

The American Naturalist

Social plasticity enhances signal-preference co-divergence

--Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	61361R4
Full Title:	Social plasticity enhances signal-preference co-divergence
Short Title:	Social plasticity enhances co-divergence
Article Type:	Major Article
Additional Information:	
Question	Response
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Dear Dr. Desjonquères:

Dear Prof. Lau,

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Sincerely,

Jennifer Lau

Editor

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REPORT FROM DATA EDITOR

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Sincerely

Bob Montgomerie

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Social plasticity enhances signal-preference co-divergence

Camille Desjonquères^{1,2}, Bretta Speck¹, Sara Seidita¹, Lauren A. Cirino¹, Ignacio Escalante¹, Clinton Sergi¹, Jak Maliszewski¹, Christine Wiese¹, Gerlinde Hoebel¹, Nathan W. Bailey², Rafael L. Rodríguez¹

¹ Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

² School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife KY16 9TH, UK

* Corresponding author: cdesjonqu@gmail.com, Tel.: +1 (414) 229-4214

Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

Keywords: *indirect genetic effects, mating preference, courtship signal, Membracidae, vibrational communication*

Word count: 7,466

Article type: Major article

ORCIDs: Camille Desjonquères: 0000-0002-6150-3264; Bretta Speck: 0000-0002-3939-5332; Lauren A. Cirino: 0000-0002-3399-6946; Ignacio Escalante: 0000-0003-1919-4303; Nathan W. Bailey: 0000-0003-3531-7756; Rafael L. Rodríguez: 0000-0003-0262-0839

The authors wish to be identified to the reviewers.

Abstract

The social environment is often the most dynamic and fitness-relevant environment animals experience. Here we tested whether plasticity arising from variation in social environments can promote signal-preference divergence—a key prediction of recent speciation theory, but one that has proven difficult to test in natural systems. Interactions in mixed social aggregations could reduce, create or enhance signal-preference differences. In the latter case, social plasticity could establish or increase assortative mating. We tested this by rearing two recently diverged species of *Enchenopa* treehoppers—sap-feeding insects that communicate with plant-borne vibrational signals—in treatments consisting of mixed-species versus own-species aggregations. Social experience with heterospecifics (in the mixed-species treatment) resulted in enhanced signal-preference species differences. For one of the two species, we tested but found no evidence for differences in the plastic response between sympatric and allopatric sites suggesting the absence of reinforcement in the signals and preferences and their plastic response. Our results support the hypothesis that social plasticity can create or enhance signal-preference differences, and that this might occur in the absence of long-term selection on plastic responses themselves. Such social plasticity may facilitate rapid bursts of diversification.

Secondary abstract in Spanish:

La plasticidad social aumenta la co-divergencia entre señales y preferencias

El ambiente social es a menudo dinámico e influye la adecuación de los animales que contiene. En agregaciones mixtas, por ejemplo, las interacciones entre individuos podrían influir las diferencias entre señales de cortejo y preferencias de pareja— creándolas, aumentándolas, o reduciéndolas—y afectar los patrones de aislamiento reproductivo entre poblaciones naturales. Aquí pusimos a prueba esta hipótesis. Condujimos un experimento con dos especies recientemente divergidas de membrácidos del complejo *Enchenopa binotata*—insectos que se alimentan de la savia de sus plantas hospederas y que se comunican con señales vibratoriales que se transmiten por los tejidos de las plantas. Creamos tratamientos de agregaciones mixtas o de cada una de las especies, en los cuales los membrácidos se desarrollaron. Encontramos mayores diferencias en señales y preferencias entre las dos especies en el tratamiento mixto. En una de las especies, no hubo diferencia en la respuesta plástica a los tratamientos entre individuos de sitios simpátricos y alopátricos, lo cual sugiere tentativamente que la respuesta plástica que observamos no se debe a selección previa para prevenir la hibridización. (No logramos hacer esta prueba para la otra especie.) Estos resultados apoyan a la hipótesis que dice que la plasticidad debida al ambiente social puede crear o aumentar diferencias en señales y preferencias al ocurrir primeros encuentros entre poblaciones en divergencia o especies recientemente formadas. Tal plasticidad podría resultar en episodios de diversificación rápida.

Secondary abstract in French:

La plasticité sociale augmente la co-divergence des signaux et des préférences

L'environnement social est souvent l'environnement le plus dynamique et le plus pertinent pour la valeur sélective que les animaux éprouvent. Dans cet article, nous avons testé si la plasticité due à la variation de l'environnement social peut promouvoir la divergence des signaux et des préférences—une prédiction clé de la théorie de spéciation récente mais qui s'est révélée difficile à tester en milieux naturel. Les interactions en aggrégation sociales mixtes pourraient réduire, créer ou augmenter les différences de signaux et de préférences. Dans le dernier cas, la plasticité sociale pourrait établir ou augmenter l'accouplement assortatif. Nous avons testé cela en élevant deux espèces récemment divergées de Membracides du genre *Enchenopa*—des insectes se nourrissant de sève qui communique grâce à des signaux vibratoires transmis dans les plantes—dans des traitements expérimentaux consistant d'aggrégations d'un mixe des deux espèces et d'une seule espèce. L'expérience sociale d'hétérospécifiques (dans le traitement mixte) a augmenté les différences de signaux et préférences entre espèces. Pour l'une des espèces, nous avons testé la présence de différences de réponse plastique entre les sites en allopatrie et en sympatrie mais nous n'en avons pas trouvé suggérant l'absence de renforcement des signaux et préférences et leur réponse plastique. Nos résultats soutiennent l'hypothèse d'une plasticité qui peut créer ou augmenter les différences de signaux et préférences et le fait que cela peut se produire en l'absence de sélection à long terme sur les réponses plastiques. Une telle plasticité sociale pourrait faciliter une diversification “en rafales”.

Introduction

Phenotypic plasticity in sexual traits such as advertisement signals and mate preferences may have important consequences for speciation. Speciation involves the establishment of linkage disequilibrium in polygenic suites of ecological and sexual traits (Kirkpatrick and Ravigné 2002; Coyne and Orr 2004; van Doorn et al. 2009; Michel et al. 2010; Nosil 2012; Riesch et al. 2017; Kopp et al. 2018). Factors that increase linkage disequilibrium include geographic structure, habitat or mate preferences, genetic architecture, and "magic traits" that produce both ecological divergence and assortative mating (Kirkpatrick and Ravigné 2002; Servedio et al. 2011; Flaxman et al. 2013, 2014; Nonaka et al. 2015; Kopp et al. 2018; Mendelson and Safran 2021). Social plasticity is an additional factor that may promote signal-preference co-divergence (cf. Bailey & Moore 2012; Rebar & Rodríguez 2015).

Here we focus on plasticity arising from interactions in mixed aggregations of diverging populations or recently diverged species, as in sympatric speciation or in allopatric speciation upon secondary contact with incomplete reproductive isolation. In such cases, plasticity in mate preferences or signals could arise from learning due to prior positive or negative experiences with potential mate types (e.g. Dukas 2004; Dukas et al. 2006; Rather et al. 2022); imprinting (Servedio et al. 2009; Hebets and Sullivan-Beckers 2010; Verzijden et al. 2012); or other effects of the social environment such as habituation or exposure to differing degrees of sexual trait variability (Bailey 2011; Bailey and Moore 2012; Fowler-Finn and Rodríguez 2012*a*, 2012*b*; Rodríguez et al. 2013*c*). The diverging populations might show various forms of plasticity in response to the different social environment caused by that contact (Fig. 1). They might respond in the same way, so that their phenotypes shift in similar directions and magnitudes (Fig. 1b-c). Alternatively, they might respond differently. The populations might become more similar to each other; e.g., if they were to imprint on each other (Fig. 1d). Such effects would be interesting, perhaps promoting the establishment of

novel signals (cf. Broder et al. 2021; Tibbetts and Snell-Rood 2021), but would not enhance assortative mating. Here we note that the converse is also possible, however: the populations could become more different from each other (Fig. 1e), establishing or enhancing assortative mating. To our knowledge, this is a possibility that has not been explored. However, it arises intuitively from consideration of variation in the "sign" of the effects inducing plasticity. Additionally, there could be population and/or sex differences in the magnitude and direction of plasticity (Fig. 1f-g) with one population or sex lacking plasticity altogether but still contribute to assortative mating.

Here we test the hypothesis that plasticity in response to interactions in mixed-species aggregations creates or enhances signal-preference co-divergence (Fig. 1e-g). To do this, we tested for plasticity in signals and preferences generated by interactions between two members of the *Enchenopa binotata* species complex of treehoppers (Hemiptera: Membracidae). Species in this clade of host-specialist sap-feeding insects show remarkable signal-preference coevolution (Rodríguez et al. 2006; Cocroft et al. 2008, 2010; Rodríguez et al. 2013c). As many plant-feeding insects, *Enchenopa* communicate with plant-borne vibrational signals, both as juveniles and as adults (Cocroft and Rodríguez 2005; Cocroft et al. 2008; Hill 2008; Hill and Wessel 2016; Rodríguez et al. 2018; Rodríguez and Desjonquères 2019). These interactions are an important cause of plasticity in adult signals and preferences, with inputs from the social environment and developmental at different life stages having varying effects (Fowler-Finn and Rodríguez 2012a, 2012b; Rebar and Rodríguez 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2015; Fowler-Finn et al. 2017; Desjonquères et al. 2019a, 2019b, 2021; Desjonquères & Rodríguez accepted). The strongest social effects on signals and preferences appear to result from the amount and nature of signalling interactions in the juvenile stage (Desjonquères et al. 2021; Desjonquères & Rodríguez accepted). Our two study species differ in their rate of signalling as juveniles (Rodríguez et al. 2018). Here we examine the overall effect of life-long interactions, by rearing individuals from nymphs to adults in treatments of mixed-species vs. own-species aggregations. We tested the effect of these treatments on the adult

treehoppers' male advertisement signals, female preferred signal values (peak preferences), and on the strength of those preferences (Kilmer et al. 2017).

Our two species likely diverged from each other within the last 130-60 thousand years (Hsu et al. 2018). There is strong support for sympatric speciation across the *E. binotata* complex, driven by colonization of novel host plants and signal-preference coevolution (Wood 1993; Cocroft et al. 2008). For *E. binotata* populations on *Viburnum* host plants, however, there is evidence suggestive of a role for isolation by distance and/or secondary colonization from other hosts (Cocroft et al. 2010; Hsu et al. 2018). Thus, our two study species likely represent a case of recent secondary encounter on *V. lentago* in some of our study sites. Our geographic sampling (see below) also allows testing for reinforcement in signals and preferences and reinforcement in their plastic response to the treatment for the species that occurs both in sympatry and allopatry at our sites, as there has been an opportunity for selection against hybridization between our two study species at the sites where they co-occur.

Material and methods

Field collection

Most of the species in the *E. binotata* complex survive poorly on hosts used by other members of the complex (Wood and Guttman 1983; Cocroft et al. 2008). Reproductive isolation between species in the complex arises from multiple causes—phenological differences between host plants; physiological host specialization; behavioural host preferences; and behavioural mate preferences for species-specific advertisement signals (Wood 1993; Cocroft et al. 2008). Nevertheless, there are some sites throughout the range of the complex across North America where different *E. binotata*

species live on the same host (Cocroft et al. 2010; R. B. Cocroft, pers. comm.). We took advantage of one such case in Wisconsin (USA), where two members of the complex occur on *Viburnum lentago* (Adoxaceae) plants at some sites (Rodríguez et al. 2018). Only one of our study species occurs at most sites in our study area, with the exception of two sites where both species co-occur reliably in distributions that have remained stable since we first observed them in 2012 (micro areas of the order of a few square meters within each site where either species occurs alone and micro areas where both occur side by side, sometimes on the same plant; D. Rebar & R. L. Rodríguez, unpubl.). Despite extensive searching, we have never found allopatric sites with the other species so all observations of it are from the two sympatric sites (see below).

Most members of the *E. binotata* complex have not been formally described (Hamilton and Cocroft 2009). However, they can be readily distinguished by their host plant species, nymph coloration, and adult signal frequencies (Pratt and Wood 1992; Cocroft et al. 2008). For shorthand, here we refer to our study species as *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* because of their distinctive male signal frequencies (ca. 165 and 275 Hz respectively) and corresponding female mate preferences (peak preferences at ca. 185 and 295 Hz respectively) (Rodríguez et al. 2013b; Rebar and Rodríguez 2015; Rodríguez et al. 2018).

We conducted the experiment over the summers of 2018-2020. Each June, we collected 3rd instar nymphs (the earliest stage at which the species can be distinguished by their different nymph coloration; Fig. 2; Rodríguez et al. 2018b) from five populations (Fig. S1). These sites include three allopatric sites with only *sp_{low}* (BOG, OLT and PNV) and two sympatric sites with both *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* (FST and FGC). We collected more than 3200 individuals during those three years (Table S1) that were subsequently installed on rearing plants at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee greenhouse (total of 80 plants over the three years).

Rearing aggregation treatments

We created treatments consisting of own- or mixed-species aggregations (Fig. 2-3). We randomly assigned individuals from each of the above sites to one or the other treatment. To assemble an aggregation, we placed 40 nymphs on a 40-60 cm-tall potted *V. lentago* host plant. In the own-species treatment, each rearing plant/aggregation either contained 40 *sp_{low}* or 40 *sp_{high}* nymphs from a single site. In the mixed-species treatment each rearing plant/aggregation had 20 *sp_{low}* and 20 *sp_{high}* nymphs (Fig. 3). Within species, all individuals were from the same site but the two sets of 20 individuals in the mixed-species treatment could be from either the same or different sites.

Although species in the *E. binotata* complex can be distinguished as nymphs by their distinctive coloration patterns (*sp_{low}* nymphs are grey, whilst *sp_{high}* are dark brown with white stripes; Fig. 2; Rodríguez et al. 2018), the adults are very similar morphologically (Pratt and Wood 1992; Cocroft et al. 2008). In order to distinguish the adults in our experiment, we marked them once they moulted with white or red non-toxic acrylic paint (Apple Barrel matte acrylic paint 21469E Flag Red and 20503E White; Plaid Norcross, GA, USA). This required a brief separation of late instar nymphs in the mixed-species groups (Fig. 3). When the very first adults moulted in the mixed-species groups, we separated the remaining nymphs from each replicate onto two separate plants—one for each species (we excluded those first few adults which moulted from the experiment, as we had no way of knowing their species identity). Then, as new adults moulted, we marked them and re-assembled the experimental aggregations. We applied exactly the same manipulation to own-species aggregations (separation and marking) to avoid confounding effects. Thus, individuals spent 7.1 ± 3.8 days (mean $\pm$ SD) out of their treatments. At that time in the life of these insects, there is little signalling by nymphs (Desjonquères et al. 2019a) and adult signalling has not yet begun (see below), so this represented little interruption in the experimental manipulation. In the re-assembled aggregations of adults, we also separated the sexes onto different plants to prevent females from mating and becoming unresponsive to playbacks (see below). We

randomly switched the colour for species across plant replicates to avoid confounding effects of colour. For own-species replicates, we randomly assigned a colour to each plant aggregation, such that about half were white and half were red.

Adult signals recording and analysis

We recorded adult male and female vibrational signals with laser vibrometry. We focused a portable laser Doppler vibrometer (Polytec PDV-100; Polytec Inc. Auburn, MA, USA) on a piece of adhesive reflective tape on the stem of the recording plant (a potted *V. lentago* plant). The signal was band pass filtered between 40 and 3000 Hz with an electronic variable filter (model 3202; Krohn-Hite, Brockton, MA, USA) and transferred to an iMac computer (MacBook Pro; Apple, Cupertino, CA, USA) with a USB audio interface (Edirol USB Audio Capture UA-25; Roland, Hamamatsu, Japan). We recorded the output on the iMac with the program AUDACITY (v. 2.1.2; <http://audacity.sourceforge.net/>) at a sampling rate of 44.1 Hz. We used two digital thermometers (Fisher scientific, Pittsburgh, PA, USA; and Extech Instruments SDL500, Nashua, NH, USA) to monitor room temperature during signal and preference recordings.

Sexually active *Enchenopa* males signal spontaneously when placed on a stem of their host plant (starting approximately two weeks after the adult moult). We placed each male on the recording plant and if the male did not signal after one minute, we primed the male with a playback of a recorded male followed by a female response (see below for vibrational playback method). To avoid making assumptions about the signal phenotypes resulting from the experiment, we primed all males with both *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* playbacks, emitting one primer of each species separated by 30 seconds of silent interval for a total of two primers in random order. If a male did not signal within 10 minutes, we placed him back on his replicate plant and tried again every 2-4 days or until he died. Males that signalled did so within 2.8 ± 1.6 tries (mean $\pm$ SD). From the resulting 150 male

recordings (Table S1), we measured the dominant frequency of male signals using AUDACITY and core functions in R (V3.0.6; R Core Team 2015).

Female mate preference description

Sexually receptive *Enchenopa* females (starting approximately four weeks after the adult moult) duet with the signals of males that they find attractive, providing a realistic, natural, and convenient means for assessing their mate preferences for male signal traits (Rodríguez et al. 2004, 2006, 2012; Cocroft et al. 2008). To describe female preferences for signal frequency, we presented vibrational playback stimuli through a piezoelectric stack coupled to the stem of the plant with soft wax, driven by a piezoelectric controller (Thorlabs, Newton, NJ, U.S.A.). We recorded female signals and playbacks with the laser vibrometer as described above. The amplitude of playback stimuli was calibrated to 0.15 mm/s using an oscilloscope. We placed each female on a potted plant, allowing her to settle for 30 seconds, we then tested whether the female was receptive with a maximum of 6 primer playbacks of recorded male signals from both species. The *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* primer playbacks were emitted in alternation and separated by 15 seconds of silent intervals. If a female did not respond to any of the 6 primers, we returned her to her replicate plant and tried again every 2-4 days or until she died. If the female responded to a *sp_{low}* (or *sp_{high}*) primer, we gave her a full preference sequence. The 374 females (Table S1) that responded did so within 1.9 ± 1.4 tries (mean $\pm$ SD).

To obtain female preference functions, we used vibrational playback sequences composed of synthetic stimuli varying in frequency, with all other features set to the population mean of each species (e.g., *sp_{low}* males produce signals with 4 pulses/signal, so each of our stimuli had 4 pulses per signal, and so on; see Table S2 for details about the stimuli features). We exposed each female to a randomized sequence of 18 playback stimuli. To capture the full shape of the preference functions, the range of stimuli frequencies varied from 100 to 440 Hz in 20 Hz increments,

exceeding the range of signal frequency values in the two species (Kilmer et al. 2017). Each playback stimulus was a bout with four signals with that frequency, each separated from the next by 1.9 or 2.5 sec (for *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* respectively, based on average population values) of silence. Each playback bout was separated from the next by 15 sec. of silence. We assayed female preference with the number of responses (between 0 if she did not respond to any signal and 4 if she responded to all the signals in the synthetic bout) that each female produced in response to each of the 18 stimuli. A score of 4 responses for a stimulus thus indicates maximum attractiveness, and a score of 0 the lowest attractiveness.

We fitted cubic spline regressions to the response data for each female and generated individual preference function curves using the program *PFunc* (v. 1.0.0; <https://github.com/Joccalor/PFunc> and <https://hub.docker.com/r/joccalor/pfunc/>; Kilmer et al. 2017). This approach allows any shape for the preference functions with a certain level of smoothness that is determined empirically (Schluter 1988; Kilmer et al. 2017). *PFunc* fits curves using the gam function in the *mgcv* R package (Wood and Wood 2015). We used the default smoothing parameter values calculated by *PFunc* for all our curves, setting the range of smoothing values between 0.005 and 0.5. This means that females could vary in smoothing values set for their curve (see Table S3 for all smoothing values). Additionally, we checked all curves and slightly changed the smoothing value for females with curves that strongly deviated from the raw data (Fig. S2). Smoothing values did not differ significantly between species and treatment (linear model with smoothing as a response variable and species, treatment, and their interaction as test variables; $p\text{-value} > 0.45$ for the three terms). We then analysed variation in the individual preference functions using the preference peak and preference strength metrics implemented in *PFunc* (Kilmer et al. 2017). Preference peak is preferred display trait value, measured as the signal frequency with the highest response likelihood on the preference function. Preference strength is the degree to which attractiveness falls away from peak preference, calculated as $[SD(\text{response values})/\text{mean}(\text{response$

values)]² where SD=standard deviation. These two traits are highly repeatable (peak preference: $r = 0.40$; preference strength: $r = 0.76$; Cirino et al. in review).

Statistical analysis

We conducted all analyses using the *lmer* function of the R-package *lme4* (v. 1.1-25; Bates et al. 2014). We built linear mixed models (described below) in which the error structure was Gaussian. We checked the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity of residuals by visually examining a quantile-quantile plot and the residuals against the fitted values, both indicating no deviation from these assumptions. We assessed model stability by excluding data points one at a time from the data, fitting the model and collecting the parameter estimations. If the range of parameter estimations over all these iterations included 0, the model and variable estimation was considered unstable. To test for collinearity between fixed effects, we derived variance inflation factors (Field 2009) using the function *vif* of the R-package *car* (version 2.1-4; Fox & Weisberg 2011) and they revealed the absence of collinearity between fixed effects (maximum value of 1.5; collinearity issues usually indicated by values higher than 4).

Testing for plasticity due to rearing in own-species vs. mixed-species aggregations

To test for an effect of the rearing treatments on male signal frequency and female peak preference, we built a linear mixed model in which we used a "reaction norm" approach with one dependent variable that represented both male signal frequency and female peak preference (cf. Fowler-Finn et al. 2015; Rebar and Rodríguez 2015). This approach allowed us to analyse the relationship between the effects of the treatments on both preferences and signals with a single model. The model had the following explanatory variables: treatment ("mixed" or "own"), species (sp_{low} or sp_{high}), sex (male

or female), year (categorical variable with three levels: 2018, 2019 or 2020), and recording temperature. Recording temperature and year were included as control variables. Typically, year would be included as a random factor, but because it had less than five categorical levels, we included it as a fixed effect (Arnqvist 2020). The model also included all two- and three-way interactions between treatment, species, and sex. These interactions terms test for test for species and sex differences in the plastic response to the rearing treatments. For instance, the best-case scenario for plasticity arising from interactions in mixed species aggregations to contribute to assortative mating would require that the signals and preferences of each species become more distinct in the mixed treatment (Fig. 1e). This would be indicated by a significant species $\times$ treatment interaction (with visual inspection to distinguish between the scenarios in Fig. 1d vs. e). Other scenarios would be indicated as follows: no significant effects (Fig. 1a); only treatment significant (Fig. 1b,c); significant sex $\times$ treatment interaction and species $\times$ treatment and/or 3-way interaction (Fig. 1f,g). As there were several individuals on each rearing plant/aggregation, the model also included rearing plant/aggregation identity as a random term. We initially included collection site as a term, but it was never significant ($p > 0.07$ in all cases), so we removed it from our analyses. We used a second, similar model to test for an effect of the treatments on female preference strength, with preference strength as the dependent variable.

