

Phylogeny, systematics and evolution of calling songs of the Lebinthini crickets (Orthoptera, Grylloidea, Eneopterinae), with description of two new genera Short title for header: systematics and evolution of Lebinthini

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Abstract

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The Lebinthini crickets are distributed in Southeast Asia, Western Pacific, and tropical South America. They represent more than half of the described species in the subfamily Eneopterinae. These crickets are morphologically and behaviorally diverse, varying in body size, wing morphology (ranging from brachypterous to fully winged), and acoustic signals. They also have a distinctive communication system: high-frequency calling, vibratory signaling, duetting and lack of phonotaxis in females. To investigate how these traits evolved and diversified, a clear phylogenetic context is needed with taxonomic and biological data for as many species as possible. Since 2010, the numbers of known species and genera in the tribe have grown considerably, but the type genus Lebinthus and the tribe classification lacked a general revision based on phylogenetic inferences. In this paper, we study the systematics of the Lebinthini and present new phylogenetic results confirming the monophyly of Lebinthini and the relationships established by previous studies. The phylogeny allows us to define three monophyletic subtribes within the Lebinthini with clear morphological features and distribution areas: Cardiodactylina subtribe n., Lebinthina subtribe n. and Ligypterina subtribe n. We also redefine Lebinthus and described two new genera related to Lebinthus, Falcerminthus gen. nov. and Fadinthus gen. nov., each characterized by clear-cut morphological, anatomical, and acoustic features. Using ancestral state reconstructions, we investigate the evolution of the diverse calling songs in Lebinthini. We demonstrated that both trills and monosyllabic calls were acquired multiple times instead of evolving from simple to complex temporal patterns as suggested from previous studies. We also found that temporal traits and the dominant frequency evolve in a very dynamic way, and that the harmonic of the call that is the dominant frequency seems to undergo diversification in the subtribe Lebinthina.

Introduction

A wide variety of animals—such as insects, arachnids, fish, anurans, mammals and birds—use acoustic signals to choose mates and defend resources (Wilkins *et al.*, 2013). For individuals producing sound, the sound signals can pose a risk by also drawing the attention of predators and parasites (Wilkins *et al.*, 2013). The evolutionary consequences are that acoustic traits can exhibit various degrees of within- and between-species variation, driven by different natural or sexual selection pressures (e.g., Gerhardt, 1991; Gerhardt & Huber, 2002; Wilkins *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, how these traits and, in turn, acoustic communication evolve has long fascinated evolutionary biologists (Bradbury & Vehrencamp, 2011).

There are still large gaps in knowledge about the relative importance of different drivers of acoustic divergence and how acoustic divergence facilitates speciation (Wilkins et al., 2013). While bats, birds, frogs, and crickets are among the best studied animals in the field of bioacoustics for addressing these questions, crickets and their relatives are particularly useful model organisms because of their small size, short generation time, and relatively simple mechanisms of sound production (Horch *et al.*, 2017). On a macroevolutionary scale, Song *et al.* (2020) recently demonstrated how sound production and hearing influenced species diversification in orthopterans. Given its broad scale, this study could not offer insights into how acoustics communication evolved in specific groups, which remain crucial to address because acoustic communication in different taxa can have vastly different evolutionary trajectories.

To investigate how acoustic traits evolved and diversified, a clear phylogenetic context is also needed, which necessitates prior taxonomic and biological studies for as many species as possible. This can be a challenge, especially for cricket species from hyper-diverse regions such as Southeast Asia, where rapid species diversification may have occurred (Dong *et al.*, 2018), and where many species remain undescribed or very poorly known, with little information beyond their original descriptions.

The Lebinthini crickets offer an opportunity to overcome these challenges and address questions on the evolution of acoustics traits. This is a diverse tribe within the subfamily Eneopterinae and is mostly distributed in Southeast Asia, the Western Pacific archipelagos, and northern South America (Vicente *et al.*, 2017). The tribe is characterized by its species richness, as it includes half of the extant described eneopterine genera (15/26 including two new genera described here), and more than half of the described species of the subfamily (Cigliano *et al.*, 2021). It also contains the most speciose eneopterine genus, *Cardiodactylus* Saussure, with more than 80 species (e.g., Otte, 2007; Robillard *et al.*, 2014; Dong & Robillard, 2016). The Lebinthini crickets are also highly diverse in terms of wing morphology, ranging from brachypterous to fully winged species, and acoustic signals. These crickets have an alternative communication system to most other crickets (ter Hofstede *et al.*, 2015), involving major changes in every component of the usual cricket system of communication: Males

produce high-frequency calls (10–28 kHz) (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004b), females lack phonotaxis and instead produce vibrational signals in response to male calls, and males locate females via vibrotaxis. This novel communication system was previously described for the Lebinthini from Asia, and a recent study demonstrated that it is also found in a Neotropical species, and is therefore likely shared by the whole tribe (Benavides-Lopez *et al.*, 2020). The same study dated the origin of this behavior to coincide with the origin of echolocation in bats and also documented male duets involving both acoustic and vibratory signals, another unique behavior for crickets (Benavides-Lopez *et al.*, 2020).

According to previous systematic studies, the tribe is a monophyletic group including three main lineages (e.g., Nattier *et al.*, 2011; Vicente *et al.*, 2017). One clade comprising the genera *Ponca* Hebard (long-winged) and *Ligypterus* Saussure (brachypterous) is distributed in the northern Neotropics. A second clade includes only long-winged species, belonging to the monophyletic genus *Cardiodactylus*, distributed in Asia and in the South-west Pacific region (e.g., Dong *et al.*, 2018), as well as a small genus including a few mute species distributed in Fiji and Samoa (*Swezwilderia* Chopard). Lastly, a third clade is composed of only brachypterous species, more diverse morphologically than *Cardiodactylus*, but sharing the same distribution area in Asia and in the South-west Pacific region as this genus.

Since 2010, the number of described brachypterous species and genera has increased considerably. These newly described taxa are thought to be related to the genus *Lebinthus* Stål, which appeared as a paraphyletic assemblage in several phylogenetic studies (Nattier *et al.* 2011; Anso *et al.* 2016). To clarify the taxonomy of this clade, several new genera were recently described from New Guinea [*Centuriarus* Robillard (Robillard, 2011a), *Gnominthus* Robillard & Vicente (Vicente *et al.*, 2015), *Microbinthus* Robillard & Dong, *Macrobinthus* Robillard & Dong (Robillard *et al.*, 2016)], New Caledonia [*Pixibinthus* Robillard & Anso (Anso *et al.*, 2016)], and Australia [*Julverninthus* Robillard & Su (Robillard & Su, 2018)]. These descriptions distinguished clear morphological entities and made *Lebinthus* monophyletic in the most recent phylogenetic study (Vicente *et al.*, 2017). However, several new genera, previously considered as "*Lebinthus*", remain undescribed. As a consequence of these taxonomic studies, the phylogenetic relationships within the Lebinthini need to be clarified and their classification revised.

In this paper, we studied the systematics of the Lebinthini with a focus on the species from Southeast Asia, and subsequently reconstructed their phylogeny. The phylogenetic results allowed us to define three monophyletic subtribes within the Lebinthini with distinct morphological features and distribution areas: Cardiodactylina **subtribe n.**, Lebinthina **subtribe n.** and Ligypterina **subtribe n.** The brachypterous species of Lebinthini distributed in Southeast Asia were split into three genera, which can be characterized morphologically and acoustically. We redefined the genus *Lebinthus* as a homogenous group characterized by

clear-cut morphological, anatomical, and acoustic features. We also described two new genera related to *Lebinthus*, *Falcerminthus* **gen. nov.** and *Fadinthus* **gen. nov.**, both characterized by easily recognized synapomorphies, and the taxonomic study also resulted in the description of two new species in the new genus *Fadinthus*.

We used this updated phylogenetic context to address questions about the evolution of the most characteristic features of the acoustic signals of these crickets. Few authors have analyzed the evolutionary origin of cricket song diversity (Alexander, 1962; Otte, 1992), and even more rarely in a phylogenetic context, due to the absence of detailed phylogenies for most cricket lineages. Only a few studies have been carried out at the genus level on Gryllus Linnaeus (Harrisson & Bogdanovich, 1995; Huang et al. 2000; Desutter-Grandcolas & Robillard, 2003, Robillard et al. 2006) and Laupala Otte (Shaw, 1999), and at the subfamily level on eneopterine crickets (e.g., Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a, b, 2011). The exceptionally diverse calling songs in this clade make it ideal for this kind of phylogenetic study. We used the phylogenetic tree to reconstruct the ancestral states and estimate the phylogenetic signal of the main acoustic features of the calling songs: their general temporal pattern (i.e., structure of calling song and echeme structure), their frequency (value and nature of the dominant frequency. Specifically, we aimed to test the hypotheses formalized by Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2011): (i) whether the temporal features of the eneopterine songs become more complex across species through evolutionary time; and (ii) whether the spectral features are more stable evolutionarily than temporal features, due to the fact that temporal features mostly depend on behavioral variables while spectral parameters are constrained by sound-producing morphological structures (e.g., Bennet-Clark, 1970, 2003; Nocke, 1971; Michelsen & Nocke, 1974; Elliott & Koch, 1985; Montealegre-Z. et al., 2009).

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Materials and methods

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Taxonomy

The taxonomic analysis in this study resulted from international collaborative works that led to recent descriptions of numerous taxa from the Philippines (e.g., Robillard *et al.*, 2013; Robillard & Yap, 2015; Baroga-Barbecho *et al.*, 2020), Brunei Darussalam (e.g., Tan & Wahab, 2018), Malaysia (e.g., Tan *et al.*, 2019a, 2019b), Singapore (e.g., Robillard, 2011b; Robillard & Tan, 2013; Tan & Robillard, 2014), and Indonesia (e.g., Robillard *et al.*, 2014).

New field collections and observations were made by MKT and RW in the Belait and Temburong Districts of Brunei Darussalam between 23 February and 3 March 2019 and between 6 and 18 July 2019. Specimens were located visually both day and night to observe the crickets' habitat and different types of activity (e.g., calling, mating, foraging, and feeding).

Newly collected specimens were deposited in the collections of Universiti Brunei Darussalam Museum, Brunei Darussalam (UBDM) and Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris (MNHN). The other material examined for the taxonomic revisions and descriptions of new taxa belong to the collections of the MNHN and Zoological Institute, Russian Academy of Sciences, S. Petersburg (ZIN). Detailed lists of material presented in previous studies contributed to this synthetic work, but were not extensively recalled here, although relevant references are mentioned in the systematic part of this study.

Observations and morphological analysis

Direct observations and dissections were made using a binocular microscope (Leica model MZ16) at magnifications up to 115. Photographs of habitus and detailed morphology were made with a digital SLR camera (Canon EOS 6D) using a macro photo lens MP-E 65mm f/2.8 USM (1-5x). Image stacking using digital image processing software (Helicon Remote version 9.3.1. W and Helicon Focus 6.8.0) was used to increase the depth of field for photographs.

The terminology for male tegminal veins and cells follows Ragge (1955) and Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2004a). Male and female genitalia dissection and imaging follow the methodology described in Salazar *et al.* (2020). Male genitalia terminology follows Desutter (1987), modified in Desutter-Grandcolas (2003) and Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2004).

Abbreviations for general morphology, tegminal venation, male genitalia, and measurements follow Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2004) and Robillard & Tan (2013).

Acoustic analyses

The basic cricket acoustic terminology follows Ragge & Reynolds (1998): a song unit is named syllable and corresponds to one opening-closure cycle of the male forewings; and group of syllables, named echeme, forms a call unit in the context of acoustic communication.

Species' call traits were obtained from published resources when available, or from newly recorded files (Supporting information Table S3). Acoustic features for the following species' calling songs are reported for the first time in this study: *Agnotecous albifrons* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. azurensis* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. chopardi* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. clarus* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. doensis* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. meridionalis* Desutter-Grandcolas, *A. obscurus* (Chopard), *A. minoris* Robillard, *A. occidentalis* Desutter-Grandcolas, *Falcerminthus truncatipennis* (Chopard), and *Fadinthus tehtari* **sp. nov.** These species were recorded either in the field or in the laboratory, during or after field expeditions. We used a modified condenser microphone (Avisoft Bioacoustics, Berlin; model CM16), with a flat frequency response from 3 to 150 kHz (R. Specht pers. comm.); for recordings made in the field, the microphone was connected to a digital field recorder (Fostex FR-2LE; 96 kilo-samples

per second sampling frequency, 16 bit); in the laboratory, automatic recordings were made using the program Avisoft Triggering Harddisk Recorder version 2.97 and a 8-Pre MOTU sound card at a sampling frequency of 96 kilo-samples per second (16 bit). The calling song of *F. tehtari* **sp. nov.** was recorded with an Echo Meter Touch 1 with a Knowles FG sensor placed 50 cm away from the cage (25 cm in diameter and 33 cm tall) in which the male was housed.

For all species but *F. tehtari* **sp. nov.**, the recordings were analyzed with Avisoft-SASLab Pro version 4.40 (Specht, 2008). The recordings of *F. tehtari* **sp. nov.** were measured with Avisoft Lite 2.0.0 and using power spectra generated with Fast Fourier Transformation (FFT), with Hanning window of window length 512, and at 256,000 sampling frequency using the 'spec' function from the R package seewave (Sueur *et al.*, 2008) in the R software version 3.5.1 (R Development Core Team, 2018).

The temporal patterns of the songs were estimated on oscillograms. Two traits were coded to reflect the main types of temporal patterns in the calling songs in the subfamily as defined in Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2011): one trait coded for the general type of temporal pattern (SONG): continuous trill, single-syllable call, or call structured in echemes; the second trait coded for the two main types of echemes found across the species (ECHE): echemes simple, where all syllables have more or less similar duration and period, and a more complex temporal structure, usually involving two parts within echeme, with different syllable duration or period.

The spectral parameters of the songs were estimated on frequency spectra and spectrograms. The dominant frequency of the songs was the frequency value showing the highest amplitude in the species' spectrum; the harmonic peak corresponding to this dominant frequency was noted as the nature of dominant frequency. Two other traits were coded for the frequency of the calling song: the dominant frequency value (DF) was coded as a continuous trait, and one trait was coded to address the nature of this dominant frequency (NDF): fundamental frequency (first harmonic; f1), one of the upper harmonics (f2–5), or without harmonic structure (broad-band frequency).

All vouchers of recording files were deposited in the Sound Library of the MNHN (https://sonotheque.mnhn.fr/) under reference numbers MNHN-SO-XXX (details in (Supporting information Table S3).

Phylogenetic analyses

Taxon Sampling

The tribe Lebinthini is composed of 15 genera (including the new genera described here), comprising a total of 156 described species (Cigliano *et al.*, 2021), among which 63 correspond to Lebinthina **subtribe n.**, 85 to Cardiodactylina **subtribe n.** and 8 to Ligypterina **subtribe n.**

To reconstruct the phylogeny of Lebinthini, we used 110 terminal taxa representing 80 eneopterine species. All the Lebinthini genera but *Julverninthus* were represented, for a total of 53 Lebinthini species. As outgroups, all the genera of the four other eneopterine tribes were also represented by 1–5 species (7 Xenogryllini, 5 Nisitrini, 4 Eneopterini and 12 Eurepini species) and one more distant species belonging to the subfamily Gryllinae (*Gryllus bimaculatus* De Geer, used as the most external outgroup).

Among the Lebinthini, the sampling was most extensive for the subtribe Lebinthina (41/63 Lebinthina; 3/8 Ligypterina, 9/85 Cardiodactylina), in particular for the species of the three focal genera in the taxonomic study (*Lebinthus* and two new genera), for which we considered several individuals per species from distinct localities, whenever material was available. We collected data for 1 to 19 individuals per species (mean = 3.14 ± 4.8).

DNA markers, PCR amplification and sequence alignment

We used DNA markers from eight genes, five from the mitochondrial and three from the nuclear genomes based on previous studies on this cricket clade (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006; Nattier *et al.*, 2011, 2012; Chintauan-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), the *cytochrome b* gene (*Cytb*, ~ 400 bp), and 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 newly generated sequences were carried out at Service de Systématique Moléculaire of the MNHN, following the protocols described in Dong *et al.* (2018), including primers and annealing temperatures for each DNA marker. The sequences generated for this study were deposited in GenBank with accession numbers presented in Supporting information Table S1.

Sequences were cleaned and checked for sequencing errors in Sequencher v.4.9 (Gene Codes Co.) or Geneious R9.0.2 (Biomatter Ltd., New Zealand, www.geneious.com, Kearse *et al.*, 2012), and BioEdit v.7.0.5.3 (Hall, 1999), then blasted with NCBI blast tools. The sequences were aligned with MAFFT version 7 online (Kuraku *et al.*, 2013; Katoh *et al.*, 2017). The complete combined dataset consists of 3726 aligned base pairs (bp) for 110 terminals.

Phylogenetic inferences

To check for possible contamination, sequencing artifacts and pseudogenes, preliminary phylogenetic analyses were carried out for each DNA marker with Maximum likelihood (ML)

using the IQ-TREE web server with the default options (http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/; Trifinopoulos et al., 2016) (Song et al., 2008).

The aligned sequences of all eight markers were concatenated in SequenceMatrix version 1.7.8 (Vaidya *et al.*, 2011). The concatenated dataset was then analyzed using ML and Bayesian inference (BI).

For ML analyses, data were partitioned by gene marker and the best model for each marker was found using IQ-TREE ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy *et al.*, 2017), as detailed in Table S2. ML analyses were run using the IQ-TREE 1.6. 2 web portal (Nguyen *et al.*, 2015) (http://iqtree.cibiv.univie.ac.at/; Trifinopoulos *et al.* 2016) using the option 'Edge-unlinked partitions'. For comparison, an additional ML analysis was performed in IQ-TREE using fixed models as defined by the best-fit partitioning schemes and the associated substitution models used in the BI analysis (see below). Branch support was assessed by conducting 1,000 bootstrap replicates (standard bootstrap). Branches with bootstrap support values (BS) ≥ 75% were considered strongly supported.

For BI analyses, PartitionFinder V2.1.1 (Lanfear *et al.*, 2017) was used to determine the best-fit partitioning schemes and the associated substitution models were implemented in MrBayes (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) using corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc; Akaike, 2011). We separated coding genes into partitions by codon position to account for variation of substitution rates. We performed a Bayesian inference (BI) analysis using MrBayes v.3.2.7 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) by launching two simultaneous runs for a total of eight Markov chains running for 100 million generations and sampling every 10000 generations. We assessed the convergence of samples using Tracer v.1.7.1 (Rambaud *et al.*, 2018) by checking the stability of the log-likelihood curve and the split frequencies of the runs and used a 10% burn-in because of the rapid convergence of the runs. Support for each branch was derived from the posterior probabilities (PP) observed on the majority-rule consensus tree; a PP ≥ 0.95 was considered as well supported following Erixon *et al.* (2003).

Divergence time estimation

We generated a species-level dataset with one specimen per sampled species to conduct dating and subsequent analyses. Divergence times were estimated using Bayesian relaxed clocks as implemented in BEAST 1.10.4 (Suchard *et al.*, 2018). The partitions and substitution models were selected using PartitionFinder 1.1.1 (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012) with the Bayesian information criterion (Ripplinger & Sullivan, 2008). BEAST analyses were performed on the CIPRES Science Gateway using BEAGLE to improve and speed up the likelihood calculation (Ayres *et al.*, 2012; Miller *et al.*, 2015). For each clock model/partitioning scheme an uncorrelated log-normal relaxed clock was implemented. The Tree Model was set to a Yule Process (Gernhard, 2008).

