, *Eriophora*, *Gea*, *Metellina*, *Micrathena*, *Uloborus* and *Zilla*) (Table 1).

#### Sexual cannibalism

Sexual cannibalism may influence at least some components of the courtship behaviour of species in which it occurs (e.g. Elgar 1991, 1992; Prenter *et al.* 1994). Like predation, it may also influence the duration of copulation. For example, the risk of sexual cannibalism may increase with the duration of copulation: larger male orb-weavers *Araneus diadematus* are less likely to be cannibalised by females than smaller males, and larger males also copulate for longer periods than smaller males

(Elgar and Nash 1988). Alternatively, a female may control the duration of copulation more effectively by killing her mate. Both conditions predict that durations of copulation will be shorter among sexually cannibalistic species than non-cannibalistic species.

Sexual cannibalism occurs relatively frequently in three (Araneidae, Metidae and Pisauridae) of the 28 families sampled (see Elgar 1992). Although the duration of copulation appears to be shorter in sexually cannibalistic families (Table 1), the variation is sufficiently large that the difference is not significant. Comparisons of the duration of copulation among orb-weaving spiders and among salticids reveals that sexually cannibalistic genera copulate for shorter times than those genera that are not usually sexually cannibalistic (Table 1).

#### Female mating frequency

Multiple mating by females is a powerful selection pressure favouring a variety of male behaviours that ensure the eggs of the female he has mated with are not fertilised by the sperm of a rival male. The mechanisms of sperm competition, the competition between the ejaculates of different males over fertilization of a given set of eggs (Parker 1970b), can be quite varied. For example, males may either displace or remove sperm of previously-mating males (e.g. Siva-Jothy and Tsubaki 1989), or produce large quantities of sperm if the fertilization success of a male depends upon the proportionate representation of his sperm in the female's reproductive tract (e.g. Parker 1990; Stockley and Purvis 1993). Similar strategies occur

in spiders: a male *Linyphia litigosa* may guard a female from rival males by destroying her web so that other males cannot detect her sex pheromones (Watson 1986); and males of many species place a sperm plug in the female's reproductive tract which prevents the sperm of other males from fertilising the eggs (e.g. Masumoto 1993). These behaviours all function to reduce the probability that the sperm of a rival male fertilises the female's eggs, and they can lead to variation in both the duration of copulation and patterns of sperm precedence (e.g. Lorch *et al.* 1993).

#### Reproductive morphology

Spermathecal morphology of spiders has interesting implications for sperm precedence patterns, assuming that little, or no, mixing of the sperms occurs when females mate with several males (see Austad 1984; Eberhard *et al.* 1993). In general, spiders can be conveniently assigned to one of two groups according to their spermathecal morphology. The spermatheca of one group, the entelegynes, consists of two ducts; the insemination duct that opens near the vaginal opening and into which the male intromittent organ dispenses seminal fluid, and the fertilisation duct from which sperms issue when the eggs are fertilised. In contrast, the spermathecae of haplogyne spiders are more simple, consisting of a single duct that joins the lumen of the spermatheca to the vagina. Sperms pass through this duct on their way to the storage organ, and must then return by the same route when the eggs are fertilised (see Foelix 1982).

For entelegyne spiders with a 'conduit'

**Table 1** Sources of variation in the duration of copulation in spiders.

Sources of variation	Mean duration (min)	SE	n	t <sup>1</sup>
Location of mating (among orb-weavers)				
Mating thread	3.7	1.9	9	2.98**
Hub	37.6	14.3	8	
Sexual cannibalism (all families)				
Sexually cannibalistic	15.3	7.2	3	1.03
Not sexually cannibalistic	54.8	12.9	24	
Sexual cannibalism (among orb-weavers)				
Sexually cannibalistic	2.8	3.5	7	2.84**
Not sexually cannibalistic	31.5	12.0	10	
Sexual cannibalism (among salticids)				
Sexually cannibalistic	6.5	3.5	3	1.92†
Not sexually cannibalistic	61.7	36.5	12	
Spermathecal morphology (all families)				
Haplogyne	21.9	5.7	9	2.06*
Entelegyne	64.6	16.5	18	

<sup>1</sup>. t-values are derived from tests with log-transformed data.