Testing for reinforcement in *sp_{low}*

We focused this analysis on *sp_{low}*, for which we had both sympatric and allopatric populations (we were unable to find allopatric sites for *sp_{high}*, despite considerable efforts; see above). We built a linear mixed model with frequency (of male signals or female preference) as the dependent variable. The explanatory variables were: treatment, population type (allopatric or sympatric), sex, year and recording temperature. We included an interaction between treatment and sex to keep the

model as similar to the previous one as possible to keep them comparable. We also included an interaction between treatment and population type to test for differences in the effect of treatment in different population types. The model included rearing plant/aggregation identity as a random term. We used a similar model to test for geographic variation in the form of plasticity for female preference strength in *sp_{low}*.

Results

Plasticity due to rearing in own- vs. mixed-species aggregations

Our study species responded differently to the rearing treatments of own vs. mixed-species aggregations (significant species $\times$ treatment, and species $\times$ treatment $\times$ sex interactions; Table 1), supporting a scenario similar to Fig. 1f-g. *Sp_{high}* individuals reared in mixed-species aggregations differed more (by 11% on average) from *sp_{low}* in male advertisement signals and female mate preferences than individuals reared in own-species aggregations (Fig. 4, 5, and 6a-b). By contrast, *sp_{low}* exhibited little plasticity in signals or preferences in response to the rearing treatments (Fig. 4, 5, and 6a-b). Note, however, that *sp_{low}* and *sp_{high}* showed comparable overall plasticity in signals and preferences due to within-treatment variation in developmental and social environments (significant random terms for rearing plant/aggregation; Table 1). Interestingly, the variance in male signals did not differ between treatments while the variance in female peak preference was higher in own- than in mixed-species treatments for both species (Table S4).

The rearing treatments also tended to affect female preference strength differently in the two species (marginally significant species $\times$ treatment interaction, Table 2). *sp_{high}* females reared in mixed-species aggregations tended to have stronger preferences than females reared in own-species aggregations (Fig. 6c). By contrast, *sp_{low}* females exhibited little plasticity in preference strength

according to the rearing treatments but tended to express constitutively higher strength than that of *sp_{high}* females in own-species aggregations (Fig. 6c). Nevertheless, as above, both species showed comparable plasticity due to within-treatment variation in the developmental and social environment (significant random terms for rearing plant/aggregation; Table 2).

No reinforcement in sp_{low}

There was no difference between sympatric and allopatric populations in signals and preferences within treatment (non-significant population type; Table S5; Fig. 4, 5, and 6a-b) and in the form of the plastic response to the rearing treatments in signals or preferences (non-significant population type $\times$ treatment interaction; Table S5; Fig. 4, 5, and 6a-b). There was also no difference between sympatric and allopatric populations in female preference strength within treatment (non-significant population type; Table S6; Fig. 6c) and in the form of the plastic response in female preference strength (non-significant effect of population type $\times$ treatment interaction; Table S6; Fig. 6c).

Discussion

Here, we propose a heuristic model whereby plasticity due to interactions in mixed aggregations of diverging populations or recently diverged species may create or enhance signal-preference differences and promote assortative mating (Fig. 1). We also present a "proof of concept" test of this hypothesis with two recently diverged species in the *E. binotata* complex of treehoppers that differ in signals and preferences but not ecologically. We found that social plasticity enhances signal-preference differences between two closely related species of *Enchenopa* treehoppers mediated via the plastic response of one species. When reared in mixed-species aggregations, males

of *sp_{high}* had higher frequency signals and females had preferences for higher signal frequencies than when reared in own-species aggregations. The other species (*sp_{low}*) did not show plasticity in response to these rearing treatments.

Social plasticity enhanced signal-preference differences between these two species by about 10%. This is a relatively small, but important increase in the signal-preference species differences. Females *E. binotata* have strong preferences for signal frequency, and a 10% deviation from peak preference typically decreases signal attractiveness by ca. 50% (Rodríguez et al. 2006, 2013a). Further, the combined effect through signals and preferences further enhances that effect. Despite a wide frequency gap between the two species, the range of variation in the population, especially in female preferences (Fig. 4), points to some risk of hybridization. Indeed, some females appear potentially willing to accept males of the other species (e.g. female 12, 25, 33, 260, 289 or 291 in Fig. S2). Hence, we consider that the observed plastic response is likely to increase assortative mating in a biologically relevant way between the two species. These results support a key component of the scenario outlined in Fig. 1g: a species difference in social plasticity with plasticity of the predicted sign in one species and no plasticity in the other species.

Mate preferences can differ in preferred signal value, but also in strength, and the two can have distinct evolutionary consequences (Bailey 2008; Rodríguez et al. 2013a; Kilmer et al. 2017). Our rearing treatment not only influenced phenotypic values for male signals and female peak preferences, but also the strength of those preferences: *sp_{high}* females reared in mixed-species aggregations had stronger preferences than those reared in own-species aggregations. This compounded effect could further increase assortative mating when the two species are in contact, as females not only have a preference for higher frequencies, but that preference for higher frequencies is stronger. *Sp_{low}* female preference strength was not plastic in response to our treatments, but constitutively higher than that of *sp_{high}* females in own-species aggregations. The combined effect of preference peak and strength thus results in a reduction of *sp_{low}* signal attractiveness for *sp_{high}*

females, likely further enhancing assortative mating.

Although we did not attempt to identify the specific inputs into trait expression that may be responsible for the observed plasticity, several aspects of social interactions may have been at play. The manipulation in the social environment that we applied resulted in lifelong changes in the interactions experienced by individuals. As juveniles, *sp_{low}* have higher signalling rates than *sp_{high}* (Rodríguez et al. 2018). Thus, the mixed treatment likely presented a change for nymphs of both species, with higher than usual signalling rates for *sp_{high}* and lower than usual for *sp_{low}*. Males of the two species differ in their advertisement signals (mainly in dominant frequency, see above), and that would offer strong differences in experience between the treatments. However, prior work found that such differences in male adult experience alone do not change male signal frequency (Rebar and Rodríguez 2016). Further, although the strongest effects found were on female mate preferences, females were not exposed to male signals during the treatments and would not themselves signal until later in life and then mainly in response to males, so our treatments likely varied little at this stage for females. Consequently, we consider that our results likely arise from the effects of inputs that occurred during the juvenile stage, which prior work has shown to be important (Desjonquères et al. 2019b, 2019a, 2021).

The observed divergence-enhancing plasticity could arise in two ways. It could occur upon first encounter—without prior selection against hybridization—and immediately establish or strengthen assortative mating. Alternatively, it may arise from selection against hybridization—i.e., reinforcement (Servedio and Noor 2003). Reinforcement could act not only on signals or preferences themselves, but also on their plastic response (Lesna and Sabelis 1999; Pfennig 2007; Chaine and Lyon 2008). The “first encounter” and “reinforcement of plasticity” scenarios may be contrasted by testing for geographic variation in the form of plasticity and measuring the fitness of hybrids. Under the “reinforcement of plasticity” scenario, plasticity due to interactions in mixed-species aggregations would create or enhance signal-preference differences only in individuals from

sympatric populations where both populations or species have a history of co-existence, and not in individuals from allopatric sites where only one species occurs. We occasionally find treehoppers with intermediate signals and preferences (a few individuals out of hundreds collected each year; K. D. Fowler-Finn & R. L. Rodríguez, unpubl.), suggesting that these species may hybridize at low rates in the field. However, hybrids are unlikely to mate, as their intermediate signals and preferences will fail to be attractive to (or be attracted by) either parental species. We found no differences in the plastic response between sympatric and allopatric sites for *sp_{low}*, but we were unable to conduct a similar test for *sp_{high}*. Future work would profit from a renewed population sampling effort to confidently test a "first encounter" versus "reinforcement" scenario.

Our results support the hypothesis that social plasticity can create or enhance signal-preference differences and promote assortative mating. Specifically, we suggest that a change in the social environment can enhance phenotypic differences in mating signals and mate preferences, promoting reproductive isolation. This process might represent an under-appreciated cause of assortative mating and signal-preference divergence in the early stages of speciation. Once present, new or enhanced signal-preference differences expressed due to social plasticity would not only promote assortative mating, but also facilitate further co-divergence through subsequent evolution of signals, preferences, and/or their plastic response (the latter potentially involving genetic accommodation or assimilation; West-Eberhard 2003, 2005). Such subsequent evolution may lead to genetic change in signals, preferences and/or the machinery involved in their development, as well as genetic change in the elements of the social environment responsible for the plasticity-inducing inputs—change in the indirect genetic components of signals, preferences and their developmental regulation (cf. Bailey & Moore 2012; Rebar & Rodríguez 2015). The importance of this process for speciation will depend on how common, how strong, and of what sign, the “first encounter” effects of social plasticity are. Further, reinforcement of the plastic response is an interesting and potentially important outcome that should be explored further with experimental

research. Such early unselected, “first encounter” plasticity may even contribute to that reinforcement through genetic accommodation of the plastic response. Comparative work to answer these questions and test these hypotheses will be illuminating.

Acknowledgements

We thank Paul Engevoeld for his assistance and greenhouse expertise, and the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee Field Station staff for their support. We also thank Vladislav Melnikov, Nour Abuomar, Bernard Muransky, and Nathaniel Chester Wagner for their help with insect and data collection. Finally, we thank Mike Ritchie and three anonymous reviewers for his insightful comments on the manuscript. We acknowledge the support of the Fondation Fyssen (to CD), the Research Growth Initiative from University of Wisconsin- Milwaukee (to RLR), the National Science Foundation (Grant IOS–1855962 to RLR and CD), and the Natural Environment Research Council (grants NE/T000619/1 and NE/W001616/1 to NWB). We declare that we have no competing interests.

Statement of authorship

CD and RLR obtained the funding to run the experiments. CD, GH, NWB and RLR came up with the hypotheses. CD, BS, SS, CS, JM, and CW ran the experiments under the supervision of CD and RLR. CD, LAC, and IE extracted the data from the recordings. CD and RLR worked on the representation of the data and wrote the original draft. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for submission.

Data accessibility statement:

The data related to this manuscript is available publicly on Zenodo

(<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7844980>).

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Tables

Table 1: Variation in male signal frequency and female peak preference in two *Enchenopa* species according to own- vs. mixed-species rearing treatments. Significant effects and marginally significant in bold.

Fixed effects			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Species	4520.22	1	<0.0001
Sex	22.79	1	<0.0001
Treatment	2.01	1	0.16
Year	9.61	2	0.009
Temperature	14.67	1	0.00013
Species × sex	0.57	1	0.45
Species × treatment	5.10	1	0.024
Sex × treatment	0.14	1	0.71
Species × sex × treatment	5.70	1	0.017
Random effect			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Rearing plant/aggregation	4.11	1	0.043

Table 2: Variation in female preference strength in two *Enchenopa* species according to own- vs. mixed-species rearing treatments. Significant and marginally-significant effects in bold.

Fixed effects			
Term	η^2	Df	P-value
Species	0.10	1	0.76
Treatment	0.17	1	0.68
Year	3.34	2	0.19
Temperature	0.54	1	0.46
Species $\times$ treatment	3.23	1	0.073
Random effects			
Term	η^2	Df	P-value
Rearing aggregation	4.30	1	0.038

Figures

Figure 1: Sketch of possible effects of social plasticity on signal-preference differences. When two populations or closely related species first meet (a), interactions may increase or decrease the signal-preference values of both populations or species (b or c, respectively), make each population or species more similar to the other (d), or create/enhance signal-preference differences (e-g). There are many other possible scenarios combining species and sex differences in the plastic response (64 possible scenarios if we consider that each species' trait values could shift in 8 different directions). In the interest of space, we only illustrate the major categories of scenarios.

Figure 2: Examples of own- and mixed-species rearing aggregations that constituted the treatments in our experiment.

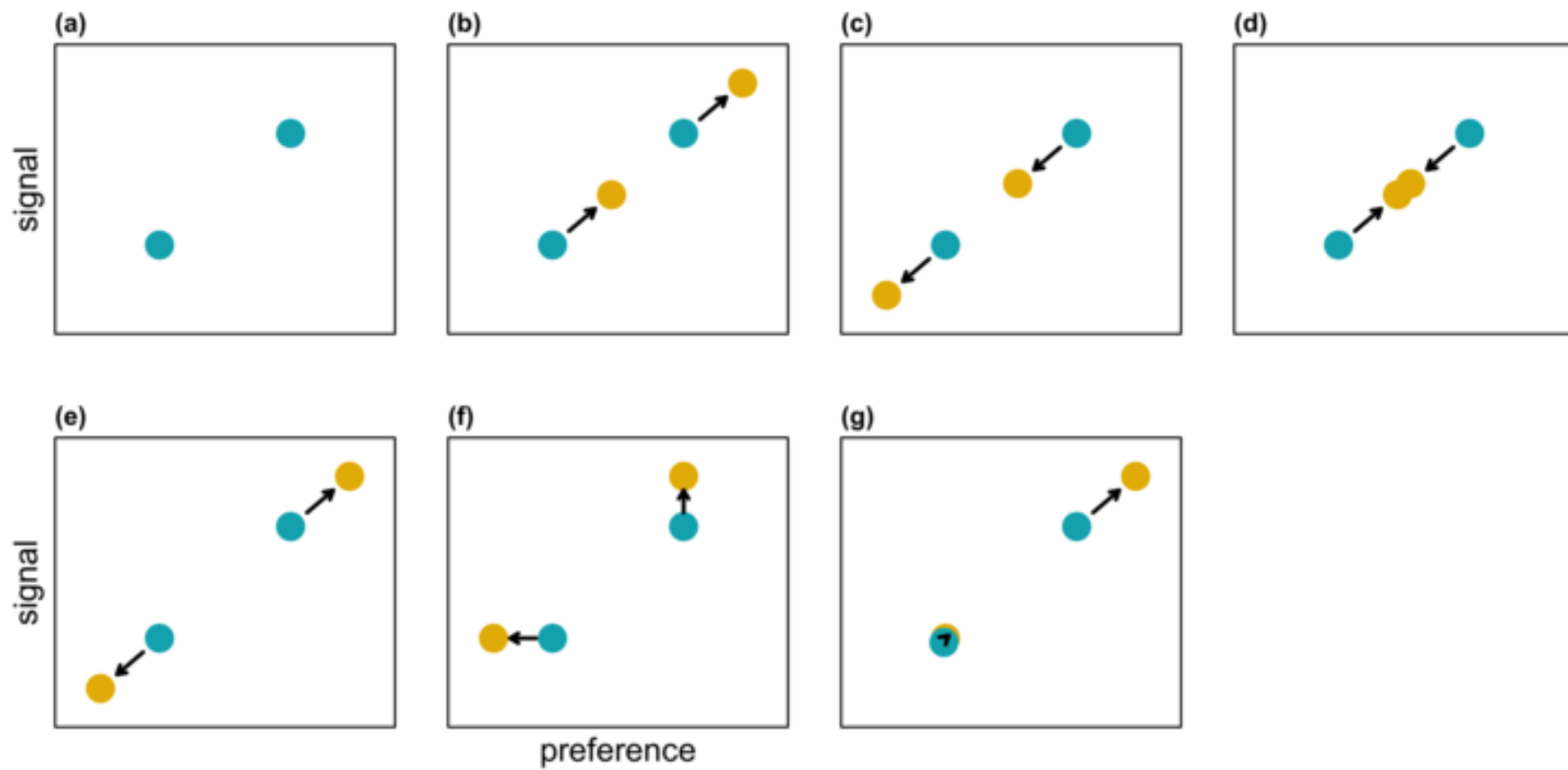
Figure 3: Flowchart of the experimental design to rear individuals in own- or mixed-species treatments. Nymphs were brought into a greenhouse and installed on host plants either as own- or mixed-species aggregations. When the first adults appeared, we separated the two species onto two rearing plants (for the own-species treatment, aggregations were just split on two new rearing plants to follow the same procedure as for mixed-species treatment). As adults continued to appear, we marked them according to their rearing plant and separated males and females.

Figure 4: Variation in female preference curves in *Enchenopa* according to species and own- vs. mixed-species rearing treatments. Dotted lines present individual-level preference curves. Solid lines present group-level preference curves for each treatment-species combination. Light blue shows females reared in own-species treatments and orange indicates those reared in mixed-species treatments. Left panel shows sp_{low} and the right sp_{high} .

Figure 5: The effect of own- vs. mixed-species treatments on male signal frequency and female peak preference in two *Enchenopa* species. Points and associated bars show the mean and standard error for each rearing treatment–site–species combination (data corrected for the effects of temperature, year and plant replicate using model predictions). For reference, data from sp_{low} and sp_{high} species occupy the lower left and upper right portions of the plot, respectively. Blue shades

show means of individuals reared in own-species treatments and red and orange shades show means of individuals reared in mixed-species aggregations. Lighter colours (orange and light blue) are for individuals from sympatric populations while darker colours (red and dark blue) are for individuals from allopatric populations. There were no allopatric populations for *sp_{high}* thus there are no dark colours for that species.

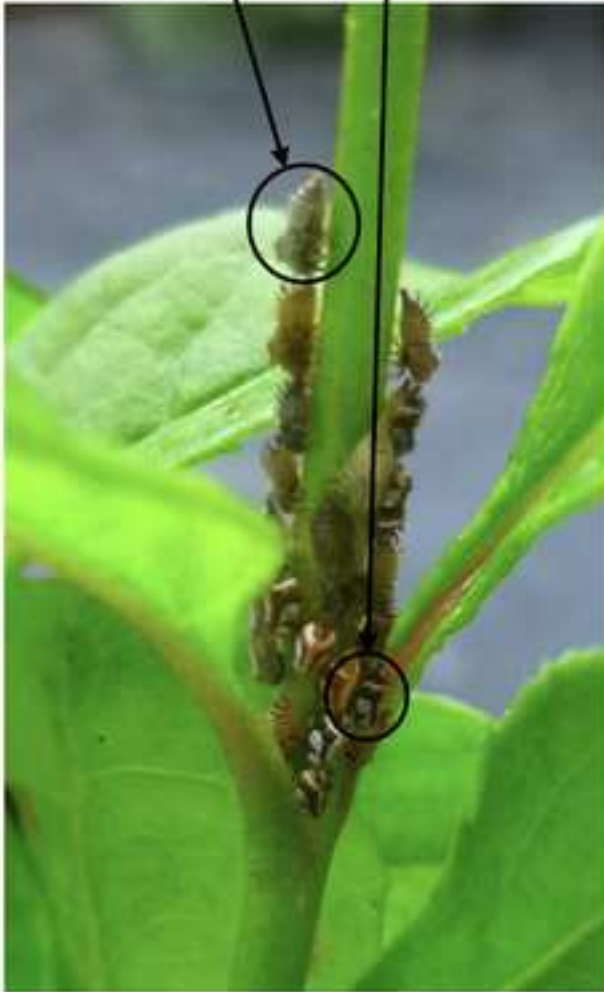
Figure 6: The effect of own- vs. mixed-species treatments on male signal frequency (a), female peak preference (b) and preference strength (c) in two *Enchenopa* according to own- vs. mixed-species rearing treatments. Solid points and associated bars show the mean and standard error for each rearing site–treatment–species combination (data corrected for the effects of temperature, year and plant replicate using model predictions). Transparent points show the individual data. Blue shades indicate means for individuals reared in own-species treatments. In red and orange shades indicate means for mixed-species aggregations. Lighter colours (orange and light blue) indicate individuals coming from sympatric populations while darker colours (red and dark blue) indicate individuals from allopatric populations. Note there were no allopatric *sp_{high}* populations thus there are no dark colours for that species. Dotted grey lines show the reaction norm for each site (two sites for *sp_{high}* and five sites for *sp_{low}*).



