

1 APPENDIX S1. Supplementary methods

2 (1) Morphological criteria for identifying stridulatory mechanisms

3 Although all stridulatory mechanisms reported here have been identified as such in the publications
4 describing them, it is necessary that we provide key criteria that enable morphologists to establish the
5 links between morphology and sound production, when behavioural data are not available.

6 The presence of (i) a series of modified, strongly sclerotised ultrastructures, typically raised ridges,
7 spines, pegs, or tubercles, which are morphologically distinct from the surrounding cuticle, (ii) bilateral
8 and isomorphic [even though asymmetries are occasionally present, e.g. in right-to-left stridulating
9 crickets (Duncan *et al.*, 2021)], and (iii) can be found in many, if not all specimens of a species (either
10 in a single sex, or both), are typical diagnostic characteristics of a stridulatory mechanism. We note that
11 in some rare cases, not all specimens of a population possess the stridulatory mechanism (Zuk *et al.*,
12 2006), and of course, not all repeatable ultrastructures are stridulatory, as they could be chemosensory,
13 glands (Davranoglou *et al.*, 2019b), part of the wing mechanism (Papáček *et al.*, 1990), or of other,
14 uncertain function. A further crucial characteristic of stridulatory mechanisms is that (iv) they are
15 bipartite – that is, they require friction with another structure to produce sound. Each stridulatory
16 structure involved usually has different ultrastructural morphology from its opposing one, although
17 sometimes, especially in the cheliceral mechanisms of many arachnids, the morphology of the opposing
18 components might be identical (see Table 2). Additionally (v), the sclerotised nature of stridulatory
19 structures often renders them darker than their surrounding structures (e.g. Uetz & Stratton, 1982; Lis
20 & Heyna, 2001), which makes them more conspicuous and easier to identify.

21 We should also comment on the definition of stridulitrum *versus* plectrum. Following the terminology
22 of Ashlock & Lattin (1963), we term the mobile component of the stridulatory mechanism as the
23 plectrum (typically a spine, tubercle, stiff hair, granule or a series thereof; occasionally also a file), and
24 the stationary component the stridulitrum (usually, but not always, a file). However, some authors use
25 the term stridulitrum or *pars stridens* to refer exclusively to file-like structures, whereas the term
26 plectrum is reserved only for a spine, tubercle, hair, or lip (e.g. Jansson, 1972; Jocqué, 2005; Lis &
27 Heyna, 2001). We have selected the terminology of Ashlock & Lattin (1963) as it is biomechanically
28 inclusive, given that it identifies the mobile and stationary components regardless of their morphology.

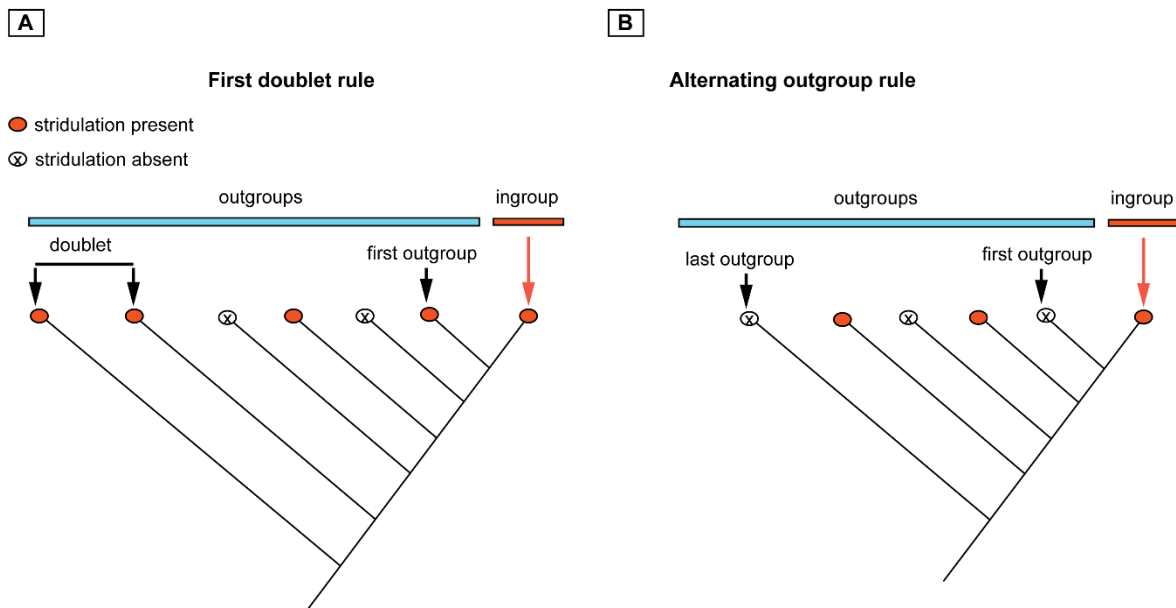
29 It should also be noted that certain stridulatory structures fall outside the bipartite category of plectrum
30 *versus* stridulitrum, regardless of the terminology employed. In some Orthoptera, the mandibles interact
31 with each other (Field, 1993), the maxillae (Günther, 1992), or the labrum (Lloyd & Gurney, 1975) to
32 produce sound, in the absence of specialised structures. Some theraphosine tarantulas use setal
33 entanglement – a mechanism that is found in no other organism (Marshall *et al.*, 1995). In this
34 mechanism, described in *Theraphosa blondi*, modified setae on the pedipalp and legs possess filaments
35 on their stem and hooks in their distal portion. When these setae are rubbed against their counterparts
36 on opposing legs, the setal hooks of one leg become entangled with the setal filaments of the opposing
37 leg, and then get pulled apart, producing a loud hiss – much like the sound produced by unzipping
38 Velcro (Marshall *et al.*, 1995). Whether this mechanism represents stridulation *sensu stricto* or a
39 different class of motion should be considered in future experimental and theoretical studies.

40 Overall, the extreme consistency in the morphology of stridulatory structures across arthropods has
41 allowed them to be readily identifiable in unrelated groups – from arachnids to millipedes and
42 crustaceans. It is generally accepted among morphologists and bioacousticians that although the
43 biomechanics and behavioural contexts of stridulation in many arthropods (excluding Orthoptera) may
44 have remained poorly studied or unknown, the presence of stridulatory mechanisms is a reliable
45 indicator of sound production in a given species. By default, authors describing a structure as
46 stridulatory assume that it is involved in sound production, even if no signal has been heard. This
47 assumption is based on three lines of evidence: (i) in most cases where an animal has been heard singing,

48 subsequent morphological and bioacoustic experiments confirmed the involvement of stridulatory
 49 organs (e.g. Field *et al.*, 1987; Leston, 1957; Marshall *et al.*, 1995; Moulet, 1991; Taylor *et al.*, 2019;
 50 Uhl & Schmitt, 1996; Zych *et al.*, 2012); (ii) when structures on preserved specimens were described
 51 as stridulatory and were subsequently bioacoustically investigated, their role in sound production was
 52 confirmed (e.g. Liao *et al.*, 2019; Luo & Wei, 2015); (iii) stridulatory mechanisms are reliable indicators
 53 of sound production to the degree that their morphology can be used to reconstruct the singing pattern
 54 in preserved specimens (Woodrow *et al.*, 2022), and even from Jurassic fossils (Gu *et al.*, 2012), in the
 55 absence of behavioural data.

56 Based on the above, we argue that the assumption that the presence of stridulatory organs is correlated
 57 with the presence of sound production is justified.

58



59

60 **Fig. S1.** Basic principles of the two-step parsimony rule of Maddison *et al.* (1984), using a hypothetical
 61 scenario of stridulatory evolution. (A) If the characters of the first outgroup and two consecutive
 62 outgroups (= doublet) agree in state, then the most parsimonious hypothesis is that this is the ancestral
 63 state for the entire group – in this case the presence of a stridulatory mechanism. (B) When doublets are
 64 absent, if the state of the first and last outgroups are shared, then that is the ancestral condition, in this
 65 case, the absence of stridulation.

66

67 **APPENDIX S2. Rationale for our estimates of the number of times that stridulation evolved in**
 68 **each of the examined groups**

69 **(1) Detailed explanation for Heteroptera (Table 1)**

70 We list all known heteropteran stridulatory mechanisms and the numbers of times they evolved in Table
 71 1, which represents the most detailed analysis available of stridulation in this group of insects. Table 1
 72 offers conservative and relaxed estimates of the number of times stridulatory mechanisms have evolved
 73 in Heteroptera. The conservative estimate excludes taxa whose stridulatory mechanism is either poorly
 74 described or unlikely to be involved in sound production, due to experimental or other evidence.

75 We also documented the presence of vibrational signalling across Heteroptera. The fusion or
 76 modification of abdominal tergites 1–2 into a tremulatory tergal plate [TTP; not to be confused with the

77 immobile tergal plate of some Aradidae (Usinger & Matsuda, 1959)] has been demonstrated in several
78 groups of Heteroptera to act as a vibrational organ (Gogala, 1984). We therefore suggest that the
79 presence of a TTP is a reliable indicator of vibrational signalling in taxa which have not been examined
80 experimentally.

81 Extensive justification for our interpretations is summarised for each infraorder below.

82 **Dipsocoromorpha**

83 Peculiar structures on the dorsal surface of the fore wings of several Schizopteridae were initially
84 interpreted as being part of a stridulatory mechanism (China, 1946). However, as no opposing structures
85 (i.e. forming a plectrum) could be found, their location makes them unlikely to function as stridulatory
86 organs (Emsley, 1969). Subsequent acoustic experiments also failed to find any evidence of acoustic
87 signals (Emsley, 1969). It has been suggested that metacoxal pads (otherwise thought to form part of
88 the jumping mechanism) can act as stridulatory organs (Emsley, 1969), although this is speculative and
89 requires confirmation. Based on the above, we treat Dipsocoromorpha as currently lacking any type of
90 stridulatory mechanism.