†. p = 0.08; \* p = 0.05; \*\* p = 0.01

spermathecal tract, the last sperm to enter the female is likely to be furthest from the fertilisation duct and hence the last to be used in fertilisations. Thus, the sperm of the male that is first to mate with a female is thought to fertilise most or all of her eggs. In contrast, the 'cul-de-sac' spermathecal tract of haplogyne spiders favours last male sperm priority because the last sperm to enter is closest to the fertilisation duct, and hence the first to fertilise the eggs (see Austad 1984). This view was, until recently, generally supported by the available evidence for entelegyne spiders. First-male sperm precedence occurs in three families (but see Austad 1984), including salticids (Jackson 1980), araneids (Vollrath 1980; Christenson and Cohn 1988), and linyphiids (Austad 1982; Martyniuk and Jaenike 1982; Watson 1982), but not in an agelenid (Masumoto 1993). However, there appears to be highly variable sperm precedence arrangement in the haplogyne *Physocyclus globosus* that has a cul-de-sac tract (Eberhard *et al.* 1993).

Different sperm precedence patterns are likely to influence the mating systems of a wide range of organisms, including spiders (Austad 1984, see also Ridley 1989). Males of entelegyne spiders (with conduit-type spermathecae) should preferentially associate with virgin rather than mated females, while males of haplogyne spiders (with cul-de-sac spermathecae) should either show no preference or attempt to ensure that they are last to mate. Several lines of evidence support this prediction: in a broad survey of largely anecdotal data, Jackson (1986b) catalogued 156 entelegyne species and five haplogyne species that cohabit with immature females. Watson (1990) demonstrated that males of the entelegyne *Linyphia litigiosa* prefer to cohabit with immature rather than mature females when both are available, and Eberhard *et al.* (1993) showed that males of two of three entelegyne species show a strong preference for immature females, while males of all three haplogyne species studied did not show any preference.

The differences in spermathecal morphology, together with the associated trends in male mate preferences, may also explain differences in the duration of copulation. If male entelegyne spiders that mate with virgin females fertilise most of the female's clutch, then males could maximise their reproductive success by ejaculating larger quantities of sperm. In contrast, it appears that male haplogyne spiders can obtain high levels of paternity only by preventing (e.g. with mating plugs) rival males from subsequently mating with the female. In the absence of such mechanisms, males of these spiders may maximise their reproductive success by ejaculating smaller quantities of sperm, but mating with many females (see also Parker 1990). Under these conditions, and assuming that the number of spermatozoa

transferred is positively correlated with the duration of copulation (e.g. Austad 1982; Fahey 1992), selection may favour longer durations of copulation in entelegyne spiders than in haplogyne spiders. A comparison of the durations of copulation at the family level for these two groups of spiders is consistent with this view: the duration of copulation of entelegyne spiders is significantly longer than that of haplogyne spiders (Table 1).

While the covariation between the duration of copulation and spermathecal morphology may have arisen through male mating strategies, other interpretations are possible. For example, the longer copulation duration of entelegyne spiders may arise if these species more commonly place and remove sperm plugs. Alternatively, the duration of copulation may be positively correlated with the complexity of the copulatory apparatus. The copulatory apparatus in both male and female haplogyne spiders is relatively simple compared with entelegyne spiders (see Foelix 1982). Not only is the male palp of entelegyne spiders more complex, but the embolus (which is used to transfer sperm) must pass through a complex female genital opening into the insemination duct. Thus the longer duration of copulation of entelegyne spiders may simply reflect the longer time required to couple successfully if there are no differences between the two groups in the frequency of palpal insertions during copulation. This latter explanation is unlikely, however, to account for very long copulations.

#### *Mating status of the female*

The mating status of the female may also influence the duration of copulation. For example, males may copulate longer with mated females than virgin females because they either transfer more sperm or even displace the sperm of the previous male. Alternatively, males of entelegyne species may terminate copulation with mated females earlier because they are unlikely to fertilise any of the eggs (e.g. Suter 1990).

There are no consistent patterns among the few studies that compare the duration of copulation of virgin and mated females. Copulation among entelegyne spiders was longer for mated females than virgin females in *Phonognatha graeffei* (Tetragnathidae) (Fahey 1992); *Phidippus johnsoni* (Salticidae) (Jackson 1980); *Argyrodes antipodiana* (Theridiidae) (Whitehouse 1991); *Achaearanea wau* (Theridiidae) (Lubin 1986); and *Misumenoides formosipes* (Thomisidae) (Dodson and Beck 1993). Males of the linyphiid *Frontinella pyramitela* (Austad 1982) that copulated with non-virgin females terminated copulation early and failed to transfer sperm. However, there was no difference in the copulation duration of mated and virgin

females in three araneids *Gasteracantha minax*, *Nephila plumipes* and *Argiope appensa* (Elgar, unpublished). There are no data available for haplogyne spiders.