In the absence of clear a fossil record attributable to Eneopterinae, a previous study used an extended outgroup approach to estimate the divergence times of this clade using multiple unambiguous fossils from several cricket families (Vicente *et al.*, 2017). Except for the Lebinthini, our sampling of the other tribes is similar to that of Vicente *et al.* (2017). Therefore, we used the results from this study to define four secondary calibration points as follows, each point being enforced using normal distributions centered on previously estimated median ages: F(1) the node for the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of Eneopterinae was assigned a 95% interval of 63.28–96.76 Ma (normalPrior mean = "76.29" stdev = "9.0"), (2) the node for the MRCA of the tribe Eurepini was assigned an interval of 46.93–74.24 Ma (normalPrior mean = "58.26" stdev = "7.0"), (3) the node for the MRCA of the tribes Xenogryllini and Lebinthini was assigned an interval of 49.22–76.12 Ma (normalPrior mean = "59.64" stdev = "7.5"), and (4) the node for the MRCA of the genus *Eneoptera* Burmeister was assigned an interval of 16.25–30.66 Ma (normalPrior mean = "22.26" stdev = "3.7").

BEAST analyses consisted of 50 million generations of MCMC with parameters and trees sampled every 1000 generations. A burn-in of 25% was applied after checking the traces in Tracer. Posterior distributions of trees obtained from distinct analyses were combined using LogCombiner v1.8.4 (http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/). The maximum credibility tree, median ages and their 95% highest posterior density (HPD) were generated with TreeAnnotator v1.8.4 (https://github.com/beast-dev/beastmcmc/releases/tag/v1.8.4).

Ancestral state reconstructions (ASR) of acoustic traits

We used the consensus topology inferred by the BEAST analysis to study the evolution of the main acoustic features of the calling songs of these crickets. Three discrete and one continuous traits were coded based on new acoustic measurements from this study and data from recent taxonomic descriptions (see Supporting information Table S3).

For the discrete traits (SONG, ECHE, NDF), we fit three different models of trait evolution using the function fitDiscrete from the R package *geiger* (Harmon *et al.* 2008). These models differes in the assumptions about number of transition rates as follows: Equal rates (ER) allows a single transition rate between all states), symmetric (SYM) hasidentical forward and reverse transitions and all-rates-different (ARD), has unique parameters fore ach rate. Each model was run over 1000 generations. From the results we selected the model with the lowest value of sample-size corrected AICc. For the selected model, we estimated ancestral states of each trait using Bayesian MCMC using the *make.simmap* function in the R package *phytools* (Revell 2012) with 100 simulations. We obtained the trait estimates at the nodes by averaging the values over all generations, excluding a 20% burn-in.

For the continuous trait DF, we reconstructed the ancestral states using thefunction *anc.Bayes* in *phytools* (Revell, 2012), by running a MCMC with 1,000,000 generations, the first 200,000 generations being discarded as burn-in.

Phylogenetic signal

We estimated the phylogenetic signal for acoustic traits to evaluate whether the distribution of each trait across the phylogeny follows a Brownian motion evolution hypothesis or shows divergent evolutionary trends, suggesting the action of particular selection pressures acting on the trait evolution.

To estimate the phylogenetic signal of the three discrete traits (SONG, ECHE, NDF), we quantified δ -value, where a high positive value indicates higher phylogenetic signal (Borges *et al.*, 2019). Significance of δ -value was determined based on 100 iterations.

To estimate the strength of signal to a Brownian motion model of the evolution of a continuous trait (i.e., DF), we quantified the Blomberg's K (value ranging from 0 to greater than 1) (Blomberg *et al.*, 2003) and Pagel's λ (value ranging from 0 to 1) (Pagel, 1999) using the function *phylosig* from the R package phytools (Revell, 2012). K = 1 and λ = 1 indicate a Brownian motion evolution.

Results

Phylogenetic results

The separate ML analyses of each DNA marker showed no major conflict in topology (see Supporting information Figure S1). The best-fit partition scheme and substitution models used in BI analyses of the combined datasets consisted of five partitions (detailed in Supporting information Table S2). Both BI and ML phylogenetic analyses yielded robust and largely congruent topologies (Fig. 1A, see also Supporting information Fig. S2 for results of ML analysis).

In each analysis, the five tribes within the Eneopterinae were recovered as monophyletic with maximum support values (PP of 1.0 and BS of 100% for Eurepini, Eneopterini, Nisitrini, Xenogryllini, and Lebinthini). The sister relationship between the tribes Lebinthini and Xenogryllini was also strongly supported (PP of 1.0 and BS of 100%).

Within the tribe Lebinthini, the new subtribes were recovered as monophyletic with strong support: Ligypterina (PP of 1 and BS of 99%); Cardiodactylina (PP of 0.98 and BS of 99%) and Lebinthina (PP of 1 and BS of 100%). The Ligypterina was found as the sister group of a clade formed by Cardiodactylina and Lebinthina with strong support values (PP of 0.96 and BS of 98%).

Within the Lebinthina, two major clades appeared: (1) a less-supported clade (PP < 0.95 and BS of 74%) including the genera distributed in the eastern part of the subtribe's distribution (New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and New Caledonia: *Macrobinthus, Microbinthus, Centuriarus, Gnominthus, Agnotecous* Saussure, and *Pixibinthus*); and (2) its highly-supported sister clade (PP of 1 and BS of 100%), including the Lebinthina genera from South-east Asia (west of New Guinea island): *Falcerminthus*, sister group of *Lebinthus* + *Fadinthus* with high support (PP of 1 and BS of 100%). Within clade 1, generic relationships had variable support due to the unstable positions of *Centuriarus* and *Gnominthus*, whereas the two genera from New Caledonia, *Pixibinthus* and *Agnotecous*, were unambiguously found as sister groups (PP of 1 and BS of 100%).

In all the analyses, all genera and species were recovered as monophyletic when tested. The new genus *Falcerminthus* was recovered as monophyletic with high support values (PP of 1 and BS of 100%), as well as the newly defined *Lebinthus* (PP of 0.99 and BS of 97%).

Within Falcerminthus, one clade included three species from the Philippines (*F. magayon* (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard), *F. estrellae* (Robillard), *F. sanchezi* (Bolívar)) with high support (PP of 1 and BS of 98%), as the sister group of the rest of the genus, also well supported (PP of 1 and BS of 100%). Within *Lebinthus*, both ML and BI analyses recovered *L. boracay* Baroga-Barbecho, Yap & Robillard as the sister of *L. bitaeniatus* Stål with a high support (PP of 1 and BS of 100%), these two species forming the sister group of a clade formed by *L. lanyuensis* Oshiro and *L. luae* Robillard & Tan (PP of 1 and BS of 100%).

Divergence time estimation

The best-fit partition scheme and substitution models used in BEAST analyses for the species-level dataset consisted of five partitions presented in Supporting information Table S2. The topology recovered by BEAST analysis relying on these partitions/clocks converged quickly, with all parameters showing ESS values ≥ 200.

The analysis yielded robust results, with a topology congruent with previous BI/ML analyses. Most clades corresponding to tribes, subtribes and genera were recovered (Fig. 2, see also Supporting information Fig. S3); differences only occurred in the relationships within tribe Eurepini and within one subclade of the subtribe Lebinthina.

Age estimates for the subfamily Eneopterinae suggested an origin in the Late Cretaceous ca. 90.67 Ma (95% HPD: 78.09–103.67 Ma), and for the tribe Lebinthini in the early Eocene ca. 51.71 Ma (95% HPD: 43.25–60.75 Ma).

The crown groups of the new subtribes were dated as follows: Ligypterina: 43.41 Ma (95% HPD: 34.17–52.90 Ma), Cardiodactylina: 45.28 Ma (95% HPD: 37.33–53.82), Lebinthina: 40.08 Ma (95% HPD: 33.21–47.57 Ma). Based on these results, *Fadinthus* diverged from

422 Lebinthus ca. 17.94 Ma (95% HPD: 13.10–23.41 Ma); Lebinthus originated ca. 14.56 Ma (95%
 423 HPD: 10.33–19.33 Ma) and Falcerminthus ca. 24.16 Ma (ca. 19.18-29.51 Ma).

Ancestral state reconstructions

Based on sample-size corrected AICc values, the model selection analyses gave a best fit to the ER model for the discrete traits SONG, ECHE, and NDF (Supporting information Table S4). The estimated ancestral values of each trait using Bayesian MCMC are presented in Fig. 3 and detailed below.

The results suggested that the calling song had an echeme structure for most of the history of the subfamily. Single-syllable calls evolved several times independently and apically in the three Lebinthini subtribes (Fig. 3A): In the genera *Ponca*, *Centuriarus*, and in some *Cardiodactylus* species. Similarly, homogeneous trills evolved twice, in the genera *Eneoptera* and *Eurepa* Walker. Ancestral echeme structure was less clear-cut in the results (Fig. 3B) for most of the deepest nodes of the phylogeny, but clearer results were found at the node corresponding to the ancestor of Lebinthini + Xenogryllini, and in the most basal nodes in the Lebinthini, for which an ancestral complex echeme was supported. From complex, the temporal pattern reversed to simple multiple times within the Lebinthini, but the results also suggested that echeme structure varied within most genera or between closely related ones.

Results for the continuous dominant frequency trait (DF) suggested that eneopterines used low-frequency calls ancestrally (Fig. 3C). Two clear independent shifts occurred toward high frequencies, one within the genus *Eneoptera*, and one at the base of the tribe Lebinthini. Within Lebinthini, ultrasound calls evolved multiple times from high frequencies, in the genera *Fadinthus*, *Falcerminthus*, *Microbinthus*, *Gnominthus*, and *Pixibinthus*. The results regarding the nature of the dominant frequency (NDF) suggested that the dominant frequency was ancestrally the fundamental frequency f1 (Fig. 3D), and remained so in the tribes Eurepini, Eneopterini, Nisitrini and Xenogryllini. The increase of frequency in *Eneoptera* corresponds to an apical shift of the dominant frequency to the harmonic f5. The base of tribe Lebinthini is then characterized by a transition in the dominant frequency from the fundamental frequency f1 to the harmonic f3, in the subtribes Ligypterina and Cardiodactylina. The subtribe Lebinthina shows another shift in dominant frequency, from f3 to f2, followed by multiple subsequent changes, involving reversals toward f1 in *Falcerminthus*, or toward f3 in *Gnominthus*, or a loss of harmonic structure (broad-band spectrum) in *Lebinthus* and *Centuriarus*.

Phylogenetic signal

The phylogenetic signal estimated with δ for the discrete traits was high for the trait SONG (δ = 16.8, p <0.001), suggesting that the main temporal structure of the call showed phylogenetic inertia. Phylogenetic signal was lower for ECHE (δ = 2.9, p <0.001), indicating

that echeme structure was more labile than expected by the phylogeny. Phylogenetic signal was high for the NDF (δ = 18.9, p <0.001), indicating that the nature of dominant frequency tends to be constrained by the phylogeny.

For the continuous trait DF, the phylogenetic signal was low, based on its estimate with both the parameters λ (λ = 0.74, p <0.001) and K (K = 0.485605, p: 0.001). K being lower than 1 suggested that dominant frequency values diverged more between closely related species than expected under Brownian motion evolution.

Discussion

The detailed taxonomic study and the robust phylogeny presented here reaffirm the monophyletic status of the Lebinthini genera and provide the most up-to-date understanding of in the phylogenetic relationships in this diverse group of crickets, hence permitting further investigation of their evolutionary history and acoustic traits.

Phylogeny of Eneopterinae

This study provides a new well-resolved phylogenetic framework for Eneopterinae despite the focus on the tribe Lebinthini. The results confirm the monophyly of the five recognized tribes, with strong support as previously found (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a, 2006; Nattier *et al.*, 2011; Vicente *et al.*, 2017; Jaiwara *et al.*, 2019). Our results also confirm the position of the tribe Eurepini as the sister group to the rest of the subfamily and the tribe Lebinthini as the sister group of the tribe Xenogryllini. The relative positions of the tribes Nisitrini and Eneopterini forming a clade placed as the sister group of Xenogryllini + Lebinthini is not as well supported in both the ML and Bl analyses. This relationship was suggested in a previous study, also with low support (Jaiswara *et al.*, 2019). In other studies, Eneopterini was found as sister group to a clade grouping Nisitrini, Xenogryllini, and Lebinthini (Robillard *et al.*, 2004a, 2006, Nattier *et al.*, 2011, Vicente *et al.*, 2017). Future studies employing Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) and genomic datasets with a more complete taxonomic sampling for these two tribes will be necessary to resolve the current ambiguity in their relationships. However, we do not expect any significant consequences for the ASR results presented in this study, nor on the general evolutionary conclusions.

Phylogeny and classification of Lebinthini

The tribe Lebinthini was found to contain three robust clades that are here raised to subtribes to clarify the systematics of this diverse tribe. Subtribes, and the resulting classification of Lebinthini, are based on distinct morphological traits, acoustic traits and geographical distributions (Fig. 1B), and they are supported by the molecular phylogenetic

results that include most described genera. According to the dating analysis, the tribe diverged ca. 51 Ma (Fig. 2), which is similar to the age found by Vicente *et al.* (2017) based on a less extensive taxonomic sampling.

Ligypterina—The subtribe Ligypterina is distinguished from the other subtribes by its Neotropical distribution. It is sister group to the rest of the tribe Lebinthini, which is comprised by the two other subtribes, Cardiodactylina and Lebinthina. Ligypterina includes two speciespoor genera, *Ponca* and *Ligypterus*, comprising two and six valid species, respectively. Both genera are similar in terms of general morphology (head shape, FW venation pattern), genitalic anatomy in both males and females (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2005), and by the frequency spectrum of the male's calling song, in which the third harmonic peak dominates (Robillard *et al.*, 2015). The dating analysis indicated that these two genera diverged around 43 Ma.

Cardiodactylina—The main topological difference between our phylogenetic results and the previous study by Vicente et al. (2017) is the position of the genus Swezwilderia, which there was found, with low support values, as the sister group of the Neotropical clade corresponding to the subtribe Ligypterina. In our study Swezwilderia is the sister group of the genus Cardiodactylus, together forming the subtribe Cardiodactylina with high support values. This relationship is consistent with conclusions of some previous phylogenetic studies (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006; Dong et al., 2018) that placed Swezwilderia as the sister group of Cardiodactylus within the Lebinthini. This relationship is also consistent with the hypothesis initially made by Chopard (1929) when he described the genus Swezwilderia, noticing that it looked like a "small Cardiodactylus". The relationship with Cardiodactylus is indeed consistent with the general morphological features shared by these two genera, such as head shape, macroptery, and female FW venation. However, male FW venation and male genitalia structure are difficult to compare between the two genera because they are both highly modified, making hypotheses of homology difficult.

Interestingly, *Swezwilderia* contains only three valid species (needing revision) and is distributed in the easternmost part of the Western Pacific region (in Samoa and the Fiji islands), whereas its sister group, *Cardiodactylus*, is species-rich (more than 80 described species) and distributed throughout all of Southeast Asia and the Western Pacific region, (e.g., Otte, 2007; Robillard *et al.*, 2014). The dating results suggest that the two genera diverged ca. 45 Ma, which is consistent with previous results about the biogeography of *Cardiodactylus* suggesting an origin of the genus in islands of the Pacific, with multiple colonizations of the Southeast Asian continent (Dong *et al.*, 2018).

Lebinthina—The subtribe Lebinthina within the tribe Lebinthini corresponds to the clade characterized by species having brachypterous wings and being distributed in Southeast Asia and in the Western Pacific. This clade has been recognized as a taxonomic group in previous

studies and has been referred to as "brachypterous Lebinthini" or as the "Agnotecous-Lebinthus" clade (Robillard et al., 2007, 2013, 2016). Until 2011, this group only included a few species from the genera Agnotecous and Lebinthus, but recent taxonomic revisions and field work have revealed an unsuspected diversity resulting in the discovery and description of many new genera and species from Australia (Robillard & Su, 2018), New Guinea (Robillard, 2011; Vicente et al., 2015; Robillard et al., 2016), New Caledonia (Anso et al., 2016), and Southeast Asian archipelagoes (this study). Interestingly, this subtribe is the sister group to Cardiodactylina with which it shares more or less the same distribution (Fig. 1B). The two subtribes however differ in terms of generic diversity (two genera in Cardiodactylina vs. nine in Lebinthina) while being comparable in terms of the number of species. This suggests that species within Lebinthina has a higher rate of morphological diversification compared to those in Cardiodactylina (i.e., Cardiodactylus). This may be related with the main morphological difference between the two subtribes, i.e., their wing morphology. It is likely that the long wings of Cardiodactylus species provided greater dispersal capabilities (Dong et al., 2018). Lebinthina might speciate at similar rates but experience greater isolation because of lower dispersal capabilities due to loss of flight, resulting in higher diversification through emergence of multiple morphological groups of species. This hypothesis will need to be addressed with a more complete phylogenetic context and comparative phylogenetic methods. However, in the light of the last decade of taxonomic studies, field work, and materials examined in natural history collections, we would predict that, while more species of both subtribes still await discovery and formal description, the current trend will prevail: numerous new species of Cardiodactylus and numerous new genera and species within the Lebinthina.

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Phylogenetic relationships within Lebinthina

The molecular phylogeny presented here provides strong evidence to support the monophyly of the morphological species groups recognized in *Lebinthus* (sensu Baroga-Barbecho *et al.*, 2020). Previously, brachypterous eneopterines from Southeast Asia were generally classified as *Lebinthus*. New insights from the phylogeny have allowed us to redefine *Lebinthus* and describe two new genera based on morphological, acoustic, and molecular evidence (see Systematic part below).

The phylogenetic relationships within the subtribe Lebinthina can be addressed because of the dense taxonomic sampling for this clade. The results confirm the monophyly of all the tested genera and suggest that the subtribe is subdivided in two main groups of genera, which reflect their distribution: one clade includes the genera distributed mainly in the eastern region (eastern clade), including New Guinea, New Caledonia, Vanuatu, and the Solomon Islands; whereas the second clade includes *Lebinthus* and the new genera *Falcerminthus* and *Fadinthus*, and is strictly distributed west of New Guinea (western clade). These two main

clades were also recovered by Vicente *et al.* (2017) and were supported by both our BI and ML analyses, with relatively weak support for the eastern clade and strong support for the western clade.

The relationships among genera found here confirm some of the relationships proposed previously: In the eastern clade, the sister relationship between *Agnotecous* and *Pixibinthus* was confirmed with high support values (Anso *et al.* 2016), but the relative positions of the other genera remain to be clarified. In the western clade, the sister relationship of *Fadinthus* and *Lebinthus* was well supported, as well as their sister-group relationship with *Falcerminthus*, confirming morphological and bioacoustic similarities.

Evolution of calling songs in Eneopterinae

While a few lineages have become mute (e.g., Salazar *et al.*, 2020), the subfamily Eneopterinae is highly diverse in terms of acoustic signals. A similar pattern is found among Lebinthini, in particular in the subtribe Cardiodactylina where *Swezwilderia* species are mute, while the numerous species of *Cardiodactylus* show a great, yet largely unexplored, diversity of calling songs. This acoustic diversity is seen in both temporal patterns, ranging from single syllable calls to complex echemes, and the f3 dominant frequency, ranging from 12–20 kHz with a few species having broad-band calls without detectable harmonics (e.g., Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011; Robillard *et al.*, 2014; Dong & Robillard, 2016).

The subtribe Lebinthina is most remarkable for the high diversity of frequency spectra of the species' calling songs, in addition to the diversity of their temporal patterns. In Lebinthina, the dominant frequency of the song is always high frequency (above 10 kHz), but the dominant frequency's harmonic differs greatly: it is the second harmonic in most genera (*Agnotecous*, *Microbinthus*, *Macrobinthus*, *Pixibinthus*, *Fadinthus* **gen. nov.**), the third harmonic in *Gnominthus* (as in Cardiodactylina and Ligypterina), the fundamental frequency in *Falcerminthus* **gen. nov.**, or the call is a broad-band in frequency in *Lebinthus* and *Centuriarus*. Interestingly, the harmonic of the dominant frequency appears more or less consistent at the genus level, perhaps because it is related to the morphology of the FW resonant areas and its venation.

The Lebinthina also includes all the species reaching the highest frequency values among Lebinthini. Their song frequencies range well above the ultrasound limit (20 kHz) in several genera, the highest values seen in *Pixibinthus sonicus* (ca. 28 kHz; Anso *et al.*, 2016) and *Microbinthus* spp. (ca. 26 kHz; Robillard, 2009; Robillard *et al.*, 2016).