91 There are no reports of vibrational signalling in this infraorder. However, the presence of a TTP on the
92 dipsocoromorphan abdomen (Sweet, 1996), suggests that vibrational signalling may have not yet been
93 discovered in this infraorder.

94 **Enicocephalomorpha**

95 A possible coxal stridulitrum was described in three genera of Enicocephalidae (Baňář & Štys, 2006;
96 Štys & Baňář, 2006, 2007). Serrate microsculpture on the dorsal surface of the fore coxa was interpreted
97 as representing a stridulitrum, which supposedly rubs against the prosternum, the latter acting as the
98 plectrum. It has been suggested that this tentative stridulatory mechanism is universally present in the
99 family Enicocephalidae, but this claim has not been formally tested (Štys & Baňář, 2007).

100 Based on the presence of a tergal plate (Davranoglou *et al.*, 2017), it is likely that Enicocephalomorpha
101 use vibrational signals.

102 **Gerromorpha**

103 Two gerromorphan families are known to possess stridulatory mechanisms. In Veliidae, three genera
104 of Veliinae (*Angilovelina*, *Paravelina*, *Stridulivelina*) and two in Rhagoveliinae (*Chenevelina*, *Rhagovelia*
105 *lugubris*) possess an abdominal stridulitrum–leg plectrum (Table 1). We suggest that stridulatory
106 mechanisms in Veliidae have evolved at least four times: once in *Chenevelina* (Rhagoveliinae) [due to
107 parsimony, as Rhagoveliinae is separated from Veliinae by four nodes that lack this stridulatory
108 mechanism, which is present in only a subset of the genus *Chenevelina* (Damgaard, 2008; Zettel, 1996)],
109 once in *Rh. lugubris* (due to the possession of a different mechanism compared to *Chenevelina*), once in
110 *Paravelina*, as the plectrum is located on the metatrochanter (while in the other taxa it is on the
111 metafemur) and once between *Angilovelina* and *Paravelina* (Table 1). Although previous studies have
112 suggested that the stridulatory mechanism in *Angilovelina* and *Paravelina* evolved independently
113 (Andersen, 1981, 1982; Polhemus, 1994; Zettel, 1996), we find no evidence for this; the location of the
114 stridulatory mechanism and its ultrastructure are the same, and their phylogenetic relationships are
115 poorly understood (Andersen, 1981, 1982; Burguez Floriano *et al.*, 2017). Among Gerridae, a thoracic
116 stridulitrum (metaacetabulum)–leg plectrum (metatrochanter) is known from half of the species of
117 *Metrobates* (Trepobatinae), and an abdominal stridulitrum–leg plectrum defines the genus *Stridulobates*
118 (Ptilomerinae) (Table 1) (Polhemus, 1991, 1994; Polhemus & Polhemus, 1993; Zettel & Thirumalai,
119 2000). Due to the different type of stridulatory mechanism used, we suggest that acoustic signalling has
120 evolved twice in gerrids.

121 Vibrational signals in the form of water surface ripples are widespread in both gerrids and veliids
122 (Polhemus, 1990b, 1991; Wilcox, 1979). We suggest that vibrational signals are probably used by most,
123 if not all gerromorphans, and that the few stridulating taxa represent secondary developments.

124 **Nepomorpha**

125 Stridulatory mechanisms are particularly complex and diverse in the Nepomorpha (Table 1), and have
126 been extensively reviewed (Aiken, 1985; Polhemus, 1994). Due to the presence of many distinct
127 stridulatory types (Table 1), most nepomorphan stridulatory mechanisms are easily distinguished as
128 separate evolutionary developments. Only special cases are discussed below.

129 Corixids stridulate using a leg–head mechanism (Jansson, 1989; Polhemus, 1994). A structure of the
130 sixth tergum misleadingly termed as the strigil, is not used in sound production (Jansson, 1989). Besides
131 stridulation, some corixids also use leg-induced vibrations in mating (Jansson, 1989). The family
132 Diaprepocoridae has a unique forceps-like structure which has been interpreted as a stridulatory
133 mechanism (Hale, 1922). Due to its similarity to the corixid ‘strigil’, we doubt the diaprepocorid organ
134 is involved in sound production. All Micronectidae use a unique mechanism involving the genitalia
135 (paramere plectrum–tergum 8 stridulitrum) (Jansson, 1972, 1989; Tinerella, 2008, 2013).

136 The situation in Notonectidae is particularly complex. In all species of the genera *Anisops* and *Buenoa*,
137 the males possess a leg–head stridulatory mechanism (Polhemus, 1994). Based on parsimony, the
138 mechanism likely evolved once in the common ancestor of the two genera, as systematic (Ye *et al.*,
139 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2012) and morphological (Truxal, 1952) studies identified them as sister groups,
140 and the stridulatory structure is identical. Secondary developments include the evolution of two
141 morphologically distinct types of abdomen–leg (in males) and two distinct types of wing edge–leg
142 mechanisms (in females) in African and Madagascan species of *Anisops*, supplementing the pre-
143 existing leg–head mechanism (Polhemus, 1994). These mechanisms are identified as independent
144 events due to their considerable structural differences (ultrastructural; location on abdomen, etc.)
145 (Polhemus, 1994). In addition, most, but not all species of *Buenoa* have an additional leg–leg
146 stridulatory mechanism. Species of the genera *Enithares* and *Martarega* have unique abdomen–leg and
147 wing edge–leg mechanisms respectively, whose structure is dissimilar to mechanisms found in other
148 Notonectidae (Polhemus, 1994). Based on the above, stridulatory organs have evolved in Notonectidae
149 at least eight times. Interestingly, *Notonecta*, the sister group to all other Notonectidae (Zhang *et al.*,
150 2012), lacks stridulatory mechanisms, indicating that acoustic signalling may be a derived trait in this
151 family or secondarily lost in this genus.

152 The thorax–thorax mechanism shared by the Pleidae and two tribes of the Helotrephidae (Helotrephini
153 and Limnotrephini) is considered as a synapomorphy of the two families (Papáček *et al.*, 1990), as they
154 have been recovered as sister groups in systematic studies (Hebsgaard *et al.*, 2004) and the structure of
155 the mechanism is identical. However, its scale-like morphology is similar to wing-locking devices
156 found in other Heteroptera, and its role in stridulation is ambiguous (Papáček *et al.*, 1990). Another
157 mechanism in the Limnotrephini, which involves a supposed stridulitrum on the wing base striking
158 against a plectrum on the cephalonotum is also similar to a wing-locking device (Polhemus, 1990a) and
159 its role in stridulation is unlikely. The distinct morphology of the wing edge–leg mechanism of
160 helotrephids (Polhemus, 1990a) is easily identified as an independent evolutionary development from
161 other wing-edge mechanisms in the Nepomorpha. The same holds true for the abdomen–leg mechanism
162 of certain *Limnocois* (Pleidae) (Polhemus, 1994).

163 The Naucoridae are the first aquatic bugs for which stridulation was recorded, and possess two strongly
164 autapomorphic mechanisms (Table 1), which we treat as having evolved independently. Acoustic
165 signals are only known from the males of *Ilyocoris cimicoides* (Aiken, 1985), and although widely
166 assumed to be used in mating (Gooderham & Tsyrlin, 2002), their precise role is yet to be determined.
167 However, as these stridulatory organs are only known in males, which we have heard signalling in the

168 absence of any disturbance (L.-R. Davranoglou, personal observations), we tentatively suggest they are
169 used in a sexual context (see Table S5). Experimental confirmation of the behavioural context of the
170 signals of Naucoridae is urgently required.

171 The Nepoidea (Belostomatidae and Nepidae), which have consistently been recovered as the sister
172 group to all other Nepomorpha by several phylogenetic studies (Hebsgaard *et al.*, 2004; Schuh &
173 Weirauch, 2020; Ye *et al.*, 2019), communicate primarily by vibrations: several belostomatids engage
174 in body-pumping during courtship (Kraus, 1989) and a possible tergal plate produces abdominal
175 vibrations, again in a mating context (Barber, 1971). Given that stridulation in the Nepoidea is known
176 only from four, closely related species of *Ranatra* (Nepidae) (Aiken, 1985), we suggest that it represents
177 a derived behaviour in this group. In addition, based on the fact that each nepomorphan family possesses
178 its own types of stridulatory mechanism (with the possible exception of the related Helotrephidae–
179 Pleidae), and they usually represent convergent developments, we suggest that acoustic signalling is a
180 derived behaviour that has evolved multiple times in Nepomorpha.

181 **Leptopodomorpha**

182 Among Leptopodidae, a stridulatory tergal plate (STP) can be found in all genera other than *Leotichius*,
183 the purported sister group to all other genera in the family (Pericart & Polhemus, 1990) (Table 1). The
184 absence of an STP in *Leotichius* is considered either a plesiomorphy (making its presence in other taxa
185 a derived trait), or a secondary loss (Pericart & Polhemus, 1990). It should be noted that the stridulitrum
186 on the hind wing of Leptopodidae is on vein 3A, whereas in Pentatomomorpha possessing an STP, the
187 stridulitrum is located on vein PCu (Leston, 1954, 1957; Pericart & Polhemus, 1990).

188 In Saldidae, a wing edge–leg mechanism is found in the subfamily Saldinae, subdivided into three
189 stridulitral and four plectral types (Polhemus, 1985) with unique morphological characteristics. In a
190 cladistic analysis, the evolution of each type of stridulatory mechanism was coded in the phylogeny and
191 was found to represent a derived trait, having arisen at least six times independently in the genera
192 *Chartoscirta*, *Ioscytus*, *Macrosaldula*, *Rupisalda*, *Saldoida* (Saldoidini) and *Lampracanthia* (Saldini)
193 (Polhemus, 1985) (Table 1).