It is not clear why males of only some species apparently detect the mating status of the female and adjust the duration of copulation accordingly. From the perspective of the male, the duration of copulation will depend on both the relationship between the duration of copulation and the amount of sperm transferred, and on the pattern of sperm precedence among these spiders. The data from these spiders suggest that there may be exceptions to the sperm precedence patterns predicted by spermathecal morphology. Further studies, using labelled sperm or DNA fingerprinting techniques are likely to resolve this issue.

### CONCLUDING REMARKS

The comparative analyses presented here indicate that several factors, including body size, the risk of predation, sexual cannibalism, spermathecal morphology and female mating status, may be responsible for the variation in the duration of copulation in spiders. Several other life-history factors may also influence the duration of copulation, such as the time from copulation to oviposition. If females store sperm for lengthy periods, some sperm mortality may occur, and males may copulate for longer in order to transfer more sperm. Additionally, a longer period may provide additional opportunities for females to mate with other males, and hence selection will favour mechanisms that reduce the probability that the sperm of a rival male fertilises the eggs of the female. These explanations of the variation in copulation duration depend importantly on the ability of each sex to terminate copulation. For example, some of the above explanations could not apply if the duration of copulation was controlled entirely by the female. Few studies were able to state unambiguously which sex terminated copulation, and it may be generally difficult to determine experimentally. Finally, this study has not considered the number of palpal insertions made during copulation, even though there is considerable variation both within and between species. Males of some species may make numerous palpal insertions during each copulation, while in others the male may only insert his palp once. It would be interesting to investigate the factors responsible for this variation.

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## APPENDIX

The duration of copulation of 135 spider species from 26 families.

Taxa	Body length (mm)		Copulation duration (min)	Sexual cannibal	Source
	Male	Female			
HAPLOGYNES					
Dipluridae					
<i>Microhexura montivaga</i>	2.5	2.4	0.5	No	Coyle (1985)
<i>Thelechoris karschi</i>	16.0	14.0	40.4	No	Coyle and O'Shields (1990)
Dysderidae					
<i>Dysdera crocata</i>	12.0	10.0	17.0	Rare	Jackson and Pollard (1982)
<i>Harpactea hombergi</i>	7.0	6.0	4.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Hexathelidae					
<i>Porrhothele antipodiana</i>			27.0		Jackson and Pollard (1990)
Hypochilidae					
<i>Hypochilus pococki</i>	16.0	11.0	1.4	No	Catley (1993)
Oonopidae					
<i>Oonops pulcher</i>	2.0	1.5	1.5	No	Bristowe (1958)
Pholcidae					
<i>Pholcus phalangioides</i>	7.5	7.5	65.5	No	Uhl (1993)
<i>Psilochorus simoni</i>	2.5	2.5	22.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Scytodidae					
<i>Scytodes thoracica</i>	5.0	4.0	44.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Segestriidae					
<i>Segestria florentina</i>	22.0	15.0	10.0		Bristowe (1958)
Tetragnathidae					
<i>Pachygnatha clercki</i>	8.9	5.3	100.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Pachygnatha degeeri</i>			25.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Tetragnatha extensa</i>	8.5	6.5	15.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
ENTELEGYNES					
Agelenidae					
<i>Agelena limbata</i>			193.0		Masumoto (1991)
<i>Coelotes atropos</i>			150.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Hololena adnexa</i>			81.8		Fraser (1987)
<i>Textrix denticulata</i>	7.0	6.5	30.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Araneidae					
<i>Araneus diadematus</i>	12.0	8.0	0.3	Yes	Elgar and Nash (1988)
<i>Argiope aemula</i>	22.0	4.5	1.5	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope aetheria</i>	14.0	5.0	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope appensa</i>	22.0	6.0	1.5	Yes	Present study
<i>Argiope argentata</i>	16.0	4.0	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope aurocincta</i>			0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope bruennichi</i>	15.0	4.5	0.3	Yes	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Argiope cuspidata</i>			0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope flavipalpis</i>	14.0	5.5	0.9	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope florida</i>	16.0	4.5	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope ocyaloides</i>	9.0	4.0	0.5	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope picta</i>	19.0	5.5	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope radon</i>	18.0	6.0	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope reinwardti</i>	18.0	4.5	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Argiope savignyi</i>	14.0	3.5	0.9	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyclosa caroli</i>	6.0	3.0	0.4	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyclosa insulana</i>	6.5	3.5	0.4	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyclosa</i> sp. alpine # 1			0.4	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyclosa</i> sp. Mt Kaindi # 1			0.4	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyclosa</i> sp. Wau # 5			1.2	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Cyrtophora moluccensis</i>	19.0	3.5	33.0	Yes	Berry (1987)
<i>Cyrtophora nympha</i>			0.9	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Eriophora fuliginea</i>	30.0	27.0	0.4	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha brevispina</i>	9.0	2.5	73.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha cancriformis</i>	7.2	2.2	69.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)