Using the updated phylogeny pruned to the 42 eneopterine species with acoustic data, we tested hypotheses related to the evolutionary history of their calling songs, both on the temporal patterns and spectral parameters.

Evolution of temporal patterns—According to previous studies, we expected to see a trend in the evolution of temporal patterns from simple to more complex calling songs (Otte, 1992; Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011). The ASR results, however, suggest that the ancestral eneopterine calls were mainly echemes and that both continuous trills and monosyllabic calls (i.e., simpler patterns) were acquired secondarily and multiple times. Continuous trills occur in Eurepini and Eneoptera, as found in Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas (2011). The rest of the subfamily mostly shows echeme-type calling songs, including most species of Lebinthini. A few clades within the tribe, however, have simpler, monosyllabic calls (i.e., one FW closure produced one call unit), which evolved independently multiple times. Monosyllabic calls could be seen continuous trills with very long silent gaps between syllables, but they function very differently from continuous trills in terms of communication. Several studies in the distantly related species Cardiodactylus muria Robillard (ter Hofstede et al., 2015) and Ponca hebardi Robillard (Benavides-Lopez et al., 2020) demonstrated that each monosyllabic call provokes one female response and is thus functionally equivalent of the echemes produced by other Lebinthini species. On the contrary, continuous trills likely elicit female phonotaxis. Therefore, temporal patterns of the calls underwent multiple, but functionally different, independent simplifications across the phylogeny. Its high phylogenetic signal, however, suggests that song type evolution is constrained by the phylogeny.

Echeme complexity showed ASR results less easy to interpret, with ambiguous ancestral states for most of the deepest nodes and many trait changes leading to either more complex or simpler echemes in sister lineages, both at the tribal and generic levels, and sometimes between sister species. This pattern was supported by the low phylogenetic signal for this trait, which suggest that echeme inner structure evolved dynamically in multiple directions, including in Lebinthini. Therefore, although the general pattern is found across the phylogeny (with exceptions), the fine temporal patterns of the calls appear to be relatively labile and probably under selection from multiple factors acting on communication systems. These also refute the simple hypothesis that call evolution follows a general trend from low to high complexity.

 Evolution of spectral parameters—Our results only partly support the hypothesis that the spectral features of the calls are evolutionarily more stable than the temporal patterns (which prove partly stable themselves as discussed above). The first trait concerning the values of dominant frequency across the phylogeny shows that DF has shifted from low to high values only a few times in the history of Eneopterinae: once recently in the genus *Eneoptera* in the particular context of a unique and specialized modification of the morphology and behavior related to stridulation in the species *Eneoptera guyanensis* Chopard (Desutter-Grandcolas, 1998, Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011; Robillard *et al.*, 2015); and once corresponding

to the origin of the whole Lebinthini tribe, as suggested in an earlier study on the origin of high-frequencies (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a). From these high-frequency values, calling songs secondarily became ultrasonic (>20 kHz) at least five times independently within the Lebinthini, in the genera *Pixibinthus*, *Gnominthus*, *Microbinthus*, *Falcerminthus*, and *Fadinthus* (Fig. 3C: orange and red branches). In addition, several taxa reversed secondarily to lower-frequency calls, without going lower than 10 kHz (Fig. 3C: turquoise branches). This suggests that, once high frequencies have been acquired, frequency values kept evolving in a very dynamic way, which is well supported by the low phylogenetic signal for this trait.

 The second trait about spectral features of the calls corresponds to the harmonic of the dominant peak within the frequency spectrum. The results complement the results for the DF trait and support the hypothesis that, after reaching the high-frequency range, call frequencies changed a lot within the Lebinthini through harmonic hopping, i.e., by changing the nature of the dominant frequency. Our results showed that the high frequencies in Lebinthini occurred concomitantly with a change of nature of the dominant frequency as suggested by Robillard *et al.* (2007). This initial shift corresponded to harmonic hopping from the fundamental frequency (f1) to the harmonic f3. Harmonic f3 then remained dominant in all the members of the subtribes Cardiodactylina and Ligypterina as hypothesized earlier (Robillard *et al.*, 2014, 2015). Interestingly, the Lebinthina then underwent a subsequent diversification in terms of nature of dominant frequency.

Increases in frequency values leading to ultrasound values are not always linked with changes in the nature of the dominant frequency: Gnominthus reached ultrasonic frequencies by reversing the dominant frequency from f2 to f3, whereas the opposite happened in Falcerminthus, which reversed from f2 to f1 while acquiring ultrasonic calls. The most striking cases of ultrasonic calls (DF > 25 kHz) occurred in a f2 dominant-frequency context in Pixibinthus and Microbinthus independently. The highest frequency values are thus found in the Lebinthina, in clades where the dominant frequency is mainly harmonic f2, whereas the f3dominant frequency songs remain below the ultrasound threshold. To produce 28 kHz for a cricket with f2-dominant frequency, such as Pixibinthus sonicus, a fundamental frequency of 14 kHz is required, whereas many species in the Cardiodactylina and Ligypterina clades are producing frequencies in this intermediate range using the third harmonic (hence with a fundamental frequency three times lower). This suggests that the relationships between stridulatory structures (file tooth number and inter-tooth distance), FW closure speeds and wing resonance capacities are both diverse and complex, resulting in complex changes in the calling song. This diversity likely conceals diverse morpho-functional mechanisms associated with various evolutionary potentialities.

These results suggest that there is a certain amount of uncoupling between the value of the dominant frequency and the harmonic that generates the dominant frequency, and the flexible nature of this relationship might have contributed to the diversification of the frequency spectra in Lebinthini. The precise interplay between the mechanisms of sound production systems, frequency values, and harmonic hopping will necessitate additional investigations to understand the mechanisms involved in this rich evolutionary context.

Broader conclusions on the evolution of acoustic communication—Our findings on the evolution of temporal patterns and spectral parameters in Lebinthini crickets also add more evidence for how acoustic communication can evolve. That call architecture is partly stable across lineages, but finer temporal patterns are relatively labile among closely related species, has implications beyond our study system. In birds, Price et al. (2007) showed in the New World orioles (Icterus Brisson) that complex songs evolved multiple times independently in the phylogeny. The complexity of songs can also evolve differently in different clades. For example, many vocal characters of oropendolas birds were found to be highly conserved (Price & Lanyon, 2002). Evidence of variable evolutionary trajectories further illustrate the importance of studying acoustic communication in different taxa.

Our study on the evolutionary history of acoustic traits in Eneopterinae is likely to be the most comprehensive study for a cricket clade thus far. Additional studies using larger datasets are needed to have a more detailed understanding of the evolutionary history of calling song in these crickets. Nonetheless, our results offer a framework to study the evolution of acoustic traits in other crickets or orthopteran groups. For example, Tettigonioidea species also produce either low-frequency or ultrasonic calls (Montealegre-Z *et al.*, 2006; Montealegre-Z, 2009) and temporal patterns that are either simple or complex (e.g., Heller & Hemp, 2019; ter Hofstede *et al.*, 2020), but phylogenetic studies investigating how spectral features and call complexity evolve in specific groups within this clade are lacking. This can be partly attributed to the enormous effort needed to acquire both taxonomic and biological data for as many species as possible before addressing comparative studies.

708	Systematic part
709	
710	Family Gryllidae
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712	Subfamily Eneopterinae Saussure, 1874
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714	Tribe Lebinthini Robillard, 2004
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716	Subtribe Cardiodactylina Robillard & Tan, subtribe n.
717	Type genus: Cardiodactylus Saussure, 1878
718	Contained genera: Cardiodactylus Saussure, 1878; Swezwilderia Chopard, 1925
719	Diagnosis: The members of the subtribe Cardiodactylina are characterized by their long wings
720	(FWs and HWs). They either possess a functional stridulatory apparatus in males with modified
721	mirror area (Cardiodactylus) or no stridulatory structures (Swezwilderia). They are distributed
722	in Southeast Asia and in most archipelagos of the Western Pacific region (Fig. 1B).
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724	Subtribe Ligypterina Robillard & Tan, subtribe n.
725	Type genus: <i>Ligypterus</i> Saussure, 1878
726	Contained genera: Ligypterus Saussure, 1878; Ponca Hebard, 1928
727	Diagnosis: The members of the subtribe Ligypterina are either brachypterous or macropterous;
728	they are characterized by a functional stridulatory apparatus in males with a modified mirror
729	area, male genitalia with large pseudepiphallic lophi and an indented anterior margin. They are
730	distributed in the Neotropical region (Central America and northern part of South America) (Fig.
731	1B).
732	
733	Subtribe Lebinthina Robillard & Tan, subtribe n.
734	Type genus: <i>Lebinthus</i> Stål, 1877
735	Contained genera: Agnotecous Saussure, 1878; Centuriarus Robillard, 2011; Fadinthus
736	Robillard & Tan, gen. nov. ; Falcerminthus Robillard & Tan, gen. nov. ; Gnominthus Robillard
737	& Vicente, 2015; Julverninthus Robillard & Su, 2018; Lebinthus Stål, 1877; Macrobinthus
738	Robillard & Dong, 2016; <i>Microbinthus</i> Robillard & Dong, 2016; <i>Pixibinthus</i> Robillard & Anso,
739	2016.
740	Diagnosis: The members of the subtribe Lebinthina all have brachypterous FWs and lack HWs;
741	males are characterized by functional stridulatory structures with a vestigial mirror area. As for
742	Cardiodactylina, they are distributed in Southeast Asia and in most archipelagos of the
743	Western Pacific region (Fig. 1B).

Eneopterinae insertae sedis

Genus *Antillobinthus* Yong & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2020—This genus described from Cuba and including one species, does not present the key features of the Lebinthini such as inner tympanum covered by a cuticular fold, female ovipositor with denticulate apex, structure of male genitalia (Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2004a). No phylogenetic data could be included yet to test its relationship with the other eneopterine tribes, or to place this genus in the appropriate subtribe. Conservatively, we propose to maintain it within the subfamily as genus *insertae sedis*.

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754 **Lebinthus Stål, 1877**

- 755 (Figs. 1, 2, 4A, 4B, 5A, 6G)
- 756 Lebinthus Stål, 1877: 50; Bolívar, 1889: 425; Kirby, 1906: 88; Chopard, 1968: 353; Otte &
- 757 Alexander, 1983: 307; Desutter-Grandcolas, 1990: 239 (Eneopteridae: Eneopterinae), 1997:
- 758 171; Otte, 1994: 67; Oshiro, 1995: 45; Yin & Liu, 1995: 210; Oshiro, 1996: 117; Robillard &
- 759 Desutter-Grandcolas, 2008: 67 (Lebinthini); Robillard, 2010: 26; Robillard et al., 2013: 51;
- 760 Robillard & Tan, 2013: 712; Baroga-Barbecho et al., 2020: 401; Cigliano et al., 2021
- 761 (Orthoptera Species File Online).
- 762 Synonym name: Paraeneopterus Saussure, 1878. Synonymized by Robillard & Desutter-
- 763 Grandcolas, 2008: 67.

- 765 **Type species.** *Lebinthus bitaeniatus* Stål, 1877
- Material examined. See Robillard & Tan, 2013: 712; Baroga-Barbecho et al., 2020.
- 767 New diagnosis. Among Lebinthina genera, Lebinthus has an average to short size and is 768 characterized by its brown coloration with two yellow or whitish bands running on the whole body; head as wide as high in facial view; eyes large and prominent; body slender, with a 769 770 rather long abdomen; FIII long and thin. Male diagnostic characters include CuA vein straight 771 apically; harp with one faint oblique vein almost straight; mirror not differentiated; male genitalia with pseudepiphallic lophi little differentiated, separated by a short median plate; and average-772 773 sized pseudepiphallic parameres. Female diagnostic characters include: FWs as long as in 774 male, slightly overlapping, ovipositor longer than FIII. From Falcerminthus, Lebinthus differs by general body shape more elongate (stockier in Falcerminthus), male FWs with CuA straight 775 apically, harp without false mirror, and male genitalia with characteristic shape of 776 pseudepiphallic lophi little differentiated. From Fadinthus, Lebinthus mostly differs by absence 777 of longitudinal bands along body, head as high as wide in facial view (wider than high in 778 Fadinthus), eyes slightly smaller (very large in Fadinthus), lateral lobes of pronotum with a 779 780 lighter ventral margin with a variable dark pattern (lateral lobes almost entirely dark brown in

Fadinthus), and male genitalia with average-sized pseudepiphallic parameres (oversized in 781

782 Fadinthus).

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815 816 Redescription.

Genus of average size, body slender, with a rather long abdomen, characterized by brown coloration with two yellow or whitish bands running on the whole body (Fig. 4B). Head forming an equilateral triangle in facial view, as high as wide. Head dorsum yellow brown with six dark brown longitudinal bands more or less distinct. Eyes large and prominent (Fig. 4A). Face yellow brown to darker brown, with a dark facial band or large spots between scapes (Fig. 4A). Pronotum dorsal disk trapezoidal, almost square, wider than long, its posterior margin straight, 790 usually dark brown, its lateral edges yellow. Lateral lobes black dorsally, ventral margin orange brown to yellow with a dark brown pattern, including the ventral corner and a brownish longitudinal line (Fig. 4B). Legs: TI with two tympana; inner tympanum covered by a flat sclerotized expansion, its membrane visible along a small longitudinal slit only; outer tympanum ellipsoidal, its membrane transversally plicate in dorsal half. TI with two inner and one outer apical spurs. TII with two inner and two outer spurs. FIII muscular and long, with a 795 linear region before knee. TIII serrulated on its whole length, slightly furrowed longitudinally and with four pairs of subapical spurs and three pairs of apical spurs; inner spurs long and 797 798 curved, outer spurs shorter and straight. Legs I and II light brown to yellow brown, femora with brown spots and longitudinal patterns, tibiae with rings. FIII long and thin. TIII with distinct 800 brown rings. Abdomen: Tergites dark brown with two yellow or whitish bands running longitudinally.

Male: Metanotal glands absent. FWs short, reaching one third of abdomen length; narrow, lateral field almost as long as dorsal field (Fig. 5A). Harp wide, with one harp vein almost straight. Diagonal vein very faint posteriorly. Distal part of CuA straight. Apical field very small, with one bifurcation of CuA posterior to diagonal vein. Mirror not differentiated. Subgenital plate elongate, clog-shaped.

Male genitalia (Fig. 6G): Pseudepiphallic sclerite trapezoidal, convex dorsally, its apex slightly trilobate, including a short median expansion and two lophi barely individualized, slightly divergent and finely setose. Anterior margin bisinuate, with a median indentation. Pseudepiphallic parameres of average size, with a wide sclerotized basis, trilobate (instead of C-, F- or L-shaped in Falcerminthus), including a postero-dorsal lobe and two ventral lobes, the anterior one usually rounded and curved anteriorly. Ectophallic fold with variable ventral sclerotization, its apex membranous; ectophallic apodemes long. Endophallic sclerite elongated and thin anteriorly, with short lateral arms and a small medio-posterior expansion; endophallic apodeme usually formed by small lateral lamellas and of a large dorsal median crest.

- 817 Female: FWs as long as in male, always slightly overlapping. Lateral angle of FWs with a
- 818 narrow yellow longitudinal band including a faint vein. Dorsal field with 5-6 strong parallel
- 819 longitudinal veins, its apical area either rounded or angular. Lateral field with 3–5 longitudinal
- veins. Ovipositor longer than FIII, its apex dorsal margin finely denticulate.
- 821 Female genitalia: Copulatory papilla conical, with a narrow basal sclerotized area on ventral
- 822 face; apex rounded.
- 823 Habitat and life history. Activity mostly diurnal, documented species live in open forested
- areas in secondary habitats or in the open near forest.
- 825 **Calling song.** For the species for which calling song is documented (*L. bitaeniatus* and *L.*
- 826 luae), syllables are very indented (amplitude modulation resulting in pauses within the
- syllable). Song organized in two parts, the initial one consisting of well-spaced syllables, the
- second part forming a short trill. The spectrum consists of a broad band at high frequency (15-
- 829 30 kHz).
- 830 Distribution. Indonesia (Sumatra and West Java), Malaysia (northern Borneo), Palau,
- Philippines (Luzon, Palawan, Leyte, and Mindanao), Singapore and surrounding islands,
- 832 Taiwan (Lanyu I.).
- 833 Species included and distribution (arranged alphabetically; TL: type locality).
- 834 L. bitaeniatus Stål, 1877—Philippines: Luzon (TL), Palawan, Mindoro, Masbate.
- 835 L. boracay Baroga-Barbecho, Yap & Robillard, 2020—Philippines: Boracay (TL).
- 836 L. lanyuensis Oshiro, 1996—Taiwan: Taiwan, Lanyu I. (TL).
- 837 L. luae Robillard & Tan, 2013—Singapore: Singapore (TL) (Pulau Ubin, Pulau Semakau,
- 838 Sentosa Island, Bukit Timah, Labrador); Philippines: Batanes, Luzon, Leyte, Cebu, Palawan,
- 839 Sulu; Indonesia: Sumatra, West Java; Riau Islands, Sulawesi; Palau; Malaysia: Johor
- 840 (Mersing) (https://www.inaturalist.org/observations/20944134, 20725496); Borneo (Sabah).
- 841 **Remarks.** The genus *Lebinthus* has been used until recently to refer to all the brachypterous
- species of Lebinthini which were not from New Caledonia (Oshiro, 1996; Desutter-Grandcolas,
- 843 1997; Robillard, 2009, 2010, 2011; Robillard & Tan, 2013; Robillard et al., 2013). The diversity
- 844 uncovered recently for this group of species necessitated the definition of several new genera
- and the redefinition of the genus as restricted to the species close to the type species and
- 846 easily recognized by their yellow longitudinal bands from which the type species name is
- 847 derived.
- 849 Falcerminthus Robillard & Tan, gen. nov.
- 850 (Figs. 1, 2, 4C, 4D, 5B, 6H, 6I)
- 851 urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:8BB986A6-8482-4B67-9D59-D102C26B5F9E
- 852 **Type species.** Lebinthus sanchezi Bolívar, 1889, by subsequent designation

Material examined. See Robillard, 2010; Robillard et al., 2013: 712; Baroga-Barbecho et al.,2020.

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889 890 Diagnosis. Among Lebinthina genera, Falcerminthus gen. nov. has a size ranging from very short to average, coloration contrasted without longitudinal bands along body; head as wide as high in facial view; eyes large and prominent; body stocky, with a rather short abdomen; FIII rather short. Male diagnostic characters include CuA vein curved innerly near apex, harp with one strong oblique vein, poly-furcated anteriorly and delimiting a rounded false mirror, i.e., a distinctive area located on harp posterior corner (not homologous to the mirror of other crickets); mirror not differentiated; male genitalia with pseudepiphallic lophi short but well differentiated, without a median plate between them; pseudepiphallic parameres averagesized. Female diagnostic characters include: FWs shorter than in male, close together at their bases but usually not overlapping; ovipositor shorter than FIII. From Lebinthus, Falcerminthus mostly differs by body shape stockier (more elongate in Lebinthus), male FWs with a characteristic false mirror; CuA curved apically; male genitalia with short pseudepiphallic lophi, female FWs and ovipositor shorter. From Fadinthus, Falcerminthus mostly differs by head as high as wide in facial view (wider than high in Fadinthus), eyes slightly smaller (very large in Fadinthus), lateral lobes of pronotum with a lighter ventral margin with a characteristic dark pattern (lateral lobes almost entirely dark brown in Fadinthus), and male genitalia with averagesized pseudepiphallic parameres (oversized in Fadinthus).