194 We are not aware of any studies examining the presence of vibrational signals in the Leptopodomorpha,
195 although the presence of fused tergites 1–2 into a tergal plate in several taxa (Sweet, 1996), makes its
196 presence in this infraorder likely.

197 **Cimicomorpha**

198 In Cimicomorpha, stridulatory organs have arisen most frequently in the Miridae, the largest family of
199 the infraorder (Table 1). Wing edge–leg stridulatory mechanisms are present in the Cylapinae
200 (*Euchilofulvius* and *Samoafulvius*; Gorczyca, 1998, 2004), Deraecorinae (*Obudua*; Akingbohunge,
201 1979), Orthotylinae (*Renodaeus*; Henry, 2015), and the Phylinae [between certain Hallodapini and
202 Leucophoropterini (Schuh, 1974, 1984; Yasunaga *et al.*, 2019)], and can generate acoustic signals of up
203 to 2.1 kHz (Yasunaga *et al.*, 2019) (Table 1). Due to parsimony [all stridulatory species/tribes separated
204 from each other by tens of nodes lacking this trait (Jung & Lee, 2012; Menard *et al.*, 2014)], taxonomic
205 disparity, and morphological differences in the mechanisms of the examined taxa, we suggest that wing-
206 edge mechanisms have appeared at least four times independently in the Miridae – at least once in each
207 mentioned subfamily. Although certain studies suggest that wing-edge mechanisms may have evolved
208 several times within the Phylinae (Yasunaga *et al.*, 2019), given the overall structural similarity of the
209 mechanism, we tentatively treat this mechanism as having evolved once in this subfamily, until a formal
210 cladistic analysis coding this character is available. An abdominal stridulitrum (plectrum unknown,
211 although likely the hind femur) also appears twice in the Miridae: once in the Orthotylinae among the
212 genera allied to *Renodaeus* (but not *Renodaeus* itself; Henry, 2015), and once in the Phylinae, in the
213 tribe Leucophoropterini (Schuh, 1984), which we interpret as independent events, due to parsimony
214 [separated by many nodes lacking this trait (Jung & Lee, 2012; Menard *et al.*, 2014)]. We suggest that

215 the abdomen–leg mechanism of Leucophoropterini arose once in the tribe, as the two genera possessing
216 it (*Arafuramiris* and *Waterhouseana*) are separated by only two non-stridulatory nodes in a cladistic
217 analysis (Menard & Schuh, 2011; Menard & Woolley, 2014).

218 Reduviidae possess the best-known stridulatory mechanism among the Cimicomorpha and the most
219 widespread in Heteroptera as a whole. The vast majority of species possess a prosternal stridulitrum
220 which is rubbed by a labial plectrum (Cai *et al.*, 1994). This stridulitrum is used in defensive and
221 possibly mating contexts (Manrique & Lazzari, 1994). The prothoracic–labial mechanism is thought to
222 have arisen once in the phylogeny of reduviids (Leston, 1957; Cai *et al.*, 1994), with at least 12
223 independent losses (Cai *et al.*, 1994).

224 In Tingidae, acoustic signals of up to 6 kHz have been recorded from *Corythucha ciliata*, probably
225 produced by a wing edge stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum mechanism (Gogala, 1984). There are no
226 reports of other stridulatory organs in this family.

227 In the remaining Cimicomorpha, two different types of stridulatory mechanisms are known from the
228 Lasiochilidae (Table 1), and one in the Anthocoridae; the latter was tentatively reported in the genera
229 *Guayascoris* and *Nidicola* (Carpintero & Dellapé, 2012) and we interpret it as having evolved at least
230 once.

231 Low-frequency vibrations are known from the Miridae (Gemeno *et al.*, 2015; Koczor & Čokl, 2014),
232 Reduviidae (Gogala, 1985) and Tingidae (Cocroft, 2001), the first two operated by a tergal plate, the
233 third being unknown.

234 **Pentatomomorpha**

235 **Aradoidea**

236 There are two stridulatory mechanisms in the Aradidae: a thorax–leg mechanism, which has appeared
237 once in *Aradacanthia*, and an abdomen–leg mechanism which, based on differences in the type of
238 ultrastructure used and the position of both the stridulitrum and plectrum on different leg and abdominal
239 segments, has evolved at least six times independently (Usinger & Matsuda, 1959) (Table 1).

240 No vibrational signals are known from the Aradoidea.

241 **Coreoidea**

242 Few stridulatory organs are known from the Coreoidea. A group of Nearctic and two Old World genera
243 of Alydidae are characterised by a wing edge–leg device, which, in the absence of a recent phylogeny
244 of the family (Moulet, 1991; Schaefer *et al.*, 2015), is interpreted as having evolved at least once. An
245 STP is the only known stridulatory structure in the Rhopalidae, reported from *Jadera* (Zych *et al.*,
246 2012). The situation is more complex in Coreidae. A pronotal stridulitrum–fore wing plectrum can be
247 found in several genera belonging to the “CGPP” tribes “Coreini” (*Centrocoris*, *Coreus*, *Enoplops*,
248 *Haploprocta*, *Spathocera*, *Syromastus*), “Gonocerini” (*Cletoliturus*, *Cletomorpha*, *Cletoscellus*,
249 *Cletus*), Phyllomorhini (*Pephricus*, *Phyllomorpha*, *Tongorma*) and Prionotylini (*Prionotylus*)
250 (Forthman, 2022; Moulet, 1991; Schaefer, 1962; Štys, 1961). An upcoming phylogenomic study
251 specifically investigating the origins of the stridulatory mechanisms of Coreidae will show that the
252 mechanism arose once, at the base of the “CGPP” clade (Forthman, 2022). For this reason, we interpret
253 the mechanism as having evolved once (Table 1). It should be noted that although the genus *Euthochtha*
254 (Acanthocerini) was previously reported to possess the abovementioned pronotal stridulitrum–fore
255 wing plectrum (Schaefer, 1962), subsequent morphological examination by Forthman (2022) showed
256 that no such mechanism is present in this genus.

257 Tremulatory signals are known from coreids, rhopalids, and alydids (Gogala, 1984, 1990).

258 **Lygaeoidea**

259 The evolution of stridulation in Lygaeoidea is complex due to significant taxonomic changes since the
260 first study examining this topic (Ashlock & Lattin, 1963). Stridulatory structures evolved only once in
261 certain families (Colobathristidae, Blissidae, Piesmatidae; Table 1). Stridulation has arisen most
262 frequently in the Rhyparochromidae, a largely ground-dwelling group (Table 1). Stridulatory organs
263 are distributed in a few members of different subfamilies, and the type of mechanism is usually
264 different, allowing for their recognition as independent evolutionary events (Table 1). Poorly studied or
265 complex conditions are discussed below.

266 Following phylogenetic studies (Malipatil, 1981, 1983), an abdomen–leg stridulatory mechanism is
267 present in almost every clade of Cleradini. It is reduced independently in *Navarrus* and *Pholeolygaeus*
268 (Malipatil, 1981), and is absent in only a few genera (once in *Arledda–Neoclerada* and once in
269 *Laticlerada*). Given that all genera lacking the stridulatory mechanism are separated by less than two
270 non-stridulatory nodes from taxa that possess it (Malipatil, 1983), the most parsimonious explanation
271 is that they represent four independent losses.

272 Among the Myodochinae, a wing edge–metafemur device and a prothorax–leg mechanism are
273 autapomorphies of the genera *Villalobosothignus* and *Pseudocnemodus*, respectively (Dellapé, 2003;
274 Harrington, 1980) (Table 1). All other stridulating genera are characterised by an abdomen–leg
275 mechanism (Harrington, 1980) (Table 1) which, based on their phylogenetic position and our criterion
276 of parsimony, has evolved at least five times independently: twice between the genera *Eucosmetus* and
277 *Stridulocoris* (separated from each other by many nodes where this stridulatory mechanism is absent;
278 Harrington, 1980), and once in each of three groups of related genera (once in *Slaterobius*, *Ligyrocoris*,
279 *Froeschneria*, once in *Pseudopamera*, *Erlacda*, *Afrovertanus*, and once in *Ashlockaria*. Each of these
280 groups is separated by multiple outgroup nodes that lack this trait (Harrington, 1980), and based on the
281 first doublet rule of Maddison *et al.* (1984), the most parsimonious explanation is that they represent
282 three independent developments. A phylogenetic study of the Myodochinae considers the absence of
283 stridulation as the plesiomorphic state of the subfamily and codes stridulatory organs as derived traits
284 (Harrington, 1980).

285 Wing edge–leg and abdomen–leg mechanisms also occur sporadically in other tribes of
286 Rhyparochromidae (Drymini, Ozophorini and Rhyparochromini) but the presence of the latter on
287 different segments, the taxonomic distance between the taxa that possess them and their general
288 disparity (i.e. present in very few species, whose relatives lack stridulatory mechanisms) indicate that
289 they represent independent evolutionary events. The tribe Plinthisini is characterised by the possession
290 of an STP, and at least one species has additionally developed a unique type of thorax–leg mechanism
291 (Table 1).

292 Vibrational signals have been demonstrated in several Lygaeoidea, and are generated by a tergal plate
293 (Gogala, 2006; Minghetti *et al.*, 2020). The presence of a tergal plate in many examined species (Table
294 1) suggests that vibrational signalling is widespread in this group.

295 **Idiostoloidea**

296 There are no reports of stridulatory organs from Idiostoloidea. It is possible that the closely associated
297 tergites 1–2 may form a tergal plate (Schaefer, 1965); vibrational signalling is thus likely in this group,
298 although it awaits behavioural confirmation.