(a) own, sp_{low}

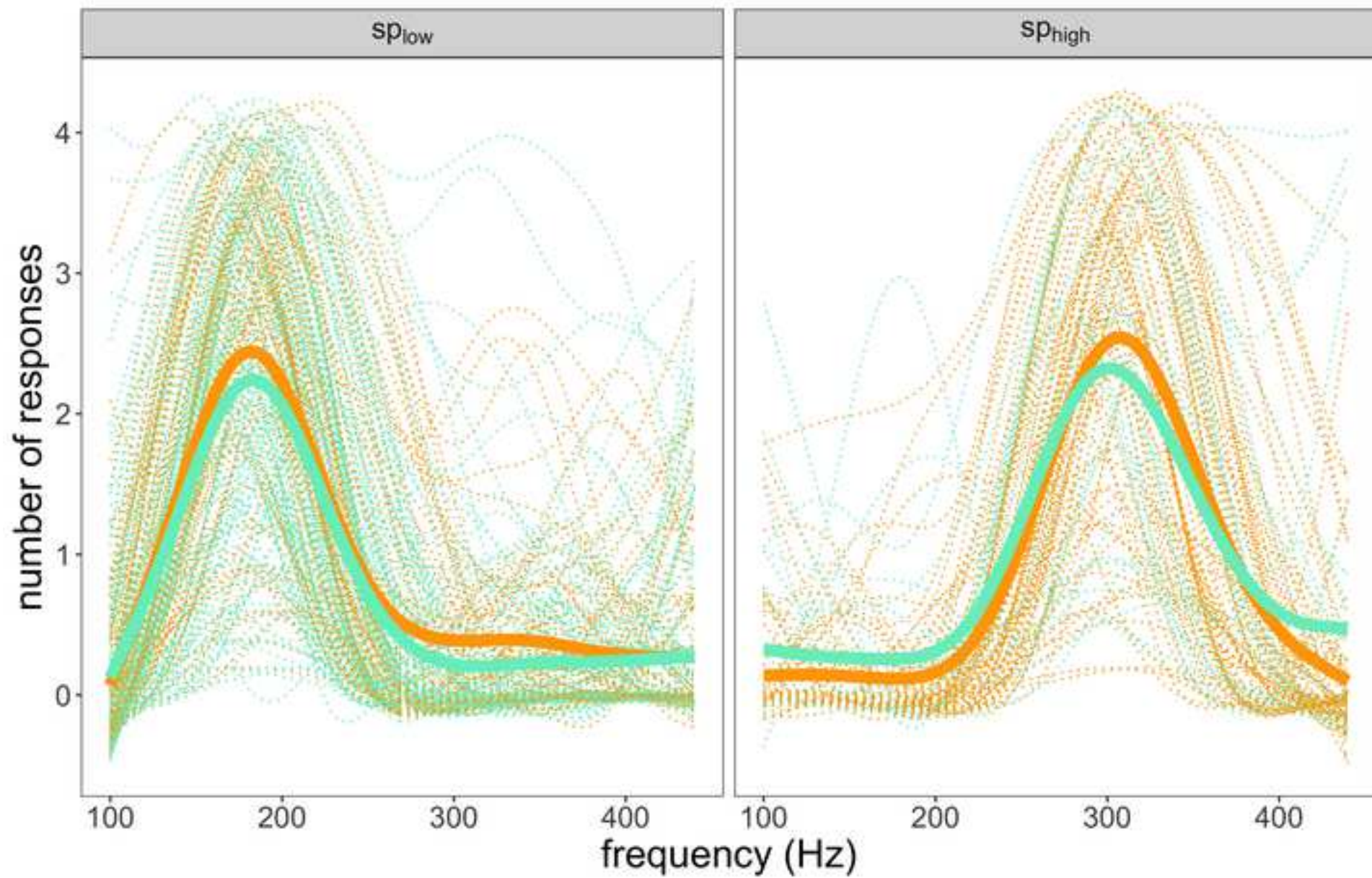


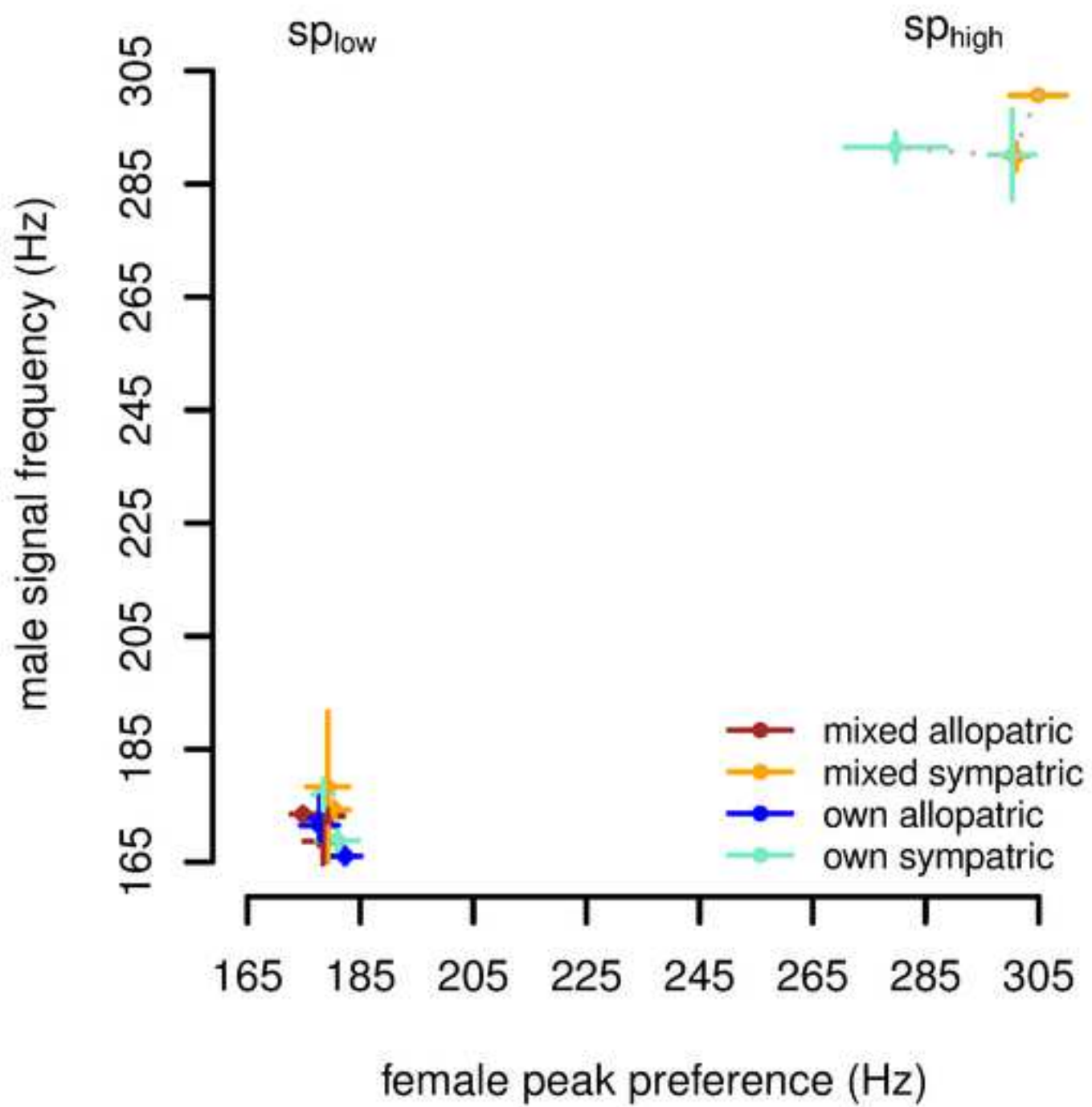
(b) mixed, sp_{low} and sp_{high}

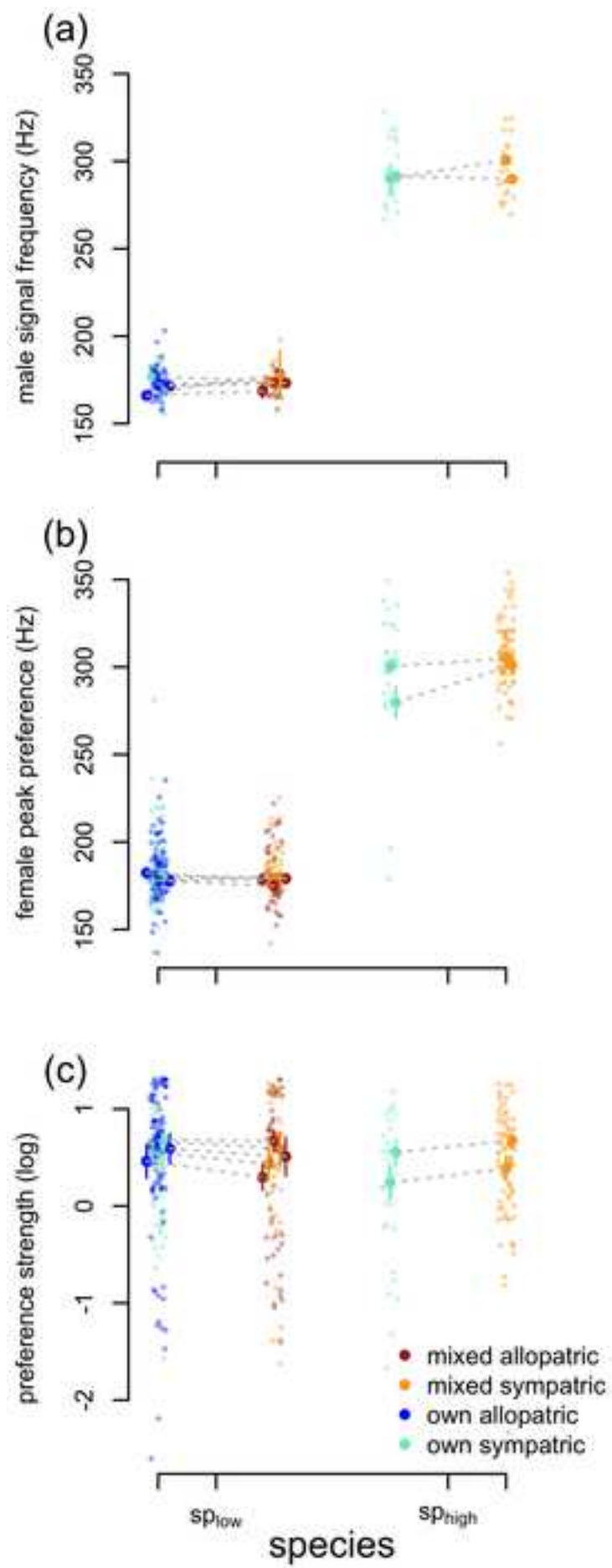


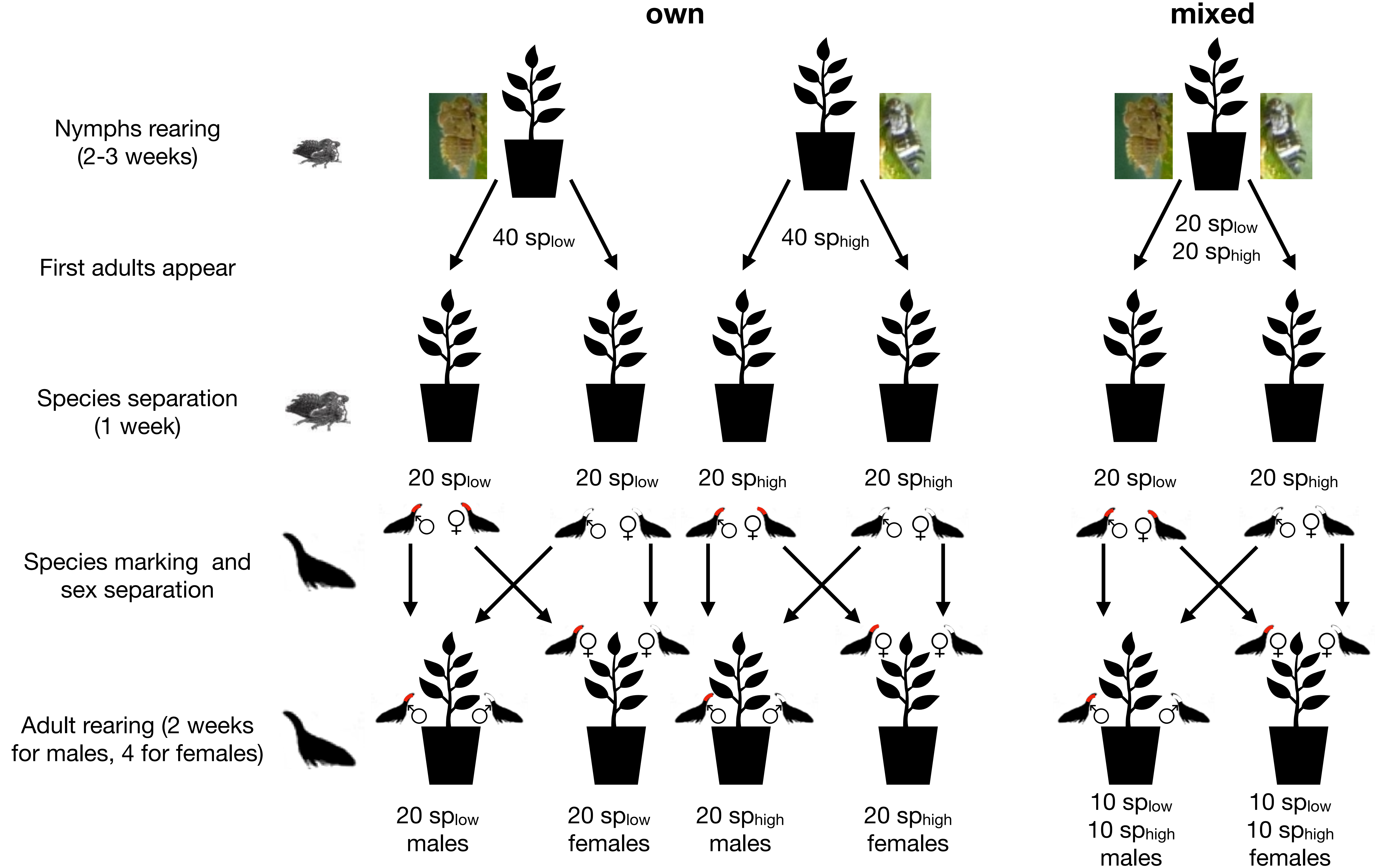
(c) own, sp_{high}











Social plasticity enhances signal-preference co-divergence

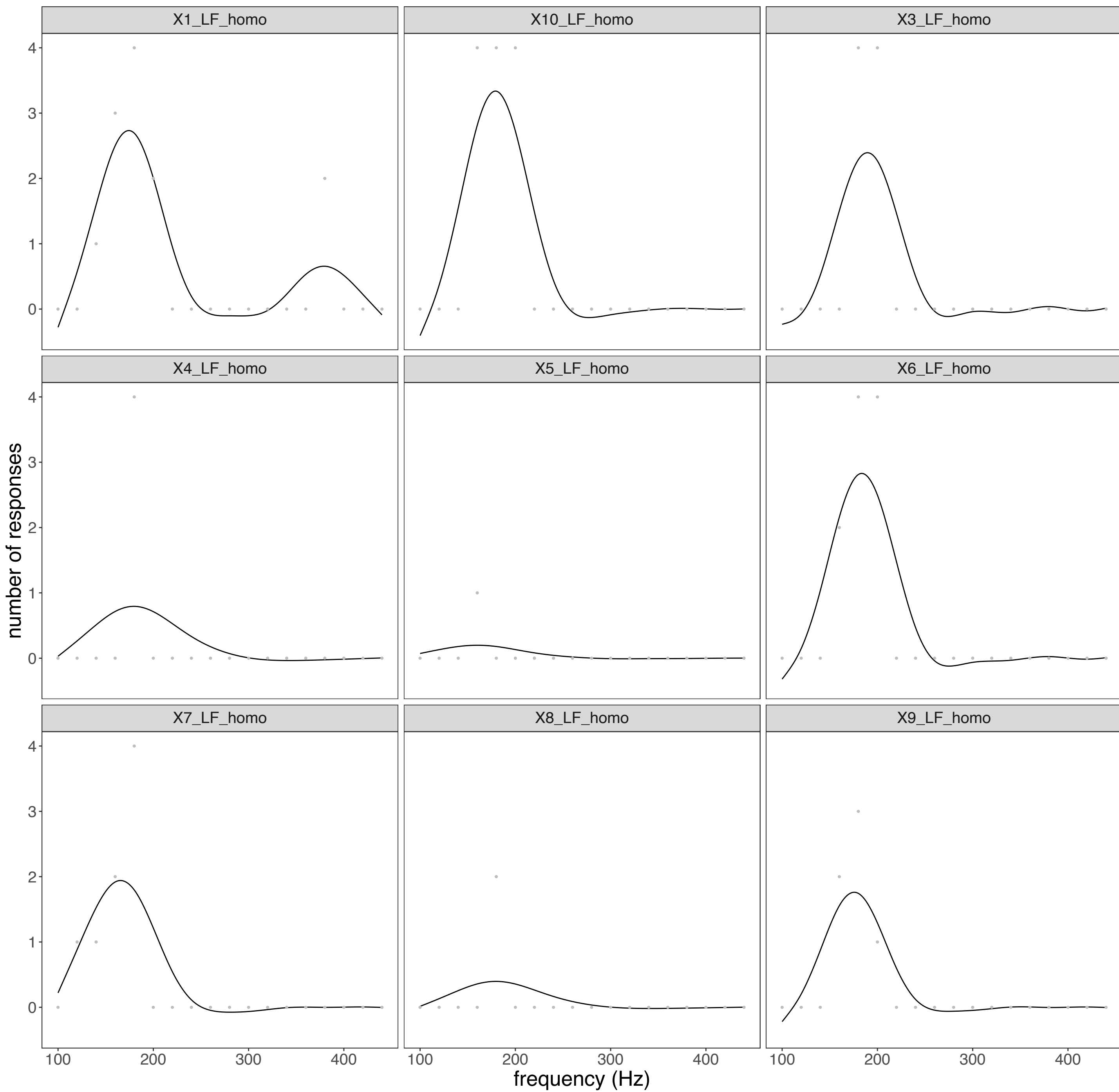
Camille Desjonquères^{1,2}, Bretta Speck¹, Sara Seidita¹, Lauren A. Cirino¹, Ignacio Escalante¹, Clinton Sergi¹, Jak Maliszewski¹, Christine Wiese¹, Gerlinde Hoebel¹, Nathan W. Bailey², Rafael L. Rodríguez¹

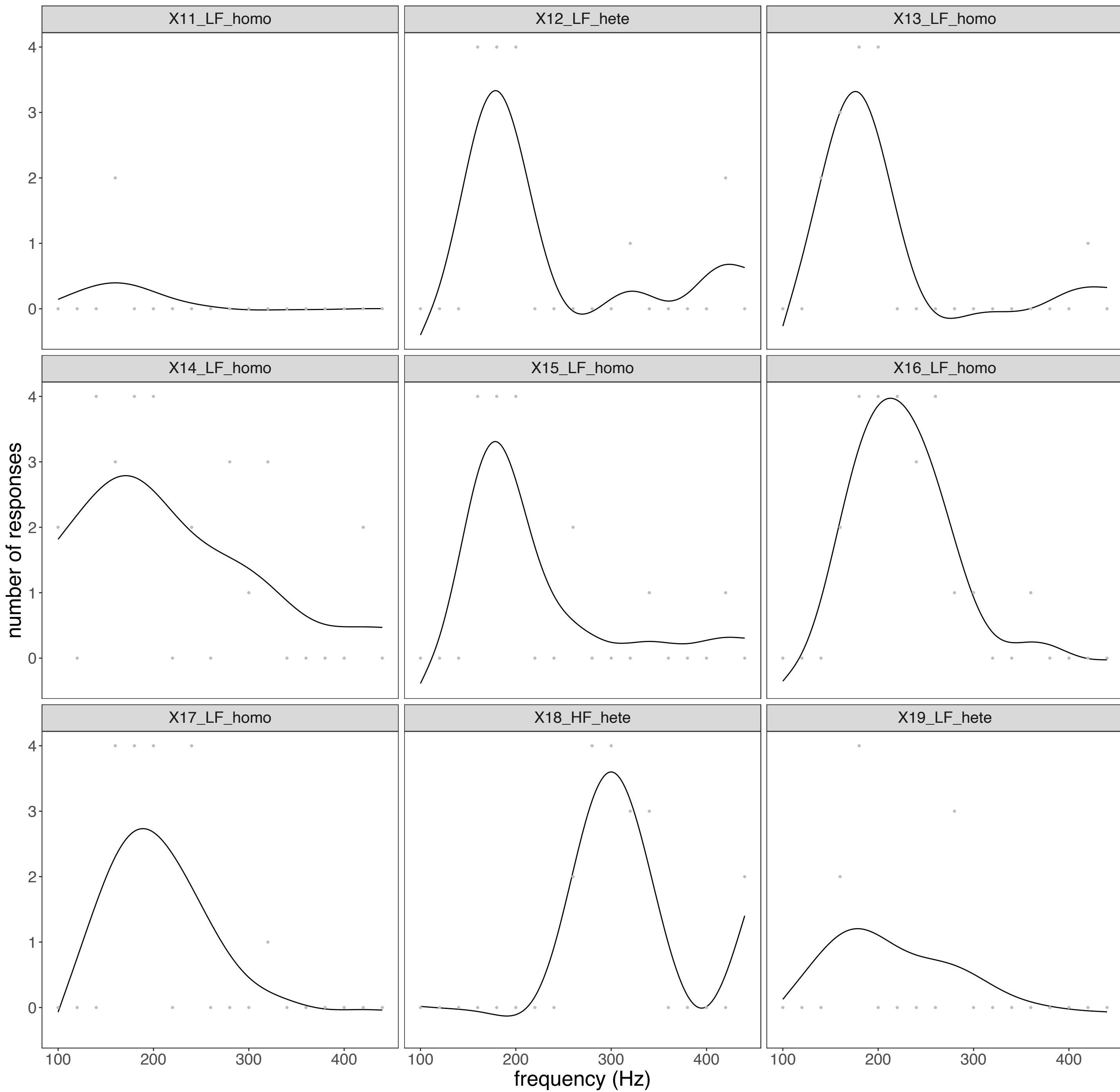
¹ Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

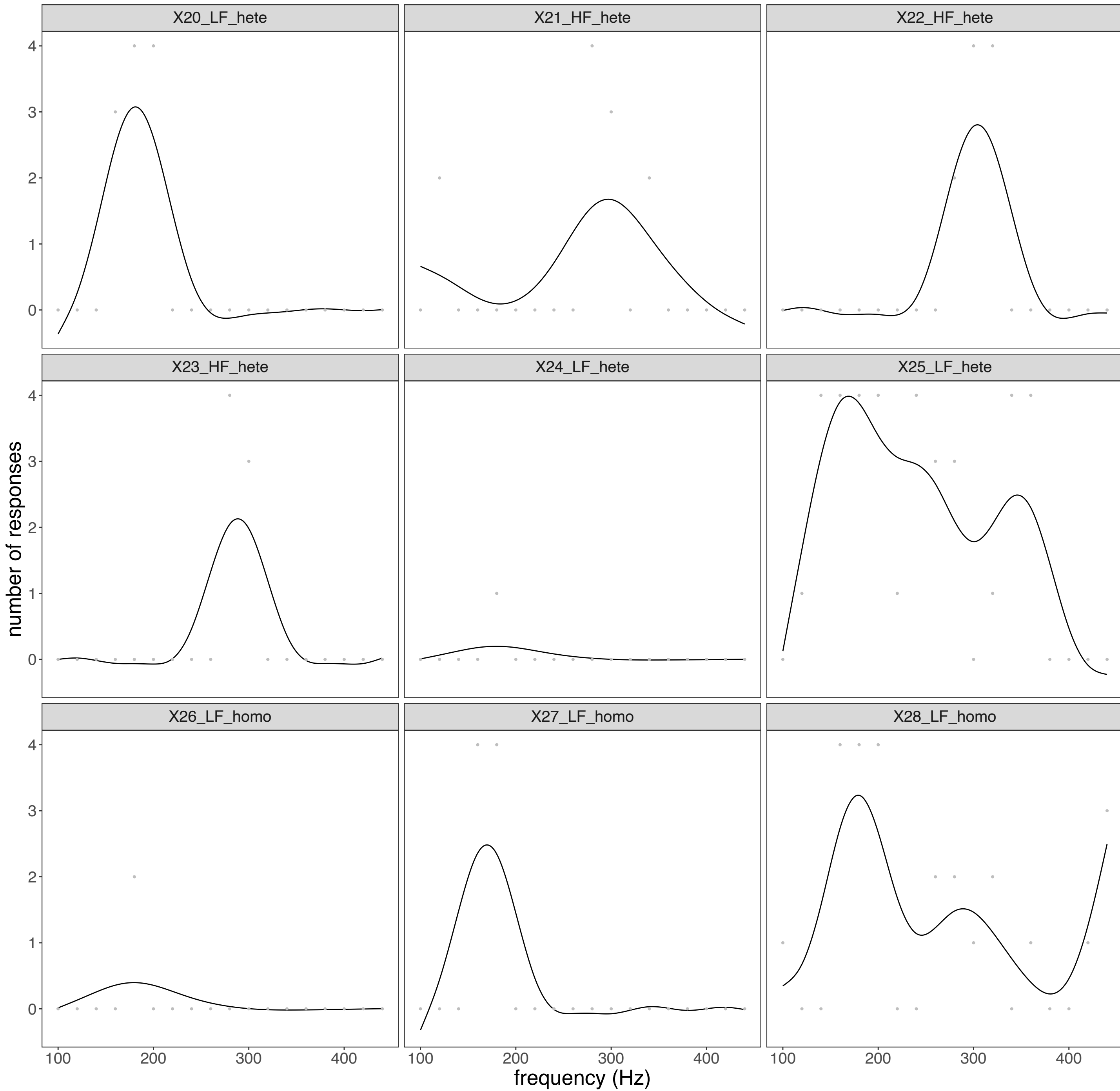
² School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife KY16 9TH, UK