Taxa	Body length (mm)		Copulation duration (min)	Sexual cannibal	Source
	Male	Female			
<i>Gasteracantha curvoispina</i>			40.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha falcicornis</i>			49.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha minax</i>	8.5	3.0	100.0	No	Present study
<i>Gasteracantha signifera</i>			54.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha</i> sp.			13.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha taeniata</i>			53.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha theisi</i>			65.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gasteracantha versicolor</i>			74.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Gea eff</i>	6.6	3.0	0.9	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Isoxya tabulata</i>			75.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Mecynogea lemniscata</i>			33.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Micrathena sagittata</i>	8.5	4.5	0.9	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Micrathena schreibersi</i>	14.3	5.4	2.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Micrathena sexpinosa</i>	16.2	5.6	1.2	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
Zilla Wau # 1			0.4	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
Zilla Wau # 2			0.4	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
Clubionidae					
<i>Clubiona cambridgei</i>	8.0	7.0	44.0	Rare	Pollard and Jackson (1982)
<i>Clubiona reclusa</i>	7.0	6.0	60.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Clubiona terrestris</i>	6.0	5.0	80.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Dictynidae					
<i>Dictyna calcarata</i>	5.0	4.0	60.5	Yes	Jackson (1979)
<i>Dictyna civica</i>			14.0		Jackson (1979)
<i>Dictyna latens</i>			15.0		Jackson (1979)
<i>Dictyna uncinata</i>			40.0		Jackson (1979)
<i>Dictyna volucripes</i>	3.3	2.7	87.0	No	Starr (1988)
<i>Dictyna volupis</i>	3.8	3.1	80.0	No	Jackson (1979)
<i>Ixeuticus longiquus</i>			80.0		Jackson (1979)
<i>Mallos gregalis</i>	5.0	4.0	100.0	No	Jackson (1979)
<i>Mallos trivittatus</i>	7.0	5.0	39.0	No	Jackson (1979)
Gnaphosidae					
<i>Drassodes lapidosus</i>	14.0	11.5	31.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Herpyllus blackwalli</i>	10.0	8.0	24.0	Rare	Bristowe (1958)
Heteropodidae					
<i>Heteropoda venatoria</i>	23.0	20.0	160.0	Rare	Ross <i>et al.</i> (1982)
<i>Micrommata virescens</i>	13.5	9.0	280.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Linyphiidae					
<i>Frontinella pyramitela</i>	3.5	3.2	30.7	Rare	Austad (1982)
<i>Lepthyphantes leprosus</i>	3.0	2.5	49.0	No	van Helsdingen (1965)
<i>Linyphia litigiosa</i>	4.5	3.5	240.0	No	Watson (1991)
Lycosidae					
<i>Alopecosa accentuata</i>	12.0	9.0	0.5	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Lycosa malitiosa</i>			98.0	No	Costa and Sotelo (1984)
<i>Lycosa rabida</i>	18.5	11.5	59.0	No	Rovner (1972)
<i>Schizocosa saltatrix</i>			166.0	No	Rovner (1974)
<i>Xerolycosa miniata</i>	6.0	5.0	0.5	No	Bristowe (1958)
Metidae					
<i>Herennia ornatissima</i>	12.0	3.0	6.3	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Metellina segmentata</i>	6.0	5.0	2.7	Yes	Prenter <i>et al.</i> (1994)
<i>Nephila clavipes</i>	25.0	6.0	25.6	Yes	Christenson <i>et al.</i> (1985)
<i>Nephila plumipes</i>	22.0	5.0	0.9	Yes	Present study
<i>Nephila maculata</i>	43.0	5.0	17.0	Yes	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Nephila pilipes</i>	40.0	4.5	20.0	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
<i>Nephila senegalensis</i>	24.7	4.6	8.0	No	Clausen (1987)
<i>Nephilengys malabarensis</i>	16.7	4.8	1.5	No	Robinson and Robinson (1980)
Nesticidae					
<i>Nesticus cellulanus</i>	5.0	4.0	7.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Pisauridae					
<i>Dolomedes fimbriatus</i>	22.0	12.0	0.9	Yes	Arnqvist (1992)
<i>Pisaura mirabilis</i>	13.5	11.0	58.0	Yes	Bristowe (1958)