299 **Pentatomoidea**

300 The Pentatomoidea is a megadiverse group whose systematics are notoriously difficult to reconstruct.
301 An STP is the most frequently encountered stridulatory mechanism, found in several families such as
302 the Canopidae, some Scutelleridae, Tessaratomidae (not in Oncomerinae) and Urostilididae, which have
303 arisen independently (separated from each other by more than two non-stridulatory nodes) (Grazia *et*
304 *al.*, 2008). Problematic groups possessing an STP are the so-called cydnoid families (Corimelaenidae,

305 Cydnidae, Parastrachiidae, and Thaumastellidae), whose relationships are contentious (Grazia *et al.*,
306 2008). Following phylogenetic work using both morphological and molecular characters (Grazia *et al.*,
307 2008), the families Corimelaenidae and Parastrachiidae were combined into a broadly defined
308 Cydnidae; we tentatively suggest that the STP shared by these taxa evolved once. The evolution of
309 stridulatory structures in Thaumastellidae is ambiguous. Morphological data support a sister group
310 relationship to the cydnoid complex (Štys, 1964; Jacobs, 1989), whereas molecular data recovered
311 thaumastellids as unrelated to the cydnoid group (Grazia *et al.*, 2008). We cautiously interpret their STP
312 as a convergence, until their relationships are elucidated by future studies.

313 Scutellerids are particularly diverse with respect to stridulatory organs. An STP is present in some
314 Pachycorinae and Scutellerinae (Sphaerocorini) which, based on parsimony (separated by many non-
315 stridulatory nodes; Wu *et al.*, 2017), has evolved at least twice (Table 1). Based on parsimony,
316 segmental and ultrastructural differences, an abdomen–leg mechanism present in some Hoteinae,
317 Odontotarsinae and Pachycorinae, has evolved at least three times independently (Carapezza, 2009; Wu
318 *et al.*, 2017).

319 Vibrational signals in the Pentatomoidea are the best studied among Heteroptera, with *Nezara viridula*
320 (Pentatomidae) a model organism for biotremological studies (Gogala, 1984; Moraes *et al.*, 2005).

321 **Pyrrhocoroidea**

322 A characteristic wing edge–leg stridulitrum can be found in the largid *Arrhaphe*, and it is considered an
323 autapomorphy of that genus (Lattin, 1958). Two other types of tentative stridulatory mechanisms are
324 found in other largids (Table 1). In Pyrrhocoridae, a unique type of tentative prothoracic–wing edge–
325 leg stridulitrum is reported from *Dindymus* (Table 1).

326 Abdominal-based tremulatory signals are known from pyrrhocorids (Benediktov, 2007).

327

328 **(2) Detailed explanation for the arthropod outgroups (Table 2)**

329 **(a) Arachnida**

330 **(i) Pedipalpi (Amblypygi, Schizomida, Thelyphonida)**

331 A chelicera–chelicera mechanism is known from certain genera in the families Phrynidae and
332 Phrynichidae (Table 2). Based on the few available phylogenies of Amblypygi, these families are sister
333 groups; within these families, the stridulation-bearing genera are also sister groups to each other
334 (*Acanthophrynus–Paraphrynus*; *Euphrynichus–Musicodamon–Phrynichus*) (Weygoldt, 1996). We
335 therefore tentatively suggest that stridulation arose at least once in this order.

336 The orders Schizomida and Thelyphonida possess a chelicera–chelicera (Cokendolpher & Sites, 1988)
337 and a chelicera–pedipalp (Barrales-Alcalá *et al.*, 2018) mechanism respectively (Table 2), which
338 involve different appendages and are therefore independent innovations. The chelicera–chelicera
339 mechanisms in the Amblypygi and Schizomida are interpreted as independent innovations, as they are
340 present only in two families of the former, which are nested deeply within the phylogeny of that order
341 (Weygoldt, 1996), and are separated by many non-stridulating nodes from the latter order.

342 **(ii) Araneae**

343 **Mygalomorphae**

344 **Barychelidae**

345 At least two genera (*Aureocrypta*, *Idiommata*) of this family possess a stridulitrum on chelicera–
346 plectrum on pedipalp coxa mechanism (Table 2). Raven (1994) considered that this mechanism was not

347 homologous between the two genera. Furthermore, some taxa within the sister group of Barychelidae,
348 the Theraphosidae (Opatova *et al.*, 2020) also possess this stridulatory structure (Table 2; see below).
349 Given that a detailed phylogeny of Barychelidae is not available, and that most genera in this family
350 lack this stridulatory mechanism, we cautiously interpret it as having evolved at least once within the
351 family (rather than having been lost independently by all other genera, which is less parsimonious).
352 Whether this mechanism is homologous to that of Theraphosidae should be investigated further,
353 although we tentatively treat it as having evolved independently.

354 **Dipluridae**

355 Members of this family generally possess a stridulitrum on chelicera–plectrum on pedipalp coxa
356 mechanism (Table 2). As the other mygalomorph families possessing this mechanism (e.g.
357 Barychelidae, Theraphosidae) are distantly related to Dipluridae (Opatova *et al.*, 2020), we interpret
358 this character as having evolved at least once in this family.

359 **Hexathelidae**

360 The genus *Macrothele* possesses a stridulatory mechanism involving setae on the palpal trochanter–
361 setae on trochanter of first leg mechanism (Table 2). As we did not find any records in the literature of
362 close relatives (as recovered by Opatova *et al.*, 2020) possessing this mechanism, we interpret this
363 character as having evolved at least once.

364 **Theraphosidae**

365 Studying the evolution of stridulation in tarantulas is particularly challenging, not only due to the often
366 conflicting phylogenies available (Foley *et al.*, 2019; Lüddecke *et al.*, 2018; Raven, 1985; West *et al.*,
367 2012), but also due to the complex (and occasionally inconsistent) terminology employed to describe
368 the stridulatory mechanisms involved. A mechanism involving setae on chelicera–setae on pedipalp
369 coxa (also known as the maxillary lyra) is widespread in the subfamilies Selenocosmiinae,
370 Thrigmopoeinae, present in some Ornithoctoninae, in at least one genus of Harpactirinae, in some
371 Poecilotheriinae, and many Aviculariinae (Table 2) (e.g. Gallon, 2002; Rao *et al.*, 2006; Raven, 1985;
372 West *et al.*, 2008, 2012), while it is absent in the Stromatopelminae (Gallon, 2003). Phylogenetic
373 analyses coding this stridulatory mechanism in morphological data sets have recovered it as a
374 homoplastic character (Raven, 1985; West *et al.*, 2008), that has been reduced or lost many times
375 independently (West *et al.*, 2012). Although theraphosid phylogeny is still in flux, and whether this
376 mechanism is homologous throughout the family is not uncontested (e.g. Gallon, 2003), we tentatively
377 suggest that this mechanism has evolved once, until future morphological, developmental, and
378 systematic studies clarify the situation.

379 Another class of stridulatory mechanism involves the modified setae of some Theraphosinae, which
380 produce a unique form of stridulation known as setal entanglement (Marshall *et al.*, 1995). At least 10
381 types of modified setae are thought to be stridulatory (Galleti-Lima & Guadanucci, 2018, 2019), even
382 though the involvement of each type in stridulation has not yet been experimentally demonstrated.
383 Furthermore, we cannot ascertain the number of times these stridulatory structures have evolved, for
384 several reasons. First, these setae have been recovered as homoplastic in phylogenetic studies, and
385 second, the topology of major theraphosine clades has remained unresolved (Galleti-Lima &
386 Guadanucci, 2018). Finally, in the absence of developmental data, it cannot be demonstrated whether
387 each setal type represents a variant from a shared bauplan, or an independent development. We therefore
388 interpret stridulatory setae as having evolved at least once in Theraphosinae, due to limited data. It is
389 evident that the morphological criteria used to define what constitutes a stridulatory mechanism (see
390 Appendix S1) are difficult to apply in the case of theraphosine modified setae.

391 Potentially similar setae of alleged stridulatory function exist in other theraphosids. In Harpactirinae,
392 most genera possess setae on the chelicera and the palpal trochanters that are considered stridulatory,

393 while the genus *Trichognatha* possesses an additional type of stridulatory setae on its chelicera (Table
394 2; Gallon, 2002). Eumenophorinae possess a mechanism involving setae on the pedipalpal coxa–setae
395 on coxa of legs 1 and/or 2, which has been considered autapomorphic (Raven, 1985). Estimating
396 whether these mechanisms evolved independently from those of Theraphosinae is challenging, as the
397 two available phylogenies for the group (Foley *et al.*, 2019; Lüddecke *et al.*, 2018) have recovered
398 inconsistent topologies. If we use the most recent and strongly supported cladogram (Foley *et al.*, 2019),
399 Eumenophorinae and Harpactirinae are separated by multiple nodes both from each other, and from
400 Theraphosinae. This suggests that stridulatory setae may have evolved twice outside Theraphosinae –
401 once in Eumenophorinae, and once in Harpactirinae, assuming that the distribution of these characters
402 has been adequately mapped in Theraphosidae as a whole.

403 A chelicera–chelicera mechanism found in an unidentified genus of Theraphosidae is interpreted as
404 having evolved once, as it has not been found in any other member of this family (Table 2).

405 **Araneomorphae**

406 **Synspermiata**

407 Many families of the Synspermiata (Diguettidae, Ochyroceratidae, Sicariidae, Pholcidae, Plectreuridae)
408 and their sister groups, the Gradungulidae, the CY Spigot clade (Austrochilidae) and the Palpimanoidea
409 (Huttoniidae, Mechysmaucheniidae, Palpimanidae) (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017), are defined by the presence
410 of a cheliceral stridulitrum–palpal femur plectrum (Labarque & Ramírez, 2012) (Table 2). Due to its
411 very broad phylogenetic distribution, we tentatively interpret this mechanism as having arisen once in
412 all these related lineages.