Description. Size small to average for the subtribe. Vertex rounded, prolonged by trapezoidal fastigium almost as long as wide. Head dorsum also with longitudinal bands more or less distinct. Eyes large and prominent; in dorsal view eyes combined width represents ca. 49% of head width in F. sanchezi and F. puyos, 52% in F. sandakan and F. estrellae and 54% in F. polillensis. Head triangular in facial view, almost as wide as high. Face coloration variable, from black to yellow with various patterns (Fig. 4C). Ocelli similar to Lebinthus. Scapes small. Pronotum dorsal disk trapezoidal typical of subtribe, usually dark brown, its lateral edges yellow. Lateral lobes 1.2-1.3 times longer than high (except in F. sandakan, about as long as wide); black dorsally, ventral margin yellow with a variable median dark brown pattern (Fig. 4D). Legs: TI with two tympana typical of subtribe. TI and TII with similar number of apical spurs as Lebinthus. FIII muscular, rather short, without linear region before knee. TIII typical of subtribe. Legs I and II light brown to yellow brown, femora with brown spots and longitudinal patterns, tibiae with rings. TIII with distinct dark brown rings. TallI-1 with 2-3 spines on dorsal outer edges and 0-2 on outer face. FWs short in both sexes, not reaching abdomen midlength; HWs absent. Cerci typical of subtribe. Abdomen: Tergites brown to dark brown, without longitudinal bands.

Male: Metanotal glands absent. Dorsal field of FWs not longer than lateral field. FWs longer than wide, longer than pronotum. FW venation (Fig. 5B): 1A vein (file) widely curved (>100–

120°); stridulatory file with teeth both on transverse and on angle parts of 1A. CuP usually not 891 visible except basally (F. puyos, F. truncatipennis, and F. villemantae). Diagonal vein very faint, 892 usually visible on anterior half, faint posteriorly. Harp wide, occupying most of dorsal field 893 894 surface, with a strong transverse harp vein, poly-furcated anteriorly and delimiting a well-895 rounded false mirror, i.e., a distinctive area located on harp posterior corner (not homologous 896 to the mirror of other crickets). CuA anterior part strong, its distal part weak, slightly curved 897 inward near apex. Mirror (d1) not differentiated. Apical field absent, with no bifurcation of CuA posterior to diagonal vein. Lateral field with 5-6 strong longitudinal veins. Subgenital plate 898 899 elongated, clog-shaped.

901 straight or slightly indented in the middle, posterior apex with short paired lophi. Rami short, parallel to slightly diverging anteriorly. Pseudepiphallic parameres average sized and 902 sclerotized, variable in shape, their basis strong. Ectophallic apodemes parallel and long, 903 reaching beyond anterior margin of pseudepiphallic sclerite. Ectophallic arc well sclerotized. 904 Ectophallic fold with two ventral sclerites of variable shapes, sometimes fused together. 905 906 Endophallic sclerite Y-shaped, comprising a long anterior region and a short median expansion and lateral arms posteriorly. Endophallic apodeme with well-developed lateral lamellas and a 907 908 narrow dorsal median crest.

Male genitalia (Figs. 6H, 6I): Pseudepiphallus triangular, usually elongate, its basal margin

909 Female: FWs very short, shorter than in male, barely reaching posterior margin of first tergite, 910 close together at their bases but usually not overlapping. Dorsal field usually oblique posteriorly 911 (rounded in F. estrellae and F. sanchezi); dorsal field and lateral field with more or less distinct 912 longitudinal veins. Ovipositor shorter than FIII, its apex acute, most often slightly denticulate 913 on dorsal edge.

914 Female genitalia: Female copulatory papilla rounded, almost entirely membranous, sometimes 915 with a basal sclerotized ring; apex rounded, generally folded ventrally.

Calling song. In F. estrellae, F. puyos, F. sanchezi, F. truncatipennis, and F. villemantae, the 916 917 calling song consists of a short trill of ca. 58-118 syllables of ca. 1.0-11.6 s each, with a peak 918 frequency near or slightly above 20 kHz. In F. sandakan, calling song consists of long trills (more than 500 syllables of ca. 15.4 s each) with a peak frequency slightly below 20 kHz. For 919 920 all documented species, the high dominant frequency (18-22 kHz) corresponds to the 921 fundamental peak of the call spectrum.

Etymology. The genus is named after Lebinthus and the prefix "Falcerm" corresponding to 922 923 the combination of the English word "false" and the Bahasa Indonesian word "cermin" (= 924 mirror), as the genus is characterized by the presence of the false mirror in the male's harp.

Distribution. East Malaysia (Borneo: Sandakan), Indonesia (Sipura Island, South Sulawesi, 925 Sumatra, West Java), Japan, Philippines (Luzon, Palawan, Mindanao, and Visayas Islands), 926 927

Taiwan.

- 928 Included species and distribution (arranged alphabetically, TL: type locality):
- 929 F. dannybaletei (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard, 2020) comb. nov.—Philippines: Panay (TL)
- 930 *F. estrellae* (Robillard, 2015) **comb. nov.—Philippines**: Leyte (TL)
- 931 F. hamus (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard, 2020) comb. nov.—Philippines: Palawan (TL)
- 932 *F. magayon* (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard, 2020) **comb. nov.—Philippines**: Luzon (TL)
- 933 *F. sanchezi* (Bolívar, 1889) **comb. nov.—Philippines**: Luzon (TL)
- 934 F. truncatipennis (Chopard, 1929) comb. nov.—Indonesia: Sumatra, West Java, Sipora I.
- 935 *F. yaeyamensis* (Oshiro, 1996) **comb. nov.—Japan**: Yonaguni I. (TL)
- 936 F. palaceus (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard, 2020) comb. nov.—Philippines: Mindanao (TL)
- 937 F. parvus (Baroga-Barbecho & Robillard, 2020) comb. nov.—Philippines: Mindanao (TL)
- 938 F. polillensis (Baroga, Yap & Robillard, 2016) comb. nov.—Philippines: Polillo I. (TL), Luzon,
- 939 Negros Oriental
- 940 *F. puyos* (Robillard, 2013) **comb. nov.—Philippines**: Luzon (TL)
- 941 F. sandakan (Tan, Japir, Chung & Robillard, 2019) comb. nov.—East Malaysia: Sabah (TL)
- 942 F. villemantae (Robillard, 2010) comb. nov.—Indonesia: Sulawesi (TL)
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- 944 Fadinthus Robillard & Tan, gen. nov.
- 945 (Figs. 1, 2, 4E, 4F, 5C, 5D, 6A–F, 6J–M, 7, 8)
- 946 urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:C543BE32-952B-41C3-8346-1A33803E66D3
- 947 **Type species.** Fadinthus miri Robillard & Tan, new species
- 948 **Diagnosis.** Among Lebinthina genera, *Fadinthus* gen. nov. has a short to average size,
- coloration without longitudinal bands along body; head wider than high in facial view; eyes very
- large and prominent; body rather elongate, with an average abdomen length; FIII rather long.
- 951 Male diagnostic characters include very faint venation of dorsal field in FWs, CuA vein straight
- 952 apically, harp with one faint oblique vein, mirror not differentiated; male genitalia with short
- 953 pseudepiphallic lophi little differentiated, either with or without a short median plate between
- 954 them; pseudepiphallic parameres oversized; ectophallic arc with converging ventral
- 955 expansions. Female diagnostic characters include: FWs shorter than in male, close together
- 956 at their bases but not overlapping; ovipositor shorter than FIII. From Lebinthus, Fadinthus
- 957 mostly differs by body color without longitudinal bands, male FWs with very weak venation,
- 958 male genitalia with oversized pseudepiphallic parameres and ectophallic ventral expansions,
- 959 and female FWs and ovipositor shorter. From Falcerminthus, Fadinthus mostly differs by head
- 960 wider than high in facial view (as high as wide in Falcerminthus), eyes larger (smaller in
- 961 Falcerminthus and Lebinthus), lateral lobes of pronotum almost entirely dark brown (with a
- 962 lighter ventral margin with a characteristic dark pattern in Falcerminthus and Lebinthus), and
- 963 male genitalia with oversized parameres.

Description. Size small to average for the subtribe. Vertex similar to *Falcerminthus*. Eyes very 964 965 large, in dorsal view eyes combined width represents ca. 58% of head width (46% in Lebinthus bitaeniatus). Head triangular in facial view, ca. 1.2 wider than high. Ocelli typical of subtribe, 966 967 forming a wide triangle. Scapes small. Pronotum dorsal disk trapezoidal and typical of subtribe, 968 almost entirely dark brown or black. TI with two tympana typical of subtribe. TI and TII with 969 same number of spurs as other genera of subtribe. FIII muscular and rather long, without a 970 short linear region before knee. TIII typical of subtribe. TallI-1 with two dorso-apical spines and a row of spines on outer dorsal edge; without lateral outer spine. FWs very short in both sexes, 971 not reaching abdomen mid-length; HWs absent. Abdomen: Tergites brown to dark brown, 972 without longitudinal bands. Cerci similar to Falcerminthus. 973

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980 981 **Male:** Metanotal glands absent. Dorsal field of FWs as long as lateral field. FWs longer than wide, slightly longer than pronotum dorsal disk. FW venation: 1A vein (file) strongly curved. CuP absent. CuA weak, straight apically. Diagonal vein weak. Harp wide, almost flat, with either no oblique vein (*F. buruensis*) or one faint incomplete oblique vein, without a distinctive rounded area. Mirror (d1) undifferentiated. M vein not reaching tip of FWs. Apical field either very short or absent, most often including one faint bifurcation of CuA posterior to diagonal vein. Lateral field with 5 strong longitudinal veins including R, Sc and 3 more ventral veins; latero-dorsal angle made by R; Sc without bifurcating veins.

Male genitalia: Pseudepiphallic sclerite stout; posterior apex forming small lophi little 982 983 differentiated, either with or without a short median plate between them. Rami short. 984 Pseudepiphallic parameres elongate and oversized, variable in shape and orientation among 985 species. Ectophallic arc wide, slightly curved posteriorly, with converging ventral expansions 986 more or less sclerotized. Ectophallic fold short and wide, including two thin sclerites fused 987 together apically. Ectophallic apodemes long, more or less parallel. Endophallic sclerite trident 988 shaped, including a long triangular area anteriorly, and posteriorly short lateral arms and a triangular median expansion; endophallic apodeme with a narrow median crest and lateral 989 990 lamellas.

Female: FWs short, shorter than in male, barely reaching posterior margin of first tergite, either well separated (*F. buruensis*) or slightly overlapping (*F. tehtari* and *F. miri*), oblique posteriorly; dorsal field and lateral field with strong longitudinal veins. Ovipositor shorter than FIII, its apex acute, slightly denticulate on dorsal edge.

Female genitalia: Female copulatory papilla rounded, almost entirely membranous, without ventral sclerite nor basal plate; apex rounded, generally folded ventrally.

Etymology. The genus is named after *Lebinthus* and the prefix "Fad", corresponding to the abbreviation of Fadet. Fadet is a kind of gnome in the occidental folklore, and "Fad" also relates to the 'faded' or barely visible veins in the male's harp of these species.

1000 **Distribution.** Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia (Buru Island), Malaysia (Sarawak)

- 1001 Included species.
- 1002 Fadinthus buruensis (Robillard, 2010), comb. nov—Indonesia: Buru Island (TL)
- 1003 Fadinthus miri Robillard & Tan, sp. nov.—Malaysia: Sarawak (TL)
- 1004 Fadinthus tehtari Tan, Wahab & Robillard, sp. nov.—Brunei Darussalam: Belait (TL)

- 1006 Fadinthus miri Robillard & Tan, sp. nov.
- 1007 (Figs. 1, 5D, 6A–C, 6J, 6K)
- 1008 urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:FA8687B2-F615-438D-9D22-9AEDE4320C87
- 1009 **Type material.** Holotype, &, MALAYSIA: East Malaysia, Sarawak, Miri, Lambir Hills National
- 1010 Park, 100-300 m a.s.l., forest, 29.iii.-1.iv.2012 (A. V. Gorochov, M. Berezin, E. Tkatsheva, L.
- 1011 Kamskov) (ZIN). *Allotype*, ♀, MALAYSIA: same information as holotype (ZIN). *Paratypes*:
- 1012 MALAYSIA, same information as holotype: 2 ♀ (ZIN); 1 ♂, molecular sample L90, 1 ♀ (MNHN-
- 1013 EO-ENSIF10870-10871).
- 1014 Additional material examined. MALAYSIA: 1 juvenile, same information as holotype, (ZIN).
- 1015 **Distribution.** Miri (Sarawak, East Malaysia).
- 1016 **Diagnosis.** Species close to *F. tehtari* **sp. nov.**, from which it differs by lighter coloration,
- 1017 longer male FWs, with more distinct veins on dorsal field, and differences in male genitalia,
- with well separated pseudepiphallic lophi and pseudepiphallic parameres oriented posteriorly.
- 1019 From F. buruensis, both new species differ by male FWs venation with a more distinct oblique
- 1020 vein, less differentiated mirror, and male genitalia with pseudepiphallic parameres without
- 1021 ventral lobes, and longer female FWs slightly overlapping (shorter and separated in F.
- 1022 buruensis).
- 1023 **Description.** Size average. Coloration dark brown. Head dorsum with four wide dark brown
- longitudinal bands, area posterior to eyes yellow with a dark spot. Fastigium wider than long,
- setose, dark brown, with a yellow line apically. Scape light brown with faint darker patterns;
- antennae light brown. Face light brown, with variable dark brown patterns on frons and below
- antennae. Mouthparts variably mottled with dark brown and yellow; maxillary palpi generally
- 1028 pale brown, apical segment with apex slightly expanding and darkened apically, subapical
- 1029 segment shorter than apical and third segments and darkened basally. Lateral part of head
- 1030 with a dark brown stripe. Pronotum: Dorsal disk slightly trapezoidal, posterior margin sub-
- 1031 straight; yellow brown mottled with dark brown, lateral edges always whitish, posterior area
- mostly dark brown; lateral lobes black dorsally, ventral margin dark brown, with lighter corners
- 1033 visible only in lightest specimens. Legs: Fore and mid legs light brown, femora with dark brown
- spots, tibiae with dark rings. FIII brown, with strong striated dark patterns on outer faces, knees
- dark brown; TIII with dark rings. Tarsomeres I/III-1 yellow brown, apices dark brown. Abdomen
- orange brown mottled with dark brown dorsally, yellowish brown ventrally. Cerci yellowish
- 1037 brown, with dark rings.

Male: FWs reaching half of abdomen length. FW coloration (Fig. 5D): Cells and veins brown, 1038 not translucent; veins brown except anterior parts of anal veins orange brown and anterior 1039 1040 lateral corner of FW yellowish. FW venation (Fig. 5D): 1A slightly curved. CuP not visible. CuA 1041 faint, straight along its whole length. Diagonal vein very faint. Harp wide, with one very faint 1042 oblique vein bisinuate. Mirror not differentiated from other cells. Longitudinal veins of dorsal 1043 field strong apically, transverse veins weaker. Apical field very short, including one bifurcation 1044 of CuA posterior to diagonal vein. Lateral field dark brown, area between M and R pale orange; 1045 with 6-7 (n = 2) strong longitudinal veins including M, R, Sc; Sc without bifurcating veins.

1046 Supra-anal plate tongue-shaped, its posterior margin truncated.

Male genitalia (Figs. 6A-C): Pseudepiphallic sclerite stout and trapezoidal; posterior apex with a wide indentation between short lateral lophi, forming wide triangles slightly diverging. Anterior margin of pseudepiphallic sclerite slightly indented. Rami short, half as long as pseudepiphallic sclerite. Pseudepiphallic parameres elongated posteriorly, with a small dorsal lobe and an oversized ventral lobe forming a right angle in lateral view; apex of ventral lobe widened, forming a twisted spatula. Ectophallic arc thick, slightly curved posteriorly, with long ventrolateral expansions sclerotized basally and membranous apically. Ectophallic fold mostly membranous, with a thin Y-shaped ventral sclerotization. Ectophallic apodemes long and slightly divergent, exceeding anterior margin of pseudepiphallus. Endophallic sclerite trifurcated posteriorly, with a short median expansion and two short lateral arms; anterior region elongate and sinuous, almost reaching anterior margin of pseudepiphallic sclerite; endophallic apodeme made of a median crest and lateral lamellas.

- 1059 Female: FWs rounded, reaching third tergite, slightly or not overlapping; dorsal field brown 1060 with 6-7 longitudinal veins, including 5-6 strong orange brown vein and 1 thin vein being part 1061 of a narrow vellow lateral band; dorsal field without distinct transverse veins. Lateral field dark 1062 brown, with 3-4 strong dark brown longitudinal veins, without distinct transverse veins.
- 1063 Ovipositor shorter than FIII; apex lanceolate, slightly denticulate on dorsal edge.
- 1064 Female genitalia: Female copulatory papilla mostly membranous, with a wide rounded base 1065 and a conical apex folded ventrally in lateral view (Fig. 6J, 6K).
- Juvenile: Coloration light brown, mottled with dark brown; lateral lobe of pronotum black 1066 1067 dorsally, ventral margin yellow with a wide dark brown spot; lateral side of abdomen with a
- 1068 black spot on second tergite.

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- 1069 Measurements. See Table 1.
- 1070 Habitat and life history traits. Unknown.
- 1071 Calling song. Unknown.
- **Etymology.** The species is named after the type locality, city of Miri in Sarawak. 1072
- 1074 Fadinthus tehtari Tan, Wahab & Robillard, sp. nov.

