

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

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Abstract

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

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

1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Taxonomy

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

Abbreviations

- 91 General morphology: FI, FII, FIII, fore, median, hind femur; FW, forewing; TI, TII, TIII, fore, median,
- 92 hind tibia; Tarsomere I/II/III-1: basal segment of fore, median and hind leg tarsomere.
- Tegminal venation: 1A-4A, first to fourth anal veins; CuA, anterior cubitus; CuA1, CuA2, ... first, second, ... branches of CuA; CuP, posterior cubitus; M, median vein; R, radial vein; Sc, subcostal vein and its branches; c1-3, first to third cells of C alignment; d1 cell (mirror), first cell(s) of D alignment; d2, second cell of D alignment; e1, first cell of E alignment.
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2.2. Taxon sampling

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

2.3. DNA markers, PCR amplification and sequence alignment

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

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

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).

 The concatenated dataset was analyzed using Bayesian inference (BI) and maximum likelihood (ML). For both BI and ML, PartitionFinder V2.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2017) was used to determine the 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 protein-coding genes (*CO1*, *CO2*, *Cytb* and *H3*). PartitionFinder analyses were carried out using the default '*greedy'* algorithm option and either the '*mrbayes'* or '*raxml'* set of models (for BI and ML analyses, respectively). The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) was preferentially used to compare 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) > 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 PP value higher than 0.95 was considered as well supported following Erixon et al. (2003).

3. RESULTS

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).

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

 In both analyses, the subfamily Eneopterinae and the tribe Xenogryllini are recovered as monophyletic with high support values (PP of 1.0 and BS of 100% for Eneopterinae, 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).

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

3.2. Systematics

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

 1. TII with two inner apical spurs. FWs and hind wings of similar dimensions in male and female (Fig.1). Male. Forewing venation (Fig. 3A-B): left and right forewings similar in sclerotization and colouration; harp oblique veins not swollen, with an incomplete oblique between diagonal and first complete oblique; harp distal angle concave; FWs cells with thin longitudinal wrinkles on surface. *Male genitalia*: pseudepiphallic sclerite longer than rami (Fig. 4); basis of pseudepiphallus sclerotized (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 as in male. Ovipositor apex well differentiated, rounded (Fig. 6A-B).. 2.

 – 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, without an incomplete vein between diagonal and first harp vein; harp distal angle flat; FW cells without longitudinal wrinkles. *Male genitalia* (Fig. 5D): pseudepiphallic sclerite shorter than rami, basis of pseudepiphallus membranous; ectophallic arc slightly sclerotized; ectophallic fold partly sclerotized; lateral arms of endophallic sclerite short; endophallic crest absent. Female. FWs very short, not reaching second abdominal tergite; hind wings vestigial. Ovipositor apex little differentiated, pointed……………………………………………………….………... *Pseudolebinthus* Robillard, 2006

 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).

Description

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

 symmetrical, not widened as in *Xenogryllus*. FW cells with longitudinal wrinkles as in *Xenogryllus*. FWs light brown, translucent, with the following pattern of black spots on dorsal field: wide black transverse band anterior to transverse part of 1A, black marking in cell c1 and in anterior and external corners or mirror. Harp wide, oblique veins as in *Xenogryllus,* with two complete bisinuate veins and one incomplete vein posteriorly. Mirror large and rounded, as in *Xenogryllus*, crossed at mid-length by a complete accessory vein. Cell d2 widened. Apical field short, including four narrow cell alignments. Lateral field crossed by numerous projections of Sc along its whole length, as in *Xenogryllus*. Subgenital plate clog-shaped, its apex slightly indented.

 Male genitalia (Fig. 4A-D). Close to *Xenogryllus*, with long sclerotized pseudepiphallic lophi (Fig. 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 strengthened by a ventral sclerotization. Rami rather short and strong, their apex slightly convergent. Pseudepiphallic parameres strong, with a strong dorsal lobe and two ventral lobes clearly individualised (Fig. 4D); surface of parameres thinly denticulate. Ectophallic fold homogeneously sclerotized. Ectophallic arc not sclerotized, as in *Xenogryllus*; ectophallic apodemes long, lamellate apically; their basis with strong ventral arms. Endophallic sclerite forming a wide flat plate rounded anteriorly, with long thin lateral arms oriented posteriorly and a long medio-posterior expansion fused with ectophallic fold. Endophallic apodeme with a thin dorsal median crest and narrow lateral 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 291 plicate and slightly folded ventrally.

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

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

Type material

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

- **Type locality**
- India, Karnataka, Chikkamagaluru district, Kudremukh.
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- **Etymology**
- The species is named after the type locality.

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 hook-shaped dorsal expansion.

Description

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

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

Female. Ovipositor short, about half of FIII length.

Calling song. Unknown.

Measurements. See Table 3.

