

Phylogenetic relationships in the cricket tribe Xenogryllini (Orthoptera, Gryllidae, Eneopterinae) and description of the Indian genus Indigryllus gen. nov.

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20 Abstract

21 Subfamily Eneopterinae is known greatly for its diversified acoustic modalities and disjunct 22 distribution. Within Encopterinae, tribe Lebinthini is the most studied group, due to its highest species 23 diversity (ca. 150 species in 12 genera), endemic distribution on the islands of Southeast Asia and of 24 the South West Pacific, males' ability to produce high-frequency calling songs and evolution of 25 females' vibrational response. To investigate the distribution pattern and diversification of acoustic 26 and behavioural attributes in a larger frame, clear understanding of phylogenetic relationships within 27 other tribes of Eneopterinae is vital. In this study, we focus on the tribe Xenogryllini, sister group of 28 Lebinthini. Xenogryllini, as opposed to Lebinthini, is known by fewer species (11 species in 2 genera), 29 distributed widely in continental Asia and Africa, and for producing low-frequency calling songs. We 30 describe a new genus Indigryllus with a new species of the tribe Xenogryllini, discovered from the 31 Southwest of India. We used eight genetic markers to reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships. The 32 resultant phylogenetic tree is used to compare and discuss distribution patterns and acoustic modalities 33 between Lebinthini and Xenogryllini. 34

35 Keywords: Western Ghats, Xenogryllus, Pseudolebinthus, Lebinthini, Biogeography, Systematics

37 1. INTRODUCTION

38 The crickets of the subfamily Eneopterinae have been studied for the diversity of their communication 39 signals and related structures (e.g., Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas 2004a, b; Robillard et al., 2013; 40 ter Hofstede et al., 2015; Schneider et al., 2017), and for their biogeographical patterns (Nattier et al., 41 2011; Vicente et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2018). Most of these recent works have focused on the tribe 42 Lebinthini, that shows the highest species diversity (ca. 150 species in 12 genera; Cigliano et al., 43 2019) and endemic distribution in the islands of Southeast Asia and South West Pacific. The 44 Lebinthini have also developed an original system of communication involving female vibrational 45 responses to male high-frequency calling songs and loss of phonotaxis (ter Hofstede et al., 2015). To 46 investigate how this diversity emerged and how the original traits evolved, it is necessary to 47 investigate the context in which it happened. Being the sister group of Lebinthini, the tribe 48 Xenogryllini therefore is the best "control lineage" to better understand the evolution of unique 49 features in Lebinthini. A taxonomic and phylogenetic focus on the Xenogryllini is thus particularly 50 needed.

51 Tribe Xenogryllini is a group of crickets with contrasting features under subfamily Encopterinae. 52 It is currently known only by two genera, Xenogryllus Bolívar, 1890 (eight species) and 53 Pseudolebinthus Robillard, 2006 (three species) according to recent revision works (Jaiswara et al., 54 2018 & 2019). Unlike Lebinthini, members of Xenogryllini are distributed widely in continental 55 regions, from Asia to Africa. Calling songs have recently been documented for five species of the 56 genus Xenogryllus and is unknown for Pseudolebinthus (Jaiswara et al., 2018). As opposed to 57 Lebinthini, Xenogryllini members produce calling songs with longer syllables and lower dominant 58 frequencies. In the present study, we describe a new genus and a new species of Xenogryllini from 59 South India, Indigryllus kudremu Robillard & Jaiswara gen. nov. et sp. nov. and provide an emended 60 key to Xenogryllini genera. Considering the recent advances in information with respect to species 61 diversity, distribution and acoustic signals for Xenogryllini, this study focuses on establishing 62 phylogenetic relationships among species of all three genera of the tribe. According to the resultant 63 phylogenetic relationships we contrast Xenogryllini and Lebinthini in terms of species diversity,

64 patterns of distribution and signals of communication. In the light of comparable taxonomic treatment, 65 we assess whether Xenogryllini are truly less diversified than Lebinthini, as suggested earlier 66 (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004b). We then discuss how different are the distributions and 67 calling songs of both tribes with respect to their parallel biogeographical history and evolution of an 68 original system of communication in Lebinthini.

69

70 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

71

72 2.1. Taxonomy

73 Specimens of Indigryllus kudrmu gen. nov. et sp. nov. come from a field work expedition in India 74 (2007) and are deposited in the collections of Zoological Survey of India, Kolkata (ZSI) and Muséum 75 national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris (MNHN). The descriptions of the new genus and species follow 76 terminologies as proposed by Robillard et al. (2014). Observations of external morphological 77 characters and dissection of male and female genitalia were performed using Leica stereomicroscopes 78 MZ16. Terminologies for male forewing (FW) venation follow Ragge (1995) and Robillard & 79 Desutter-Grandcolas (2004b). Male and female genitalia were dissected from dry preserved specimens 80 by making a small slit between paraproct and subgenital plate. Female copulatory papilla was 81 dissected out by cutting the membrane between ovipositor and subgenital plate. Dissected genitalia 82 were cleared in 10% cold KOH solution and preserved in glass vials containing glycerine. 83 Terminologies for genitalia follow Desutter (1987), modified in Desutter-Grandcolas (2003) and 84 Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2004a). Imaging of male and female genitalia were made using an 85 AmScope MU1000 digital camera (www.Amscope.com) or with a Canon EOS 40D Digital SLR 86 camera. To highlight the structural components of male and female genitalia, water solution 87 containing a drop of JBL Punktol was used. To fix orientations and stabilization of genitalia for photography, a clear and viscous Power Plast Hand Sanitizer was used following Su (2016). 88

90 Abbreviations

General morphology: FI, FII, FIII, fore, median, hind femur; FW, forewing; TI, TII, TIII, fore, median,
hind tibia; Tarsomere I/II/III-1: basal segment of fore, median and hind leg tarsomere.