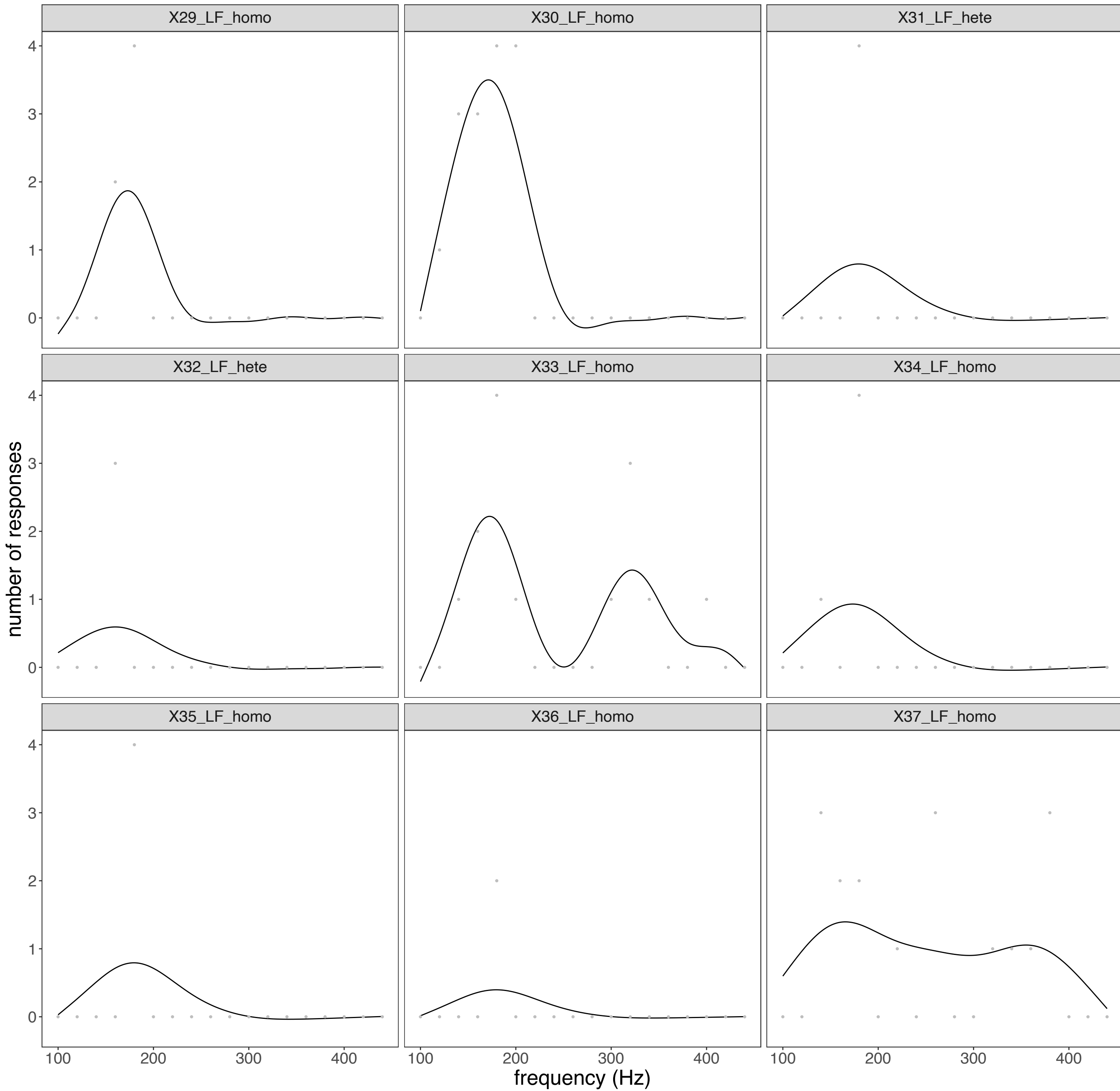
* Corresponding author: cdesjonqu@gmail.com, Tel.: +1 (414) 229-4214

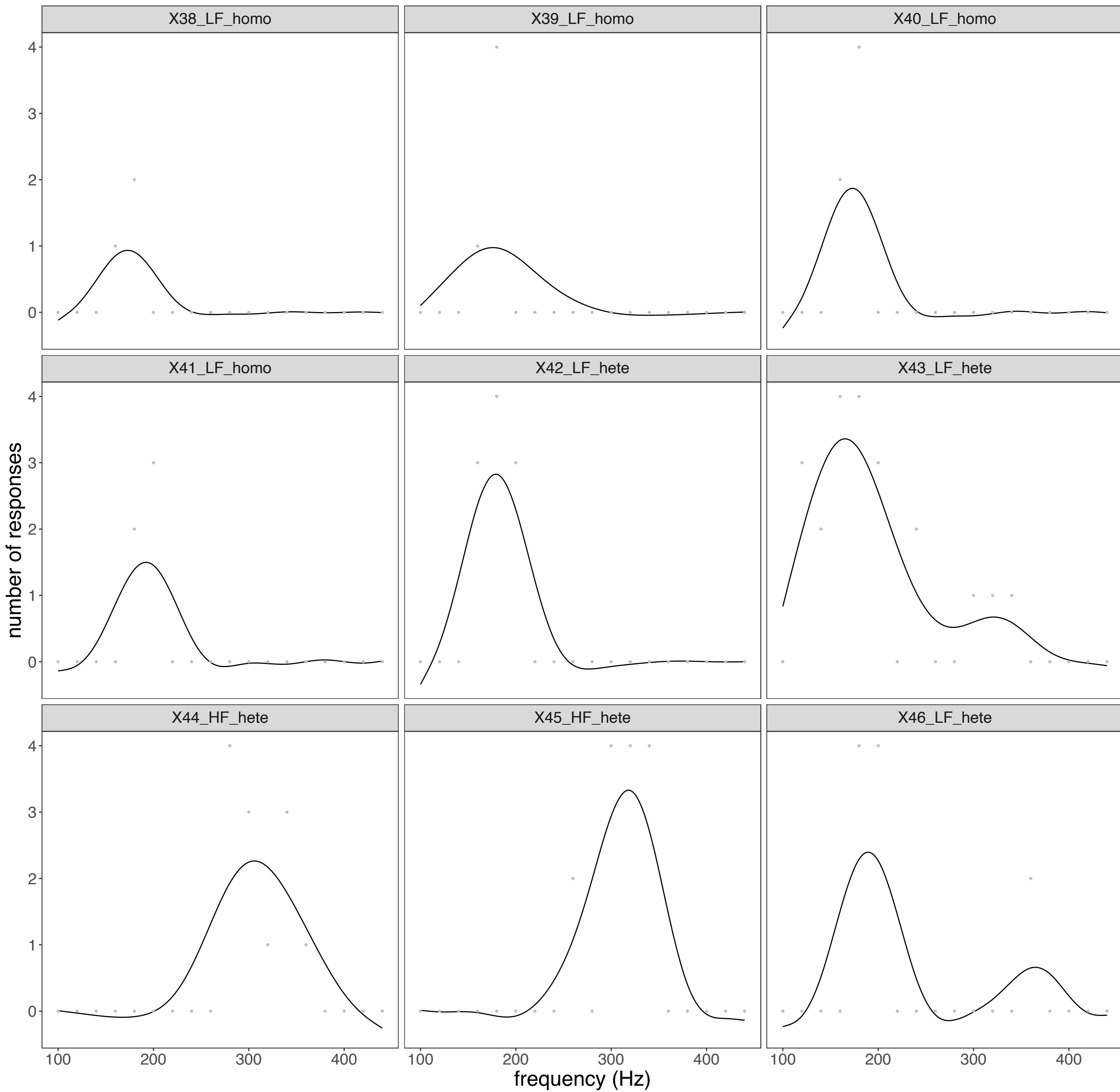
Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