Taxa	Body length (mm)		Copulation duration (min)	Sexual cannibal	Source
	Male	Female			
Tetragnathidae					
<i>Phonognatha graeffei</i>	8.0	5.0	111.0	Rare	Fahey (1992)
Salticidae					
<i>Asemonea tenuipes</i>	4.5	3.5	4.4		Jackson and Macnab (1991)
<i>Cobanus mandibularis</i>			7.1	No	Jackson (1989)
<i>Euophrys frontalis</i>	4.0	3.0	45.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Evarcha falcata</i>	7.0	5.0	200.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Goleba puella</i>	4.5	4.5	1.3		Jackson and Macnab (1991)
<i>Holoplatys</i> sp.	5.0	4.4	17.0	No	Jackson and Harding (1982)
<i>Jacksonoides queenslandica</i>	6.0	6.0	3.1	No	Jackson (1988)
<i>Lyssomanes viridis</i>	7.5	5.5	14.5	No	Jackson and Macnab (1991)
<i>Marpissa muscosa</i>	8.0	8.0	20.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Marpissa nivoyi</i>	5.0	4.0	47.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Menemerus</i> sp.	3.5	3.5	9.0	No	Jackson (1986)
<i>Mopsus mormon</i>	12.0	12.0	44.4	No	Jackson (1983)
<i>Myrmarachne lupata</i>	5.0	5.0	10.9	No	Jackson (1982a)
<i>Phiddipus femoratus</i>	10.0	7.0	12.0	No	Jackson (1982c)
<i>Phiddipus johnsoni</i>	9.0	8.0	179.0	Yes	Jackson (1980)
<i>Plexippus paykulli</i>			0.7	Yes	Jackson and Macnab (1989)
<i>Portia fimbriata</i>	8.5	5.5	6.0	Yes	Jackson (1982b)
<i>Portia</i> sp.			1.7	Yes	Jackson and Hallas (1986)
<i>Pseudicius</i> sp. #1	3.5	3.5	9.0	No	Jackson (1986a)
<i>Pseudicius</i> sp. #2	3.5	3.5	900.0	No	Jackson (1986a)
<i>Simaetha paetula</i>	7.0	7.0	12.7	Yes	Jackson (1985)
<i>Thorellia ensifera</i>	5.0	5.0	5.8	No	Jackson and Whitehouse (1989)
Theridiidae					
<i>Achaearanea lunata</i>	3.0	2.5	0.2		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Achaearanea tepidariorum</i>	7.0	4.0	0.2		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Achaearanea wau</i>	4.5	1.9	0.7	No	Lubin (1986)
<i>Argyrodes antipodiana</i>	3.0	2.5	21.3		Whitehouse (1991)
<i>Enoplagantha ovata</i>	5.0	4.0	15.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Episinus truncatus</i>	4.0	4.0	5.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Latrodectus hasselti</i>	10.0	5.0	27.0	Yes	Forster (1992)
<i>Steatoda bipunctata</i>	7.0	5.0	100.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Steatoda nobilis</i>	12.0	9.2	25.0		Snazell and Jones (1993)
Thomisidae					
<i>Diaea dorsata</i>	6.0	4.0	5.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Diaea socialis</i>	6.6	5.6	30.0	No	T. Evans (pers comm)
<i>Misumenoides formosipes</i>			4.4		Dodson and Beck (1993)
<i>Philodromus dispar</i>	5.0	4.0	0.5		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Philodromus fallax</i>	6.0	5.0	4.0		Bristowe (1958)
<i>Xysticus cristatus</i>	7.0	5.0	90.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
<i>Xysticus lanio</i>	7.0	5.0	110.0		Bristowe (1958)
Uloboridae					
<i>Uloborus walckenaerius</i>	5.0	3.5	10.0	No	Bristowe (1958)
Zoridae					
<i>Zora spinimana</i>	6.0	4.5	6.0		Bristowe (1958)