- 1075 (Figs. 1, 2, 4E, 4F, 5C, 6D–F, 6L, 6M, 7, 8)
- 1076 urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:7C5BFB10-41F4-4698-9009-10BCDF2CF8BF
- 1077 **Type material.** Holotype, & (BRU.19.75), BRUNEI DARUSSALAM: Belait District, Andulalu
- 1078 Forest Reserve, N4.62179 E114.51311, 73.7±7.4 m, on foliage near ground, 9.vii.2019 1923
- 1079 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo) (UBDM). Allotype, ♀ (BRU.19.76): collected together with the
- 1080 holotype (ZRC). Paratypes, BRUNEI DARUSSALAM, Belait District, Andulalu Forest Reserve:
- 1081 1 ♀ (BRU.19.9), N4.62231, E114.51028, 99.3±5.6 m, on forest floor, 24.ii.2019 2038 hours (M.
- 1082 K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10867); 1 ♀ (BRU.19.10), N4.62231, E114.51028,
- 1083 99.3±5.6 m, on forest floor, 24.ii.2019 2038 hours, molecular sample L206 (M. K. Tan & H.
- 1084 Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10868); 1 ♀ (BRU.19.12), N4.62232, E114.51036, 100.5±5.5 m, on
- 1085 foliage near ground, 24.ii.2019 2043 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10872); 1
- 1086 ♀ (BRU.19.21), N4.62473, E114.51240, 64.5±8.0 m, on forest floor, 26.ii.2019 0940 hours (M.
- 1087 K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10869); 1 ♀ (BRU.19.27), N4.62515, E114.51218,
- 1088 78.1±7.8 m, on forest floor, 26.ii.2019 1100 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-
- 1089 ENSIF11258); 1 $\cite{1}$ (BRU.19.65), N4.62501, E114.51672, 122.4±6.9 m, fern foliage near
- 1090 ground, 6.vii.2019 2040 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10873); 1 ♀
- 1091 (BRU.19.67), N4.63363, E114.51276, 30.8±5.7 m, leaf litter near forest edge, 7.vii.2019 0931
- 1092 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo) (MNHN-EO-ENSIF10874); 1 ♀ (BRU.19.71), N4.63356,
- 1093 E114.51189, 63.5±6.5 m, on foliage near ground, 8.vii.2019 2000 hours (M. K. Tan & H. Yeo)
- 1094 (MNHN-EO-ENSIF11062).
- 1095 **Distribution.** Belait (Brunei Darussalam).
- 1096 **Diagnosis.** Species close to *F. miri* **sp. nov.**, from which it differs by darker coloration, shorter
- male FWs, with very faint venation on dorsal field, and differences in male genitalia, with little-
- 1098 separated pseudepiphallic lophi, with a median expansion between them, and converging,
- 1099 claw-shaped pseudepiphallic parameres. From F. buruensis, both new species differ by male
- 1100 FW venation with a more distinct oblique vein, less differentiated mirror, and pseudepiphallic
- parameres of male genitalia without ventral lobes, and longer, slightly overlapping female FWs
- 1102 (shorter and separated in *F. buruensis*).
- 1103 **Description.** Size small. Coloration dark brown, with slight individual variations. Head dorsum
- with four wide but dark brown longitudinal bands, area posterior to eyes dark brown. Eyes dark
- brown, with a dark pink dorso-longitudinal band. Fastigium wider than long, dark brown, setose
- 1106 (with dark brown setae). Scape whitish with faint darker patterns; antennae brown. Face shiny
- dark brown, with a light transverse band in the middle ventral of median ocellus (Fig. 4E).
- 1108 Mouthparts variably mottled with dark brown and yellow brown (Fig. 4E); maxillary palpi
- 1109 generally pale yellow brown, apical segment with apex slightly expanding and darkened
- apically, subapical segment shorter than apical and third segments and darkened at the base,
- third segments mostly pale yellow brown. Lateral part of head yellow posterior to eyes, genae

with a black stripe (Fig. 4F). Pronotum: Dorsal disk slightly trapezoidal, anterior margin straight 1112 1113 and lined with black setae, posterior margin substraight; yellow brown mottled with dark brown, 1114 lateral edges always whitish, posterior area mostly dark brown. Lateral lobes black (Fig. 4F). 1115 Legs: Fore and mid legs light brown, femora with dark brown spots, tibiae with dark rings. FIII 1116 brown, with strong striated dark patterns on outer faces, knees dark brown; TIII with dark rings. 1117 Tarsomeres I/III-1 yellow brown, apices dark brown. Abdomen red brown mottled with dark 1118 brown dorsally, with two lateral rows of faint yellow spots along abdomen in some specimens; yellowish brown ventrally. Cerci yellowish brown, with dark rings. 1119 1120 Male: FWs reaching base of 4th abdominal tergite. FW coloration (Fig. 5C): Cells very dark 1121 brown, not translucent; veins dark brown except anterior parts of anal veins orange brown. FW 1122 venation (Fig. 5C): 1A slightly curved, CuP not visible. CuA faint, straight along its whole length. 1123 Diagonal vein very faint. Harp triangular, with one very faint oblique vein barely complete. Mirror not differentiated from other cells. Longitudinal veins of dorsal field faint apically, as 1124 transverse veins. Apical field very short, including one short bifurcation of CuA posterior to 1125 1126 diagonal vein. Lateral field dark brown, area between M and R red brown; with 6 strong 1127 longitudinal veins including M, R, Sc; Sc without bifurcating veins. Supra-anal plate tongue-1128 shaped, posterior margin truncated. 1129 Male genitalia (Figs. 6D-F): Pseudepiphallic sclerite stout and trapezoidal; posterior apex truncated, feebly emarginated in the middle; with very short lateral lophi stout (barely 1130 1131 surpassing apex in dorsal view), broad (wider than long) and rounded, and pointing slightly 1132 ventrad; anterior margin slightly indented. Rami relatively short, slightly shorter than pseudepiphallic sclerite, prolonging its trapezoidal shape. Pseudepiphallic parameres 1133 1134 elongated, their oversized ventral lobe falcate and converging, touching each other. Ectophallic 1135 arc narrowly curved to nearly straight. Ectophallic fold with a ventral sclerotization made of two 1136 thin sclerites converging posteriorly. Ectophallic apodemes long and slightly divergent, exceeding anterior margin of pseudepiphallus. Endophallic sclerite strongly sclerotized and 1137 sinuous, posterior end with a median crest with two short lateral processes perpendicular to 1138 1139 apodeme, barely exceeding anterior margin of pseudepiphallus; endophallic apodeme made of weakly sclerotized lateral lamellas. 1140 1141 Female: FWs short, rounded, going slightly beyond middle of second tergite, only overlapping 1142 at base; dorsal field dark brown, with a thin lateral yellow band; with four strong orange brown longitudinal veins, without distinct transverse veins; most lateral longitudinal vein located in 1143 vellow band faint. Lateral field dark brown, with 4-5 strong dark brown longitudinal veins, 1144 1145 without distinct transverse veins. Subgenital plate trapezoidal, apical margin emarginated. Ovipositor shorter than FIII; apex lanceolate, slightly denticulate on dorsal edge. 1146

Female genitalia: Female papilla oblong, mostly membranous, oval in dorsal and ventral views,

posterior and anterior ends with obtuse apices (Figs. 6L, 6M).

1147

- 1149 **Juvenile:** First instar dark brown dorsally, lighter ventrally; whitish cerci with apical black rings.
- Later instars wish similar coloration as adults; head dorsum pale, otherwise dark brown mottled
- 1151 with pale yellow (Figs. 7C, 7D).
- 1152 Measurements. See Table 1.
- 1153 Habitat and life history traits. Fadinthus tehtari sp. nov. lives in the forest floor, hiding in the
- leaf litter but can also be found on foliage near the ground (Fig. 7E). The species appears most
- active during the day and males generally sing only in the day.
- 1156 **Calling song** (Fig. 8): Time domain of the song is similar to that of *L. bitaeniatus* and *L. luae*.
- In the field (t°C = 25.8-27°C), the calling song lasts for 9.97 ± 3.74 s (3.93-16.16 s) and is
- 1158 made of very indented syllables (amplitude modulation resulting from pauses within the FW
- closure). The call is organized in two parts, the initial one consisting of 50 ± 24 (11–82) well-
- spaced syllables (syllable duration = 0.06 ± 0.01 s [0.03-0.06 s]; syllable period = 0.18 ± 0.02
- 1161 s [0.15-0.24 s]), the second part being a short trill (duration = $0.47 \pm 0.05 s$ [0.36-0.57 s])
- made of syllables set very close together. Each syllable is made of discrete pulses, produced
- by regular plectrum pauses, which in turn are caused by a discontinuous closing phase. Such
- a pattern produces a broad-band spectrum between 14.6 and 43.4 kHz, with main energy
- centered at nearly 21.5 ± 0.3 kHz, which corresponds to the second harmonic peak of the
- 1166 spectrum.

1180

1183

- 1167 **Distribution.** This species is currently known only from Andulau Forest Reserve in Belait
- 1168 District of Brunei Darussalam. This species is relatively abundant among leaf litter but was not
- found in Kuala Belalong (see Tan & Wahab, 2018) and other parts of Belait District.
- 1170 **Etymology.** The species name refers to *Teh Tarik* (= pulled tea, in Malay with origin from
- Hokkien dialect). Teh Tarik is a traditional drink in Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam where the
- 1172 species is found; and is also the national drink of Malaysia. The male genitalia of the new
- 1173 species resemble an inverted cup of Teh Tarik, with the posterior dark sclerotized parts
- 1174 resembling tea dust, lightly sclerotized pseudephiphallic sclerites resembling the tea color and
- membranous tissues at the anterior end resembling the pale frothy top of the tea.

1177 Key to Lebinthini subtribes and genera

- 1. Distributed in the Neotropical region... Ligypterina subtribe n. (3)
- 1179 -. Distributed in the Southeast Asia and in the Western Pacific region... 2
- 1181 2. Macropterous, with long wings (FWs and HWs)... Cardiodactylina subtribe n. (4)
- 1182 Brachypterous, without HWs... Lebinthina subtribe n. (5)
- 1184 3. Brachypterous, FWs reaching two thirds of abdomen length, HWs short below FWs...
- 1185 Ligypterus Saussure, 1878

- 1186 Macropterous, FWs as long as abdomen, HWs surpassing FWs... Ponca Hebard, 1928
- 1187
- 1188 4. Males with functional stridulatory apparatus and modified mirror area... Cardiodactylus
- 1189 Saussure, 1878
- -. Males without stridulatory structures on fully developed FWs... Swezwilderia Chopard, 1925
- 1191
- 5. Fastigium narrow, face relatively higher than wide. Legs long, FI distinctly longer than
- pronotum width, abdomen short, reaching only middle of FIII. ... Centuriarus Robillard, 2011
- -. Fastigium wider, face about as high as wide. Legs stouter, FI shorter or as long as pronotum
- width, abdomen longer, apex reaching beyond middle of FIII... 6

- 1197 6. Distributed west of New Guinea (New Caledonia, New Guinea, Solomon Islands,
- 1198 Vanuatu)... 7
- 1199 Distributed east of New Guinea (Borneo, Japan, Java, Malay Peninsula, Philippines
- 1200 archipelago, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan)... 12

1201

- 1202 7. Distributed in New Caledonia...
- 1203 -. Not distributed in New Caledonia... 9

1204

- 1205 8. Larger in size, pronotum length >3.0 mm. Lateral field of FWs longer than dorsal field; male
- 1206 FW with well-developed mirror ... Agnotecous Saussure, 1878
- -. Size distinctly smaller, pronotum length <2.1 (males), <2.3 mm (females). Lateral and dorsal
- 1208 fields of FWs of similar lengths ... Pixibinthus Robillard & Anso, 2016

1209

- 1210 9. Larger in size, pronotum length >3.0 mm... 10
- 1211 -. Smaller in size, pronotum length <3.0 mm... 11

1212

- 1213 10. Male FWs with harp area distinctly longer than wide; female FWs >4.0 mm, overlapping
- with each other, with striking cross veins... Macrobinthus Robillard & Dong, 2016
- 1215 -. Male FWs with harp area forming an equilateral triangle; female FWs very small <2.0 mm,
- 1216 never overlapping with each other, without striking cross veins. ... Julverninthus Robillard &
- 1217 Su, 2018

- 1219 11. Pronotum length <2.1 (males), <2.3 mm (females). Face mostly black. Male harp with one
- oblique vein... Microbinthus Robillard & Dong, 2016

-. Pronotum length >2.4 (males), >2.6 mm (females). Face with white, brown and black patterns 1221 Male harp with a characteristic bisinuated oblique vein delimiting a bump in middle of harp... 1222 1223 Gnominthus Robillard & Vicente, 2015 1224 1225 12. Body more elongated, with yellowish/whitish longitudinal bands along the whole body. 1226 Female FWs and ovipositor relatively long... Lebinthus Stål, 1877 1227 -. Body generally stouter, Body without yellowish/whitish longitudinal bands along the whole 1228 body. Female FWs and ovipositor relatively short ... 13 1229 1230 13. Body stout to average sized. Head wider than high in facial view, eyes larger; lateral lobes 1231 of pronotum almost entirely dark brown; male FW with mirror undifferentiated; male genitalia with over-sized pseudepiphallic parameres ... Fadinthus gen. nov. 1232 1233 -. Body stout. Head as high as wide in facial view, eyes smaller; lateral lobes of pronotum with a lighter ventral margin; male FW with rounded false mirror; male genitalia with average-sized 1234 1235 pseudepiphallic parameres... Falcerminthus gen. nov. 1236 1237 **Acknowledgments** 1238 We thank the two anonymous reviewers for their comments to improve the manuscript and Hannah ter Hofstede for looking in detail through the manuscript as a native English speaker. 1239 1240 We also thank Andrej Gorochov (ZIN) for providing samples from the collections of Saint 1241 Petersburg and Camille Desjonquères for her help with ASR analyses. MKT thanks Huiging 1242 Yeo (in Brunei Darussalam), Siew Tin Toh (in Bukit Larut and Sandakan), Momin Binti, John 1243 Lee Yukang, and Saudi Bintang (in Sandakan) for field assistance. The permissions for 1244 collecting specimens were granted by the Forestry Department, Ministry of Primary 1245 Resources and Tourism, Brunei Darussalam and the Biodiversity Research and Innovation 1246 Centre (BioRIC) (JPH/PDK/01 Pt 2 and BioRIC/HOB/TAD/51-80 respectively) and the Sabah 1247 Biodiversity Centre (JKM/MBS.1000-2/3 JLD.3 (99)) (for Sandakan). The work of MKT at MNHN was supported by the Fyssen Foundation Postdoctoral Fellowship; and fieldwork was 1248 1249 supported by the Orthoptera Species File Grant 2019 under the taxonomic research project 1250 titled "Contribution to the species diversity and acoustic data on Orthoptera from Sandakan

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1251

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- 1510 Grylloidea (Orthoptera) from China. Sinozoologia, **12**, 281–284.

1512 Figure captions

- 1513 Fig. 1. BI tree showing the phylogeny of Lebinthini (A). Support values for both BI and ML
- analyses are given at nodes (BI pp/ML bootstrap); posterior probabilities below 0.90 and
- bootstrap values below 70% are considered as low support and are represented as -/-. Nodes
- not present in the ML tree are indicated as * instead of a bootstrap value. Map representing
- the known distribution of tribes and subtribes of Eneopterinae (B).

1518

- 1519 **Fig. 2.** Simplified dated phylogeny resulting from BEAST analyses of the species-level dataset,
- using a Yule Process tree prior. Median age estimates are given above each node; horizontal
- bars on nodes represent the 95% highest posterior density interval of age estimates; posterior
- probabilities are indicated below nodes, with values below 0.90 considered as weak support
- 1523 and represented as -.

1524

- 1525 Fig. 3. Reconstruction of the ancestral states for four acoustic calling song traits: structure of
- call (A), echeme structure (B), dominant frequency (C), and nature of dominant frequency (D).

15271528

- 1529 Fig. 4. Face in anterior views (A, C, E) and head and pronotum in lateral views (B, D, F) of
- Lebinthus luae (A, B), Falcerminthus sanchezi gen. nov. (C, D), and Fadinthus tehtari gen. et
- 1531 **sp. nov.** (E, F). Scale bar: 1 mm.

1532

- 1533 Fig. 5. Male FWs in dorsal views of Lebinthus luae (A), Falcerminthus estrellae gen. nov. (B),
- 1534 Fadinthus tehtari gen. et sp. nov. (C), and Fadinthus miri gen. et sp. nov. Scale bar: 1 mm.

1535

- 1536 Fig. 6. Male and female genitalia of Fadinthus miri gen. et sp. nov. (A–C, J, K), and Fadinthus
- tehtari gen. et sp. nov. (D-F, L, M), and other representative species from Lebinthina (G-I).
- Male genitalia photographed in dorsal (A, D, G–I), ventral (B, E) and lateral (C, F) views; female
- 1539 copulatory papilla in dorsal (J, L) and lateral (K, M) views. Scale bar: 0.5 mm.

1540

- 1541 Fig. 7. Fadinthus tehtari gen. et sp. nov. male (A) and female (B) adults, and nymphs (C, D)
- when alive. The natural habitat of the species in Belait District, Brunei Darussalam (E).

1543

- 1544 Fig. 8. Male calling song of Fadinthus tehtari gen. et sp. nov.: oscillograms showing four
- calling songs (A), one calling song (B); spectrogram of calling song (C); oscillogram showing
- the second part of the call (D); power spectrum of one syllable in the first part of the call (E).

1547 1548

Table captions

- 1549 Table 1. Measurements or Fadinthus miri sp. nov. and Fadinthus tehtari sp. nov.
- 1550 Abbreviations: BL, body length; PronL, pronotum length; PronW, pronotum width; FWL,
- 1551 forewing length; FWW, forewing width; FIIIL, length of hind femur; FIIIW, width of hind femur;
- 1552 TIIL, length of hind tibia; TallIs, number of hind tarsomere spines; las, number of inner spines
- on hind tibia dorsal side above the spurs; lbs, number of inner spines on hind tibia dorsal side
- between the spurs; Oas, number of outer spines on hind tibia dorsal side above the spurs;
- Obs, number of outer spines on hind tibia dorsal side between the spurs; TallIOs, number of
- outer spines on dorsal side of third hind tarsomere; OL, ovipositor length.

Supporting information

- 1559 Fig. S1. IQtree ML gene trees inferred for each separate marker 12S (a), 16S (b), COI (c),
- 1560 COII (d), Cytb (e), 18S (f), 28S (g), H3 (h). Bootstrap support values above 70 % are
- represented by a grey circle proportional to the support (see scale on the left left side of the
- 1562 tree)

1563

- 1564 Fig. S2. IQ-TREE ML analyses of the concatenated dataset. (a) results of the analysis using 8
- 1565 gene partitions with models determined using IQ-TREE Model Finder. (b) results of the
- analysis using five fixed models defined by the best-fit partitioning schemes and the associated
- substitution models used in the BI analysis (see below). Bootstrap support values above 75%
- 1568 are represented by a grey circle proportional to the support (see scale on the left side of the
- 1569 tree)
- 1570 Fig. S3. Dated phylogeny resulting from BEAST analyses of the species-level dataset, using
- birth-death tree speciation priors. Median age estimates are presented on nodes; horizontal
- bars on nodes are also used to provide the 95% highest posterior density interval of age
- 1573 estimates.

1574

- 1575 **Table S1**. List of specimens and the gene sequences sampled for the phylogenetic tree and
- 1576 ASR. Lab codes marked by * were used in the dating analysis as representative of the
- 1577 species when more than one individual have been sequenced.

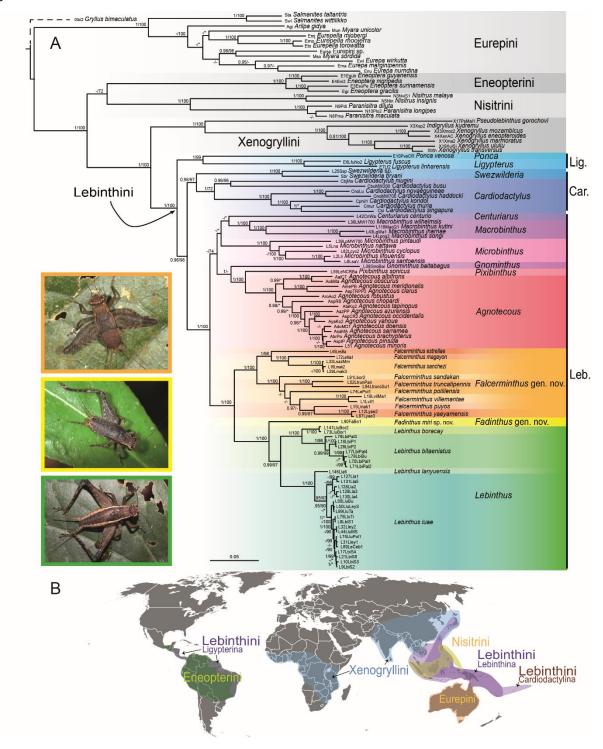
- 1579 **Table S2.** Models used in the phylogenetic analyses: models inferred with IQ-TREE
- 1580 ModelFinder (ML analysis) and best Best-fit models of sequence evolution and partitioning
- 1581 schemes selected with PartitionFinder ('unlinked branch lengths' option) for Bayesian
- 1582 Inference (MrBayes/BEAST), with codon position is denoted by pos1, pos2 and pos3.
- 1583 Subsets are denoted by P1 to Pn.

Table S3. List of species and coding of acoustic traits used for the ancestral state reconstruction analyses
 Table S4. AICc (sample-size corrected AIC) for ASR analyses of three discrete traits. Best-fit models are mentioned in bold.
 models are mentioned in bold.