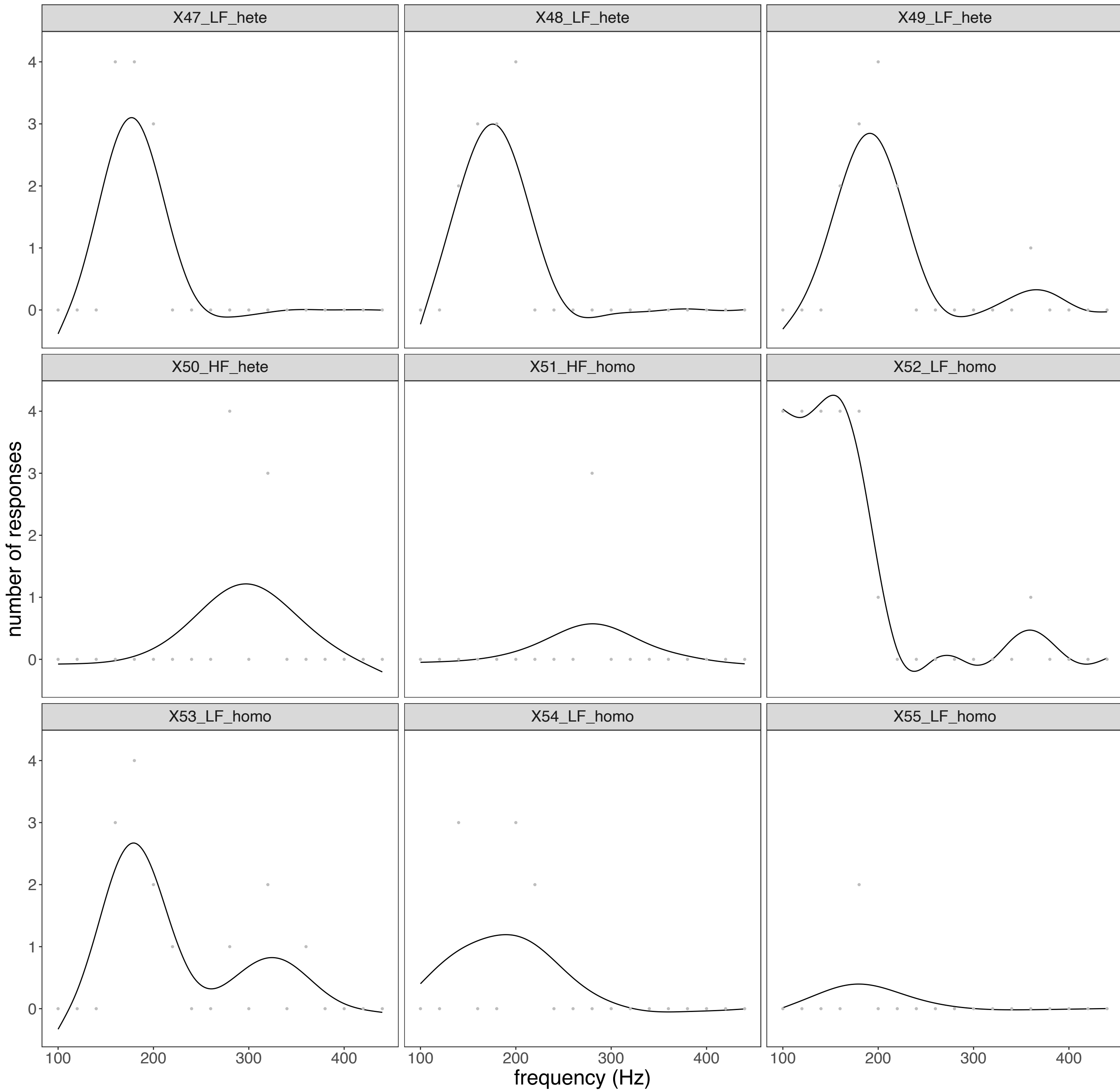


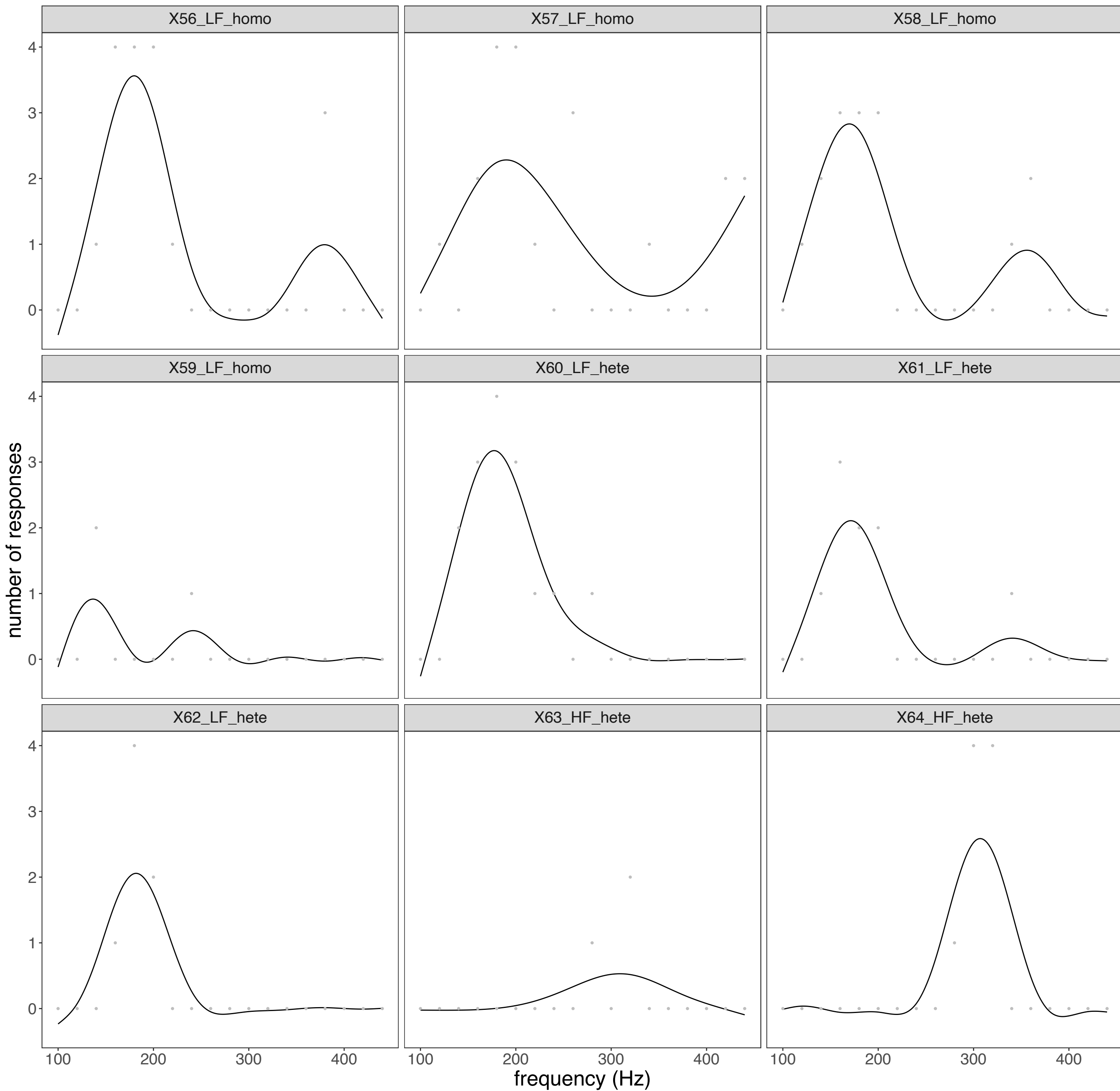


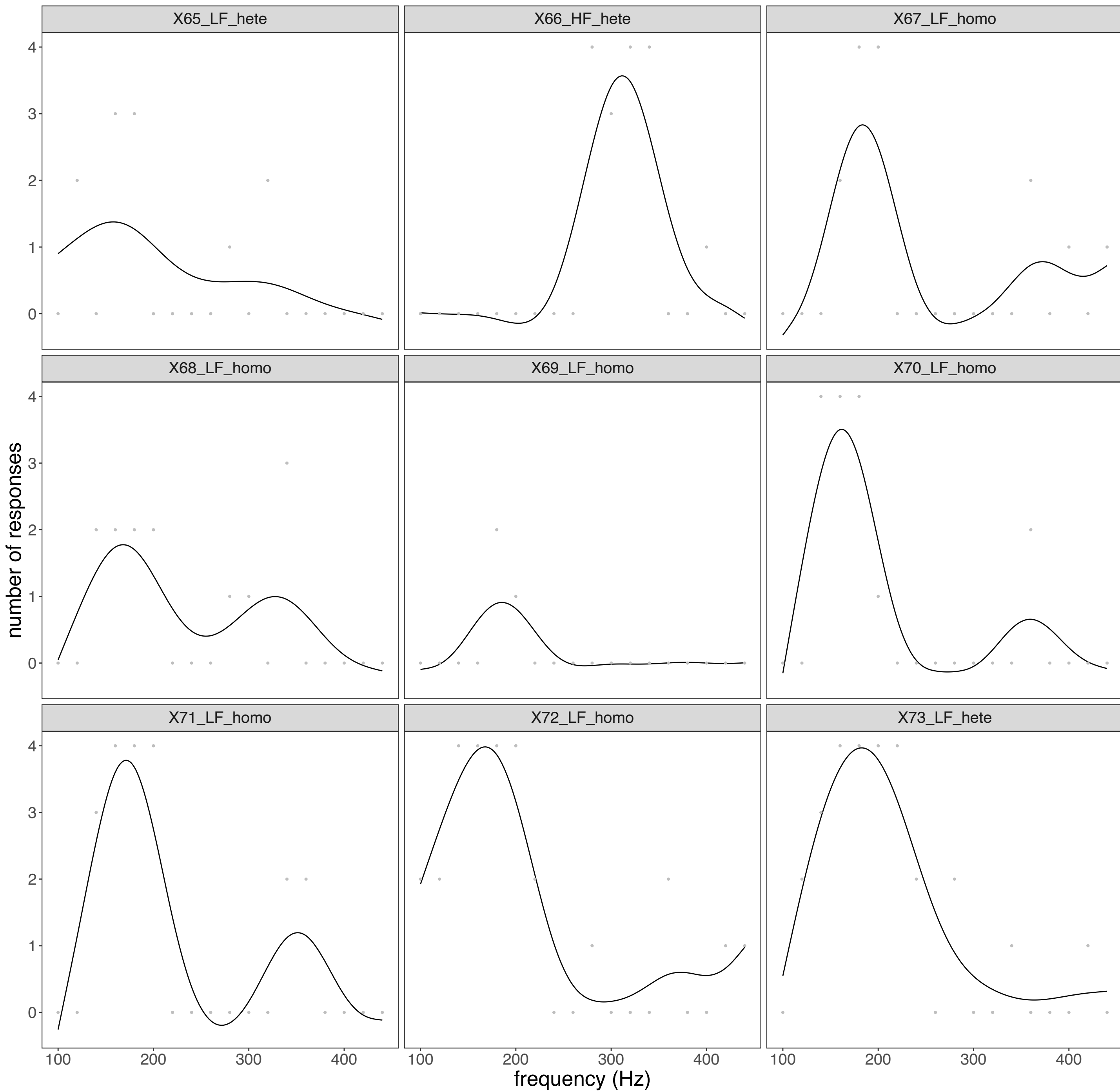


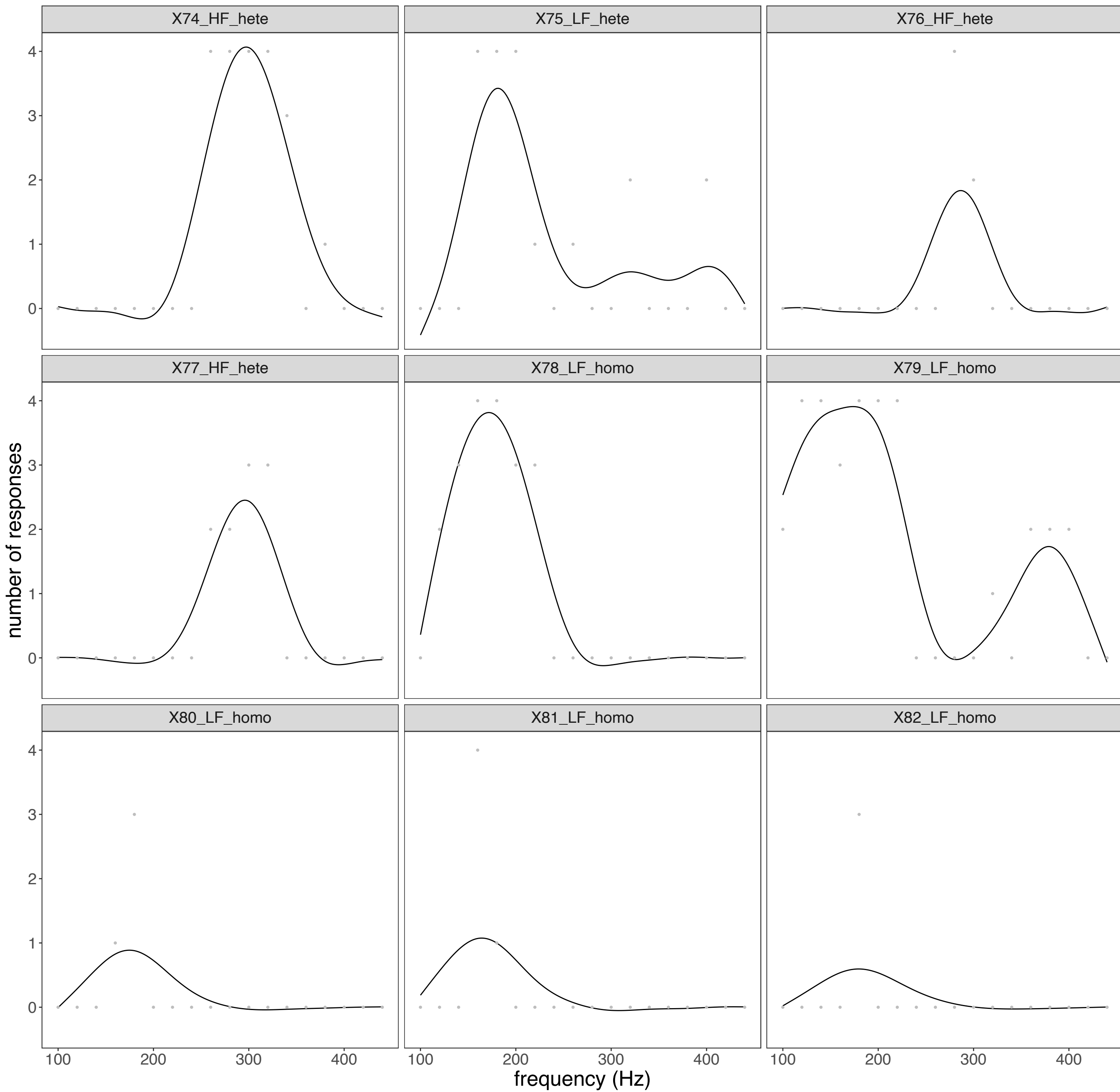


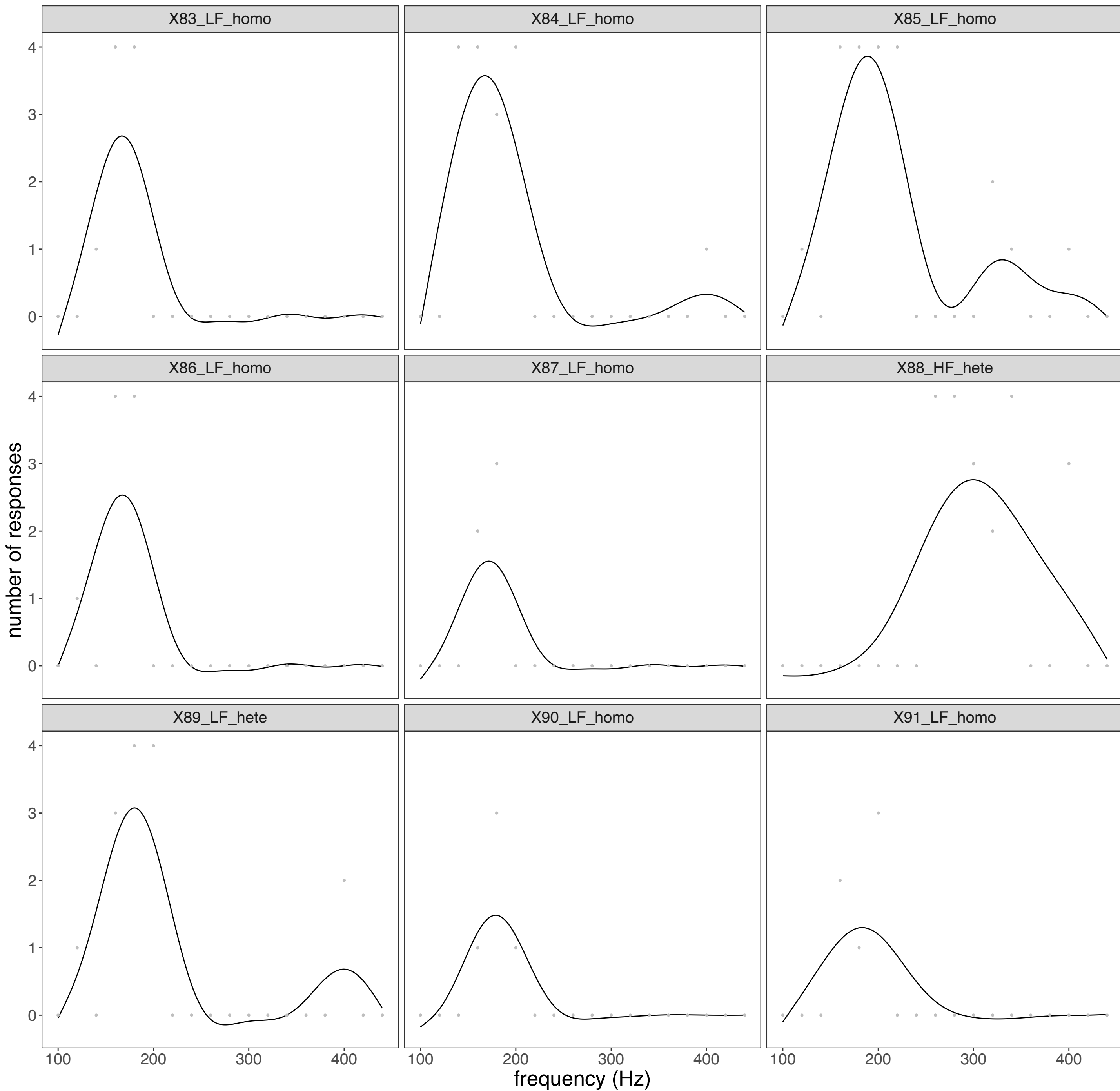


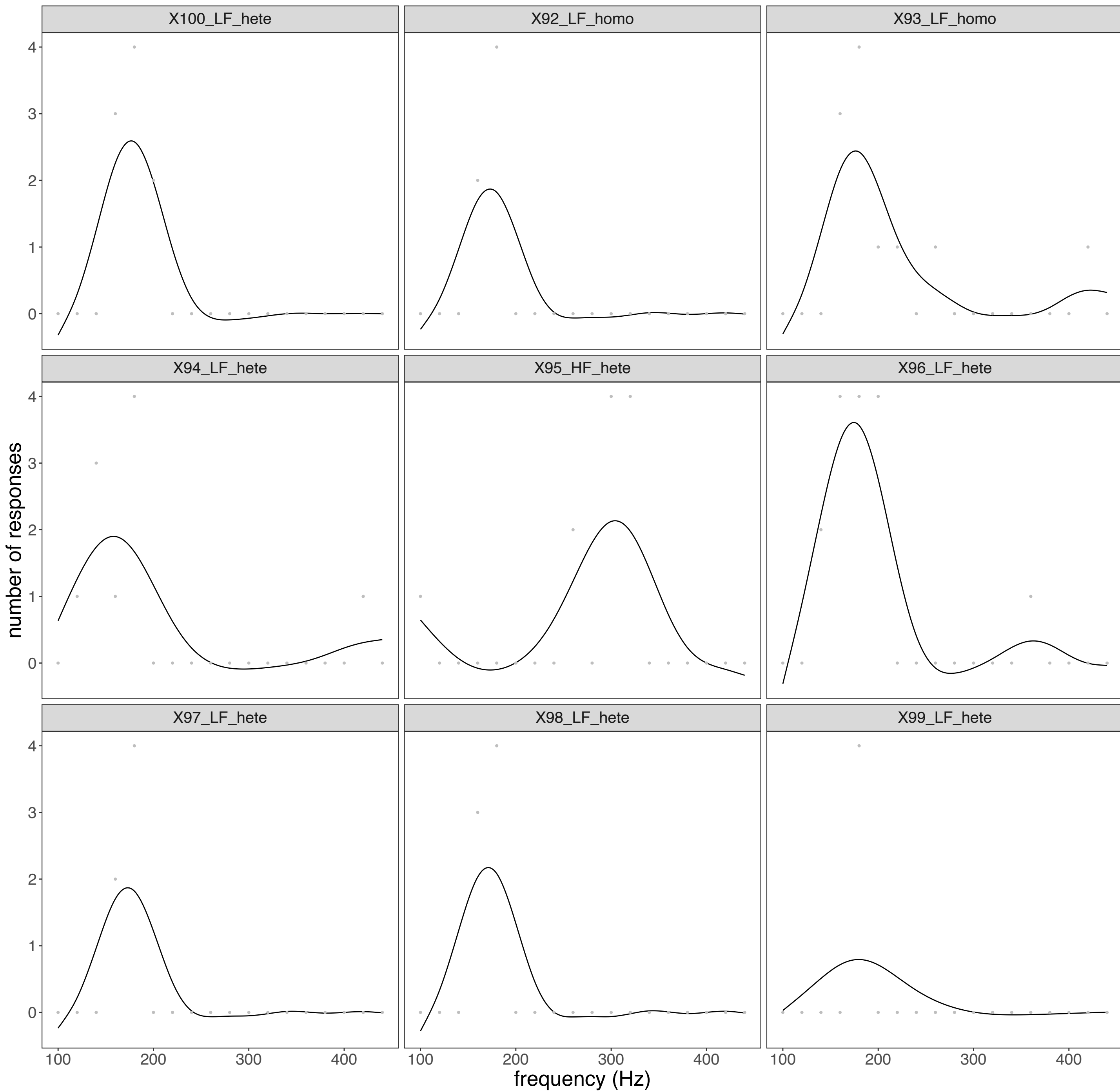


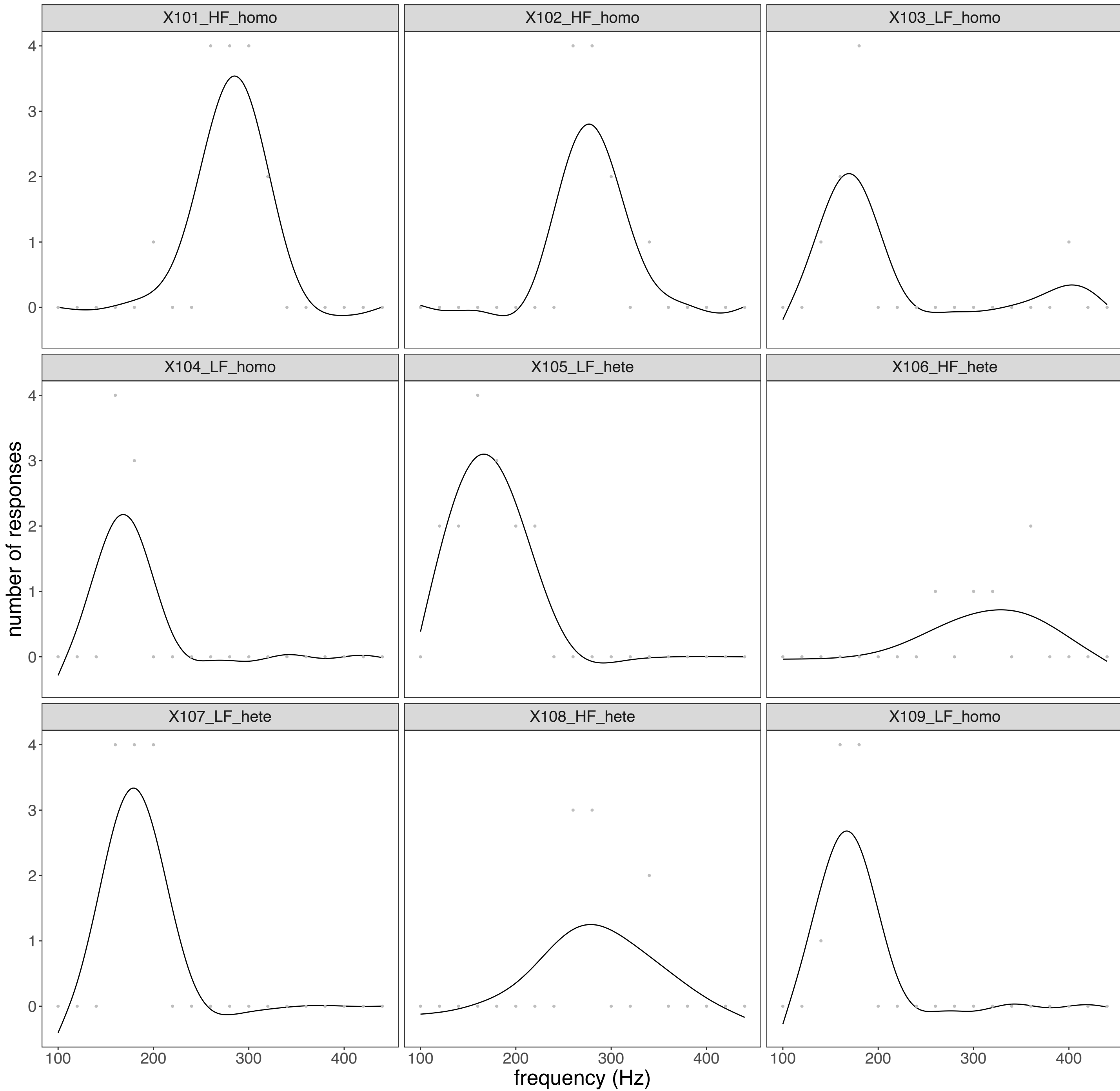