413 **Dysderoidea**

414 **Segestriidae**

415 Several genera possess a carapace–femur stridulatory mechanism (Table 2), which is absent in related
416 families (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017) and has likely evolved once.

417 **Scytodoidea**

418 **Ochyroceratidae**

419 A plectrum on the pedicel of *Ochyrocera* is not found in close relatives (Baptista *et al.*, 2008), and
420 likely represents an autapomorphy.

421 **Lost Tracheae clade**

422 **Pholcidae**

423 The females of certain genera possess a stridulitrum on carapace–plectrum on abdomen mechanism
424 (Huber, 1995) (Table 2) not found in closely related families (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017) and has likely
425 evolved only once.

426 **Archoleptonetidae–Gradungulidae clade**

427 **Archoleptonetidae**

428 The genus *Darkoneta* possesses a plectrum on carapace–stridulitrum on dorsal surface of abdomen
429 mechanism (Ledford *et al.*, 2011) (Table 2), which cannot be found in close relatives (Wheeler *et al.*,
430 2017) (Table 2) and is interpreted here as having evolved only once.

431 **Palpimanoidea**

432 **Archaeidae**

433 Most species in this family possess a unique stridulitrum on petiole–pectrum on abdomen mechanism
434 (Griswold *et al.*, 2005; Wood & Scharff, 2018) which is absent in all related families of Palpimanoidea
435 (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017) (Table 2), and has likely evolved only once.

436 **Synspermiata incertae sedis**

437 The genus *Kinku* in the family Telemidae possesses a stridulitrum on anteroventral surface of abdomen–
438 plectrum on coxa 4 mechanism (Dupérré & Tapia, 2015) (Table 2). Although the systematic position
439 of this family is uncertain, the uniqueness of this mechanism, found in no other member of the
440 Synspermiata (Table 2), suggests it evolved only once.

441 **Araneoidea**

442 Within Araneoidea, stridulatory mechanisms have been found at least in the following families:
443 Araneidae, Anapidae, Cyatholipidae, Linyphiidae, Malkaridae, Mimetidae, Mysmenidae,
444 Physoglenidae, Pimoidae, Theridiidae and Tetragnathidae (Table 2).

445 A carapace stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum is known from the Cyatholipidae, most genera of
446 Physoglenidae, and most Theridiidae (Table 2). As Cyatholipidae and Physoglenidae are sister groups
447 (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017), we interpret that this mechanism arose at least once in the common ancestor of
448 the two families. Theridiidae are very distantly related to the latter families (separated by five non-
449 stridulating nodes; Wheeler *et al.*, 2017), and the carapace–abdomen mechanism likely arose
450 independently in this family.

451 In Araneoidea, there are several groups that possess a cheliceral stridulitrum (Table 2). However, given
452 that each group uses a different plectrum (on pedipalpal trochanter or pedipalp femur), we interpret
453 them as independent developments. An exception might be the cheliceral stridulitrum found in most
454 Linyphiidae and some Pimoidae (Table 2), which we treat as having evolved only once, as these are
455 recovered as sister groups (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017).

456 A book lung stridulitrum–coxa of fourth leg plectrum exists in *Micrathena* (Araneidae; Hinton &
457 Wilson, 1970), Nanometinae (Tetragnathidae; Álvarez-Padilla & Hormiga, 2011) and some
458 Linyphiidae (Jocqué, 2005; Miller, 2007) (Table 2). Since these families are only distantly related, and
459 are separated by many nodes that lack this trait (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017), this mechanism likely arose three
460 times.

461 The remaining mechanisms that can be found in the Araneoidea are morphologically unique, involving
462 different body parts and segments, and are therefore interpreted as having evolved independently (Table
463 2).

464 **Former Deinopoidea**

465 **Uloboridae**

466 A few related genera possess a pedipalpal endite stridulitrum–palpal tarsus plectrum mechanism (Opell,
467 1979) found nowhere else in the Arachnida (Table 2), that is interpreted as having evolved once.

468 **Titanoecoidea**

469 This clade consists of Phyxelididae and Titanoecidae, which may or may not be sister groups (Wheeler
470 *et al.*, 2017). Although both families are characterised by stridulatory mechanisms involving the
471 chelicera, the morphology of the structures are different (Table 2), suggesting they evolved
472 independently: in Phyxelididae, the chelicera bears stridulitral scales which are plucked by plectral setae
473 on the pedipalp femur (Griswold *et al.*, 2012), whereas in Titanoecidae, stiff stridulatory setae are
474 present on the chelicera, which are plucked by stridulatory granules on the pedipalp femur (Almeida-
475 Silva *et al.*, 2009, 2010).

476 **Marronoid clade – Zodarioidea**

477 A carapace stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum mechanism can be found in some Zodariidae (Jocqué,
478 2005) and certain Hahniidae (Bosmans, 1982; Galán-Sánchez & Alvarez-Padilla, 2017; Uetz &
479 Stratton, 1982) (Table 2). Given that these two families are distantly related, separated by many nodes
480 lacking this trait, and the fact that Hahniidae is deeply nested within the marronoid clade (Wheeler *et*
481 *al.*, 2017), the two mechanisms are almost certainly independent developments.

482 The remaining stridulatory mechanisms that can be found in the marronoid clade and the Zodarioidea
483 are highly divergent morphologically and involve different body parts and segments, and are treated as
484 having evolved independently (Table 2). Remarkably, a species of *Mallinella* (Zodariidae) possesses
485 six distinct stridulatory mechanisms, which is the highest recorded number in the animal kingdom
486 (Jocqué, 2005).

487 **Oval Calamistrum clade**

488 **Lycosidae**

489 Two very distinct stridulatory mechanisms predominate in this family (Table 2), which we have not
490 found in any of the related families within the Oval Calamistrum clade (Wheeler *et al.*, 2017), and they
491 therefore likely represent two independent evolutionary events.

492 **Dionycha part B**

493 Species of the genus *Castianeira* (Corinnidae) possess a carapace stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum
494 (Montgomery, 1909). Uetz & Stratton (1982) refer to these species as part of the Gnaphosidae, as the
495 original work of Montgomery (1909) referred to them as “drassids”, now a synonym of the latter family.
496 They also mention that the same mechanism is found in the Clubionidae, citing the same work of
497 Montgomery. However, Montgomery (1909) makes no mention of such a mechanism in any species
498 that is now part of the Clubionidae. We therefore suggest that reports by Uetz & Stratton (1982) of a
499 carapace stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum (“type a”) in the Clubionidae and Gnaphosidae should be
500 treated as invalid. We have not found any other reports of stridulatory mechanisms in these two families.

501 Although a carapace stridulitrum–abdominal plectrum is also known from Salticidae, given that that in
502 both families these mechanisms are present in just a few species, and the two genera that possess them
503 (*Habronattus*, Salticidae; *Castianeira*, Corinnidae) are separated by multiple nodes lacking this
504 mechanism, we treat them as independent developments. The remaining stridulatory organs in the
505 Salticidae are strongly divergent from any other member of the Dionycha part B clade (Table 2), and
506 are treated here as having evolved independently.

507 **(iii) Opiliones**

508 **Dyspnoi**

509 At least four distinct mechanisms can be found in the families Ischyropsalididae and Nemastomatidae
510 (Table 2). Since they involve different body parts, appendages, and segments, we treat them as
511 independent developments.

512 A stridulitrum on pedipalpal femur–plectrum on cheliceral segment 1 mechanism in *Ceratolasma*
513 (Ischyropsalididae; Gruber, 1978) and certain Cosmetidae (Townsend *et al.*, 2019) and Epedanidae
514 (Šilhavý, 1978) are treated as independent developments, as the latter families are deeply nested within
515 Laniatores (Fernández *et al.*, 2017), and are thus very distantly related.

516 **Laniatores**

517 The abovementioned pedipalpal femur–plectrum on cheliceral segment 1 mechanism is shared between
518 the families Cosmetidae and Epedanidae, which are distantly related and separated by multiple nodes
519 of species lacking this trait (Fernández *et al.*, 2017), and is therefore interpreted as independently
520 evolved.

521 A chelicera–chelicera mechanism is known from certain Guasiniidae (Pinto-da-Rocha & Kury, 2003),
522 Stygnopsidae (*Panzosus*) (Gruber, 1976; Martens, 1978), Travuniidae (Martens, 1978) and
523 Triaenonychidae (Lawrence, 1937) (Table 2). Although the last two families are closely related, since
524 the stridulatory mechanism is on a different cheliceral segment, we treat it as having evolved twice.
525 Although no recent phylogeny of Guasiniidae is available, they are reportedly close to Zalmoxidae
526 (Pinto-da-Rocha & Kury, 2003), which is distantly related to Stygnopsidae, Travuniidae and
527 Triaenonychidae (Fernández *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, all these chelicera–chelicera mechanisms likely
528 represent independent developments.

529 Certain members of the families Phalangodidae and Zalmoxidae possess a stridulitrum on ocularium–
530 plectrum on tibia of leg 3 mechanism (Šilhavý, 1978) (Table 2), which due to their very distant
531 relationship (more than eight consecutive nodes/outgroups lacking this trait; Fernández *et al.*, 2017), is
532 interpreted as having evolved twice.

533 **(iv) Scorpiones**

534 **Bothriuridae**

535 Two genera of bothriurids possess a tergum–tergum mechanism (Ochoa & Ojanguren Affilastro, 2007;
536 Acosta & Maury, 1990) that has so far not been found in any other family of scorpions (Table 2), and
537 thus is interpreted as having evolved once.

538 **Buthidae**

539 This family possesses at least two highly distinct types of stridulatory mechanisms (Alexander, 1957a;
540 Esposito *et al.*, 2018; Lourenço & Cloudsley-Thompson, 1995) (Table 2), which have not been found
541 in any other scorpion lineage and have therefore evolved twice.