- 93 Tegminal venation: 1A-4A, first to fourth anal veins; CuA, anterior cubitus; CuA1, CuA2, ...
 94 first, second, ... branches of CuA; CuP, posterior cubitus; M, median vein; R, radial vein; Sc, subcostal
 95 vein and its branches; c1-3, first to third cells of C alignment; d1 cell (mirror), first cell(s) of D
 96 alignment; d2, second cell of D alignment; e1, first cell of E alignment.
- 97

98 2.2. Taxon sampling

99 The tribe Xenogryllini is composed of three genera and 12 valid species: Xenogryllus Bolívar (8 100 species), Pseudolebinthus Robillard (3 species) and Indigryllus kudremu Robillard & Jaiswara gen. 101 nov. et sp. nov. (1 species). To reconstruct the phylogeny of the tribe Xenogryllini, a total of 20 102 individuals representing 8 species belonging to the three genera were sampled: Xenogryllus is 103 represented by 6 species sampled for 1-4 populations per species (the species X. lamottei Robillard and 104 X. maniema Robillard & Jaiswara are represented by only old specimens which could not be 105 sequenced); Pseudolebinthus is represented by one individual of P. gorochovi Robillard; Indigryllus 106 by one individual of the species I. kudremu sp. nov.

For outgroup selection, we referred to a previous study (Anso et al., 2016) and selected 8 species representing all five tribes of the Eneopterinae subfamily, as well as two more distant species belonging to the subfamily Gryllinae. Whenever possible, we obtained DNA sequence data from the same previous voucher specimens. See Table 1 for detailed information about taxon and genetic markers.

113 2.3. DNA markers, PCR amplification and sequence alignment

114 We used DNA markers from eight genes, five from the mitochondrial and three from the nuclear 115 genome based on previous studies (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006; Nattier et al., 2011, 2012 116 & 2013; Chintaun-Marquier et al., 2016). The mitochondrial markers were partial sequences of the 117 12S rRNA gene (12S, amplicon ~ 400 bp), the 16S rRNA gene (16S, ~ 500 bp), of the cytochrome b 118 gene (Cytb, ~ 400 bp), and of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (CO1, ~ 750 bp) and subunit 2 (CO2, 119 ~ 400 bp). Nuclear markers were partial sequences of protein coding histone H3 gene (H3, ~ 330 bp), 120 and partial sequences of two non-protein-coding genes corresponding to nuclear ribosomal subunits 121 18S rRNA (18S, ~ 650 bp) and 28S rRNA (28S, ~ 400 bp).

DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing for all studied taxa, except for three Indian *X. transversus* samples, were carried out at Service de Systématique Moléculaire of the MNHN, following the protocols as described in Nattier et al. (2012). For the Indian *X. transversus* specimens (lab codes: Xtr_715, 765, 766; see details in Table 1), DNA was extracted using QIAGEN DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kits at IISER Mohali, and sequencing was outsourced to 1st BASE DNA Sequencing Services (Base Asia).

128 Primers and annealing temperatures for each DNA marker are given in Table 2. Sequences were 129 cleaned and checked for sequencing errors in Sequencher v.4.9 (Gene Codes Co.) and BioEdit 130 v.7.0.5.3 (Hall, 1999), then blasted with NCBI blast tools, and submitted to GenBank (Table 1). The 131 CO1 sequences of X. marmoratus specimens were discarded because of the suspicion of pseudogenes. 132 The sequences were aligned with MAFFT version 7 online (Kuraku et al., 2013; Katoh et al., 2017). 133 The complete combined dataset consists of 3,684 aligned base pairs (bp) for a total of 35 terminals 134 available as supplementary material S1: 416 bp for 12S, 521 bp for 16S, 707 bp for CO1, 335 bp for 135 *CO2*, 346 bp for *Cytb*, 328 bp for *H3*, 652 bp for *18S* and 379 bp for *28S*.

137 2.4. Phylogenetic analyses

Preliminary phylogenetic analyses were carried out for each DNA marker to check for possible
contaminations and artifacts, using the IQ-TREE web server (http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/;
Trifinopoulos et al., 2016). The aligned sequences of all eight markers were further concatenated in
Geneious R9.0.2 (Biomatter Ltd., New Zealand, www.geneious.com, Kearse et al., 2012).

142 The concatenated dataset was analyzed using Bayesian inference (BI) and maximum likelihood 143 (ML). For both BI and ML, PartitionFinder V2.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2017) was used to determine the 144 best-fit partitioning schemes and the associated substitution models. One partition was specified for each of the non-protein-coding genes (12S, 16S, 18S and 28S) and one partition per codon for the 145 146 protein-coding genes (CO1, CO2, Cytb and H3). PartitionFinder analyses were carried out using the 147 default 'greedy' algorithm option and either the 'mrbayes' or 'raxml' set of models (for BI and ML 148 analyses, respectively). The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) was preferentially used to compare 149 partitioning schemes and substitution models following Ripplinger and Sullivan (2008).

Bayesian inference analyses were performed using MrBayes 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al., 2012) and
ML analyses using IQ-TREE 1.6.2 (Nguyen et al., 2015). All corresponding analyses were performed
on the CIPRES Science Gateway 3.3 (Miller et al., 2015) web portal.

For ML analyses, best-scoring trees were obtained using heuristic searches relying on 100 random-addition replicates. Clade support was assessed using non-parametric bootstrap; for each analysis 1,000 bootstrap replicates were conducted. Nodes supported by bootstrap support values (BS) \geq 70% were considered strongly supported following Hillis and Bull (1993).

For BI analyses we conducted two independent runs with eight Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): one cold and seven incrementally heated that ran for 50 million generations with trees sampled every 1,000 generations. We used a conservative burn-in of 12.5 million generations per run after checking for stability on the log-likelihood curves and the split-frequencies of the runs in Tracer v.1.7 (Rambaut et al., 2014). Support of nodes for MrBayes analyses was provided by clade posterior probabilities (PP) as directly estimated from the majority-rule consensus topology. A clade with a PPvalue higher than 0.95 was considered as well supported following Erixon et al. (2003).

164

165 3. RESULTS

166 **3.1. Phylogenetic results**

The complete DNA sequence matrix comprises 3,684 base pairs sampled for 35 terminals (Table 1 and
Supporting information S1). The separate ML analyses of each DNA marker show no major conflict in
topology (see Supporting information S2).