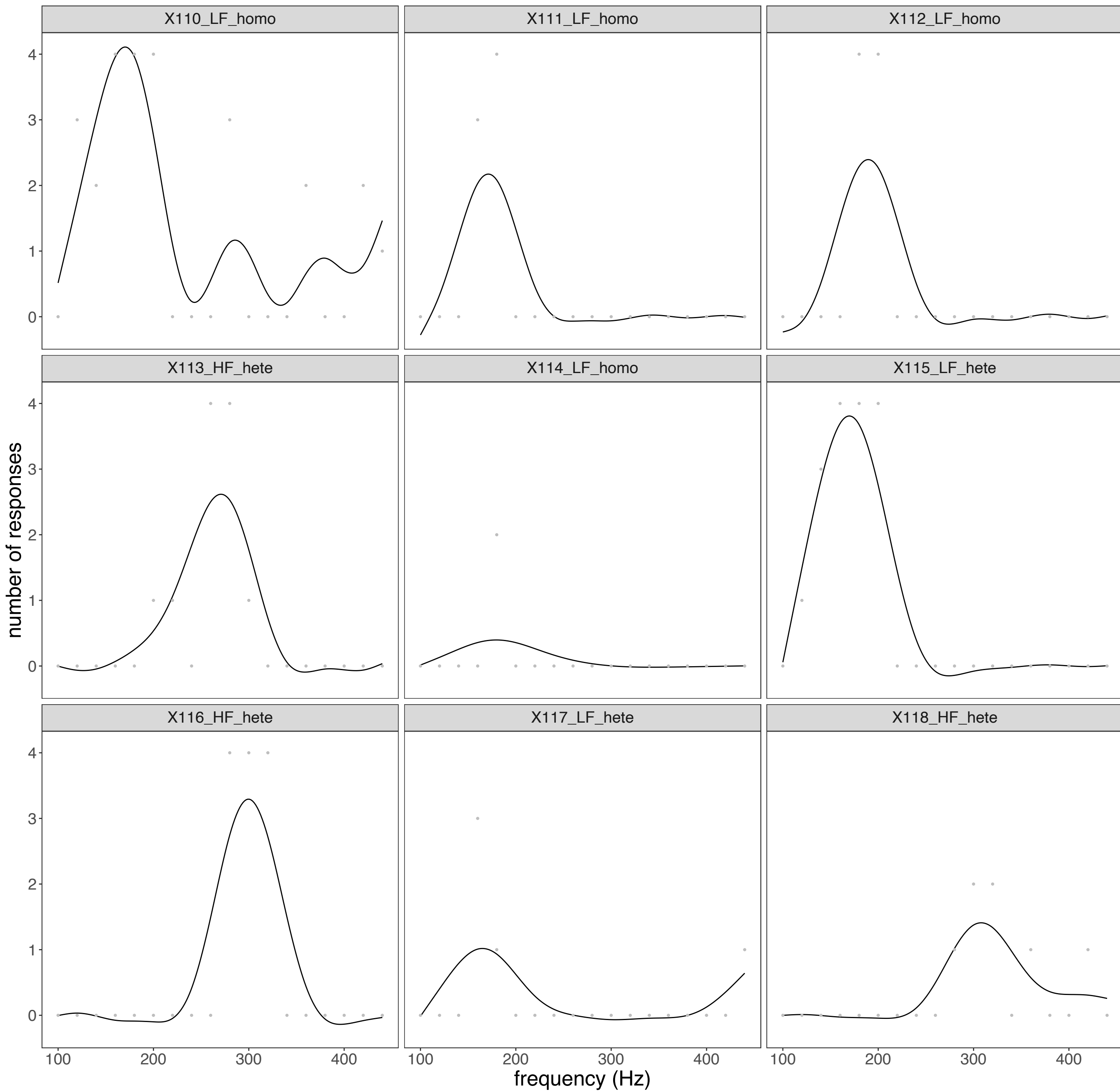


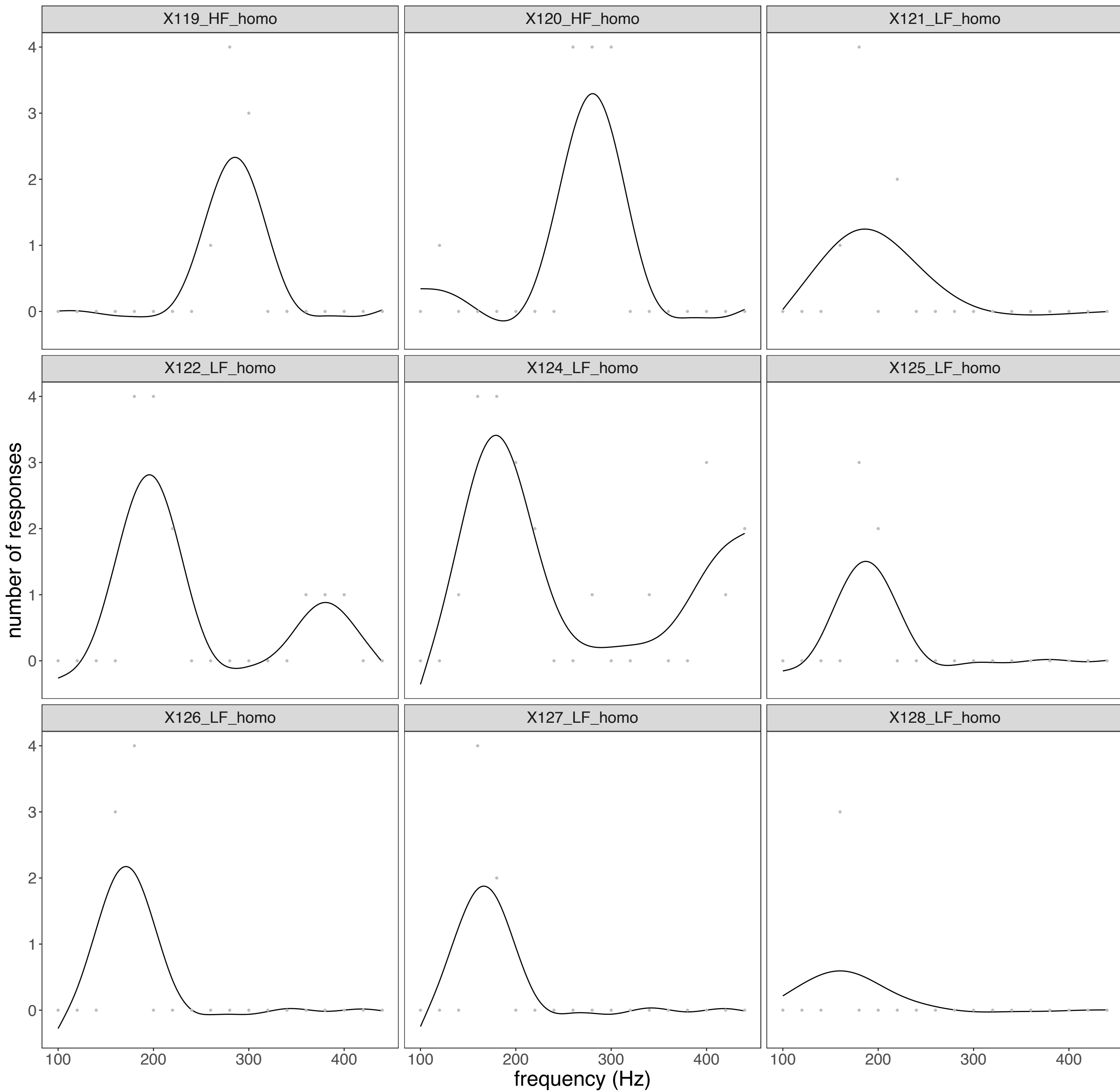


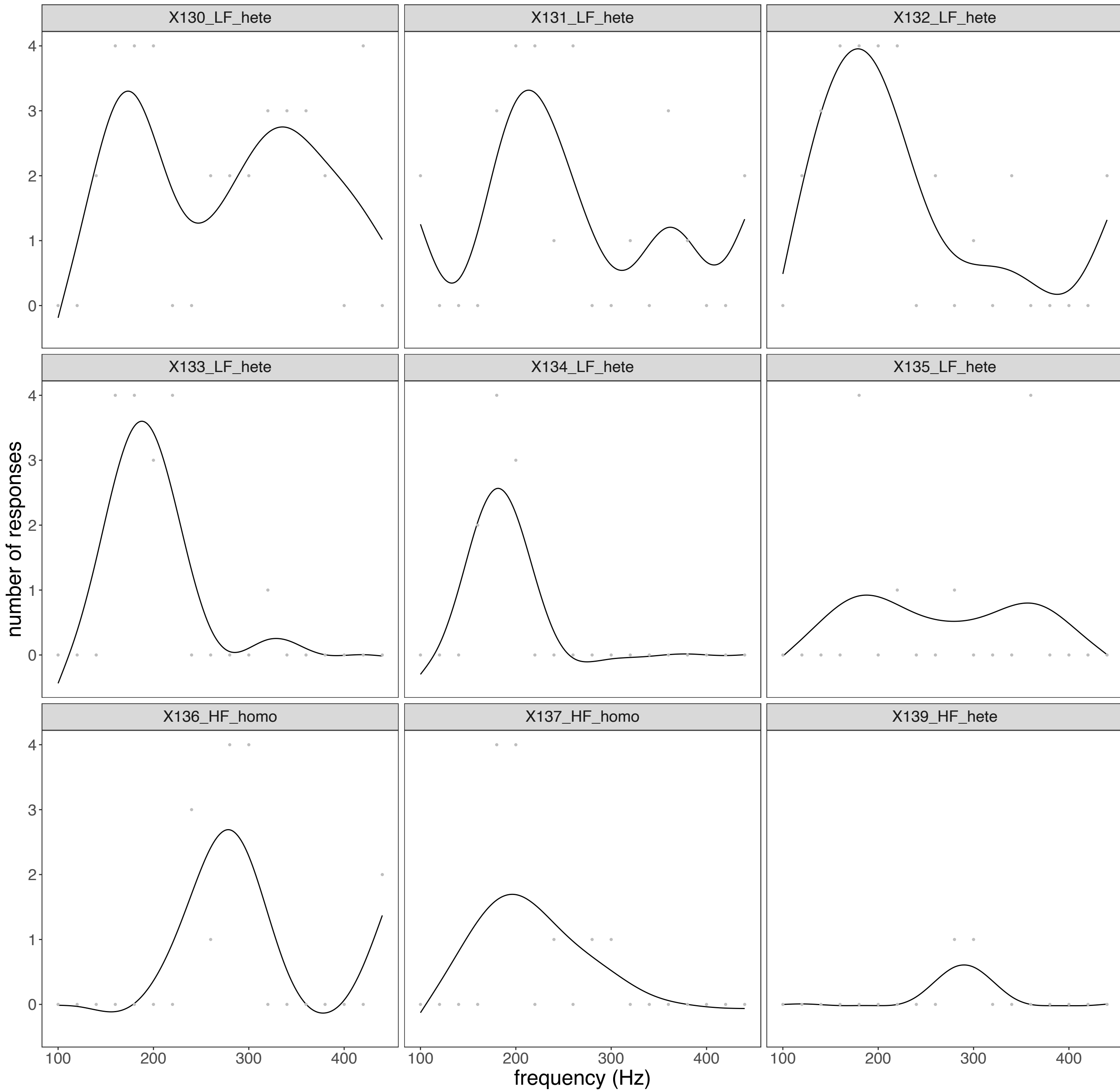


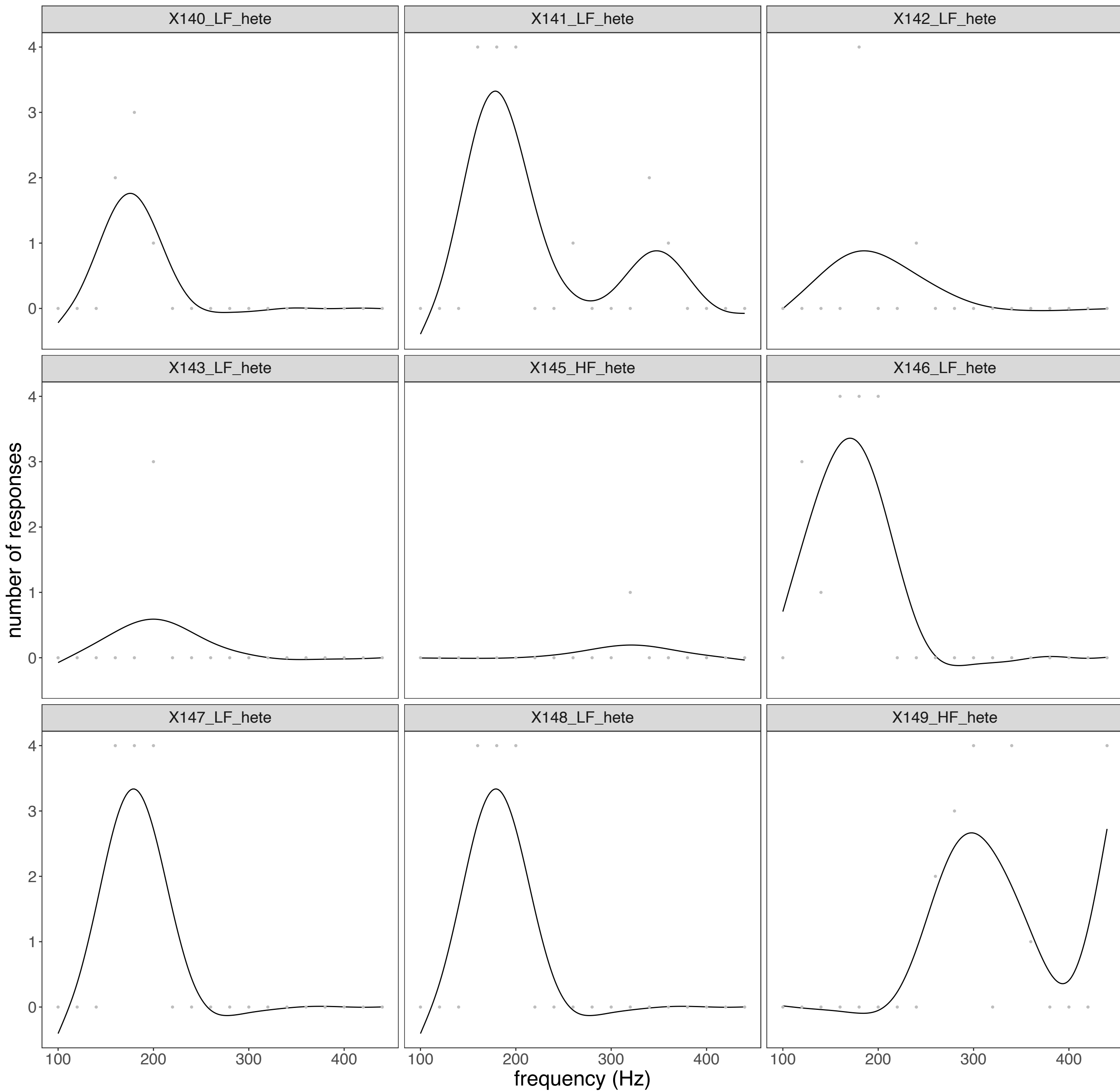


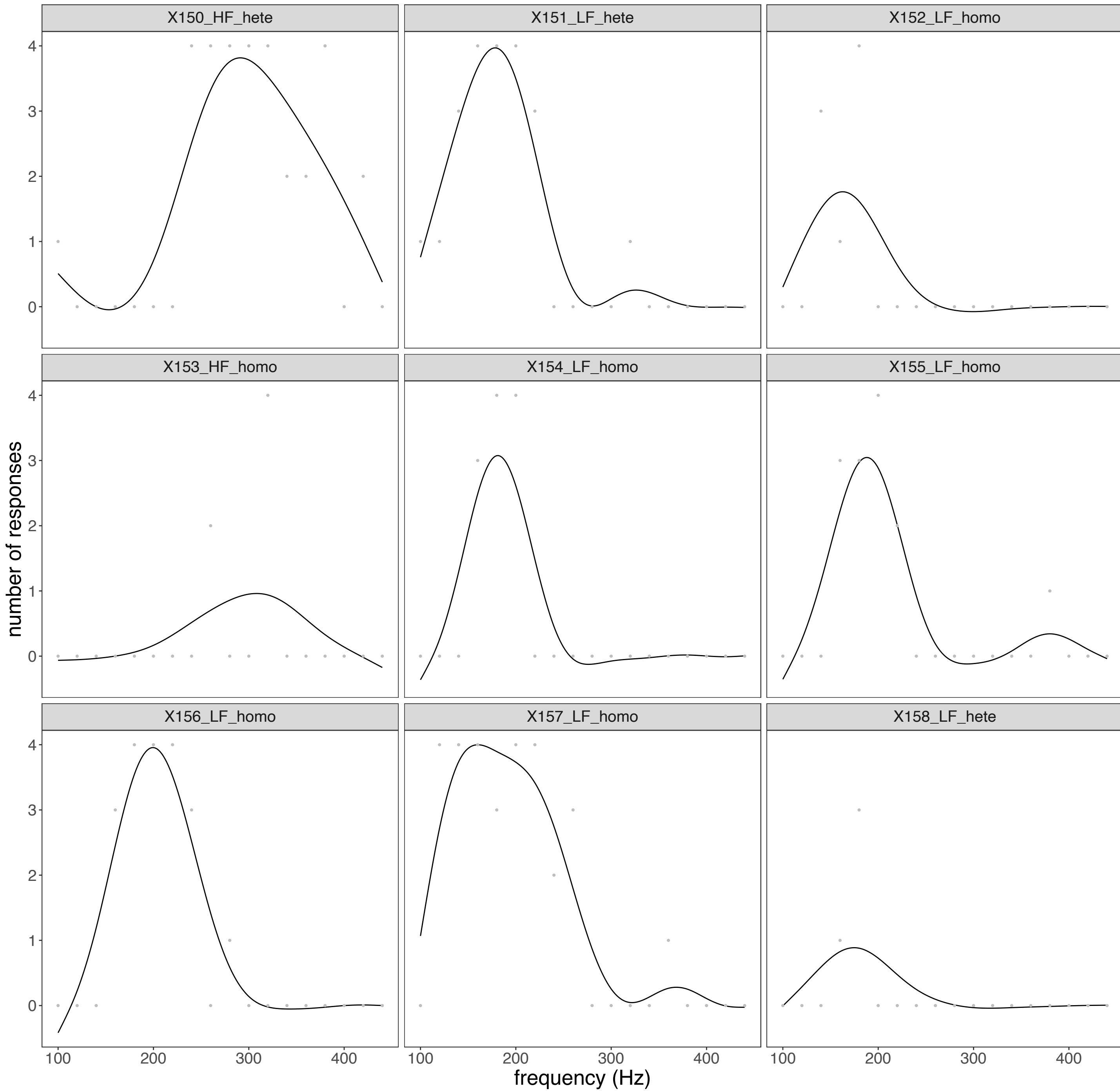


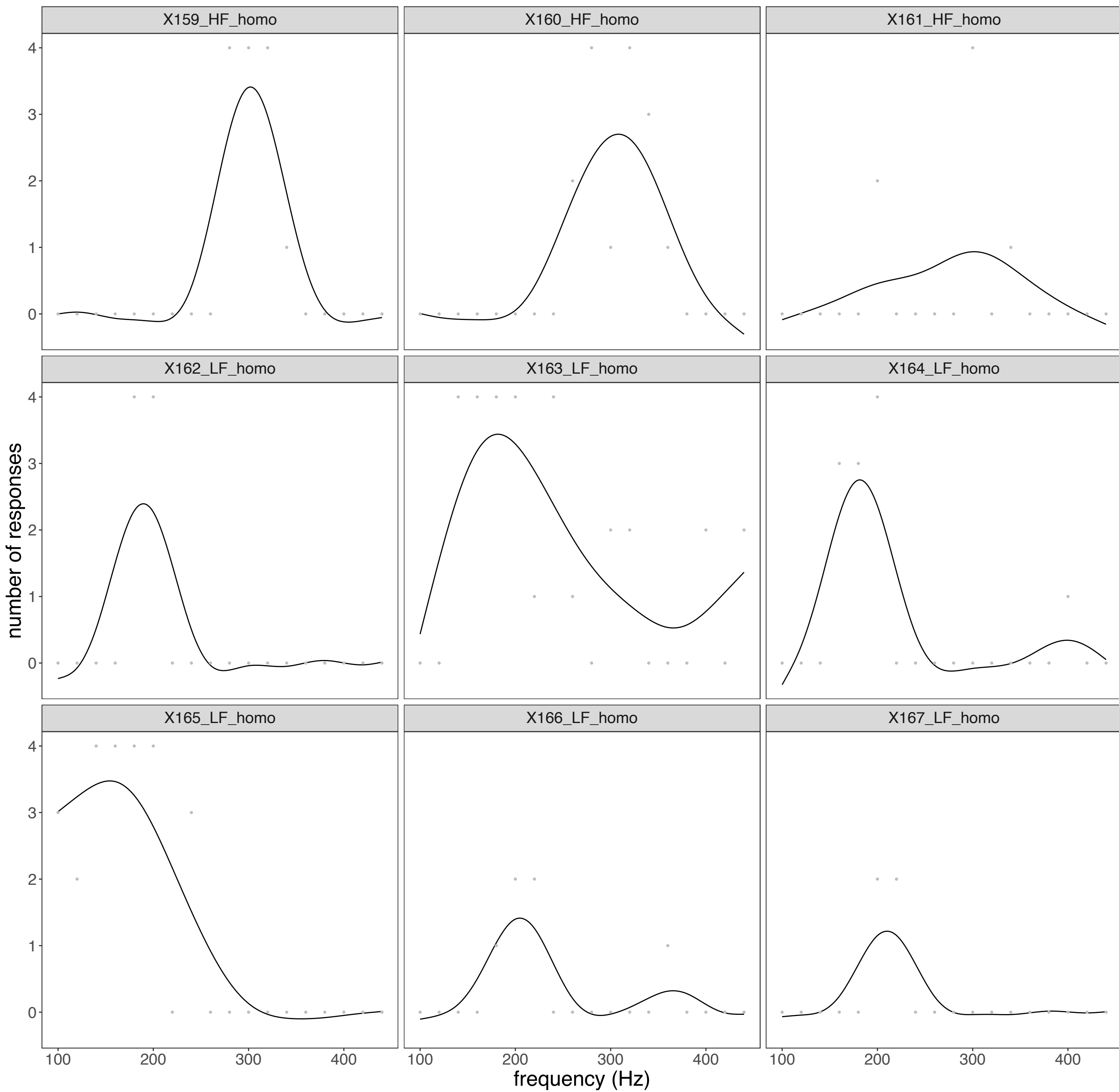


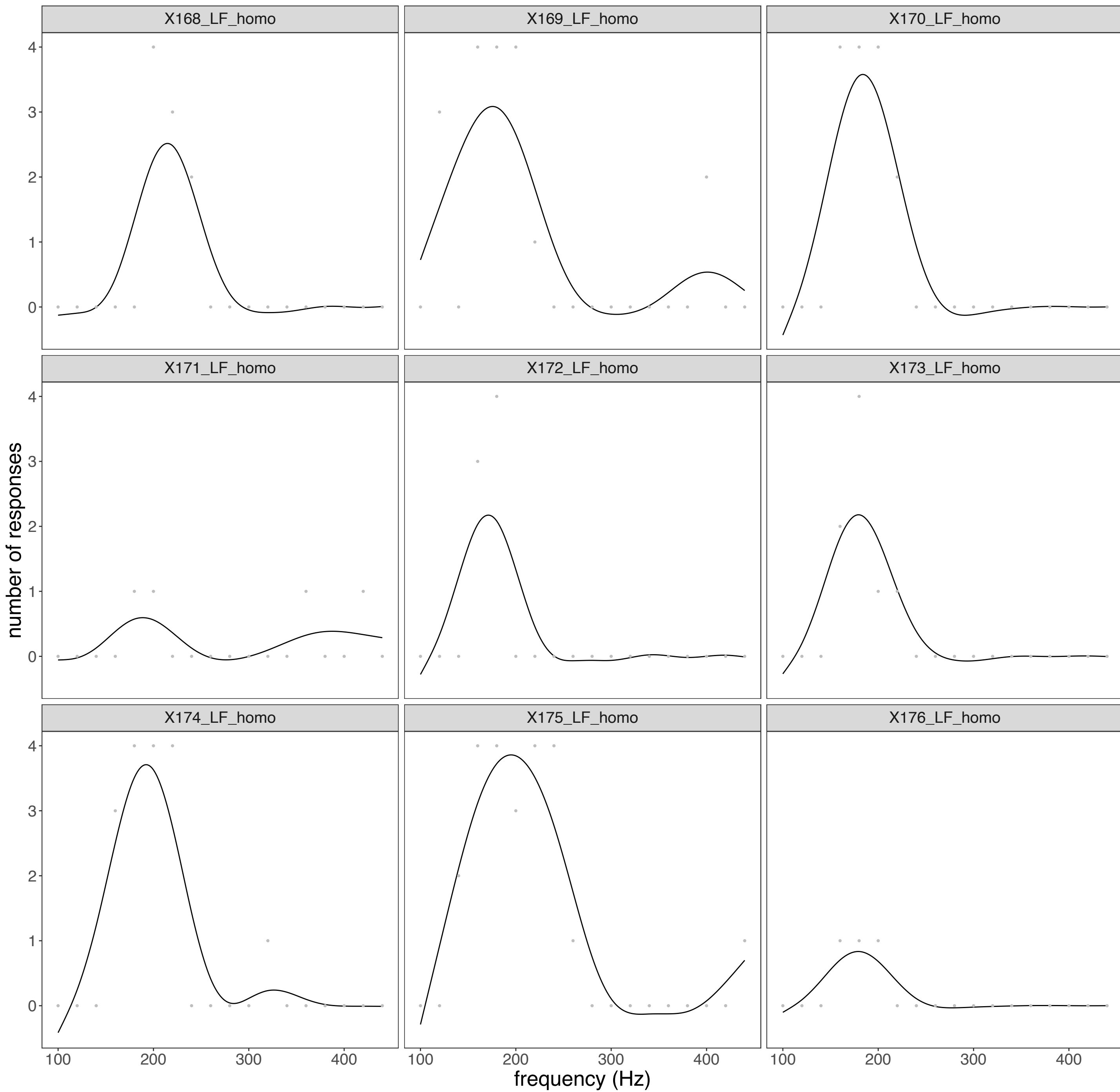