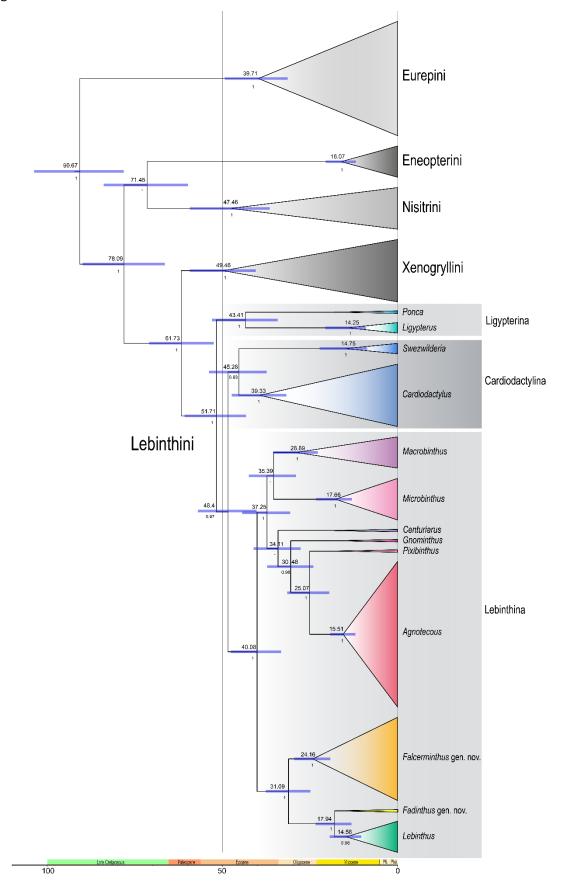
Table 1. Measurements or *Fadinthus miri* **sp. nov.** and *Fadinthus tehtari* **sp. nov.** Abbreviations: BL, body length; PronL, pronotum length; PronW, pronotum width; FWL, forewing length; FWW, forewing width; FIIIL, length of hind femur; FIIIW, width of hind femur; TIIIL, length of hind tibia; TallIs, number of hind tarsomere spines; las, number of inner spines on hind tibia dorsal side above the spurs; lbs, number of inner spines on hind tibia dorsal side above the spurs; Obs, number of outer spines on hind tibia dorsal side above the spurs; Obs, number of outer spines on hind tibia dorsal side between the spurs; TallIOs, number of outer spines on dorsal side of third hind tarsomere; OL, ovipositor length.

	BL	PronL	PronW	FWL	FWW	FIIIL	FIIIL FIIIW TIIIL _		IIIs		TallIOs	OL		
	DL	TIONE	1 101111	. ***					las	lbs	Oas	Obs	_ 1411100	OL
F. miri sp. n.														
Male holotype	13.7	2.7	3.8	4.4	3	11.2	3.8	9.3	8	7	12	7	3	-
Males paratype	13.8	2.7	3.8	4.3	3	11.5	4.1	9.3	9	5	12	7	3	-
Female allotype	13.7	2.6	3.7	3.1	-	11.3	3.8	11	6	4	11	7	3	10
Females (n=4)	11.6-14.9	2.3-2.7	3.6-4.1	2.5-3.1	-	9.1-11.9	3-4	7.1-11	5-6	4-5	9-11	5-7	2-4	8.9-10
(Female mean)	(13.3)	(2.6)	(3.8)	(2.8)	-	(10.4)	(3.5)	(9.2)	(6)	(5)	(10)	(6)	(3)	(9.4)
F. tehtari sp. n.														
Male holotype	14	2.4	3.5	3.5	3	11.1	3.8	9.3	7	5	11	6	3	-
Female allotype	15.2	2.6	3.8	2.6	-	11.4	3.8	9.2	6	7	14	6	3	10
Females (n=5)	14-15.3	2.6-3	3.6-4	2.6-2.9	-	11.3-12.2	3.8-4.2	9.2-10.1	6-8	4-7	10-14	4-7	3	10-10.6
(Female mean)	(14.5)	(2.7)	(3.8)	(2.7)	-	(11.8)	(3.9)	(9.5)	(7)	(5)	(12)	(6)	(3)	(10.2)

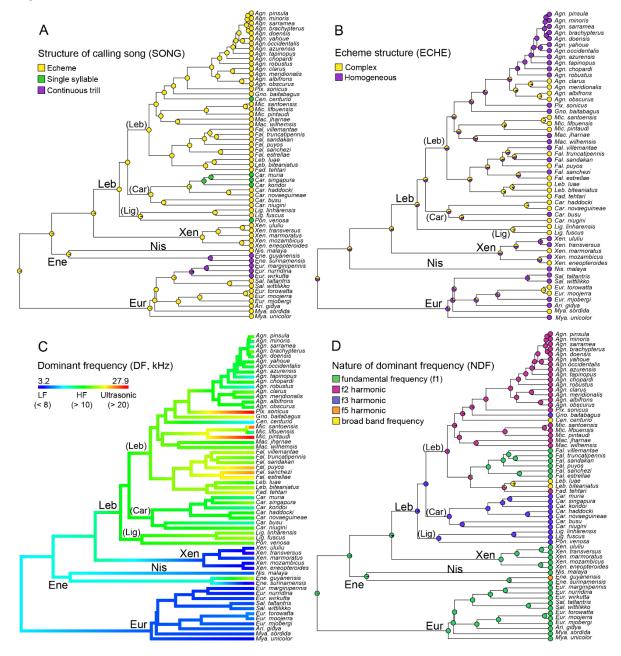
1603 Fig. 1



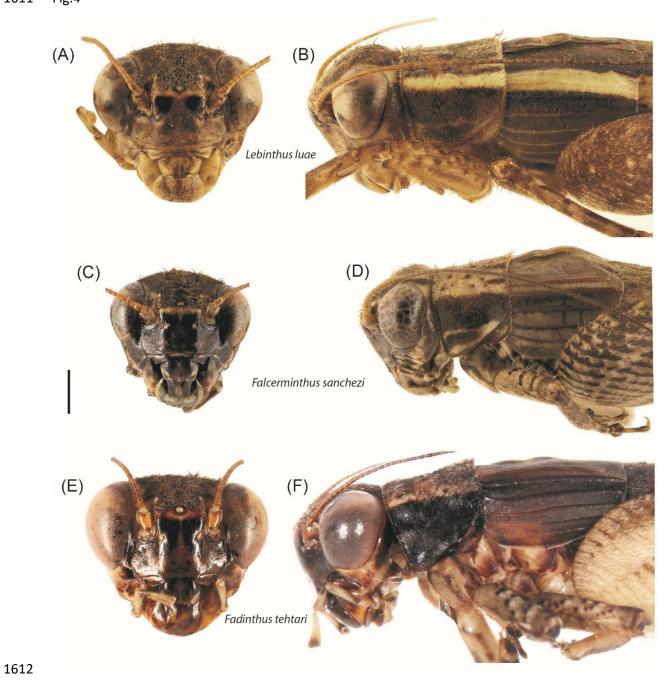
1606 Fig.2



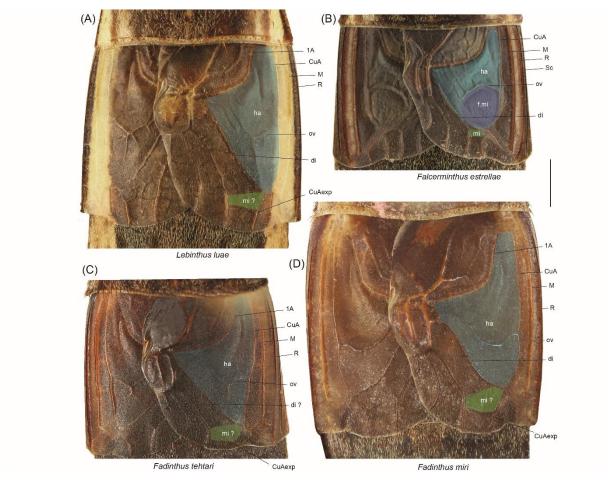
1608 Fig.3



1611 Fig.4



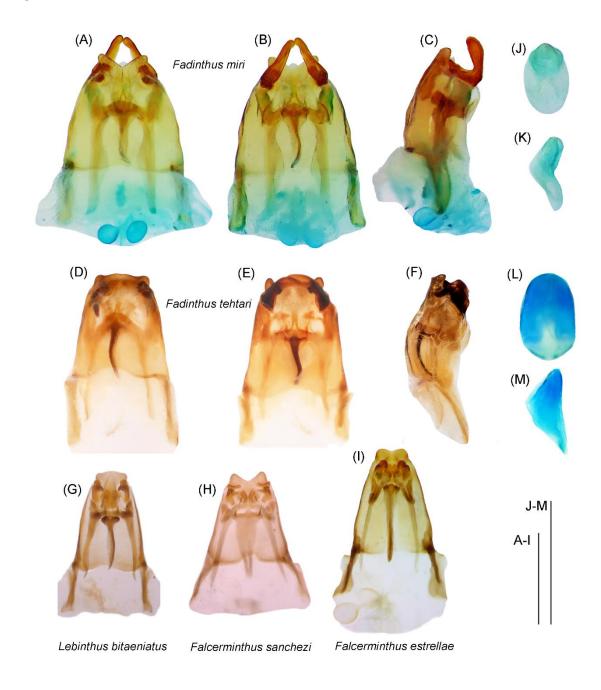
1614 Fig.5



1617 Fig.6



1620 Fig.7



1624 Fig.

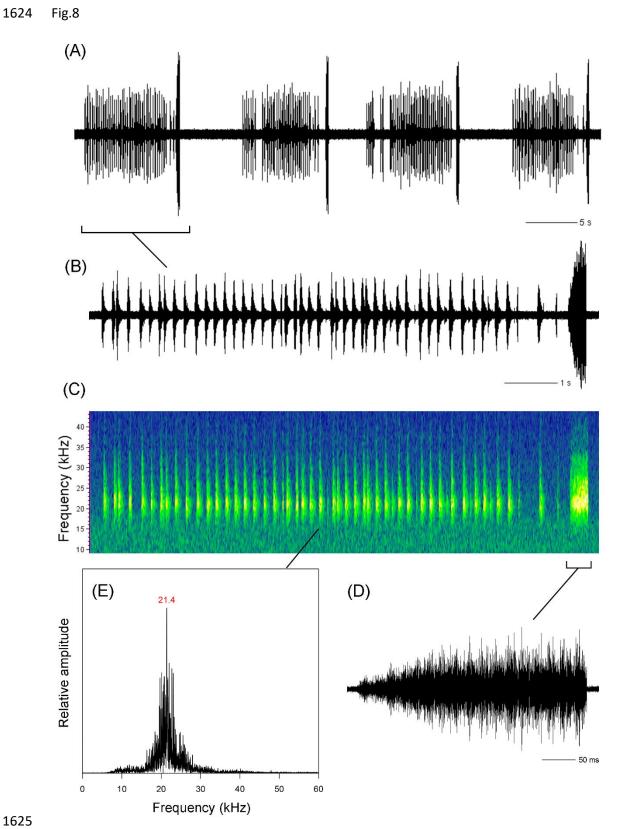


Table S1. List of specimens and the gene sequences sampled for the phylogenetic tree and ASR. Lab codes marked by * were used in the dating analysis as representative of the species when more than one individual have been sequenced.

Species	Collection/Voucher	Lab code	Origin	128	16S	CytB	18S	COI	COII	28\$	Н3
Agnotecous albifrons Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2767	*AalCT	New Caledonia	JX89739 4	JX89735 3	JX897314	JX89758 3	JX89741 8	JX89744 6	JX89749 0	JX89757 2
Agnotecous azurensis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2778	*AazPP	New Caledonia	JX89739 0	JX89736 1	JX897332	JX89759 3	JX89742 7	JX89745 5	JX89747 3	JX89756 8
Agnotecous brachypterus Gorochov, 1986	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2664	*AbrPo	New Caledonia	JX89738 2	JX89737 0	JX897341	JX89759 6	JX89743 2	JX89745 9	JX89748 5	JX89757 1
Agnotecous chopardi Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2781	*AspRB	New Caledonia	JX89739 1	JX89736 3	JX897335	JX89760 1	JX89741 1	JX89744 0	JX89746 9	JX89755 9
Agnotecous clarus Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2788	*AspTRPP2	New Caledonia	JX89740 0	JX89734 7	JX897324	JX89759 0	JX89740 7	JX89745 1	JX89749 2	JX89755 4
Agnotecous doensis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2782	*AdoMD1	New Caledonia	JX89738 1	JX89736 8	JX897340	JX89759 2	JX89743 1	JX89746 0	JX89748 0	JX89755 8
Agnotecous meridionalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2771	*AmePB	New Caledonia	JX89740 2	JX89735 0	JX897313	JX89759 7	JX89741 0	JX89744 2	JX89748 9	JX89755 0
Agnotecous obscurus (Chopard, 1970)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2785	*AobMa	New Caledonia	JX89739 3	JX89735 7	JX897320	JX89758 7	JX89741 2	JX89745 0	JX89748 7	JX89757 6
Agnotecous minoris Robillard, 2010	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3351	*L51	New Caledonia	MZ50181 6	MZ49717 0		MZ49727 7	MZ50662 0	MZ47600 8	MZ50527 3	MZ47604 9
Agnotecous occidentalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2765	*AspCR2	New Caledonia	JX89738 6	JX89736 2	JX897322	JX89758 9	JX89743 4	JX89746 1	-	JX89757 0
Agnotecous pinsula Robillard, 2010	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2624	*AspIP	New Caledonia	JX89738 3	JX89736 9	JX897338	JX89759 9	JX89742 9	JX89745 7	JX89748 4	JX89756 2

Agnotecous robustus (Chopard, 1915)	MNHN-ENSIF-2752	*AroAo2	New Caledonia	JX89737 5	JX89735 9	JX897333	JX89758 8	JX89740 6	JX89744 3	-	JX89755 5
Agnotecous sarramea Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2764	*AsaMA	New Caledonia	JX89738 0	JX89737 2	JX897342	JX89759 8	JX89743 0	JX89745 6	JX89747 1	JX89756 1
Agnotecous tapinopus Saussure, 1878	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2770	*AtaKo2	New Caledonia	JX89737 8	JX89734 4	JX897327	JX89760 5	JX89742 2	JX89745 4	JX89747 0	JX89755 6
Agnotecous yahoue Otte, 1987	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2766	*Ayako2	New Caledonia	JX89738 7	JX89736 6	JX897334	JX89760 2	JX89743 8	JX89746 3	JX89747 8	JX89754 9
Arilpa gidya Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Agi	Australia	AY90526 8	AY90529 7	AY905351	AY90532 7	-	-	JX89748 8	-
Cardiodactylus busu Otte, 2007	MNHN-EO-ENSIF109	*C58CbuMW200	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MH57495 3	MH57505 9	MH662838	MH66312 9	MH66303 5	MH66293 5	MH66334 1	MH66314 5
Cardiodactylus haddocki Dong & Robillard, 2016	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3541	*C64CnoMW700	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MH57497 6	MH57508 3	MH663014	MH66291 1	MH66281 7	MH66310 6	MH66335 9	MH66326 5
Cardiodactylus kondoi Otte, 2007	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1555	*C41Cphil1	Philippines (Luzon)	MH57509 7	MH57498 8	MH662803	MH66309 2	MH66300 0	MH66289 9	MH66336 9	MH66321 3
Cardiodactylus muria Robillard, 2014	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3481	*C18Cmur	Indonesia (Java)	MH57511 5	MH57500 5	MH662763	MH66307 6	MH66298 3	MH66288 4	MH66338 7	MH66323 8
Cardiodactylus niugini Dong & Robillard, 2016	MNHN-EO-ENSIF113	*C54CbjMa	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MH57511 6	MH57500 6	MH662759	MH66307 5	MH66298 2	MH66288 3	MH66338 8	MH66318 6
Cardiodactylus novaeguineae (Haan, 1842)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1925	*C72CnoLu	Western Pacific	MH57512 7	MH57501 8	MH662755	MH66306 5	MH66297 0	MH66287 4	MH66341 5	MH66319 7
Cardiodactylus singapura Robillard, 2011	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2759	*C12Csi2	Singapore	MH57514 7	MH57504 0	MH662769	MH66304 7	MH66295 0	MH66285 4	MH66339 8	MH66322 6
Centuriarus centurio (Brunner von Wattenwyl, 1898)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF96	*L42CnWa	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MZ50181 5	MZ49717 1	MZ475907	MZ50881 3	MZ50666 5	-	MZ50883 5	MZ47605 0
Eneoptera gracilis Robillard, 2005	MNHN-EO-ENSIF233	*Egr	Peru	AY90527 1	AY90530 0	AY905354	AY90533 0	-	-	=	-
Eneoptera guyanensis Chopard, 1931	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2741	*E1Egu	French Guiana	AY90527 2	AY90530 1	AY905355	AY90533 1	JX89740 4	-	KR90350 2	JX89754 7

Eneoptera nigripedis Robillard, 2005	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3563	*E4Eni2	Colombia	KY59547 5	KY59550 4	KY646266	KY59551 6	KY64624 1	-	KY60523 8	KY64628 0
Eneoptera surinamensis (De Geer, 1773)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF147	*E3EsuPe	Peru	KY59547 4	KY59550 3	KY646265	KY59551 7	KY64624 0	-	KY60523 7	-
Eurepa marginipennis (White, 1841)	ANIC/ZIN_A7EuCoo	*Ema	Australia	AY90527 4	AY90530 3	AY905357	JF97254 0	-	-	KY60524 9	-
Eurepa nurndina Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Enu	Australia	JF97250 9	AY90530 4	AY905358	AY90533 4	-	-	-	-
Eurepa wikurtta Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Ewi	Australia	AY90527 5	AY90530 5	AY905359	-	-	-	-	-
Eurepella mjobergi (Chopard, 1925)	ANIC	*Emj	Australia	AY90527 6	AY90530 6	AY905360	-	-	-	-	-
Eurepella moojera Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Emo	Australia	AY90527 7	AY90530 7	AY905361	-	-	-	-	-
Eurepella torowatta Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Eto	Australia	AY90527 8	AY90530 8	AY905362	-	-	-	-	-
Eurepini sp.	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3155	*Eursp	Australia	KR90383 4	KR90367 4	KR903331	KR90402 8	KU70556 5	-	KR90350 3	KR90315 3
Fadinthus miri Robillard & Tan n. sp.	MNHN-EO-ENSIF10870	*L90FaBo1	Malaysia (Borneo)	MZ50849 8	MZ50879 0	MZ475908	MZ50881 6	MZ50915 9	-	MZ50883 3	MZ47605 1
Falcerminthus estrellae (Robillard, 2015)	UPLB-MNH	*L45LesBa	Philippines (Leyte)	KY59549 0	KY59549 3	KY646264	KY59552 7	KY64623 9	-	KY60523 6	KY64628 2
Falcerminthus magayon Baroga & Robillard, 2020	JBB008	*L72LeMa1	Philippines (Luzon)	MZ50852 7	MZ50878 9	MZ475909	MZ50880 8	MZ50915 3	-	MZ50883 7	MZ47605 2
Falcerminthus polillensis (Baroga et al. 2016)	MNHN-EO- ENSIF80	*L74LePol1	Philippines (Polillo)	MZ50870 5	MZ50878 7	-	MZ50880 4	MZ50915 5	MZ47600 9	MZ50883 6	MZ47605 3
Falcerminthus puyos (Robillard 2013)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3193	*L15Lmak1	Philippines (Luzon)	MZ50870 1	MZ50879 9	MZ475910	MZ50881 8	MZ50912 7	MZ47601 0	MZ50884 2	MZ47605 4
Falcerminthus sanchezi (Bolívar, 1889)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3227	L29Lmak3	Philippines (Luzon)	KY59548 7	KY59549 5	KY646262	KY59552 5	KY64623 7	-	KY60523 4	KY64628 5