170 The best-fit partition schemes and substitution models used in BI and ML analyses of the 171 combined datasets are showed in Supporting information (S3). Both BI and ML phylogenetic analyses 172 yielded robust and largely congruent topologies (Fig. 7, see also Supporting information S4 for 173 original outputs of both BI and ML analyses).

In both analyses, the subfamily Encopterinae and the tribe Xenogryllini are recovered as monophyletic with high support values (PP of 1.0 and BS of 100% for Encopterinae, and PP of 1.0 and BS of 99% for Xenogryllini). The sister relationship between tribes Lebinthini and Xenogryllini is strongly supported by the ML analysis (BS of 93%), but not by the BI analysis, where the tribe Lebinthini is paraphyletic, with the Xenogryllini being sister of the main clade of the Lebinthini with low PP value (0.68).

180 Within the tribe Xenogryllini, all species are recovered as monophyletic. In both analyses, 181 Xenogryllus is recovered as sister of Indigryllus (BS of 100% and PP of 1.0), and this clade is sister to 182 Pseudolebinthus (BS of 99% and PP of 1.0). Within Xenogryllus, the species X. mozambicus and X. 183 eneopteroides from Africa form a well-supported clade in both BI and ML analyses (PP of 1.0 and BS 184 of 100%); they form the sister group of a clade including the remaining species distributed in Asia. In 185 the latter clade, except for well-defined position of X. marmoratus (BS of 80% and PP of 1.0) as sister 186 to the other species, the positions of X. transversus, X. maichauensis and X. ululiu are not well-187 supported: In BI analysis, X. transversus is found as the sister species of the clade (X. ululiu - X. maichauensis), while the ML analysis finds X. maichauensis as the sister species of (X. transversus –
X. ululiu).

190

191 **3.2.** Systematics

192

193 3.2.1. Key to Xenogryllini genera modified from Robillard (2006)

194 1. TII with two inner apical spurs. FWs and hind wings of similar dimensions in male and female 195 (Fig.1). Male. Forewing venation (Fig. 3A-B): left and right forewings similar in sclerotization and 196 colouration; harp oblique veins not swollen, with an incomplete oblique between diagonal and first 197 complete oblique; harp distal angle concave; FWs cells with thin longitudinal wrinkles on surface. 198 Male genitalia: pseudepiphallic sclerite longer than rami (Fig. 4); basis of pseudepiphallus sclerotized 199 (Fig. 4A); ectophallic arc not sclerotized; ectophallic fold entirely sclerotized; lateral arms of 200 endophallic sclerite very long (Fig. 4B); endophallic crest absent. Female. FWs and hind wings as long 201 as in male. Ovipositor apex well differentiated, rounded (Fig. 6A-202 B).....2.

203 - TII with one inner apical spur. Male with longer FWs than female, hind wings absent in both sexes. 204 Male. Forewing venation: left FW less sclerotized than right FW; harp with swollen oblique veins, 205 without an incomplete vein between diagonal and first harp vein; harp distal angle flat; FW cells 206 without longitudinal wrinkles. Male genitalia (Fig. 5D): pseudepiphallic sclerite shorter than rami, 207 basis of pseudepiphallus membranous; ectophallic arc slightly sclerotized; ectophallic fold partly 208 sclerotized; lateral arms of endophallic sclerite short; endophallic crest absent. Female. FWs very 209 short, not reaching second abdominal tergite; hind wings vestigial. Ovipositor apex little 210

212

211

Robillard, 2006

213	2. Eyes small and located on face (Fig. 2D-F). FIII narrow along its whole length. FWs as long or										
214	slightly longer than abdomen in both sexes. Hind wings longer than FWs, forming a tail posterior to										
215	FWs. Male. Male genitalia: Pseudepiphallic parameteres with one strong rectangular ventral lobe										
216	covered with scale-like sculptures (Fig. 5B-C). Female. Apex of ovipositor spatula-shaped (Fig.										
217	6B) Xenogryllus Bolívar,										
218	1890										
219	- Eyes larger and lateral (Fig. 2A-C). FIII wide basally, muscular. FWs reaching abdomen mid-length,										
220	hind wings vestigial. Male. Male genitalia: Pseudepiphallic parameteres with two short claw-shaped										
221	sclerotized lobes ventrally (Fig. 4D). Female. Apex of ovipositor triangular (Fig.										
222	6A)Indigryllus Robillard & Jaiswara gen. nov.										
223											
224	3.2.2. Indigryllus Robillard & Jaiswara gen. nov.										
225											
226	Type species.										
227	Indigryllus kudremu Robillard & Jaiswara sp. nov.										
228											
229	Etymology										
230	The genus name is derived from India and the suffix -gryllus in reference to the name Xenogryllus.										
231											
232	Diagnosis										
233	Indigryllus presents all the characteristics of Xenogryllini, but majorly shares a combination of										
234	morphological features of Xenogryllus and Pseudolebinthus (Fig. 1A-D). The new genus resembles										
235	Pseudolebinthus by shape of head and eyes, brachypterous wings barely reaching abdomen mid-length										
236	in males, shorter in females (but longer in Indigryllus than in females of Pseudolebinthus), muscular										
237	FIII (thinner in Xenogryllus), and long, rather slender abdomen. Indigryllus is however more similar to										

Xenogryllus in terms of size, homogeneous light brown colouration, male FWs symmetry, without
swellings of harp veins as in *Pseudolebinthus*, and male genitalita with long sclerotized
pseudepiphallic lophi (Fig. 5A).