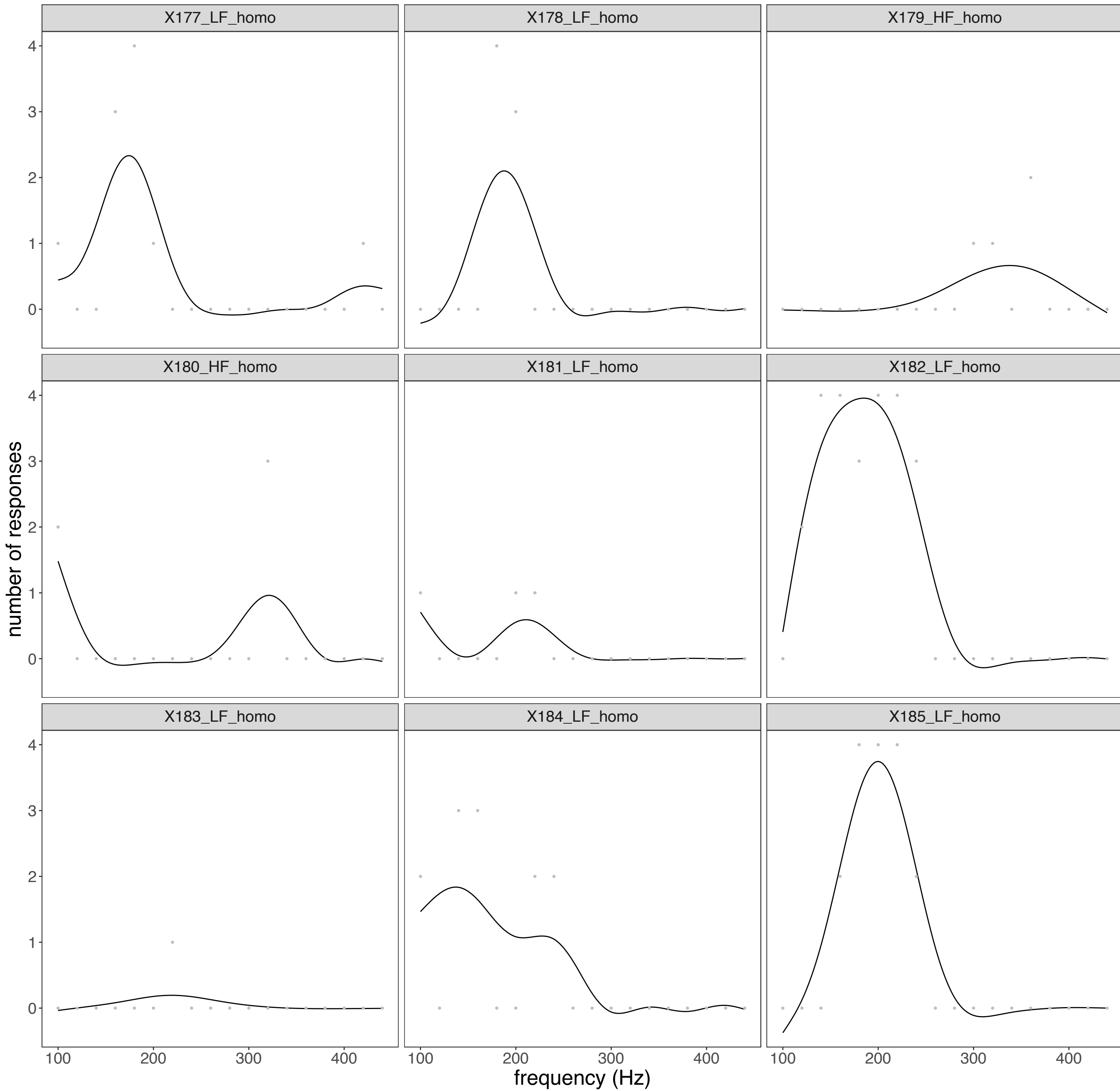


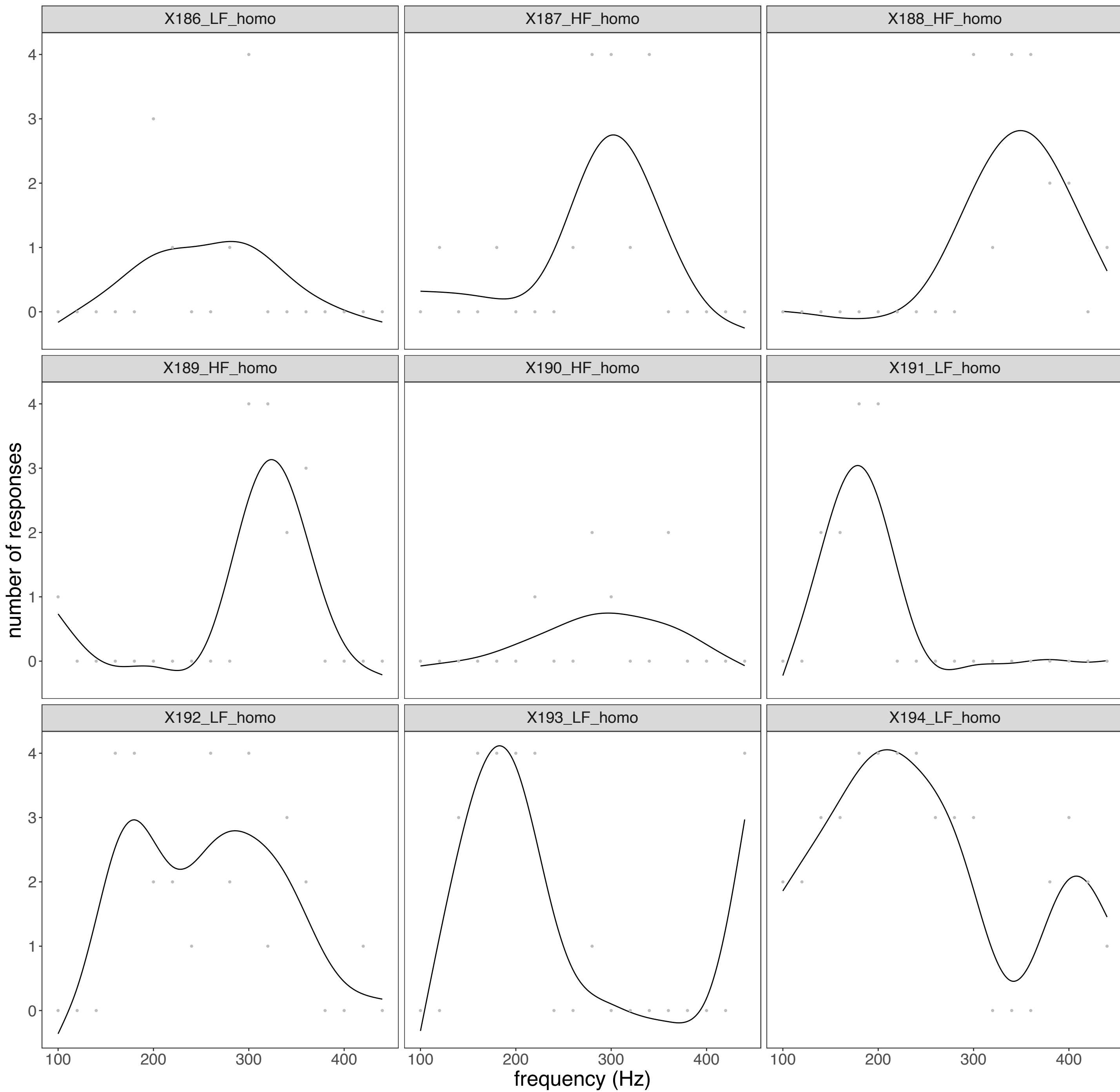


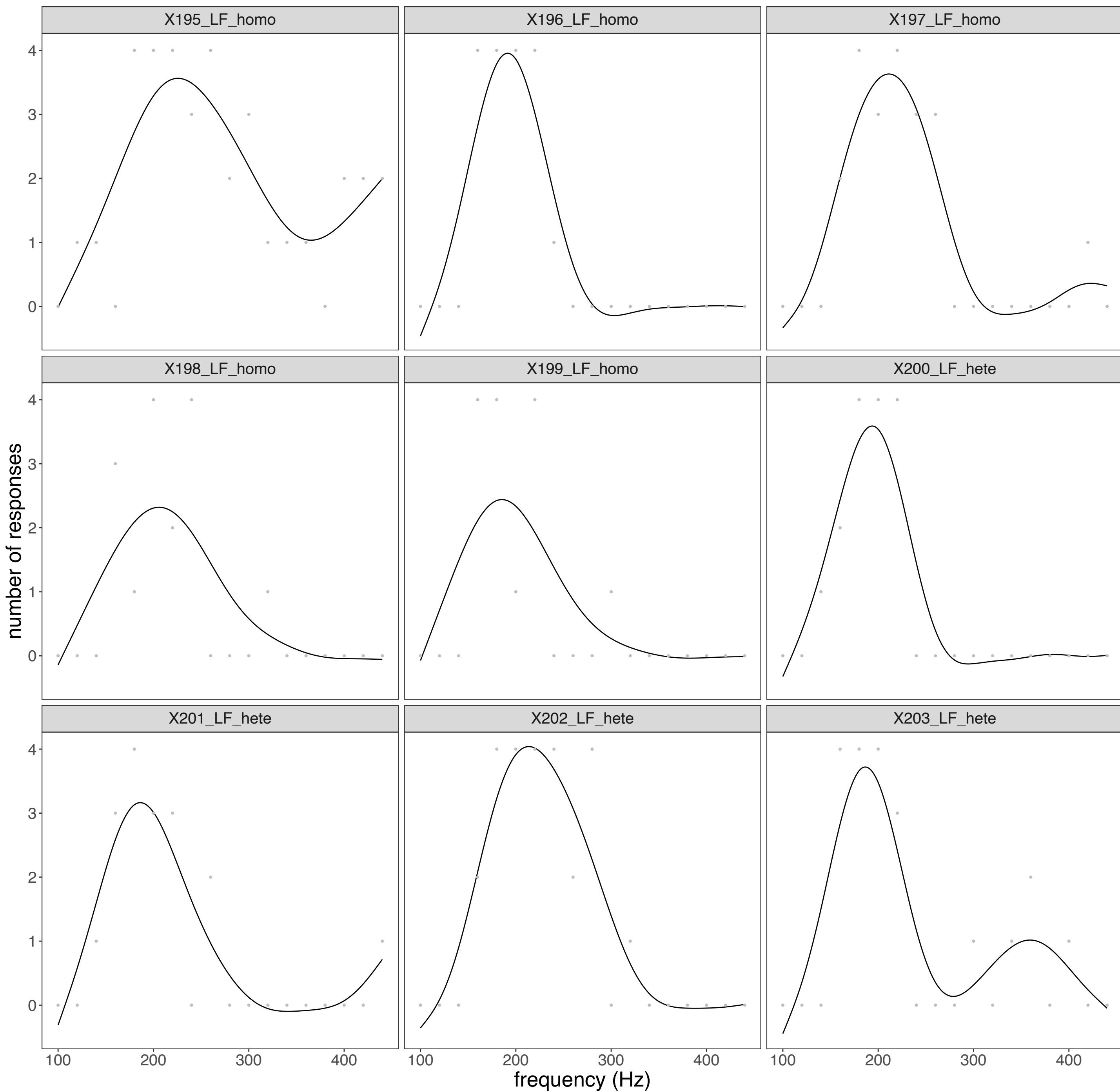


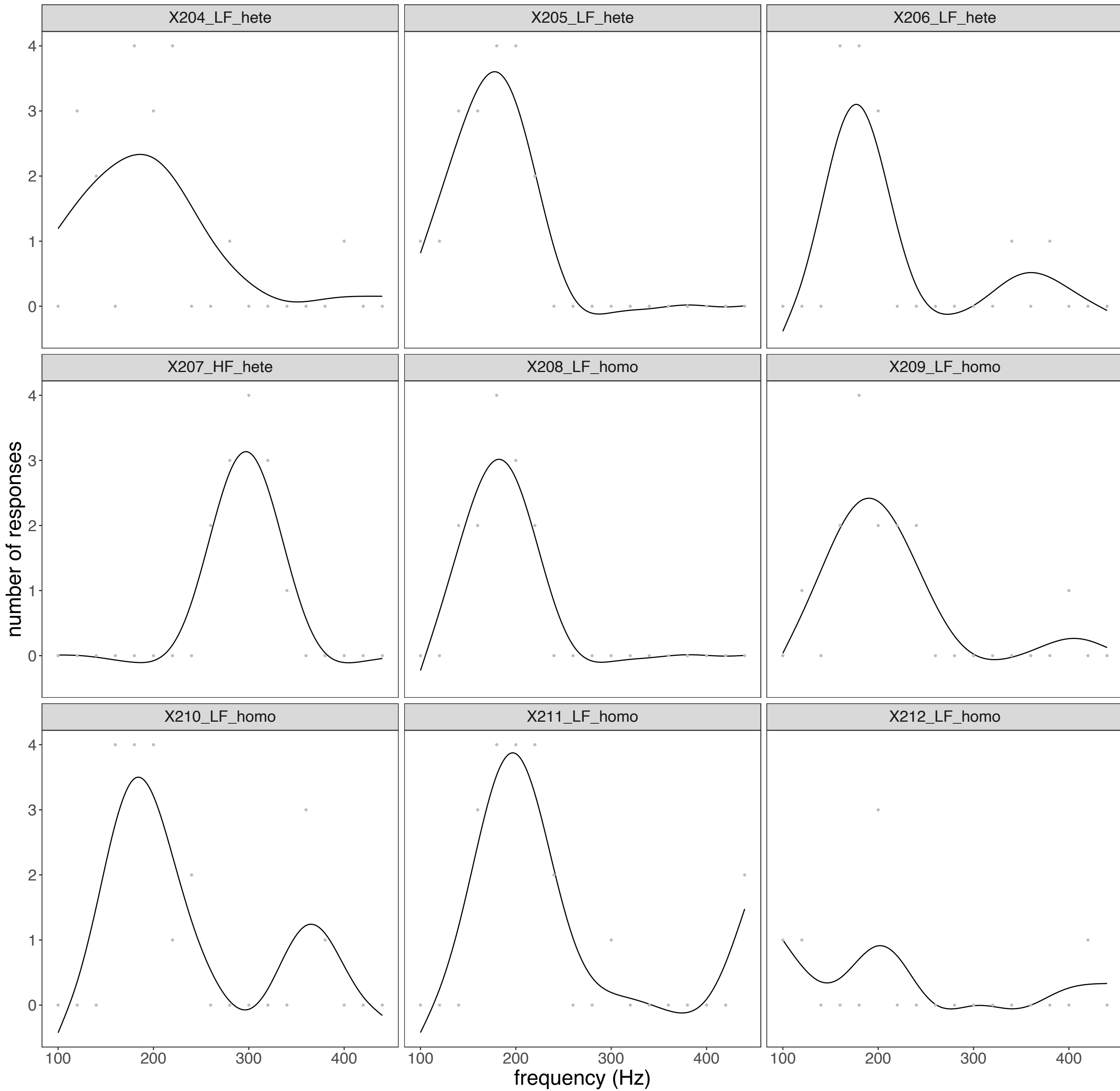


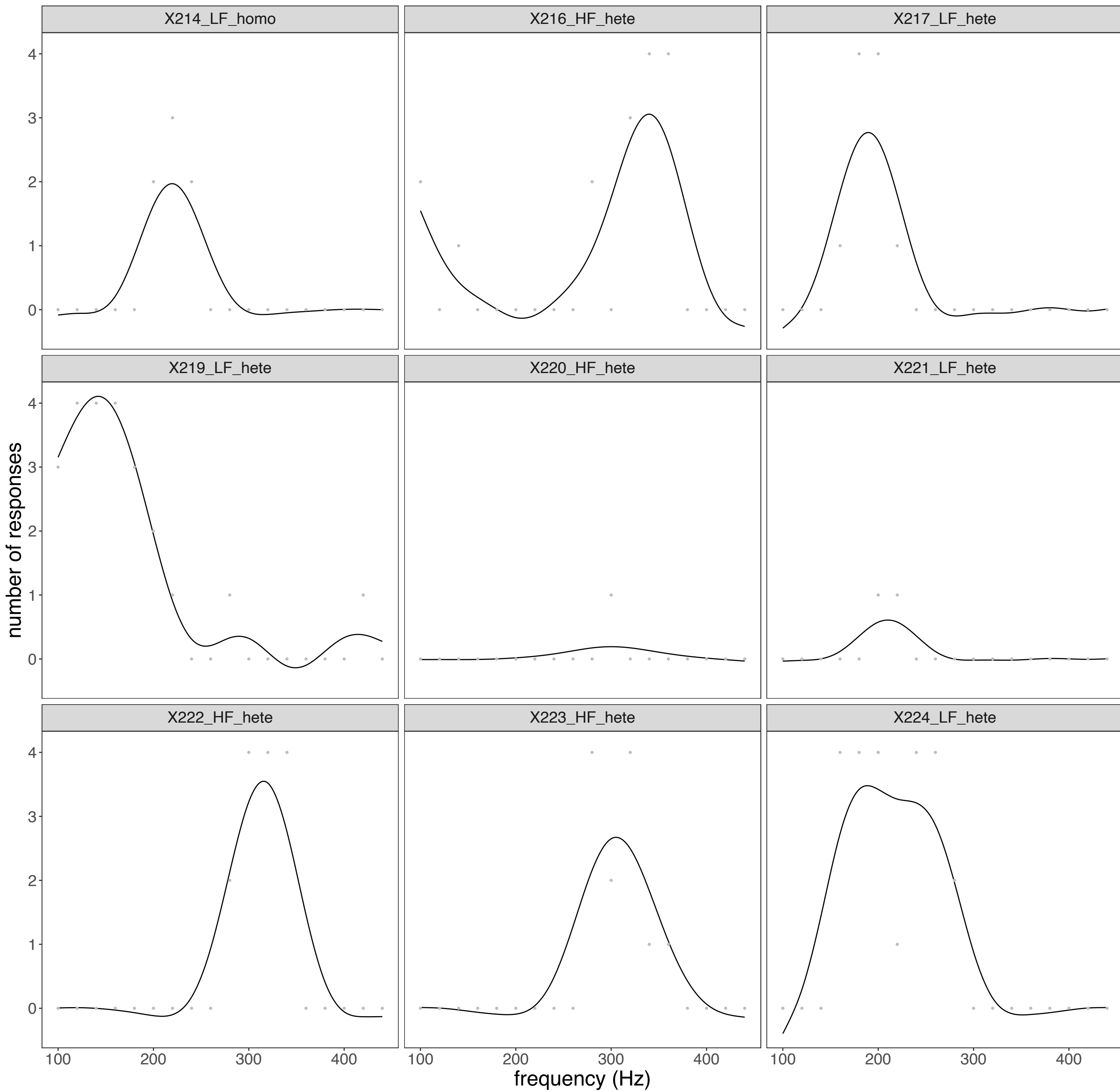


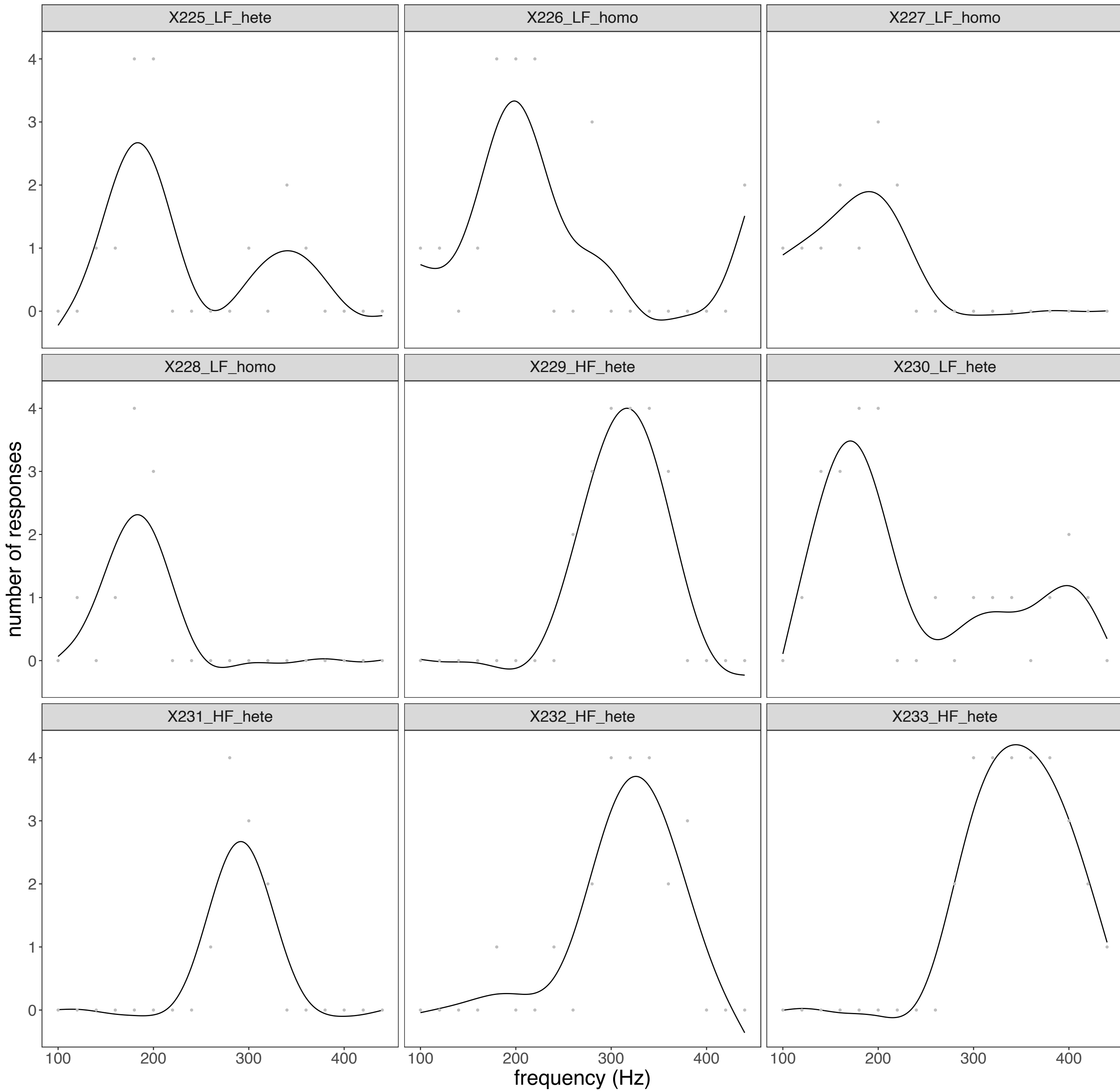


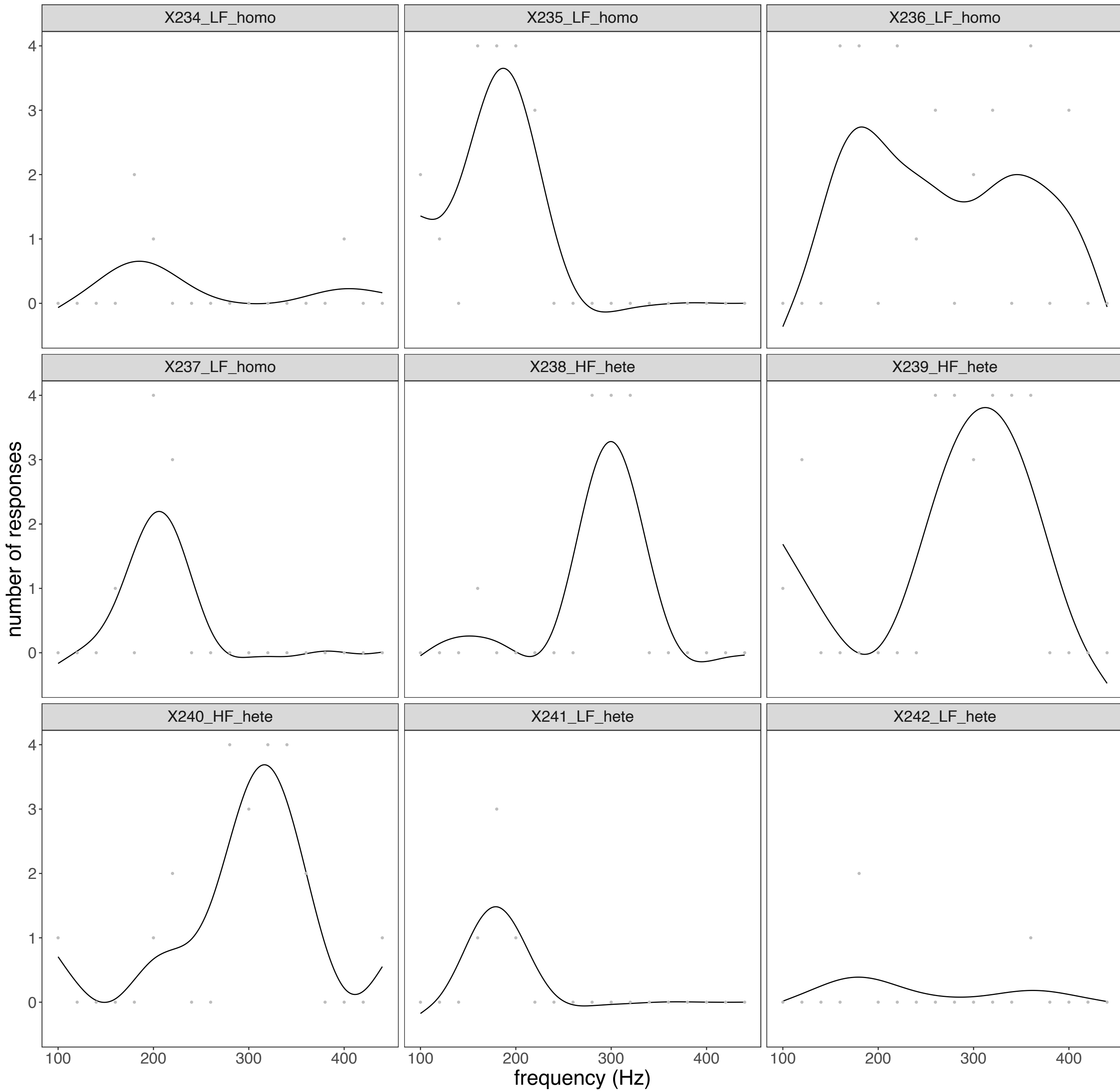