542 **Diplocentridae and Scorpionidae**

543 Within Scorpionidae, the genus *Opisthophthalmus* possesses two distinct stridulatory mechanisms
544 (Alexander, 1957a) that are found nowhere else among the Scorpiones (Table 2) and are therefore
545 treated as distinct.

546 A group of related genera in the family Scorpionidae (*Heterometrus*, *Pandinus*, *Scorpio*) (Alexander,
547 1957a, 1958; Acosta & Maury, 1990) and Diplocentridae (*Oiclus*) (Acosta & Maury, 1990) possess
548 very similar stridulatory mechanisms on the coxa of the leg 1–coxa of the pedipalp (Table 2). The
549 stridulatory structures on these body parts may differ (e.g. stiff setae *versus* denticles), although the
550 segments involved are the same. However, the locations of the stridulatory structures on these segments
551 are not the same, and the behavioural contexts in which they evolved are also thought to differ, leading
552 previous authors to suggest that they evolved independently (Alexander, 1958).

553 Based on the above, we find that the number of times these organs have evolved is equivocal (Table 2).

554 **(v) Solifugae**

555 The chelicera–chelicera mechanism is nearly ubiquitous in the Solifugae, but is not found in related
556 orders, and is therefore interpreted as having evolved once (Hrušková-Martišová *et al.*, 2008; Stidham,
557 2020).

558 **(b) Myriapoda**

559 **(i) Chilopoda**

560 The bending of the ultimate legs of some Scolopendridae (*Alipes*, *Rhysida*) (Kronmüller & Lewis,
561 2015) and Scutigerae (Dumortier, 1963) can generate stridulatory sound (Table 2). Given that the
562 Scolopendromorpha and Scutigerae are not closely related (Miyazawa *et al.*, 2014), this
563 mechanism is interpreted as having evolved twice.

564 **(ii) Diplopoda**

565 Most Arthropoda stridulate using a mechanism that is unique across Myriapoda (Wesener *et al.*,
566 2011; Moritz & Wesener, 2017) (Table 2) and has therefore evolved once.

567 **(c) Pancrustacea**

568 **(i) Eumalacostraca**

569 **Peracarida (Amphipoda and Isopoda)**

570 Stridulatory mechanisms are rare in the Peracarida, with only seven different types occurring in seven
571 lineages (Table 2). Within Amphipoda, the families Aoridae, Melitidae, Photidae, and Talitridae with
572 stridulatory mechanisms are very distantly related (Lowry & Myers, 2017) and possess completely
573 different mechanisms (Table 2), and their convergence is readily established. Ischyroceridae and
574 Photidae are more closely related (separated by three nodes lacking this trait) (Myers & Lowry, 2003),
575 but their stridulatory mechanisms are clearly distinct, with the stridulitrum located on the coxal plate
576 (Hiroyuki, 2009) and the coxa (Jung *et al.*, 2017) of gnathopod 2 respectively (Table 2), and are
577 therefore non-homologous.

578 In Isopoda, the two stridulating families use distinct mechanisms (Table 2), clearly demonstrating that
579 they represent independent developments.

580 **Decapoda**

581 **Achelata, Astacidea, Dendrobranchiata and Gebiidea**

582 Each of these groups contain lineages that are characterised by five entirely distinct types of stridulatory
583 mechanisms (Table 2), which following our criteria of non-homology, have all evolved independently.

584 **Anomura**

585 At least three distinct types of stridulatory mechanisms exist in three families of the Anomura
586 (Coenobitidae, Diogenidae, Pylochelidae) (Table 2), which involve different segments of the cheliped
587 and the pereopod. Following our criterion of non-homology, all three of them likely evolved
588 independently.

589 **Brachyura**

590 The stridulatory mechanisms in each of the following taxa belong to entirely different types that have
591 no parallels elsewhere within Brachyura, and are readily recognised as independent developments:
592 *Mursia* (Calappidae), Eriphiidae, certain *Ovalipes* (Portunidae), Potamonautidae, Pseudothelphusidae,
593 *Dotilla* (Dotillidae), Ocypodidae (Table 2).

594 A stridulatory mechanism involving the cheliped striking against an infraorbital protuberance can be
595 found in the Heterotremata [*Psopheticus* (Goneplacidae), Menippidae] and Thoracotremata [Varunidae,
596 Macrophthalmidae, *Ilyoplax* (Dotillidae)] (Table 2). The cheliped–infraorbital protuberance
597 mechanism is similar between the Menippidae and Goneplacidae (Guinot-Dumortier & Dumortier,
598 1960) (Table 2), but given that they are very distantly related, separated by tens of nodes lacking this
599 trait (Tsang *et al.*, 2014), we interpret that this mechanism evolved twice independently in the

600 Heterotremata. Within Thoracotremata, given that Macrophthalmidae and Varunidae possess an
601 identical mechanism, and they are also sister groups (Tsang *et al.*, 2014), we tentatively suggest that
602 the cheliped–infraorbital protruberance mechanism evolved at least once. In *Ilyoplax* (Dotillidae), the
603 stridulitrum is on a different cheliped segment, the carpus (Guinot-Dumortier & Dumortier, 1960)
604 (Table 2), and it is therefore non-homologous with the corresponding mechanism of other
605 thoracotrematans.

606 Another stridulatory mechanism that is common in the Brachyura involves the cheliped striking against
607 the pterygostomial region, and this is found in the Heterotremata [Calappidae (part), Goneplacidae
608 (part), Euryplacidae, Portunidae (part), Pseudoziidae] and Thoracotremata (Gecarcinidae) (Table 2).
609 The cheliped–pterygostomial mechanism involves different segments of the cheliped and is therefore
610 not homologous between the Calappidae (plectrum on cheliped manus) (Schmitz, 2002), part of the
611 Goneplacidae (plectrum on cheliped dactyl) (Guinot-Dumortier & Dumortier, 1960), the Pseudoziidae
612 (plectrum on cheliped carpus) (Guinot-Dumortier & Dumortier, 1960), and the Gecarcinidae (plectrum
613 on cheliped propodus) (Lawrence *et al.*, 1973) (Table 2). Based on the above, we suggest that this
614 mechanism has evolved independently in each of these families. The plectrum of the cheliped–
615 pterygostomial mechanism is located on the same segment (cheliped merus) only in the Euryplacidae,
616 part of the Portunidae (certain *Ovalipes*), and part of the Goneplacidae (*Ommatocarcinus*) (Guinot-
617 Dumortier & Dumortier, 1960) (Table 2). However, given that these three families are very distantly
618 related, separated by tens of non-stridulating nodes (Tsang *et al.*, 2014), we interpret that this
619 stridulatory mechanism evolved three times independently.

620 (ii) Hexapoda – Insecta

621 Palaeoptera

622 The only stridulatory mechanism we are aware of in the Palaeoptera is recorded from the larva of
623 *Epiophlebia* (Odonata: Epiophlebiidae) (Aiken, 1985; Carle, 2012), and has no homologue with any
624 other mechanism among the insects we have examined in this study.

625 Neoptera

626 Dictyoptera

627 Blattaria

628 All stridulatory mechanisms found among cockroaches belong to distinct types, and consequently, they
629 are interpreted as being non-homologous. The sole exception is the wing–pronotal mechanism that can
630 be found in the Oxyhaloinae and Panchlorinae (Table 2): the mechanism is identical, and both
631 subfamilies are separated from each other by three non-stridulating nodes (Evangelista *et al.*, 2021).
632 We therefore tentatively treat the evolution of this mechanism as equivocal: there is an equal chance
633 that it may or may not have evolved independently.

634 The mechanisms responsible for the production of stridulatory signals in *Aptera fusca* (Blaberidae:
635 Epilamprinae) and *Archiblatta* (Blattidae) are unknown (Roth & Hartman, 1967). The proposed
636 mechanisms make sense morphologically (Table 2), but we treat them as ambiguous in the absence of
637 experimental confirmation and detailed ultrastructural data.

638 Mantodea

639 A tegminal–metafemur stridulatory mechanism can be found in the Empusidae and certain Mantidae
640 (*Hierodula*, *Sphodropoda*) (Ramsay, 1990; Wood-Mason, 1878). A tegminal–abdomen mechanism is
641 also known in several Mantidae (Hill, 2007; Ramsay, 1990), while a hindwing–abdomen mechanism
642 has been found in the Hymenopodidae (*Pseudocreobotra*).

643 The evolutionary origins of both of these mechanisms are uncertain, as the phylogenetic relationships
644 between these families are ambiguous. A systematic study included the tegminal plectrum (without its
645 corresponding abdominal/femoral component) in a phylogenetic analysis, and it was recovered as
646 having evolved once (Wieland, 2013). However, Wieland (2013) noted that the results should be
647 interpreted with caution, as these two stridulatory mechanisms have a very uneven phylogenetic
648 distribution, being both present and absent in different species of the same genus (implying either
649 multiple losses or multiple gains). We cautiously interpret the tegminal–metafemur and the tegminal–
650 abdomen stridulatory mechanisms to have evolved once each.

651 A mechanism involving a stridulitrum on the lateral margin of pronotum–plectrum on the fore femur
652 can be found in *Choeradodis* (Mantidae) (Ramsay, 1990; Wieland, 2013) and has no counterpart in the
653 Mantodea nor the Dictyoptera as a whole (Table 2), and is therefore interpreted as having evolved once.
654 A wing stridulatory mechanism in *Hestiasula* (Hymenopodidae) is treated as ambiguous, as its
655 opposable counterpart has remained unknown.

656 **Hemiptera (non-Heteroptera)**

657 Outside Heteroptera, stridulatory mechanisms are rare in the Hemiptera. In the Psylloidea, acoustic
658 signals are thought to be generated by an axillary plectrum striking against a stridulitrum on the
659 mesothorax (Liao *et al.*, 2019, 2022). However, as the precise mechanism remains to be identified (Liao
660 *et al.*, 2019), and acoustic signalling appears to be nearly ubiquitous in Psylloidea, we conservatively
661 treat their likely stridulatory mechanism as having evolved once (Table 2).