241

242 Description

243 Size average for the tribe. Head shape (Fig. 2A-C) close to that of *Pseudolebinthus* and tribe 244 Lebinthini, with eyes larger and more protruding than in *Xenogryllus*. In dorsal view (Fig. 2A), eyes 245 combined width represents ca. 45% of head width, as for example in *Macrobinthus* Robillard & Dong, 246 2016. Head slightly higher than wide in facial view (Fig. 2B); face with a whitish mask with black 247 spots as in *Xenogryllus*, underlined laterally with a dark line prolonged on eyes; flat in lateral view 248 (Fig. 2C). Fastigium twice as wide as scape, almost square, slightly divergent apically, not 249 discontinuous from vertex nor furrowed longitudinally; fastigium twice as wide as scape, with many 250 setae up to median ocellus. Ocelli flat, arranged in a wide triangle; lateral ocelli almost circular, 251 located at basis of fastigium; median ocellus ellipsoidal, subapical in location. Scape small. Antennae 252 thin. Maxillary palpi long, their 5th joint as long as 3rd and slightly widened apically. Pronotum dorsal 253 disc slightly wider than long, posterior margin straight; lateral margins not carinated. TI with two 254 tympana; inner tympanum covered by a sclerotized expansion, its membrane visible along a small 255 longitudinal slit only; outer tympanum oval in shape, its surface smooth. TI with two inner and two 256 outer apical spurs. TII with two inner spurs of equal lengths, and two outer spurs, the dorsal the 257 longest. FIII apex filiform, their bases muscular, wider than in Xenogryllus. TIII serrulated over their 258 whole length, slightly furrowed dorsally, with four pairs of subapical spurs and three pairs of apical 259 spurs; inner and outer spurs (both subapical and apical) of almost similar size, straight and slightly 260 curved apically. Abdomen long and slender, conical.

Male. Metanotal glandular structures well developed, similar to that of *Xenogryllus*, with a large median process on scutum, scutellum raised medially and carrying a bunch of setae oriented anteriorly. Posterior part of mesonotum setose and extended posteriorly, covering metanotal scutum. Hind wings shorter than the FWs. FWs short (Fig. 3A-B), reaching two thirds of abdomen length, 265 symmetrical, not widened as in *Xenogryllus*. FW cells with longitudinal wrinkles as in *Xenogryllus*. 266 FWs light brown, translucent, with the following pattern of black spots on dorsal field: wide black 267 transverse band anterior to transverse part of 1A, black marking in cell c1 and in anterior and external 268 corners or mirror. Harp wide, oblique veins as in Xenogryllus, with two complete bisinuate veins and 269 one incomplete vein posteriorly. Mirror large and rounded, as in Xenogryllus, crossed at mid-length by 270 a complete accessory vein. Cell d2 widened. Apical field short, including four narrow cell alignments. 271 Lateral field crossed by numerous projections of Sc along its whole length, as in Xenogryllus. 272 Subgenital plate clog-shaped, its apex slightly indented.

273 Male genitalia (Fig. 4A-D). Close to Xenogryllus, with long sclerotized pseudepiphallic lophi (Fig. 274 5A), their apex with a short inner hook-shaped dorsal expansion. Membrane at anterior basis of pseudepiphallus slightly sclerotized, as in Xenogryllus; anterior margin of pseudepiphallus 275 276 strengthened by a ventral sclerotization. Rami rather short and strong, their apex slightly convergent. 277 Pseudepiphallic parameters strong, with a strong dorsal lobe and two ventral lobes clearly 278 individualised (Fig. 4D); surface of parametes thinly denticulate. Ectophallic fold homogeneously 279 sclerotized. Ectophallic arc not sclerotized, as in Xenogryllus; ectophallic apodemes long, lamellate 280 apically; their basis with strong ventral arms. Endophallic sclerite forming a wide flat plate rounded 281 anteriorly, with long thin lateral arms oriented posteriorly and a long medio-posterior expansion fused 282 with ectophallic fold. Endophallic apodeme with a thin dorsal median crest and narrow lateral 283 lamellas.

Female. FWs shorter than in males (Fig. 3C), not reaching abdomen mid-length; colouration pale
brown; dorsal field with six strong longitudinal veins; lateral field triangular; M vein faint; R/Sc area
wide, brown with faint transverse veins; Sc with two projections. Subgenital plate slightly indented
apically (Fig. 6C). Apex of ovipositor rounded and smooth, more pointed than in *Xenogryllus* (Fig.
6A).

Female genitalia. Copulatory papilla (Fig. 6E-G) more elaborate than in *Xenogryllus*, with a wide cylindrical basal part sclerotized ventrally, and a narrowed cylindrical apical membranous part, thinly plicate and slightly folded ventrally.

293 3.2.3. Indigryllus kudremu Robillard & Jaiswara sp. nov.

- 294 (Figs 1A-D; 2A-C; 3B-C; 4A-D; 5A; 6A, C, E-G; 7) 295
- 296 *Xenogryllus* n. sp. Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a: 579; 2004b: 275 (morphological
 297 phylogeny); 2006: 644.
- 298 *Xenogryllus* sp. Nattier et al., 2011: 2201 (molecular phylogeny); Vicente et al., 2017: 2203
 299 (historical biogeography).

300

301 Type material

- 302 Holotype, &, India: Kudremukh, 29.V.2007 KWC-93-00.229, identified Xenogryllus marmoratus S.
- 303 Rawat & R. Balakrishnan (ZSI). *Allotype*, *♀*, **India:** Same locality, date and collector as HT, KCW-
- 304 92-00.228, identified *Xenogryllus* sp. by R. Balakrishnan, lab code for molecular sample X3Xsp2
- 305 (ZSI). Paratype (1 &), India: same locality, date and collector as HT, NCW-0230, identified
- 306 *Xenogryllus carmichaeli*? by R. Balakrishnan, identified *Xenogryllus* sp. by T. Robillard, MEB cerque
- 307 g., lab code for molecular sample Xsp (MNHN-EO-ENSIF2738).

308

- 309 Type locality
- 310 India, Karnataka, Chikkamagaluru district, Kudremukh.
- 311
- 312 Etymology
- 313 The species is named after the type locality.

314

315 Diagnosis

Indigryllus kudremu sp. nov. is recognized by its light colouration, brachypterous wings in both sexes,
long abdomen, and male genitalia with pseudepiphallic lophi forming two blades partly fused basally
(Fig. 5A), close to that of *X. marmoratus*, converging basally, their apex diverging, with a short hookshaped dorsal expansion.