Falcerminthus sanchezi (Bolívar, 1889)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3684	*L33LsazMm	Philippines (Luzon)	MZ50870 4	MZ50879 3	MZ475911	MZ50881 1	MZ50915 8	MZ47601 1	MZ50883 0	MZ47605 5
Falcerminthus sanchezi (Bolívar, 1889)	UPLB-MNH	L16Lmak2	Philippines (Luzon)	MZ50886 2	MZ50879 1	MZ475912	MZ50881 7	MZ50912 8	MZ47601 2	MZ50883 2	MZ47605 6
Falcerminthus sandakan (Tan, Japir, Chung & Robillard, 2019)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1499	*L91Lbor2	Malaysia (Borneo)	MZ50885 2	MZ50879 4	MZ475913	MZ50880 9	MZ50915 6	MZ47601 3	MZ50884 8	MZ47605 7
Falcerminthus truncatipennis (Chopard, 1929)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1733	*L52LtrunPan	Indonesia (Java)	MZ50886 4	MZ50880 1	MZ475914	MZ50880 6	MZ50915 7	MZ47601 4	MZ50884 0	MZ47605 8
Falcerminthus truncatipennis (Chopard, 1929)	ZIN	L84LtruncSu1	Indonesia (Sumatra)	MZ50886 5	MZ50880 5	MZ475915	MZ50881 5	-	-	MZ50883 1	MZ47605 9
Falcerminthus villemantae (Robillard, 2010)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2739	*L1Lvil	Indonesia (Sulawesi)	JF97251 2	JF97252 6	JF972496	JF97254 3	KU70557 0	KU70555 9	KU70558 6	KU70560 2
Falcerminthus villemantae (Robillard, 2010)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2583	L19LvilMa1	Indonesia (Sulawesi)	MZ50886 3	-	MZ475916	MZ50881 9	-	MZ47601 5	MZ50883 4	MZ47606 0
Falcerminthus yaeyamensis (Oshiro, 1996)	Ichikawa col.	*L12Lyae2	Japan (Yonaguni I.)	KY59548 6	-	KY646261	KY59552 4	-	-	KY60523 3	-
Falcerminthus yaeyamensis (Oshiro, 1996)	ZIN	L87Lyae3	Japan (Ishigaki I.)	MZ50886 6	MZ50880 0	-	-	-	-	-	MZ47606 1
Gnominthus baitabagus Vicente & Robillard, 2015	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3553	*L38GnoBaii	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	KY59548 8	KY59549 2	KY646260	KY59551 2	KY64623 2	-	KY60523 0	KY64627 6
Gryllus bimaculatus De Geer, 1773	MNHN-EO- ENSIF3524/3404	*Gbi/Gbi2	Lab colony	AY90529 2	KR90367 5	KR903332	KR90402 9	KY64623 4	KU70555 5	KR90350 4	KR90315 4
Indigryllus kudremu Robillard & Jaiswara, 2019	MNHN-EO- ENSIF2738(1)/Xsp2	*X3Xsp2	India	KY59548 3	KY59550 9	AY905377(1)	AY90534 5 (1)	KY64624 8	MK76134 0	KY60524 7	KY64629 3
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	ZIN	L76LbiPal3	Philippines (Palawan)	MZ50183 1	MZ49725 8	-	MZ49738 4	MZ50685 1	-	MZ50885 6	MZ47606 2
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4393	*L18LbiP1	Philippines (Luzon)	MK76127 4	MK76125 0	MK761353	MK76129 3	MK76133 1	MK76134 1	MK76131 3	MK76137 0

Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4394	L28LbiP2	Philippines (Luzon)	MK76127 5	MK76125 2	MK761354	MK76129 4	MK76133 2	-	MK76131 4	MK76137 1
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	ZIN	L77LbiPal4	Philippines (Palawan)	MZ50183 0	MZ49725 9	-	-	MZ50686 1	-	MZ50556 6	MZ47606 3
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	ZIN	L78LbiBu	Philippines (Palawan)	MZ50182 8	MZ50880 3	MZ475917	-	MZ50688 6	MZ47601 6	MZ50885 9	MZ54097 5
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4393	L70LbiPal1	Philippines (Palawan)	MZ50183 2	MZ50879 7	-	MZ49738 8	-	-	MZ50884 7	-
Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4394	L71LbiPal2	Philippines (Palawan)	MZ50182 9	MZ50879 2	MZ475918	MZ50882 7	MZ50688 9	-	MZ50886 1	MZ47606 4
Lebinthus boracay Baroga, Yap & Robillard, n. sp.	BVZ_JBB030	*L141LluBor2	Philippines (Boracay)	MZ50870 0	-	-	-	-	-	-	MZ47606 5
Lebinthus boracay Baroga, Yap & Robillard, n. sp.	MNHN-EO-ENSIF11257	L73LluBor1	Philippines (Boracay)	MZ50869 9	-	-	-	-	-	-	MZ47606 6
Lebinthus lanyuensis	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1746	*L146Lla6	China (Taiwan)	MZ50870 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2740	*L8Lbis1	Singapore	KR90401 7	JF97252 4	JF972493	KR90419 9	KU70556 7	KU70555 7	KR90366 5	KR90332 1
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH-PNM13493	L127Lla1	Philippines (Batanes)	MZ50870 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH-PNM13480	L128Lla2	Philippines (Batanes)	MZ50877 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH-PNM13478	L129Lla3	Philippines (Batanes)	MZ50876 7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH-PNM13485	L130Lla4	Philippines (Batanes)	MZ50876 9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH-PNM13502	L131Lla5	Philippines (Batanes)	MZ50877 0	-	-	-	-	-	-	MZ47606 7
Lebinthus luae Robillard &		L80LluBu	Philippines	MZ50876	MZ49726			MZ50689		MZ50561	MZ47606

Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-ENSIF-EO1578	L50LluLeyS	Philippines (Leyte)	MZ50876 1	MZ49726 2	MZ475919	MZ49751 0	MZ50742 3	MZ47601 7	-	MZ47606 9
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	ZIN	L89LluTa	Philippines (Sulawesi)	MZ50876 6	MZ50880 2	MZ475920	MZ50882 1	MZ50916 9	MZ47601 8	MZ50561 7	MZ47607 0
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	ZIN	L79LluTi	Malaysia (Tioman)	MZ50877 4	MZ49726 5	MZ475921	MZ50882 5	MZ50743 0	MZ47601 9	MZ50562 0	MZ47607 1
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-E0-ENSIF1761	L32Lley2	Philippines (Leyte)	MZ50876 0	MZ49726 7	MZ475922	MZ50882 3	MZ50917 0	MZ47602 0	MZ50561 9	MZ47607 2
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1755	L44LluMS	Philippines (Maripipi)	MZ50876 2	MZ50879 5	MZ475923	MZ49751 2	MZ50917 1	MZ47602 1	MZ50562 1	MZ47607 3
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	UPLB-MNH	L75LluPol1	Philippines (Pollilo)	MZ50877 1	MZ49727 0	MZ475924	MZ50882 8	MZ50755 0	MZ47602 2	MZ50885 5	MZ47607 4
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1716	L31Lley1	Philippines (Leyte)	MZ50877 2	MZ49726 9	MZ475925	MZ50882 9	MZ50755 1	MZ47602 3	MZ50885 3	MZ47607 5
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1543	L69LeCeb1	Philippines (Cebu)	MZ50876 4	MZ49727 2	MZ475926	MZ50882 6	MZ50756 4	MZ47602 4	MZ50563 2	MZ47607 6
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3090	L17LbiS4	Singapore	MZ50876 8	MZ49727 1	MZ475927	MZ50882 4	MZ50916 3	MZ47602 5	MZ50884 9	MZ47607 7
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3205	L21LbiS6	Singapore (Semakau)	MZ50876 5	MZ50879 6	MZ475928	MZ50882 2	MZ50916 6	MZ47602 6	MZ50885 0	MZ47607 8
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF	L10LbiS3	Singapore (Sentosa)	MK76127 6	MK76125 3	MK761355	MK76129 5	MK76133 3	MK76134 2	MK76131 5	MK76137 2
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	MNHN-EO-ENSIF10663	L9LbiS2	Singapore (Pulau Ubin)	MZ50877 5	MZ49727 4	MZ475929	-	MZ50916 1	-	MZ50885 4	MZ47607 9
Ligypterus linharensis Robillard, 2005	MNHN-EO-ENSIF18	*E7Lf2	Brazil	AY90528 1	AY90531 1	AY905366	AY90533 8	KY64624 3	-	KY60523 9	KY64628 3
Ligypterus fuscus Chopard, 1920	MNHN	*E6LfuNo2	French Guiana	KR90401 8	KR90382 5	KR903487	KR90420 0	MZ50757 7	MZ47602 7	KR90366 6	KR90332 2
Macrobinthus jharnae (Bhowmik, 1981)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF76	*L43LgWa1	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MZ50877 6	MZ50879 8	MZ475930	MZ50882 0	MZ50916 7	MZ47602 8	MZ50885 8	MZ47608 0

Macrobinthus kutini Robillard & Su, 2018)	ANIC_14_005048	*L118MacQ1	Australia	MZ50877 7	MZ50881 0	-	MZ50884 4	MZ50916 2	MZ47602 9	-	MZ47608 1
Macrobinthus songi Robillard & Dong, 2016	MNHN-EO-ENSIF157	*L4Lpng2	Papua New Guinea (New Ireland)	MZ50878 0	MZ50881 4	MZ475931	MZ50884 1	MZ50916 8	MZ47603 0	MZ50885 7	MZ47608 2
Macrobinthus wilhelmsis Robillard & Dong, 2016	MNHN-EO-ENSIF100	*L36LMW1700	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MZ50877 9	MZ50881 2	-	MZ50883 8	MZ50916 5	-	MZ50885 1	MZ47608 3
Microbinthus lifouensis (Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF1346	*L2Lli	New Caledonia (Lifou)	AY90527 9	AY90530 9	AY905364	AY90533 6	KU70556 6	KU70555 6	KU70558 3	KU70559 9
Microbinthus nattawa (Robillard, 2009)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2564	*L5Lna	Vanuatu (Espiritu Santo)	JF97251 0	JF97252 5	JF972494	JF97254 1	KU70556 8	KU705558	KU70558 4	KU70560 0
Microbinthus cyclopus (Robillard, 2010)	ZIN	*L82Lcyc2	Indonesia (New Guinea)	MZ50877 8	-	MZ475932	MZ50884 5	MZ50916 4	-	MZ50884 6	MZ47608 4
Microbinthus pintaudi Robillard & Dong, 2016	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4374	*L39LpMW700	Papua New Guinea (New Guinea)	MZ50878 8	MZ50880 7	MZ475933	MZ50884 3	MZ50917 2	MZ47603 1	MZ50886 0	MZ47608 5
Microbinthus santoensis (Robillard, 2009)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2437	*L6LsaV	Vanuatu (Espiritu Santo)	JF97251 1	JF97252 7	JF972495	JF97254 2	JX89740 5	JX89744 1	JX89746 7	JX89754 8
<i>Myara sordida</i> Walker, 1869	ANIC	*Mso	Australia	AY90528 2	AY90531 2	AY905367	AY90533 9	-	-	-	-
Myara unicolor (Chopard, 1951)	ANIC	*Mun	Australia	AY90528 3	AY90531 3	AY905368	-	-	-	-	-
Nisitrus insignis Saussure, 1878	MNHN-EO-ENSIF4180	*N5Nin	Indonesia (Sumatra)	KY59549 1	KY59549 6	KY646272	MZ50883 9	-	-	-	KY64629 5
Nisitrus malaya (Robillard & Tan, 2020)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2742	*NviS1	Singapore	KY59547 8	KY59549 9	KY646270	KR90420 1	KU70557 2	-	KR90366 7	JX89754 6
Pixibinthus sonicus Anso & Robillard, 2016	MNHN-ENSIF-EO105	*L59LeNCRBa	New Caledonia	KU70801 2	KU70553 0	KU705538	KU70554 6	KU70557 7	-	KU70559 2	KU70560 8
Paranisitra diluta Gorochov, 2009	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3680	*N9Pdi	Indonesia (Biak)	KY59548 2	KY59550 0	KY646273	KY59551 3	KY64624 6	MZ47603 2	KY60524 5	KY64628 9
Paranisitra longipes Chopard, 1925	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3157	*N10Plo2	Philippines (Luzon)	KR90402 0	KR90382 7	-	KR90420 2	KU71528 7	-	KR90366 8	KR90332 5

Paranisitra maculata Gorochov, 2009	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3683	*N8Pma	Philippines (Mindoro)	KY59548 1	KY59550 1	-	-	-	-	KY60524 4	KY64629 0
Ponca venosa Hebard, 1928	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3158	*E10PveCR	Costa Rica	KR90402 1	KR90382 8	KR903489	KR90420 3	KY64624 4	-	KR90366 9	KR90332 6
Pseudolebinthus gorochovi Robillard, 2018	ZIN-X17	*X17PsMal1	Malawi	KY59547 2	KY59550 8	-	KY59551 1	KY64623 1	-	KY60523 1	MK761373
Salmanites taltantris Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Sta	Australia	AY90528 7	AY90531 7	JF972497	-	-	-	-	-
Salmanites wittilliko Otte & Alexander, 1983	ANIC	*Swi	Australia	AY90528 8	AY90531 8	AY905373	-	-	-	-	-
Swezwildaeria bryani Chopard, 1929	MNHN-EO-ENSIF450	*Sbr	American Samoa (Tutuila)	-	AY90531 9	AY905374	-	-	-	-	-
Swezwilderia sp.	MNHN-EO-ENSIF2737	*L25Ssp	Fiji (Viti Levu)	JF97251 4	JF97252 9	JF972498	JF97254 5	KU70557 9	MZ47603 3	-	KR90332 7
Xenogryllus eneopteroides Bolivar, 1890	MNHN-EO-ENSIF3159	*XenAC	Central African Republic	KR90402 3	KR90382 9	KR903490	KR90420 5	KY64624 9	-	KR90367 0	KR90332 8
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	MNHN-EO- ENSIF3161	*Xma2	Japan	KR90402 4	KR90383 0	KR903491	KR90420 6	-	MK76134 3	-	KR90332 9
Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	MNHN-EO-ENSIF87	*XtrIn	India	JF97251 5	JF97253 0	JF972499	KY59551 9	KY64624 7	MK761347	KY60524 6	KY64629 4

Table S2. Models used in the phylogenetic analyses: models inferred with IQ-TREE ModelFinder (ML analysis) and best-fit models of sequence evolution and partitioning schemes selected with PartitionFinder ('unlinked branch lengths' option) for Bayesian Inference (MrBayes/BEAST), with codon position is denoted by pos1, pos2 and pos3. Subsets are denoted by P1 to Pn.

Analyses	Partitions	Models
Maximum likelihood analysis	P1: 12S	GTR+F+I+G4 GTR+F+I+G4
(IQ-TREE inferred models)	P2: 16S	TIM2+F+I+G4
	P3: CO2	TIM2+F+I+G4
	P4: CytB	TN+F+I+G4
	P5: H3	TIM2e+I+G4
	P6: 18S	TIM2+F+I+G4
	P7: 28S	GTR+F+I+G4
	P8: CO1	
Bayesian inference (BI) analyses	P1: 12S, Cytb_pos2	GTR + I + G
	P2: 16S, COI_pos2	GTR + I + G
	P3: 28SA, CytB_pos3, COI_pos3 CO2_pos1, CO2_pos2, H3_pos1, H3pos2	GTR + I + G
	P4: 18S, CO2_pos3	SYM + I + G
	P5: H3 pos_3, CytB pos_1	GTR + I + G
Bayesian evolutionary analyses by sampling trees (BEAST)	P1: 12S, CO2_pos1, CO2_pos2, CO2_pos3, Cytb_pos2	GTR+I+G
	P2: 16S	GTR+I+G
	P3: CO1_pos3, Cytb_pos1	GTR+G
	P4: CO1_pos1, CO1_pos2, Cytb2_pos3, H3_pos2, H3_pos3	TrN+I+G
	P5: 18S, 28SA, H3_pos1	GTR+I+G

Table S3. List of species and coding of acoustic traits used for ancestral state reconstructions analyses

Species	Lab code	Song type (SONG] T: continuous trill S: single syllable E: echeme	Echeme structure (ECHE] H Homogeneous C: composed of 2 parts	Nature of dominant frequency F1/F2/F3/F4/F5/B(broa d-band)	Dominant frequency (continuous)	Reference (Sound reference number)
Agnotecous albifrons Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997	*AalCT	E	С	F2	16.3	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-251)
Agnotecous azurensis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AazPP	E	Н	F2	15.7	This study (MNHN-SO-2018-101)
Agnotecous brachypterus Gorochov, 1986	*AbrPo	E	Н	F2	19.2	Robillard et al., 2010
Agnotecous chopardi Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AspRB	Е	Н	F2	16.9	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-252)
Agnotecous clarus Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AspTRPP2	E	С	F2	18.6	This study (MNHN-SO-2018-102)
Agnotecous doensis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AdoMD1	E	Н	F2	13.9	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-254)
Agnotecous meridionalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AmePB	E	С	F2	15.2	This study (MNHN-SO-2018-99)
Agnotecous obscurus (Chopard, 1970)	*AobMa	Е	С	F2	15.1	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-255)
Agnotecous minoris Robillard, 2010	*L51	E	Н	F2	13.5	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-256)
Agnotecous occidentalis Desutter-Grandcolas, 2006	*AspCR2	Е	Н	F2	14.9	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-257)
Agnotecous pinsula Robillard, 2010	*AspIP	E	Н	F2	18.5	Robillard et al., 2010
Agnotecous robustus (Chopard, 1915)	*AroAo2	Е	Н	F2	10.9	Robillard et al., 2013
Agnotecous sarramea Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997	*AsaMA	E	Н	F2	13.1	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Agnotecous tapinopus Saussure, 1878	*AtaKo2	E	Н	F2	11.2	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-258)
Agnotecous yahoue Otte, 1987	*Ayako2	E	Н	F2	16.3	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011

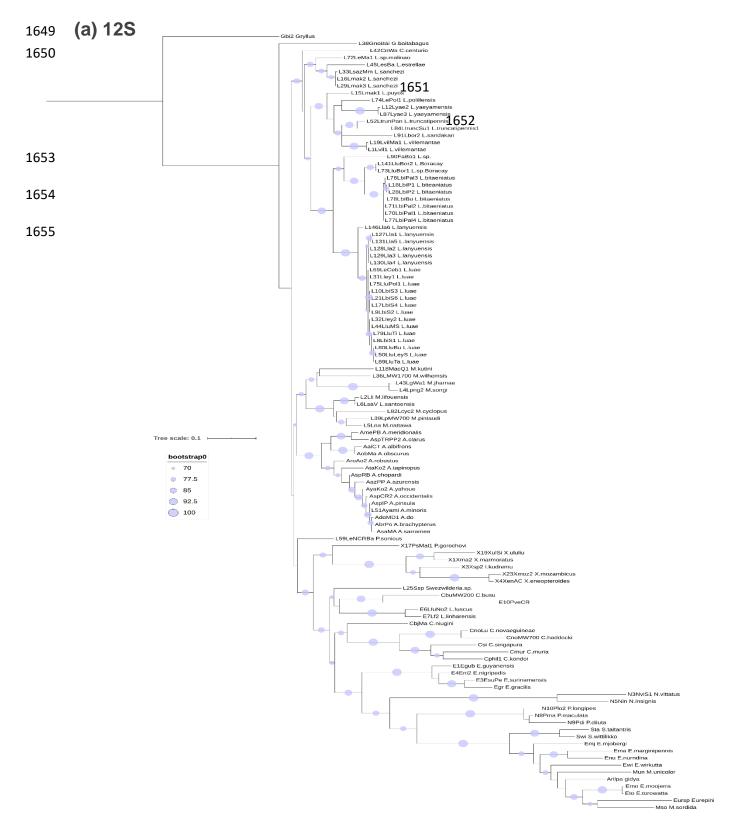
Arilpa gidya Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Agi	Е	Н	F1	6.4	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Cardiodactylus busu Otte, 2007	*C58CbuMW 200	Е	Н	F3	12.3	Dong & Robillard, 2016
Cardiodactylus haddocki Dong & Robillard, 2016	*C64CnoMW 700	Е	С	F3	16.4	Dong & Robillard, 2016
Cardiodactylus kondoi Otte, 2007	*C41Cphil1	S	-	F3	12.8	Robillard <i>et al.</i> , 2014 (MNHN-SO-2015-2)
Cardiodactylus muria Robillard, 2014	*C18Cmur	S	-	F3	13.3	Robillard et al., 2014
Cardiodactylus niugini Dong & Robillard, 2016	*C54CbjMa	Е	С	F3	17.5	Dong & Robillard, 2016
Cardiodactylus novaeguineae (Haan, 1842)	*C72CnoLu	Е	С	F3	15.8	Robillard & Ichikawa, 2009 (MNHN-SO-2014-377)
Cardiodactylus singapura Robillard, 2011	*C12Csi2	S	-	F3	19	Robillard, 2011
Centuriarus centurio (Brunner von Wattenwyl, 1898)	*L42CnWa	S	-	В	10.2	Robillard et al., 2016
Eneoptera guyanensis Chopard, 1931	*E1Egu	Т	-	F5	20	Robillard et al., 2015 (MNHN-SO-2014-348)
Eneoptera surinamensis (De Geer, 1773)	*E3EsuPe	Т	-	F1	3.2	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011 (MNHN-SO- 2014-362)
Eurepa marginipennis (White, 1841)	*Ema	Т	-	F1	4.7	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Eurepa nurndina Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Enu	Т	-	F1	5	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Eurepa wikurtta Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Ewi	Т	-	F1	5.7	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Eurepella mjobergi (Chopard, 1925)	*Emj	Е	Н	F1	6	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Eurepella moojera Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Emo	Е	С	F1	7	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Eurepella torowatta Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Eto	Е	С	F1	7.6	Otte & Alexander, 1983
Fadinthus tehtari n. sp.	*L90FaBo1	Е	С	F2	21.5	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-253)
Falcerminthus estrellae (Robillard, 2015)	*L45LesBa	Е	С	F1	22	Robillard & Yap, 2015
Falcerminthus puyos (Robillard 2013)	*L15Lmak1	Е	С	F1	23.7	Baroga et al., 2020 (MNHN-SO-2020-1882)
Falcerminthus sanchezi (Bolívar, 1889)	*L33LsazMm	Е	Н	F1	24.4	Robillard et al., 2013
Falcerminthus sandakan (Tan, Japir, Chung & Robillard, 2019)	*L91Lbor2	Е	Н	F1	18.8	Tan <i>et al.,</i> 2019
Falcerminthus truncatipennis (Chopard, 1929)	*L52LtrunPa n	E	С	F1	19.8	This study (MNHN-SO-2021-250)
Falcerminthus villemantae (Robillard, 2010)	*L1Lvil	E	Н	F1	20.1	Robillard, 2010
Gnominthus baitabagus Vicente & Robillard, 2015	*L38GnoBai	Е	Н	F3	21.7	Vicente <i>et al.</i> , 2015 (MNHN-SO-2015-24)