662 The cicadas have evolved several stridulatory mechanisms. The genital stridulatory mechanism in
663 *Carineta*, the pronotal collar stridulitrum–axillary plectrum of *Cyclochila*, the fore wing–hind wing
664 mechanism of *Maroboduus*, and the wing–scutellar mechanism of *Moana*, all are distinct species- or
665 genus-specific mechanisms (Table 2), and are interpreted as having evolved once each. The fore wing–
666 mesonotal mechanism is present in Tibicininae and certain tribes of Cicadinae (e.g. Zammarini), which
667 are separated by multiple nodes of non-stridulating taxa (Marshall *et al.*, 2018; Moulds, 2005),
668 suggesting that they have evolved at least twice independently (Table 2; M.S. Moulds, personal
669 communication).

670 A supposed stridulatory structure on the hind wings of planthoppers in the family Derbidae has been
671 recently reinterpreted as a chemosecretory or wax-producing organ (Davranoglou *et al.*, 2019b).

672 **Orthoptera**

673 **Caelifera:**

674 **Acridoidea**

675 A tegmen–wing mechanism is present in the Romaleidae, Pamphagodidae and Pamphagidae (Table 2).
676 We interpret that this mechanism arose twice independently: once in the common ancestor of
677 Pamphagidae–Pamphagodidae, as they are sister groups (Song *et al.*, 2020), and once in the
678 Romaleidae, which are very distantly related to the latter two families (Song *et al.*, 2020).

679 The tegmen–metafemur mechanism that defines many Acridoidea, was recovered as having evolved
680 twice in a phylogenomic study (Song *et al.*, 2020): once in the Acrididae, and once in the
681 Ommexechidae. This result should be treated as tentative, as there are at least two distinct
682 morphological types of this mechanism in the Acrididae (Table 2). Similarly, the Krauss organ that can
683 be found in the majority of Pamphagidae (Table 2), was recovered as having evolved once by the same
684 study (Song *et al.*, 2020).

685 The following mechanisms are very characteristic of certain lineages and fall into distinct types, and
686 are therefore interpreted as having evolved once each (Table 2): (1) tegmen–mesotibia [Euryparaphini

687 (Pamphagidae)]; (2) abdomen–metatibia [once in Egnatiinae (Acrididae)]; (3) abdomen–metafemur
688 [once in Gomphocerinae (Acrididae)]; (4) hind wing–mesotibia [once in Akicerinae (Pamphagidae)];
689 (5) metanotum–basalar sclerite (certain Pamphagidae)

690 A tegmen–metatibia mechanism is found in certain Acrididae and in Porthetinae (Pamphagidae) (Table
691 2). As the two families are separated by a large number of nodes of non-stridulating lineages (Song *et*
692 *al.*, 2020), we interpret that this mechanism evolved once independently in each of the two families.

693 **Pneumoroidea–Tanaoceroidea–Trigonopterygoidea**

694 These three superfamilies are defined by a stridulitrum on third tergum–plectrum on metafemur
695 mechanism (Table 2), which a phylogenomic study (Song *et al.*, 2020) recovered as having evolved
696 once in their common ancestor.

697 **Tridactyloidea**

698 A tegmino–abdominal and mandibulo–maxillary mechanism in the Tridactylidae and Cylindrachetidae
699 respectively (Table 2), were each recovered as having evolved once independently by a phylogenomic
700 study (Song *et al.*, 2020). Note that the mechanism of the Tridactylidae was erroneously mentioned as
701 tegmino–alary in the latter study (Song *et al.*, 2020).

702 **Ensifera**

703 A phylogenomic study recovered the abdomen–femur mechanism to have evolved once in the common
704 ancestor of Stenopelmatoidea (Anostomatidae, Gryllacrididae, Stenopelmatidae) and
705 Schizodactyloidea (Schizodactylidae) (Song *et al.*, 2020). We also found an abdomen–femur
706 mechanism in Conocephalinae (Tettigoniidae) (Table 2) not mentioned in the aforementioned study.
707 Due to the great evolutionary distance between Conocephalinae and the Stenopelmatoidea–
708 Schizodactyloidea clade (Song *et al.*, 2020), we interpret the abdomen–femur mechanism as having
709 evolved once independently in each of these two lineages.

710 The tegmino–tegminial mechanism is a defining feature of the Ensifera as a whole. There is conflicting
711 evidence as to the number of times this mechanism evolved. A phylogenomic study suggests it arose
712 once (Song *et al.*, 2020), while a detailed morphological study suggested it evolved four times
713 (Desutter-Grandcolas *et al.*, 2017). Taking both of these studies into consideration, we interpret the
714 tegmino–tegminial mechanism as having evolved between one and four times.

715 The remaining stridulatory mechanisms in the Ensifera belong to highly distinct types (Table 2), and
716 are therefore interpreted here as having evolved independently.

717 **Phasmatodea**

718 There are three highly distinct stridulatory types in the Phasmatodea (Table 2), which we interpret as
719 having evolved three times independently.

720 **(iii) Stomatopoda**

721 An uropod–telson mechanism has been found in the Squillidae and Nannosquillidae (Table 2).
722 However, as these families are distantly related (separated by at least four non-stridulating nodes) (Van
723 Der Wal *et al.*, 2017), we interpret this mechanism as having evolved at least twice in the Stomatopoda.

724 **(iv) Sessilia**

725 A mechanism that has no parallel among Crustacea is known from certain species of *Balanus* (Table
726 2), and we interpret it as having evolved at least once.

727 **Table S1.** Taxonomic diversity of Heteroptera and percentage of stridulating species per infraorder.
 728 Approximate species number of each family is provided in parentheses. Henry (2009) and Schuh &
 729 Weirauch (2020) were the primary references for the estimation of species diversity in all heteropteran
 730 families.

Infraorder	Stridulating taxa	Key reference(s)
<u>Dipsocoromorpha</u>		
All families (337)	0	
Total species number: 337	Total stridulating species: 0 (0%)	
<u>Enicocephalomorpha</u>		
Aenictopecheidae (21)	0	Štys & Baňar (2013)
Enicocephalidae (410)	3	Štys & Baňar (2007)
Total species number: 431	Total stridulating species: 3 (0.69 %)	
<u>Gerromorpha</u>		
Hebridae (221)	0	Kment <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Paraphrynoveliidae (2)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Macroveliidae (3)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Mesoveeliidae (46)	0	
Hydrometridae (126)	0	
Hermatobatidae (9)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Veliidae (>960)	14	Burguez Floriano <i>et al.</i> (2017); Zettel (1996)
Gerridae (>750)	9	Polhemus (1994); Zettel & Thirumalai (2000)
Total species number: 2,117	Total stridulating species: 23 (1.08%)	
<u>Nepomorpha</u>		
Belostomatidae (160)	0	Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)
Nepidae (>270)	4	Polhemus (1994)
Gelastocoridae (111)	87	Cassis & Silveira (2001, 2002); Polhemus & Lindskog (1994)
Ochteridae (70)	0	
Corixidae (>450)	> 100	Chen <i>et al.</i> (2005); Jansson (1972)
Diaprepocoridae (8)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Micronectidae (>200)	200	Tinerella (2013)
Potamocoridae (11)	0	Herrera & Springer (2014)
Naucoridae (391)	73	Nieser <i>et al.</i> (2013); Polhemus (1994)
Aphelocheiridae (104)	0	Millán <i>et al.</i> (2016); Tran & Nguyen (2016)
Notonectidae (400)	> 200	Chen <i>et al.</i> (2005); Padilla-Gil (2003); Polhemus (1994); Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)
Pleidae (38)	1	Polhemus (1994); Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)
Helotrephidae (185)	>10	Polhemus (1994); Zettel (2012); Zettel <i>et al.</i> (2011)
Total species number: 2,398	Total stridulating species: ≥ 675 (28.15%)	
<u>Leptopodomorpha</u>		
Leptopodidae (39)	32	Pericart & Polhemus (1990); Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)

Saldidae (335)	20	Polhemus & Polhemus (2008); Polhemus (1985)
Omaniidae (6)	0	Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)
Aepophilidae (1)	0	Polhemus & Polhemus (2008)

Total species number: 381 **Total stridulating species:
52 (13.64%)**

Cimicomorpha

Pachynomidae (21)	0	Schuh <i>et al.</i> (2015a)
Reduviidae (6,878)	6,864	Cai <i>et al.</i> (1994)
Velocipedidae (25)	0	
Microphysidae (25)	0	
Joppeicidae (1)	0	
Curaliidae (1)	0	
Thaumastocoridae (19)	0	
Miridae (>10,400)	>140	Schuh (1974, 1984); Yasunaga <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Tingidae (2,124)	1	Gogala (1984)
Medocostidae (1)	0	
Nabidae (386)	0	
Lasiochilidae (62)	13	Carpintero (2014)
Plokiophilidae (20)	0	Schuh <i>et al.</i> (2015b)
Lyctocoridae (27)	0	
Anthocoridae (>445)	8	Carpintero & Dellapé (2012)
Cimicidae (110)	0	
Polycytenidae (32)	0	

Total species number: 20,577 **Total stridulating species:
7,026 (34.15%)**

Pentatomomorpha

Aradoidea

Aradidae (>1,930)	>53	Kormilev (1971); Usinger & Matsuda (1959)
Termitaphidiidae (9)	0	