320

321 Description

322 In addition to the characters of the genus, colouration mostly ochre (Fig. 1A-D); vertex with four faint 323 longitudinal brown bands and two triangular lines posterior to eyes (Fig. 2A). Scapes with dark brown 324 patterns; antennae uniformly yellow brown, except first article dark brown. Pronotum dorsal disc light 325 brown, mottled with orange brown; pronotum lateral lobes almost homogeneously golden brown with 326 black dots, dorsal margin underlined with dark brown; anterior ventral corner with a yellow spot; 327 posterior margin mottled with yellow and dark brown. FI-II yellow brown mottled with dark brown; 328 TI-II and Ta-I-II yellow dark brown apically. FIII almost homogeneously orange brown. Abdomen 329 light brown mottled with black, whitish ventrally. Cerci long, their inner face dark, rest light brown.

330 *Male*. FWs mostly light brown (Fig. 3B), veins light brown or yellow; anterior dark brown colouration 331 on dorsal field including whole width of 1A. Apical field with yellow brown longitudinal veins and 332 strong dark brown transverse veins. Lateral field with 12-14 (n = 2) projections of Sc and 3-6 more 333 ventral veins.

Male genitalia (Fig. 4A-D). Pseudepiphallic lophi long (Fig. 5A), setose, curved dorsally in lateral
view, forming two blades partly fused basally, converging at mid-length then diverging apically; apex
of lophi with short inner hook-shaped dorsal expansions.

337 *Female*. Ovipositor short, about half of FIII length.

338 *Calling song.* Unknown.

339 *Measurements*. See Table 3.

341 Distribution and natural history

The type locality is in the west of the Western Ghats, one of the evergreen forests in India. Since the species was never found again in the same or close-by areas therefore, we hypothesize that the type locality does not correspond to the natural habitat of the species.

The type specimens were found in a backyard garden that had diverse plantation, but was dominated by areca nuts. The garden was least managed and had pineapple, hibiscus, paper mulberry and other shrubs. The specimens were collected during the monsoon season when the average temperature ranges between 25 to 37°C and average humidity is *ca*. 77%.

349

350 4. DISCUSSION

351

352 4.1. Diversity and distribution of the Xenogryllini

353 The taxonomic revision of the Xenogryllini achieved in Jaiswara et al. (2018, 2019) and completed 354 here by the description of the new genus Indigryllus, was based on the thorough study of specimens 355 from natural history collections belonging to 17 institutions and on field work in Mozambique, China 356 and India. These studies reveal that the Xenogryllini tribe is relatively less diversified compared to the 357 other tribes of the subfamily Eneopterinae, and more specifically to its sister tribe, the Lebinthini. The 358 taxonomic revisions clarified the status of all previously described species and subspecies and added 359 five new species to the Xenogryllini: three to Xenogryllus (Jaiswara et al., 2019), one to 360 Pseudolebinthus (Jaiswara et al., 2018), and the new genus Indigryllus with one new species from 361 Southern India. The combination of these three studies allows drawing a map of distribution for all the 362 species of the Xenogryllini (Figure 8).

The discovery of *Indigryllus* is particularly relevant to improve the knowledge of eneopterines. First, it is the first record of Eneopterinae in the southern half of India. Until now, eneopterines were represented in the region only by some populations of *X. transversus* distributed in Northern and Eastern India and in Pakistan (Bhowmik, 1976, 1985; Saeed et al., 1990). Second, *Indigryllus* shows 367 original combination of characters from the other two genera of the tribe: it is brachypterous with long 368 abdomen and large eyes as *Pseudolebinthus*, while its male genitalia and FW venation are clearly 369 more similar to that of Xenogryllus. As mentioned in the taxonomic part, I. kudremu sp. nov. is 370 documented by three specimens only, collected once, and the type locality belongs to the west of the 371 Western Ghats, one of the evergreen forests in India. Since the species was never found again in the 372 same area, we hypothesize that its type locality may not correspond to the natural habitat of the 373 species. The Western Ghats is one of the biodiversity centres in India; therefore, it has been a focus 374 region for numerous recent faunal discoveries in diverse groups such as frogs, birds, shield tail snakes 375 and lizards (e.g., Kuramoto & Joshy, 2003; Giri et al., 2004; Biju & Bossuyt, 2005, 2009; Biju et al., 376 2009; Robin et al., 2017; Jins et al., 2018; Sadasivan et al., 2018; Raj et al., 2018; Agarwal et al., 377 2018). In the last two decades, only a handful of new cricket species belonging to Gryllidae, 378 Phalangopsidae and Pteroplistinae have been described (Gorochov, 2002, 2003, 2009, 2018; Desutter-379 Grandcolas & Jaiswara, 2012; Jaiswara & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2014). Present discovery of 380 Indigryllus suggests that the region of the Western Ghats may still keep some undescribed lineages of 381 crickets.

382

4.2. Phylogenetic relationships and biogeographical patterns

The molecular phylogenetic analysis confirms the monophyly of the tribe Xenogryllini with a high support, and its sister relationship with the Lebinthini tribe. These results are consistent with the previous phylogenetic analyses based on a lower Xenogryllini sampling with morphological (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a; Robillard, 2006) and DNA sequence data (Nattier et al., 2011; Vicente et al., 2017). The paraphyly of the Lebinthini found in the BI analysis is probably due to low taxonomic sampling of this tribe in our study, since the Lebinthini are clearly monophyletic and distinct from the Xenogryllini in all previous phylogenetic studies, as recovered by our ML analysis.