Lebinthus bitaeniatus Stål, 1877	*L18LbiP1	E	С	В	19.9	Robillard & Tan, 2013
Lebinthus luae Robillard & Tan, 2013	*L8Lbis1	E	С	В	16.7	Robillard & Tan 2013
Ligypterus linharensis Robillard, 2005	*E7Lf2	E	С	F3	19	Robillard & Desutter-Grancdcolas, 2005
Ligypterus fuscus Chopard, 1920	*E6LfuNo2	E	С	F3	19.7	Robillard et al., 2015
Macrobinthus jharnae (Bhowmik, 1981)	*L43LgWa1	E	Н	F2	15.7	Robillard et al., 2016
Macrobinthus wilhelmsis Robillard & Dong, 2016	*L36LMW17 00	Е	Н	F2	18.1	Robillard et al., 2016
Microbinthus lifouensis (Desutter-Grandcolas, 1997)	*L2Lli	E	С	F2	11.6	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Microbinthus pintaudi Robillard & Dong, 2016	*L39LpMW7 00	E	С	F2	27.9	Robillard <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Microbinthus santoensis (Robillard, 2009)	*L6LsaV	E	С	F2	26.6	Robillard, 2009 (MNHN-SO-2014-383)
Myara sordida Walker, 1869	*Mso	E	С	F1	5.6	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Myara unicolor (Chopard, 1951)	*Mun	E	Н	F1	4.5	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Nisitrus malaya Robillard & Tan, 2021	*NviS1	Е	Н	F1	6.4	Robillard & Tan, 2013 (MNHN-SO-2020-2854)
Pixibinthus sonicus Anso & Robillard, 2016	*L59LeNCR Ba	Е	Н	F2	27.9	Anso <i>et al.,</i> 2016 (MNHN-SO-2015-14)
Ponca venosa Hebard, 1928	*E10PveCR	S	-	F3	18	Robillard et al., 2015
Salmanites taltantrisOtte & Alexander, 1983	*Sta	Е	Н	F1	6.8	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Salmanites wittilliko Otte & Alexander, 1983	*Swi	E	Н	F1	6	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Xenogryllus eneopteroides Bolivar, 1890	*XenAC	Е	С	F1	3.6	Robillard & Desutter-Grandcolas, 2011
Xenogryllus marmoratus (Haan, 1844)	*Xma2	Е	С	F1	6	Jaiswara <i>et al.,</i> 2019 (MNHN-SO-2018-58)
Xenogryllus. mozambicus Robillard, 2019	X23Xmoz2	Е	Н	F1	3.3	Jaiswara <i>et al.,</i> 2019 (MNHN-SO-2018-140)
Xenogryllus transversus (Walker, 1869)	*XtrIn	E	Н	F1	4.5	Jaiswara et al., 2019
Xenogryllus ululiu Gorochov, 1990	*19XulSi	E	Н	F1	4.8	Jaiswara <i>et al.</i> , 2019

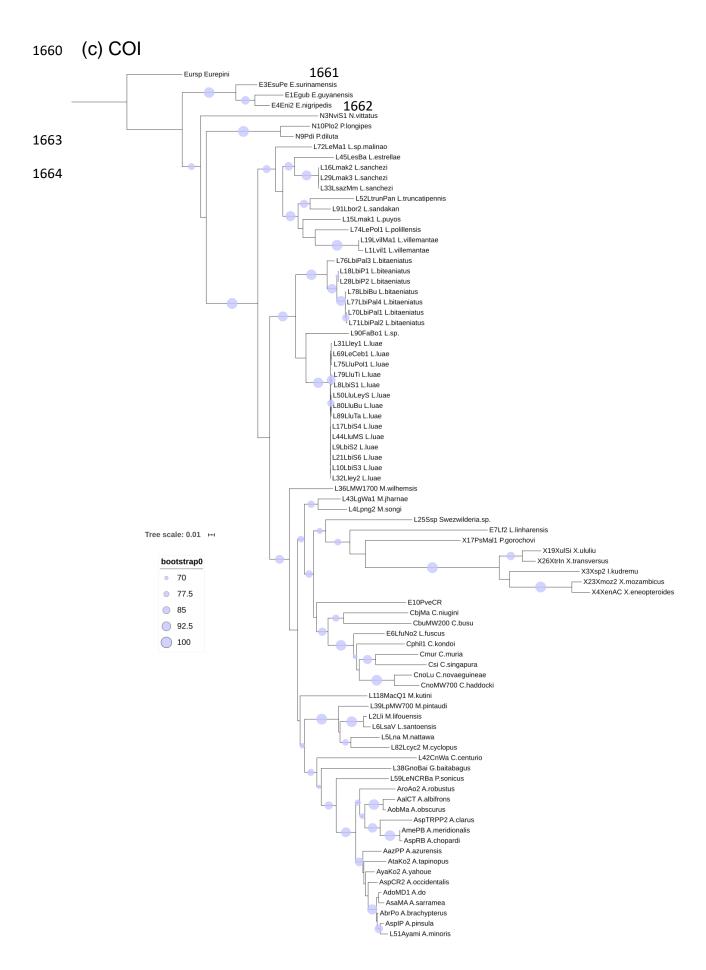
Table S4. AICc (sample-size corrected AIC) for ASR analyses of three discrete traits. Best-fit models are mentioned in bold.

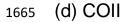
Traits	Models					
	ER	SYM	ARD			
SONG	45.065	48.619	55.465			
ECHE	60.069	60.069	62.221			
NDF	73.663	87.422	114.481			

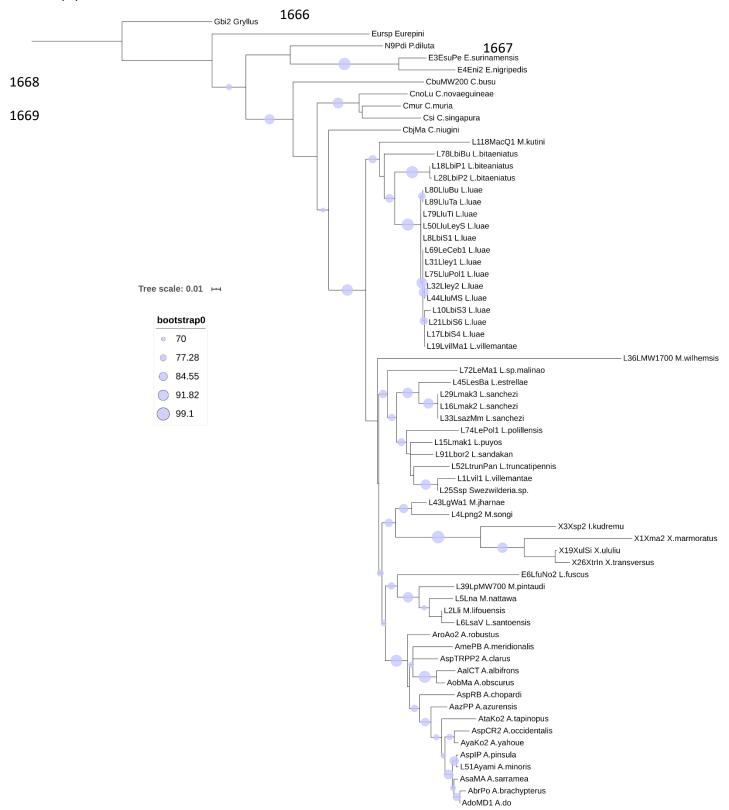
S-Figure 1. IQtree ML gene trees inferred for each separate marker. 12S (a), 16S (b), COI (c), COII (d), Cytb (e), 18S (f), 28S (g), H3 (hi). Bootstrap support values above 75% are represented by a grey circle proportional to the support (see scale on the left side of the tree)



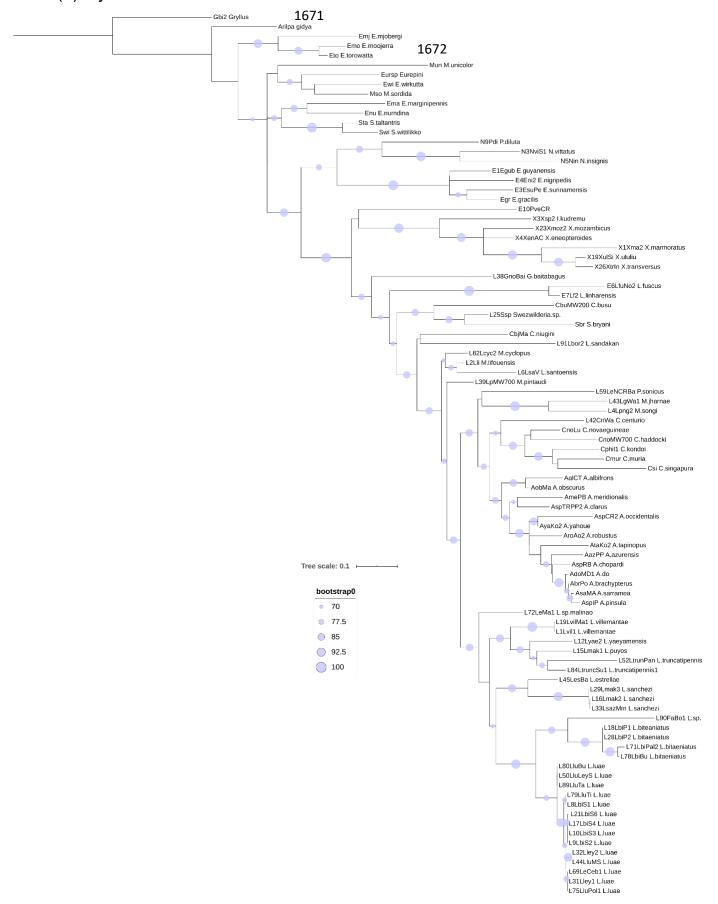


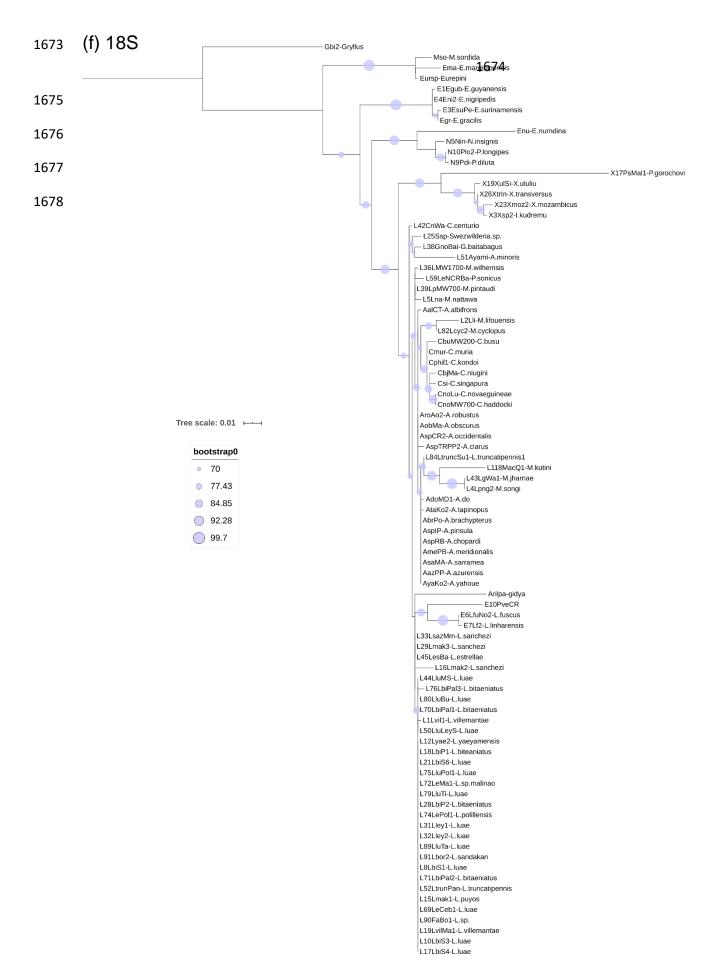


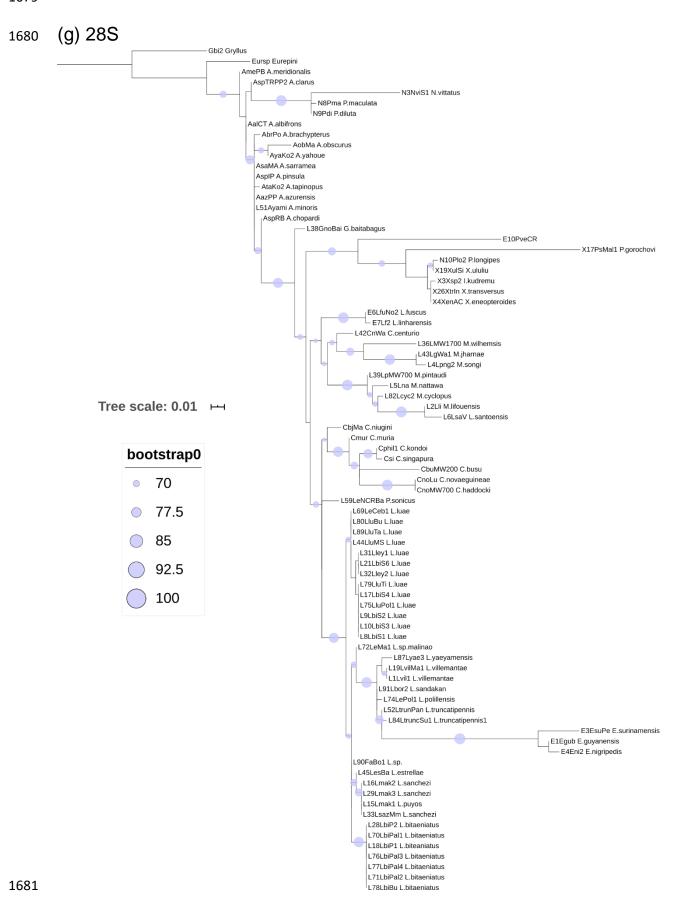


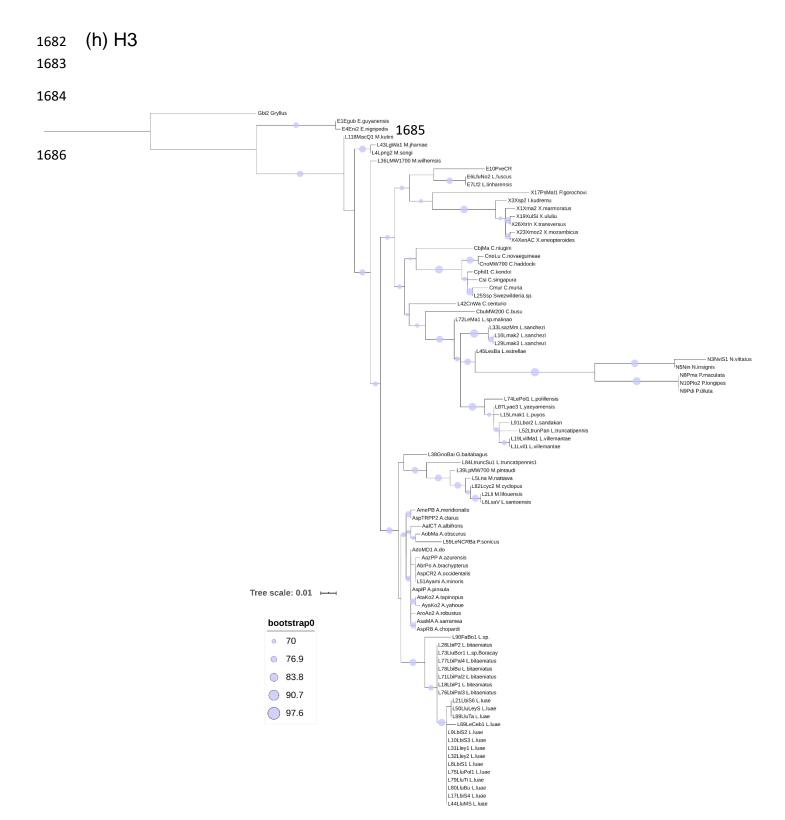


1670 (e) Cytb



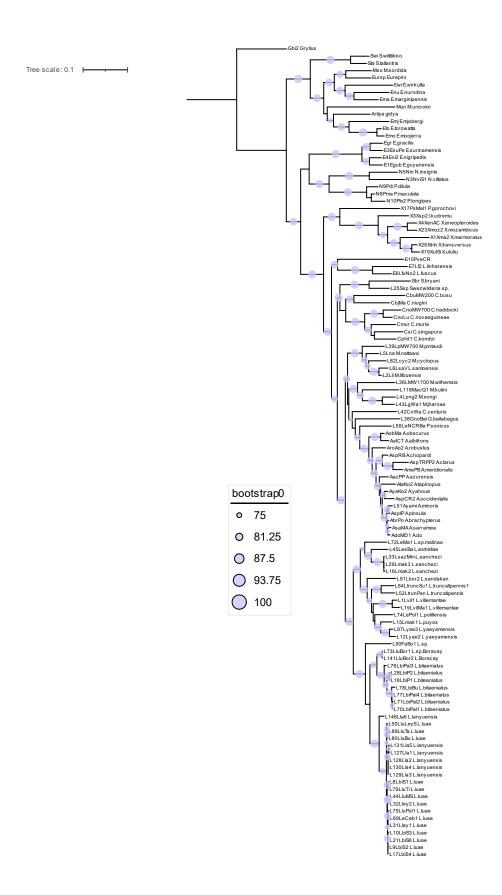






S-Figure 2. IQ-TREE ML analyses of the concatenated dataset. (a) results of the analysis using 8 gene partitions with models determined using IQ-TREE ModelFinder. (b) results of the analysis using five fixed models defined by the best-fit partitioning schemes and the associated substitution models used in the BI analysis (see below). Bootstrap support values above 75% are represented by a grey circle proportional to the support (see scale on the left side of the tree)

1693 (a)



(b)