Total species number: 1,939 **Total stridulating species:
53 (2.73 %)**

Pentatomoidea

Acanthosomatidae (184)	0	
Aphylidae (3)	0	
Canopidae (8)	8	Grazia <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Cydnidae (765)	761	Lis & Heyna (2001)
Dinidoridae (82)	0	
Lestoniidae (2)	0	
Megaridiidae (16)	0	
Pentatomidae (4,700)	>66	Leston (1957); Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Phloeidae (3)	0	
Plataspidae (560)	0	
Scutelleridae (450) (Henry, 2009)	>155	Carapezza (2009); Leston (1957); Wu <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Tessaratomidae (240)	180	Grazia <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Thaumastellidae (3)	3	Jacobs (1989)
Urostyliidae (170)	80	Grazia <i>et al.</i> (2008)
Saileriolidae (3)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)

Total species number: 7,189 **Total stridulating species:
1,253 (17.43%)**

Lygaeoidea

Berytidae (175)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Colobathristidae (96)	6	Coscarón & Dellapé (2003); Schuh & Weirauch (2020)
Blissidae (435)	1	Ashlock & Lattin (1963)
Lygaeidae (968)	59	Ashlock & Lattin (1963); Dellapé (2019)
Rhyparochromidae (1,850)	>210	Dellapé (2019)
Artheneidae (20)	0	
Geocoridae (274)	17	Ashlock & Lattin (1963); Dellapé (2019)
Meschiidae (5)	0	Malipatil (2014)
Cryptorhamphidae (4)	0	
Heterogastridae (105)	0	
Ninidae (13)	0	
Oxycarenidae (147)	0	
Pachygrontidae (78)	0	
Cymidae (76)	0	
Malcidae (29)	0	
Piesmatidae (44)	8	Leston (1957); Jorigtoo <i>et al.</i> (1998)

Total species number: 4,319

Total stridulating species:

301

(6.97%)

Idiostoloidea

Idiostolidae (5)	0	
Henicocoridae (5)	0	

Total species number: 10

Total stridulating species:

0 (0%)

Pyrrhocoroidea

Largidae (130)	42	Lattin (1958); Stehlík (2005); Stehlík & Jindra (2006); Stehlík & Brailovsky (2016)
Pyrrhocoridae (340)	5	Stehlík (2005); Stehlík & Jindra (2006)

Total species number: 470

Total stridulating species:

47 (10.00%)

Coreoidea

Alydidae (254)	7	Numata <i>et al.</i> (1989); Moulet (1991); Schaefer <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Coreidae (1,884)	54	CoreoideaSFTeam (2019); Moulet (1991); Schaefer (1962)
Hyocephalidae (3)	0	
Rhopalidae (209)	1	Zych <i>et al.</i> (2012)
Stenocephalidae (30)	0	Schuh & Weirauch (2020)

Total species number: 2,380

Total stridulating species:

62 (2.60%)

Heteroptera total species number: 42,548

Heteroptera total stridulating species number: ≥9,493 (22.31%)

731

732

733 **Table S2.** List of types of stridulatory mechanisms in Heteroptera. ^A denotes structures whose function
734 as stridulatory mechanisms is ambiguous or doubtful. Note that each stridulatory type can be further
735 divided into subtypes, which are included in column 3, and correspond to the codes used in Fig. 4. For
736 example, an abdominal stridulitrum–leg plectrum mechanism can be subdivided into additional types,
737 depending on the abdominal segment used, and whether the plectrum is on the coxa, trochanter, femur,
738 or tibia of the fore, mid or hind legs.

Stridulatory types in Heteroptera	Taxonomic distribution	Subtype codes from Fig. 4
Abdomen–leg	Widespread in Gerromorpha, Nepomorpha, Cimicomorpha, and Pentatomomorpha	Jop; Jopqr; Jqrs; Kno; Knop; Ko; Kop; Kp; Lop; Lnopqr; ?no; ?n; ?o
Abdomen–paramere mechanism	Nepomorpha: Micronectidae	Pu
Proctiger–sternite 9 mechanism	Nepomorpha: Gelastocoridae	Ov
Pygophore–conjunctiva mechanism	Pentatomomorpha: Scutelleridae: Sphaerocorini	QW
Stridulatory tergal plate	Widespread in Leptopodomorpha and Pentatomomorpha	Ml; Mm
Tergite–tergite mechanism ^A	Nepomorpha: Naucoridae: <i>Ilyocoris</i>	Nt
Wing edge–leg mechanism	Widespread in Nepomorpha, Leptopodomorpha, Cimicomorpha, and Pentatomomorpha	IKid; Ji; Ki
Wing edge–abdomen mechanism ^A	Cimicomorpha: Tingidae	Gn
Wing edge–pronotum mechanism	Pentatomomorpha: Coreidae	Gg
Head (infraocular region)–leg mechanism	Pentatomomorpha: Colobathristidae; Geocoridae	Bb
Head (maxillary plate)–leg mechanism	Nepomorpha: Corixidae	Bb
Labium–leg mechanism	Nepomorpha: Notonectidae	Aa
Labium–prosternum mechanism	Cimicomorpha: Reduviidae	Cc
Coxa–prosternum mechanism ^A	Enicocephalomorpha	Ec
Leg–leg mechanism	Nepomorpha: Notonectidae; Cimicomorpha: Anthocoridae ^A , Lasiochilidae ^A ; Pentatomomorpha (Largidae: <i>Physopelta</i> ^A)	Be; De

Mesepisternum– prosternum mechanism ^A	Nepomorpha: Helotrephidae; Pleidae	Fh
Wing base–cephalonotum mechanism ^A	Nepomorpha: Helotrephidae: Limnotrephini	Gh
Metapleuron–leg mechanism	Pentatomomorpha: Aradidae (<i>Aradacanthia</i>)	Kk
Propleuron–leg mechanism	Pentatomomorpha: Rhyparochromidae: Pllinthisinae (<i>Plinthisus</i>); Myodochini (<i>Pseudocnemodus</i>)	Bd
Acetabulum–leg mechanism	Gerromorpha: Gerridae: Trepobatinae; Nepomorpha: Nepidae	Ef; Lj

739

740 **Table S3.** Number of times each type of stridulatory mechanism has evolved independently in
741 Heteroptera. The category ‘Other’ includes all stridulatory mechanisms that do not belong to the first
742 three categories. We based our calculations on the minimum and the maximum estimates of parallel
743 evolution of stridulatory mechanisms. The percentage given in parentheses indicates the fraction of the
744 total events of independent stridulatory organ evolution accounted for by each particular stridulatory
745 type.

Stridulatory mechanism	Times evolved (minimum)	Times evolved (maximum)
STP (stridulatory tergal plate)	12 (14.28%)	12 (12.90%)
Wing edge–leg	22 (26.19%)	24 (25.80%)
Abdomen–leg	35 (41.66%)	35 (37.63%)
Other	15 (17.85%)	22 (23.65%)

746

747 **Table S4.** Habitat occupancy of stridulating Heteroptera. Habitat descriptions only concern adults of
748 the stridulating taxa of Table 1 and do not represent the entire suite of habitat preferences of the relevant
749 families, subfamilies or tribes. Habitat associations are from Schuh & Weirauch (2020) unless stated
750 otherwise.

Stridulating taxon	Habitat type	Key reference(s)
<u>Enicocephalomorpha</u>		
Enicocephalidae	Ground	
<u>Gerromorpha</u>		
All families	Water surface	Polhemus (1990b)
<u>Nepomorpha</u>		
All families other than Gelastocoridae and Ochteridae	Aquatic	
Gelastocoridae	Ground	
<u>Leptopodomorpha</u>		
All families	Ground	Polhemus (1985)
<u>Cimicomorpha</u>		

Anthocoridae	Ground, bark, plants	
Lasiochilidae	Ground, bark, plants	
Miridae		
Cylapinae (<i>Euchilofulvius</i> ; <i>Samoafulvius</i>)	Bark	
Deraecorinae (<i>Obudua</i>)	Plants	Akingbohunge (1979)
Orthotylinae (<i>Renodaeus</i> and allied genera)	Plants	Henry (2015)
Phylinae (Hallodapini; Leucophoropterini)	Plants	Menard & Schuh (2011)
Reduviidae	Bark, ground	Hwang & Weirauch (2012)
Tingidae	Plants	
<u>Pentatomomorpha</u>		
Aradidae	Bark	Usinger & Matsuda (1959)
Alydidae	Plants	
Rhopalidae	Plants	
Coreidae		
Phyllomorhini; Prionotylini	Ground	Moulet (1995)
Acanthocerini; Coreini; Gonocerini	Plants	
Largidae		
Larginae (<i>Arrhapha</i>)	Ground	Stehlík & Brailovsky (2016)
Physopeltinae (<i>Delacampius</i> ; <i>Physopelta</i>)	Plants, ground	Rédei <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Pyrrhocoridae	Ground	
Blissidae	Plants	
Colobathristidae	Plants	
Geocoridae		
Pamphantinae	Plants	Henry (2013)
Lygaeidae		
Orsillinae (Metrargini)	Ground	Malipatil (1979)
Ischnorrhynchinae	Plants	
Piesmatidae	Plants	
Rhyparochromidae	Ground	
Canopidae	Bark	
Cydnidae	Ground	
Pentatomidae		
(Mecideini; Diemeniini)	Plants	L.R. Davranoglou, personal observation
Discocephalinae		
Scutelleridae	Plants	
Tessaratomidae	Plants	
Thaumastellidae	Ground	Jacobs (1989)
Urostylididae	Plants	

751

752

753 **Table S5.** (see separate file: Table S5.xlsx) Behavioural context of stridulation-based vibroacoustic
754 signals in Heteroptera, with percentages of the total incidence of each behaviour in all groups examined.
755 Only structures whose function as stridulatory organs is reasonably certain are included here (i.e.
756 ambiguous groups are excluded).

757

758 **Table S6.** (see separate file: Table S6.xlsx) Behavioural context of stridulation-based vibroacoustic
759 signals in selected arthropod groups (Arachnida, Myriapoda, and selected Pancrustacea), with
760 percentages of the total incidence of each behaviour in all groups examined.

761

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