Within Xenogryllini, the new Indian genus *Indigryllus* is the sister group of *Xenogryllus*, which is distributed in Asia and Africa. The clade that they form together is sister to *Pseudolebinthus*, which is endemic to Southeast Africa. This pattern suggests a complex biogeographical history, which was 394 partly addressed, but shortly discussed, in the study of Vicente et al. (2017). The study included 395 representatives from the three Xenogryllini genera (Indigryllus kudremu was identified as 396 "Xenogryllus sp." and Peudolebinthus gorochovi as "Pseudolebinthus sp."). The study also dated the 397 stem group of the Xenogryllini, revealing the split between Xenogryllini and Lebinthini ca. 59.64 Ma, 398 and the Xenogryllini crown group ca. 52.35 Ma. The results of the ancestral area reconstructions 399 suggested an origin of Xenogryllini both in Asia and India (DEC results), suggesting that Africa was 400 colonized twice independently by the Xenogryllini after 50 Ma: once by *Pseudolebinthus* and once by 401 Xenogryllus eneopteroides, which was the only species of the genus distributed in Africa at the time of 402 this study. The new lineages of Xenogryllini recently described, including three new species of 403 *Xenogryllus* from Africa and the additional information concerning the geographical distribution of the 404 tribe, question these conclusions. In particular, among the new species of Xenogryllus, X. lamottei 405 Robillard, 2018, more ressembles morphologically the species distributed in Asia (no lateral carinae 406 on pronotum, shape of pseudepiphallic lophi of male genitalia). It suggests an alternative 407 biogeographic scenario, involving an early colonization of Africa by the Xenogrillini and a later 408 independent recolonization event of India and of continental Southeast Asia by Indigryllus and by a 409 clade of Xenogryllus. Since several new species including X. lamottei could not be included in our 410 phylogenetic study, the biogeographic hypothesis could not be tested. The biogeographic history of the 411 Xenogryllini will have to be revisited by considering these new data into account in order to address 412 specifically the routes and timing of colonization between Asia and Africa.

413

414 4.3. Comparison between tribes Xenogryllini and Lebinthini

The recent systematic revision of the Xenogryllini (Jaiswara et al., 2018 & 2019) highlights several
interesting contrasts between the Xenogryllini and its sister tribe, the Lebinthini, in terms of species
diversity, distribution patterns and signals of communication.

As hypothesised by Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2004a), there is a taxonomic imbalance
between the two tribes. The species ratio Lebinthini / Xenogryllini was 34/7 in 2004, but the recent
taxonomic discoveries in both clades changed drastically this ratio: with a similar taxonomic

treatment, the Xenogryllini now includes a total of 12 species under 3 genera, whereas the Lebinthini
include *ca.* 150 species under 12 genera (*e.g.*, Robillard et al., 2014; Vicente et al., 2015; Anso et al.,
2016; Robillard et al., 2016; Robillard & Su, 2018), and many Lebinthini taxa yet remain undescribed
(T. Robillard, pers. obs.). This contrast is corroborating the hypothesis that the Lebinthini were likely
subject to a taxonomic radiation, possibly in relation with their innovations in terms of communication
system (Robillard et al., 2007).

427 Xenogryllini and Lebinthini are also contrasted in terms of distribution patterns. The 428 Xenogryllini are mostly distributed in continental regions, except for X. marmoratus which is found 429 both in continental Asia (China, South Korea) and in islands of Japan, China (Taiwan, Hainan) and Sri 430 Lanka (Fig. 8). In contrast, the Lebinthini fully express their species diversity when they are distributed in islands (e.g., Desutter-Grandcolas & Robillard, 2006; Nattier et al., 2012; Dong et al., 431 432 2018). As a consequence, the two tribes only barely overlap in their marginal distributions in coastal 433 regions of China and Japan, where a few Lebinthini occur in sympatry with X. marmoratus. In 434 association with this difference of tribe distribution, the species of the tribes differ by their range sizes: 435 the Xenogryllini species, and in particular that of *Xenogryllus*, show relatively large distribution areas. 436 This feature may be due to their continental distribution and the fact that they live in open habitats. In 437 contrast, very high rates of speciation have been demonstrated in crickets distributed on islands 438 (Mendelson & Shaw, 2005). The Lebinthini species living on islands are most often found in forested 439 areas; they also usually have more restricted distributions, which could in turn promote higher rates of 440 speciation (Dong et al., 2018). These differences could partly explain the imbalance of diversity 441 observed between the two tribes. However, exceptions exist, as for example the Lebinthini species 442 Cardiodactylus novaeguineae (Haan, 1842), which lives in open coastal areas and shows a very large 443 distribution across the Western Pacific (Robillard & Ichikawa, 2009).

The last factor distinguishing Xenogryllini and Lebinthini are their modalities of communication, which are understudied in the Xenogryllini. The calling songs of five *Xenogryllus* species were recently formally described (Jaiswara et al., 2019), but that of *Indigryllus* and *Pseudolebinthus* species remain unknown. It would thus be erroneous to pretend that the Xenogryllini 448 are characterized by calling songs made of long syllables with relatively low frequencies, since these 449 features are probably linked with the peculiar morphology of the males of *Xenogryllus*, which present 450 widened FWs and long stridulatory files carrying a high number of teeth, two characteristics favoring 451 the production of long syllables and low frequencies. The two other Xenogryllini genera, 452 Pseudolebinthus and Indigryllus, were never acoustically recorded, and although very particular in 453 their own ways, they do not share these morphological features of Xenogryllus. It is thus impossible 454 yet to predict the features of their calling songs, except that they are probably different from that of 455 Xenogryllus. Comparatively, the songs of the Lebinthini are generally characterised by shorter 456 syllables and high dominant frequencies. These acoustic features participate to a new system of 457 communication which was recently described, involving absence of female phonotaxis and female 458 vibratory response to male calls (ter Hofstede et al., 2015). These differences, and in particular the 459 innovations allowing the Lebinthini to use new communication resources as key innovations in a 460 context of adaptive radiation, has been proposed as a possible explanation for the imbalance of 461 diversity observed between the two tribes (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a). Now that both 462 tribes were subject to comparable taxonomic revisions, the hypothesis of adaptive radiation will have 463 to be formally tested in future studies by estimating rates of speciation, extinction and adaptive 464 phenotypic evolution using comparative phylogenetic methods (e.g., Herrera, 2017).

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726 Tables

- 727 **Table 1.** Taxon and gene sampling. List of all Eneopterinae crickets and outgroups used in this study with current geographical distribution and GenBank
- 728 accession numbers. NA means missing data. Abbreviation of museums: IISERM- Indian Institute of Science Education and Research Mohali, Punjab, India;
- 729 MNHN-Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris, France; ZFMK- Zoologisches Forschungsinstitut und Museum Alexander Koenig, Bonn, Germany; ZIN-
- 730 Zoological Institute, Russian Academy of Sciences, S. Petersburg, Russia and ZSI- Zoological Survey of India, Kolkata, India.