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%.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Diversity and distribution of the Xenogryllini

 The taxonomic revision of the Xenogryllini achieved in Jaiswara et al. (2018, 2019) and completed here by the description of the new genus *Indigryllus*, was based on the thorough study of specimens from natural history collections belonging to 17 institutions and on field work in Mozambique, China and India. These studies reveal that the Xenogryllini tribe is relatively less diversified compared to the other tribes of the subfamily Eneopterinae, and more specifically to its sister tribe, the Lebinthini. The taxonomic revisions clarified the status of all previously described species and subspecies and added five new species to the Xenogryllini: three to *Xenogryllus* (Jaiswara et al., 2019), one to *Pseudolebinthus* (Jaiswara et al., 2018), and the new genus *Indigryllus* with one new species from Southern India. The combination of these three studies allows drawing a map of distribution for all the 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 original combination of characters from the other two genera of the tribe: it is brachypterous with long abdomen and large eyes as *Pseudolebinthus*, while its male genitalia and FW venation are clearly more similar to that of *Xenogryllus*. As mentioned in the taxonomic part, *I. kudremu* sp. nov. is documented by three specimens only, collected once, and the type locality belongs to the west of the Western Ghats, one of the evergreen forests in India. Since the species was never found again in the same area, we hypothesize that its type locality may not correspond to the natural habitat of the species. The Western Ghats is one of the biodiversity centres in India; therefore, it has been a focus region for numerous recent faunal discoveries in diverse groups such as frogs, birds, shield tail snakes and lizards (e.g., Kuramoto & Joshy, 2003; Giri et al., 2004; Biju & Bossuyt, 2005, 2009; Biju et al., 2009; Robin et al., 2017; Jins et al., 2018; Sadasivan et al., 2018; Raj et al., 2018; Agarwal *et al*., 2018). In the last two decades, only a handful of new cricket species belonging to Gryllidae, Phalangopsidae and Pteroplistinae have been described (Gorochov, 2002, 2003, 2009, 2018; Desutter- Grandcolas & Jaiswara*,* 2012; Jaiswara & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2014). Present discovery of *Indigryllus* suggests that the region of the Western Ghats may still keep some undescribed lineages of crickets.

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

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 421 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).

 Xenogryllini and Lebinthini are also contrasted in terms of distribution patterns. The Xenogryllini are mostly distributed in continental regions, except for *X. marmoratus* which is found both in continental Asia (China, South Korea) and in islands of Japan, China (Taiwan, Hainan) and Sri 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.*,* 2018). As a consequence, the two tribes only barely overlap in their marginal distributions in coastal regions of China and Japan, where a few Lebinthini occur in sympatry with *X. marmoratus*. In association with this difference of tribe distribution, the species of the tribes differ by their range sizes: the Xenogryllini species, and in particular that of *Xenogryllus*, show relatively large distribution areas. This feature may be due to their continental distribution and the fact that they live in open habitats. In contrast, very high rates of speciation have been demonstrated in crickets distributed on islands (Mendelson & Shaw, 2005). The Lebinthini species living on islands are most often found in forested areas; they also usually have more restricted distributions, which could in turn promote higher rates of speciation (Dong et al.*,* 2018). These differences could partly explain the imbalance of diversity observed between the two tribes. However, exceptions exist, as for example the Lebinthini species *Cardiodactylus novaeguineae* (Haan, 1842), which lives in open coastal areas and shows a very large 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 are characterized by calling songs made of long syllables with relatively low frequencies, since these features are probably linked with the peculiar morphology of the males of *Xenogryllus*, which present widened FWs and long stridulatory files carrying a high number of teeth, two characteristics favoring the production of long syllables and low frequencies. The two other Xenogryllini genera, *Pseudolebinthus* and *Indigryllus*, were never acoustically recorded, and although very particular in their own ways, they do not share these morphological features of *Xenogryllus*. It is thus impossible yet to predict the features of their calling songs, except that they are probably different from that of *Xenogryllus*. Comparatively, the songs of the Lebinthini are generally characterised by shorter syllables and high dominant frequencies. These acoustic features participate to a new system of communication which was recently described, involving absence of female phonotaxis and female vibratory response to male calls (ter Hofstede et al.*,* 2015). These differences, and in particular the innovations allowing the Lebinthini to use new communication resources as key innovations in a context of adaptive radiation, has been proposed as a possible explanation for the imbalance of diversity observed between the two tribes (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a). Now that both tribes were subject to comparable taxonomic revisions, the hypothesis of adaptive radiation will have to be formally tested in future studies by estimating rates of speciation, extinction and adaptive 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.

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- 735 **Table 2.** Characteristics of the eight DNA markers and primers used in this study and in the
- 736 phylogenetic analyses.
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	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		OL	
		Ias	Ibs	Oas		Obs	Ids	Ods	Ols	
Holotype male	17.9			12		10				
Male paratype	18.5	10		18		10				
(Male mean)	(18.2)	(10)	(9)	(15)		(10)	(0)	(4)	(3)	
Female allotype	18.7		12	15		13				10.5

Table 3. Measurements of *Indigryllus kudremu* sp. nov.

Figure legends

- **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 749 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 770 (QGIS Development Team (2018).
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List and legend of supporting information

- **S1.** Sequence alignment of the concatenated molecular genetic markers generated by Geneious.
- **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.

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

 Fig.1

Fig.3

Fig.5