Species	Voucher / Lab code (type status)	16S	12S	COI	COII	Cytb	18S	28S	H3
Acheta domesticus (Linnaeus, 1758)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3523 / Adom	AF248698	ADZ97611	JX897403	JX897439	AF248682	AD18SITS1	JX897465	KR903150
Agnotecous meridionalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-ENSIF-2772 / AmelP	JX897349	JX897401	JX897420	NA	JX897311	JX897579	JX897488	JX897553
Agnotecous meridionalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF-2771 / AmePB	JX897350	JX897402	JX897410	JX897442	JX897313	JX897597	JX897489	JX897550
Cardiodactylus novaeguineae (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-ENSIF2038 / C3CnoNC	JF972520	JF972504	MH662977	MH662880	JF972488	JF972535	MH663420	NA
Cardiodactylus novaeguineae (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2030 / C2CnoPe	JF972521	JF972506	KU705563	KU705551	JF972490	JF972537	KR903500	KR903151
Eneoptera guyanensis Chopard, 1931	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2741 / Egu	AY905301	AY905272	JX897404	KU705553	AY905355	AY905331	KU705581	JX897547
Eurepini sp.	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3155 / Eursp	KR903674	KR903834	KU705565	KU705554	KR903331	KR904028	KR903503	KR903153
Gryllus bimaculatus De Geer, 1773	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3524/3404 / Gbi	AF248685	AY905292	NA	KU705555	AF248659	AF514509	KR903002	KR903154
Indigryllus kudremu sp.nov.	ZSI / X3Xsp2 (AT)	KY595509	KY595483	KY646248	MK761340	AY905377	AY905345	KY605247	KY646293
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4393 / L18LbiP1	MK761250	MK761274	MK761331	MK761341	MK761353	MK761293	MK761313	MK761370
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4394 / L28LbiP2	MK761252	MK761275	MK761332	NA	MK761354	MK761294	MK761314	MK761371
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2740 / L8LbiS1 (PT)	JF972524	KR904017	KU705567	KU705557	JF972493	KR904199	KR903665	KR903321
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN / L10LbiS3	MK761253	MK761276	MK761333	MK761342	MK761355	MK761295	MK761315	MK761372
Microbinthus santoensis Robillard, 2009	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2484 / L7LsaPe	KU705528	KU708011	KU705569	NA	KU705535	KU705543	KU705585	KU705601
Microbinthus santoensis Robillard, 2009	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2437 / LsaV (PT)	JF972527	JF972511	JX897405	JX897441	JF972495	JF972542	JX897467	JX897548
Nisitrus vittatus (Haan, 1842)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2742 / NviS	MH575026	MH575158	KU705572	NA	MH662741	AY905340	KR903667	JX897546
Pseudolebinthus gorochovi Robillard, 2018	ZIN / X17PsMal1 (HT)	KY595508	KY595472	KY646231	NA	NA	KY595511	KY605231	MK761373
Xenogryllus eneopteroides Bolívar, 1890	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3159 / XenAC	KR903829	KR904023	KY646249	NA	KR903490	KR904205	KR903670	KR903328
Xenogryllus eneopteroides Bolívar, 1890	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3442 / XenCI	MK761256	MK761279	NA	NA	NA	MK761298	NA	MK761375
Xenogryllus eneopteroides Bolívar, 1890	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3442 / XenGA	MK761257	MK761280	NA	NA	NA	MK761299	MK761318	MK761376
Xenogryllus maichauensis Gorochov, 1992	ZFMK / XtrTh	MK761258	NA	NA	NA	MK761357	NA	NA	MK761377
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3161 / Xma2	KR903830	KR904024	NA	MK761343	KR903491	KR904206	NA	KR903329
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1599 / XmaCh1	KY595510	KY595484	NA	MK761344	KY646274	KY595518	KY605248	KY646292
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1594 / XmaCh2	MK761261	MK761283	NA	MK761345	MK761360	MK761302	MK761320	MK761379
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3562 / XmaCh3	MK761262	MK761284	NA	MK761346	MK761361	MK761303	MK761321	MK761380
Xenogryllus mozambicus Robillard, 2019	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1515 / XenMoz (PT)	MK761263	MK761285	MK761336	NA	MK761362	MK761304	NA	MK761381
Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	IISERM / Xtr715	MK761264	MK761286	NA	NA	MK761363	MK761305	MK761322	MK761382

Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	IISERM / Xtr765	MK761265	NA	MK761337	NA	MK761364	MK761306	MK761323	MK761383
Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	IISERM / Xtr766	MK761266	NA	NA	NA	MK761365	NA	MK761324	MK761384
Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF87 / XtrIn	JF972530	NA	KY646247	MK761347	JF972499	KY595519	KY605246	KY646294
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	ZIN / X18XulV2	MK761268	MK761287	NA	MK761348	NA	MK761308	MK761326	MK761386
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	ZIN / X19XulSi	MK761269	MK761288	NA	MK761349	MK761367	MK761309	MK761327	MK761387
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4385 / X20XulCam1	MK761270	MK761289	NA	MK761350	NA	MK761310	MK761328	MK761388
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	ZIN / X21XulCam2	MK761271	MK761290	NA	MK761351	NA	MK761311	MK761329	MK761389
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	ZFMK / Xulth	MK761272	MK761291	MK761339	NA	MK761368	NA	NA	NA
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990 Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	ZIN / X21XulCam2 ZFMK / Xulth	MK761271 MK761272	MK761290 MK761291	NA MK761339	MK761351 NA	NA MK761368	MK761311 NA	MK761329 NA	MK761389 NA

733

- **Table 2.** Characteristics of the eight DNA markers and primers used in this study and in the phylogenetic analyses. 736

		Primer		Annealing	Amplicon size	
	Gene	name	Sequencing primers (5' - 3')	Reference	temperature	
	001	L2	GCAACGATGATTATTTTCCACT	Nattier et al. (2012),	40,5000	5501
	COI	H2	CCTGGTAAAATTAGAATGTAAACTTCTG	et al. (1994)	48-50°C	~750 bp
		co2a	GGTCAAACAATTGAGTCTATTTGAAC	Shapiro et al. (2006)	55°C	∼ 400 bp
		co2e	CCACAAATTTCTGAACATTGACCA	· · · ·		
ial	CO2	RNa	TACWMAYCGWTTYCTTYTTGAAGGWC	Nattier et al. (2012), modified from	47°C	
ndr				Contreras & Chapco		
cho		Rne	CGACCTGGAGTTGCATCAG	(2006)		
Mitoe	Cytb	427F	YTWGTWCAATGARTMTGAGG	Robillard & Desutter-	48°C	~400 bp
~		800R	CCYARTTTATTAGGAATTGATCG	Grandcolas (2006)		.00 op
	12 S	F	TACTATGTTACGACTTAT	Kambhampati (1995)	48°C	~400 bp
		R	AAACTAGGATTAGATACCC	r in the real sector of the se		100 cp
	16S	AG	CGCCTGTTTATCAAAAACATGT	Robillard & Desutter-	55°C	~500 bp
		BG	AGATCACGTAAGAATTTAATGGTC	Grandcolas (2006)		
	Н3	HexAF	ATGGCTCGTACCAAGCAGACGGC	Maroia et al. (2009)	58°C	~330 hn
		HexAR	ATATCCTTGGGCATGATGGTGAC	1/14/0Ju et all (2007)		550 op
clear	28SA	C1'	ACCCGCTGAATTTAAGCAT	Jamieson et al. (2002)	55°C	~400 hn
Nu		D2b	GTTAGACTCCTTGGTCCGT			100 00
	185	A2	ATGGTTGCAAAGCTGAAAC	Giribet et al. (1999)	52°C	~650 hn
	100	9R	GATCCTTCCGCAGGTTCACCTA	Giribet et al. (1996)	52 0	000 00

	BL	PronL	PronW	FWL	FWW	FIIIL		FIIIW	
Holotype male	21.2	3.1	4.9	10.3	5.0	18.4		4.5	
Male paratype	22.3	2.9	4.8	10.7	5.0	18.6		4.9	
(Male mean)	(21.8)	(3)	(4.9)	(10.5)	(5.0)	(18.5)		(4.7)	
Female allotype	18.8	3.5	4.8	4.2	3.4	18.3		5.0	
	TIIIL	TIIIs				TaIIIs	5		OL
		Ias	Ibs	Oas	Obs	Ids	Ods	Ols	
Holotype male	17.9	9	11	12	10	0	3	3	-
Male paratype	18.5	10	7	18	10	0	4	3	-
(Male mean)	(18.2)	(10)	(9)	(15)	(10)	(0)	(4)	(3)	-
Female allotype	18.7	8	12	15	13	1	6	3	10.5

Table 3. Measurements of Indigryllus kudremu sp. nov.

742 Figure legends

743

- Figure 1. *Indigryllus kudremu* sp. nov.: male in dorsal (A) and lateral (B) views, female in dorsal (C)
 and lateral (D) views. Scale bar: 5 mm.
- Figure 2. Head view: *Indigryllus kudremu* sp. nov. in dorsal (A), facial (B) and lateral views (C);
 Xenogryllus eneopteroides in dorsal (D), facial (E) and lateral views (F). Scale bar: 1 mm.
- Figure 3. *Indigryllus kudremu* sp. nov.: male forewing venation (A-B) and terminologies used in the
 systematic part, female forewing venation (C). Scale bars: 1 mm.
- Figure 4. *Indigryllus kudremu* sp. nov..: male genitalia in dorsal (A), ventral (B) and lateral (C) views,
 detail of pseudepiphallic parameres in ventral view (D). Scale bar: 1 mm.
- Figure 5. Right pseudepiphallic lophi of male genitalia in dorsal view: (A) *Indigryllus kudremu* sp.
 nov.; (B) *Xenogryllus eneopteroides*; (C) *Xenogryllus transversus* and (D) *Pseudolebinthus africanus*. Symbols: Preapical hook-like expansion figured in gray or with a black arrow;
 dotted parts represent membranous areas; thin lines represent folds and reliefs in sclerites.
 Scale bar: 1 mm.
- Figure 6. Apex of female ovipositor: (A) Indigryllus kudremu sp. nov. and (B) Xenogryllus
 eneopteroides. Apex of female subgenital plate and base of ovipositor in ventral view: (C)
 Indigryllus kudremu sp. nov. and (D) Xenogryllus eneopteroides. Female copulatory papilla:
 (E-G) Indigryllus kudremu sp. nov. and (H-I) Xenogryllus eneopteroides.
- Figure 7. Bayesian Inference tree of Xenogryllini tribe based on the concatenated dataset of eight
 genetic markers. ML bootstrap (BS) and Bayesian posterior probability (PP) support values
 are indicated for each node on the right; clades not recovered by the BI analysis are indicated
 by a symbol *. Clades corresponding to species are shaded with a colour scale. Represented
 species (from top to bottom): Agnotecous sarramea, Lebinthus bitaeniatus, Xenogryllus *transversus*.
- Figure 8. Distribution map of the species belonging to the Xenogryllini tribe. Each colour point represents a collecting locality based on recent revision studies of *Xenogryllus* (Jaiswara et al., 2019) and *Pseudolebinthus* (Jaiswara et al., 2018). Map designed using the software QGIS (QGIS Development Team (2018).
- 771

773 List and legend of supporting information

774

- **S1.** Sequence alignment of the concatenated molecular genetic markers generated by Geneious.
- 776 S2. Results of preliminary maximum likelihood (ML) analyses for each genetic marker.S3. Best-fit
- models of sequence evolution and partitioning schemes selected with PartitionFinder.

778

779 S4. Original output results of Bayesian inference (BI) and Maximum likelihood (ML) analyses for780 concatenated dataset.

782 Fig.1





788 Fig.3