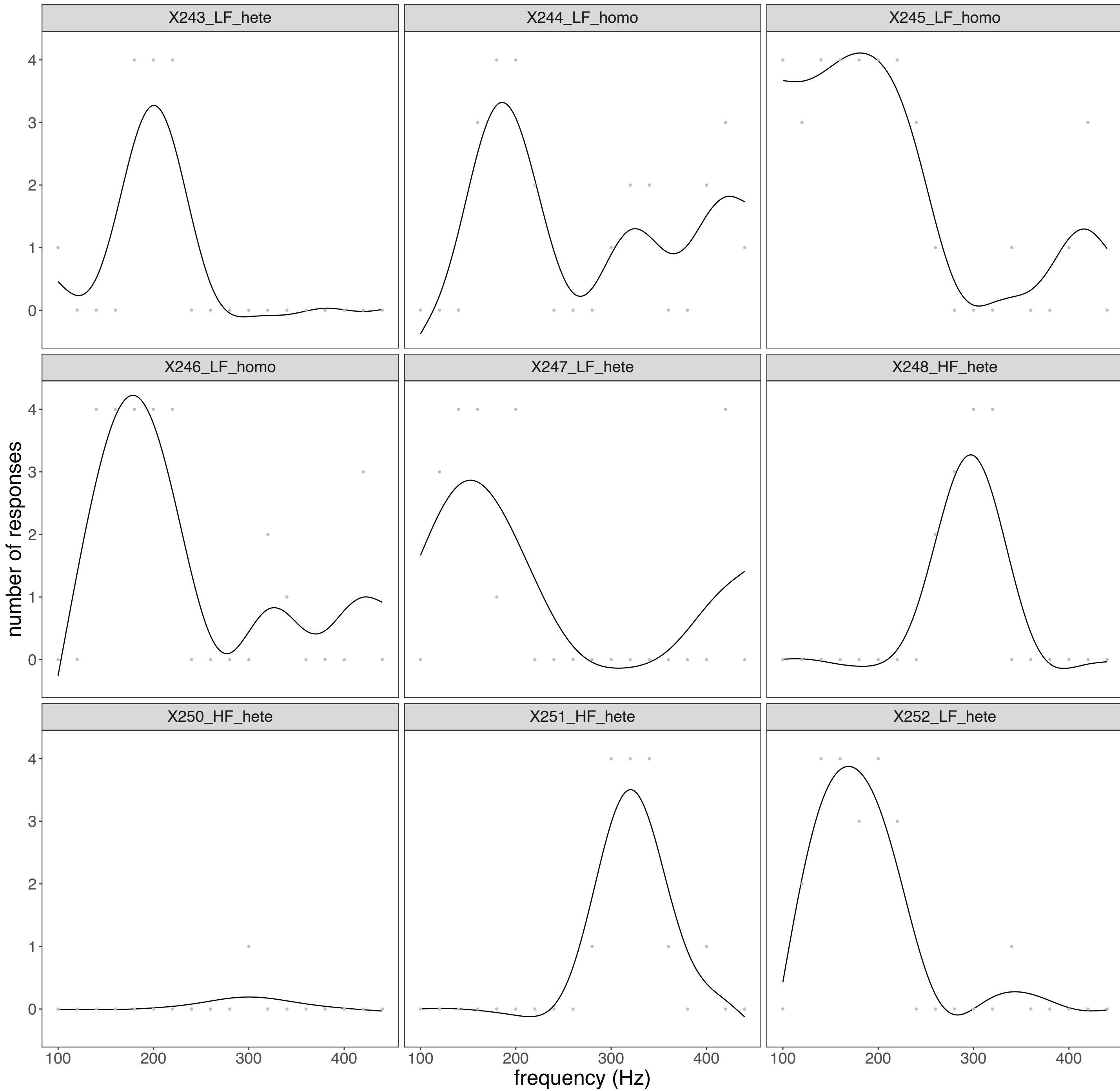


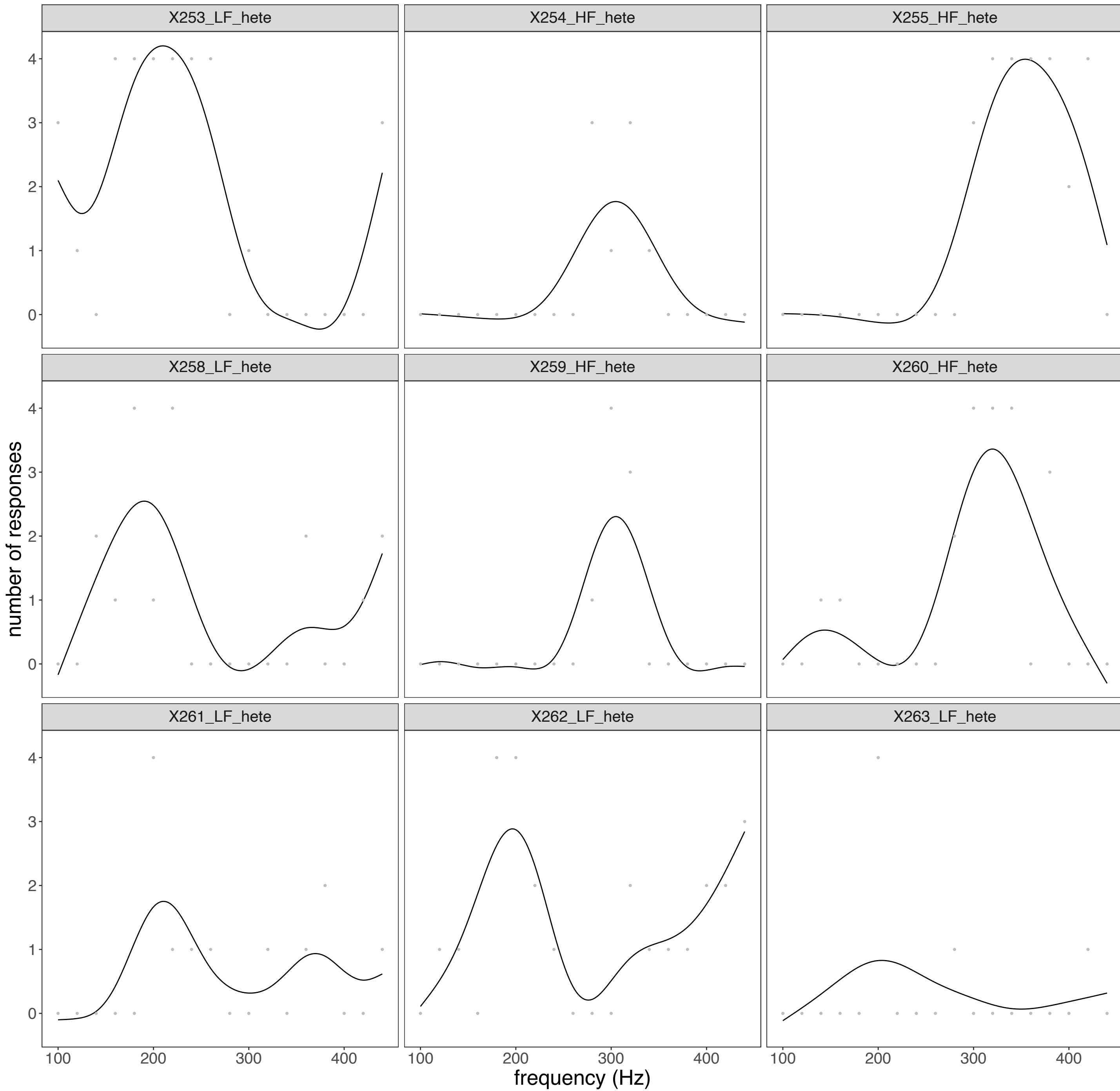


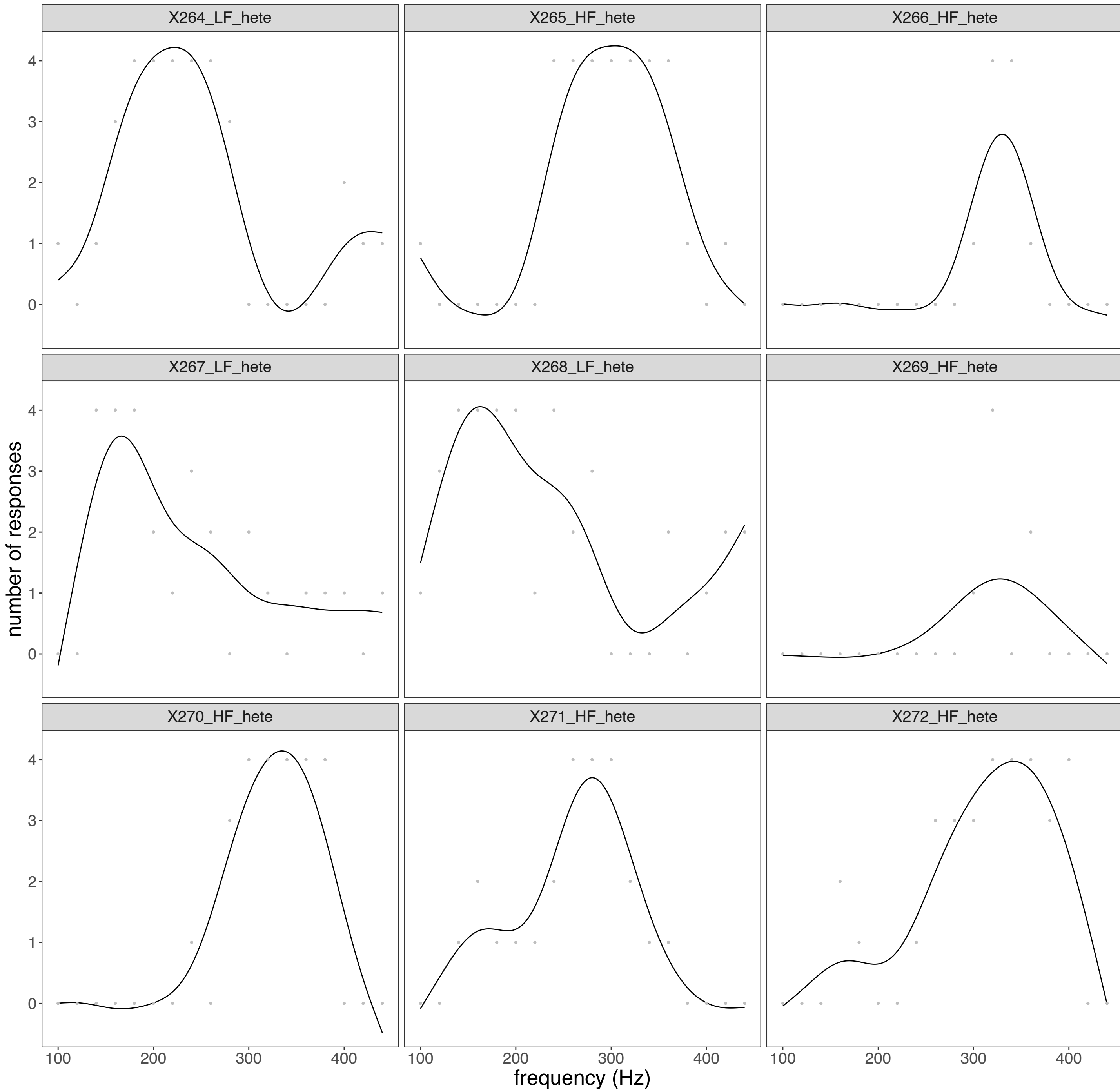


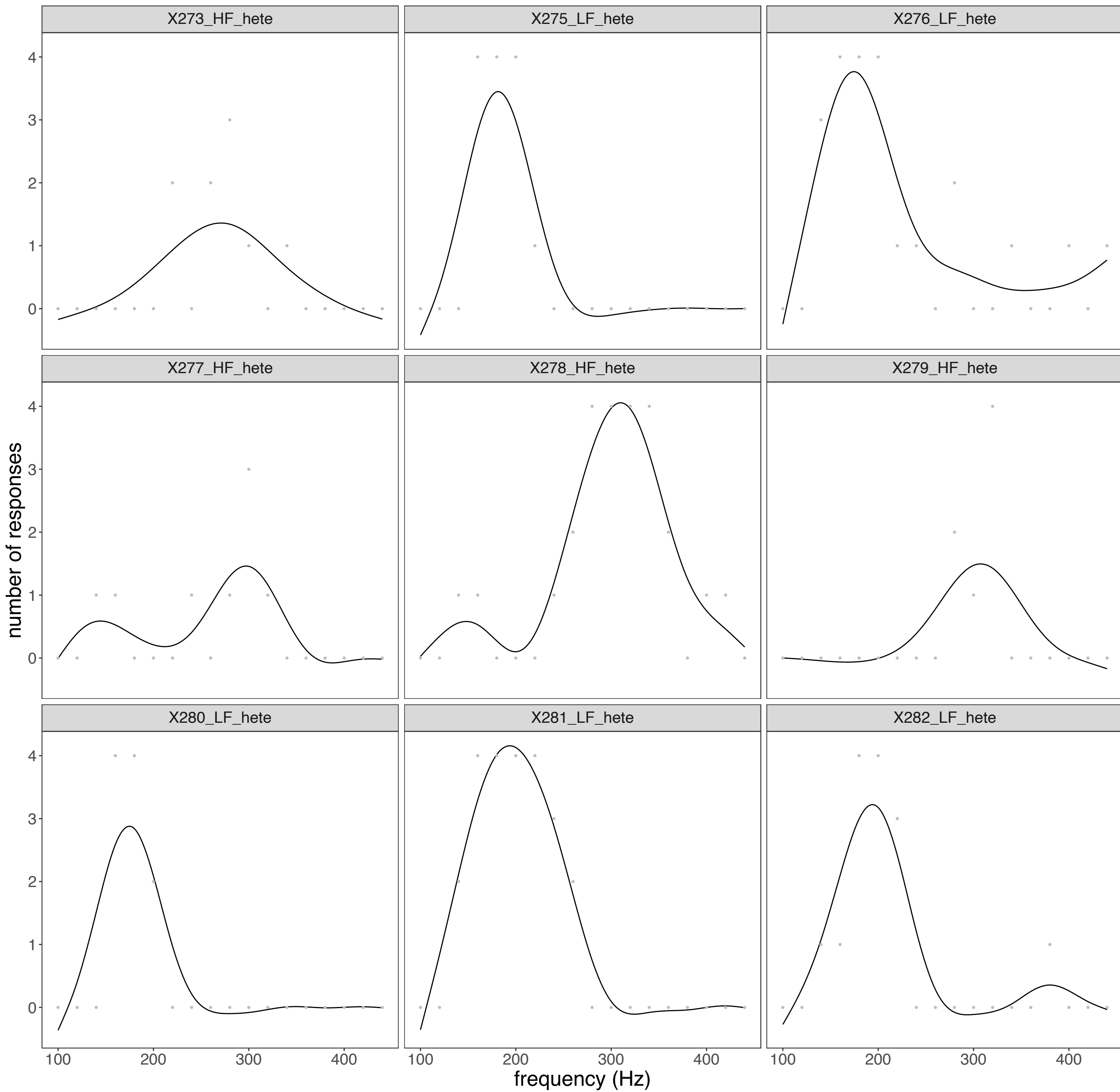


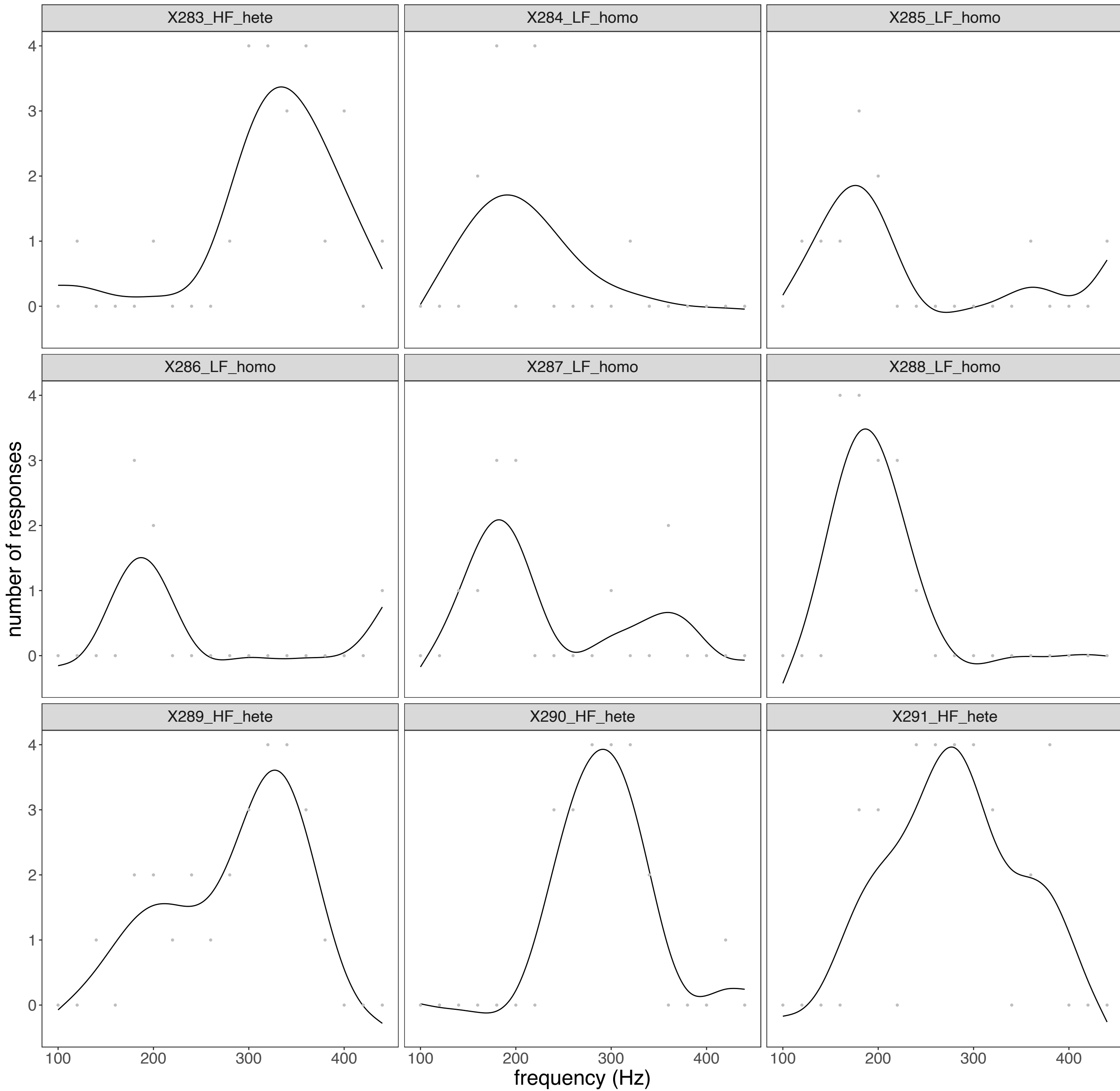


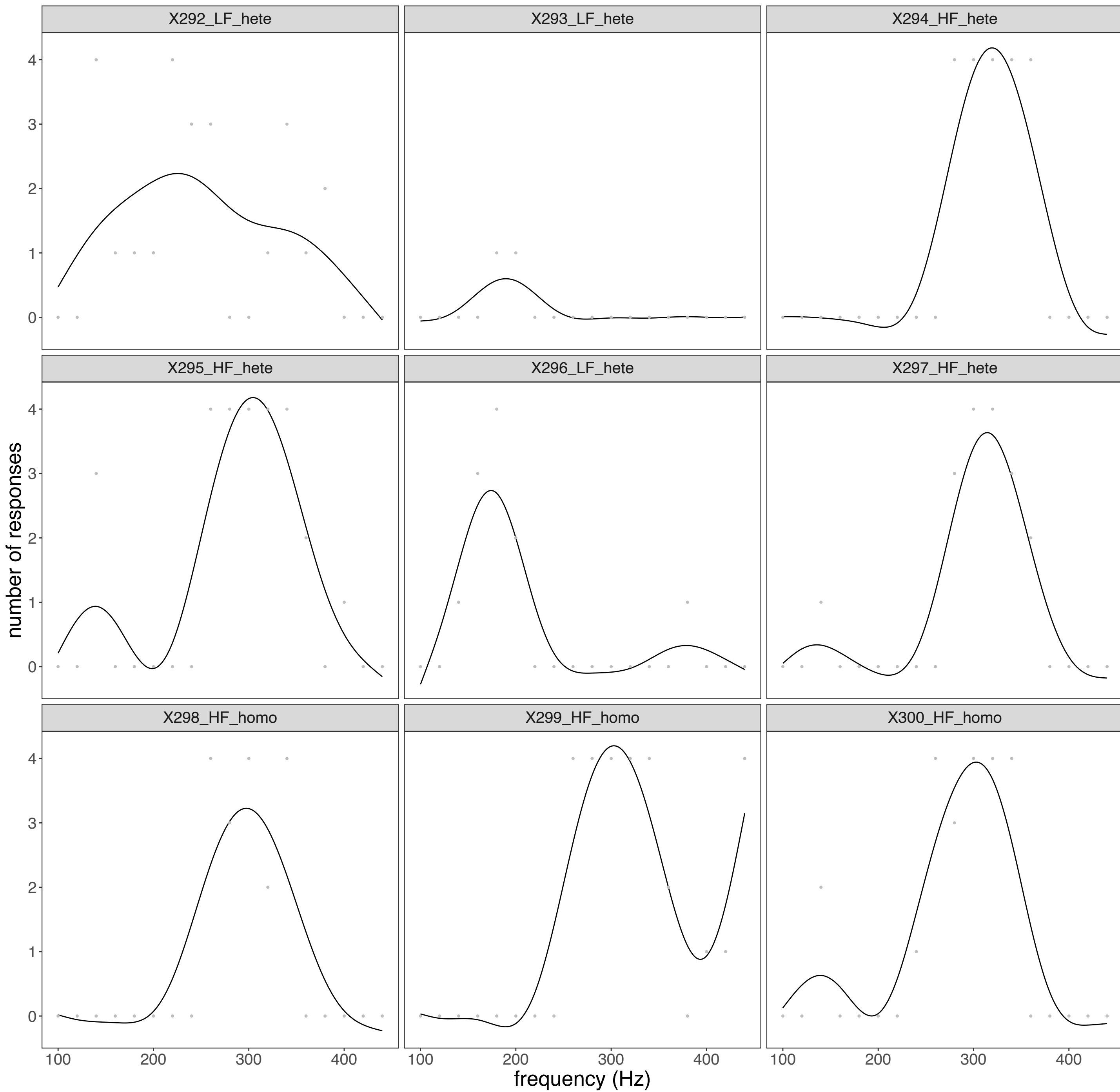


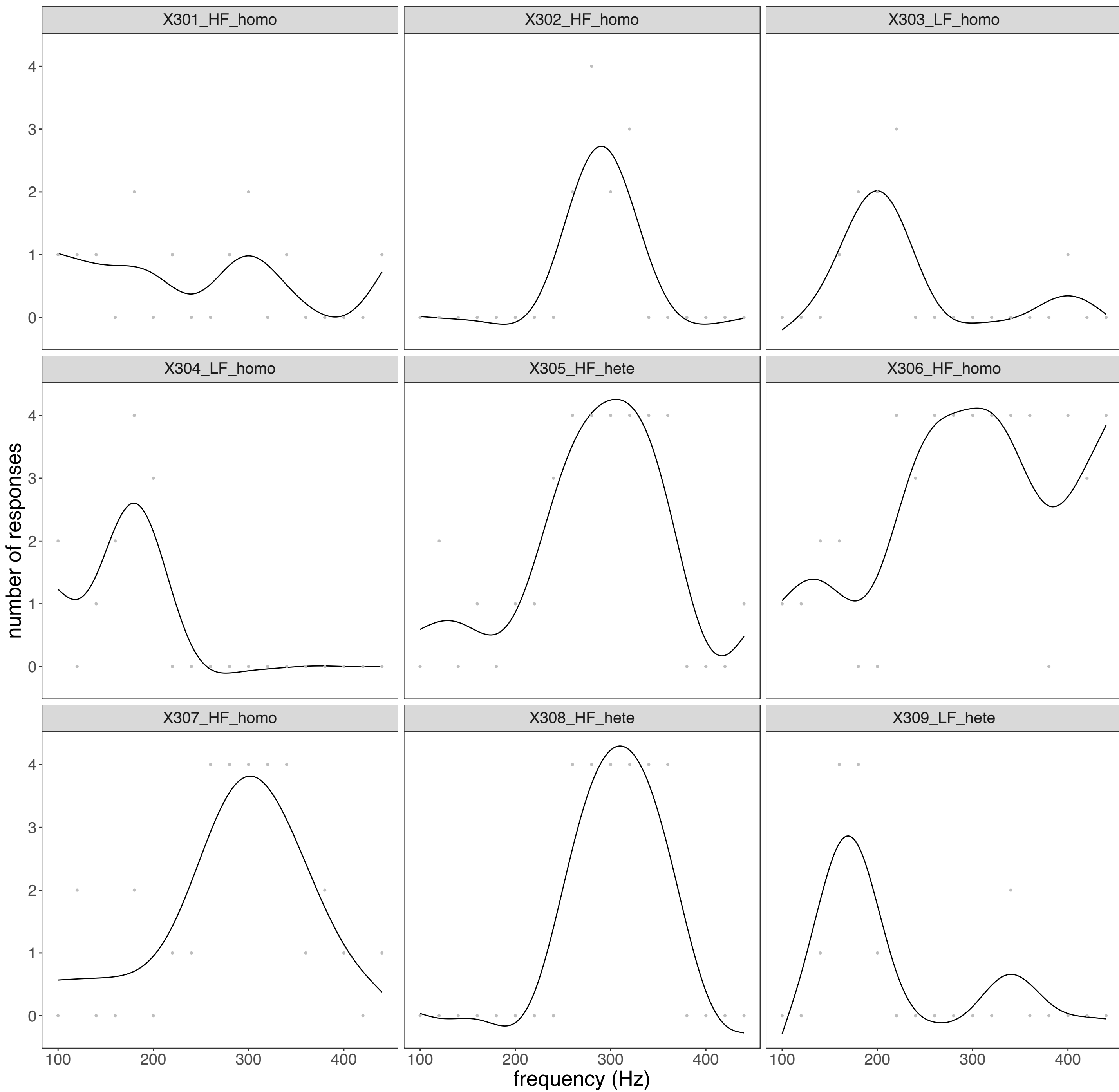


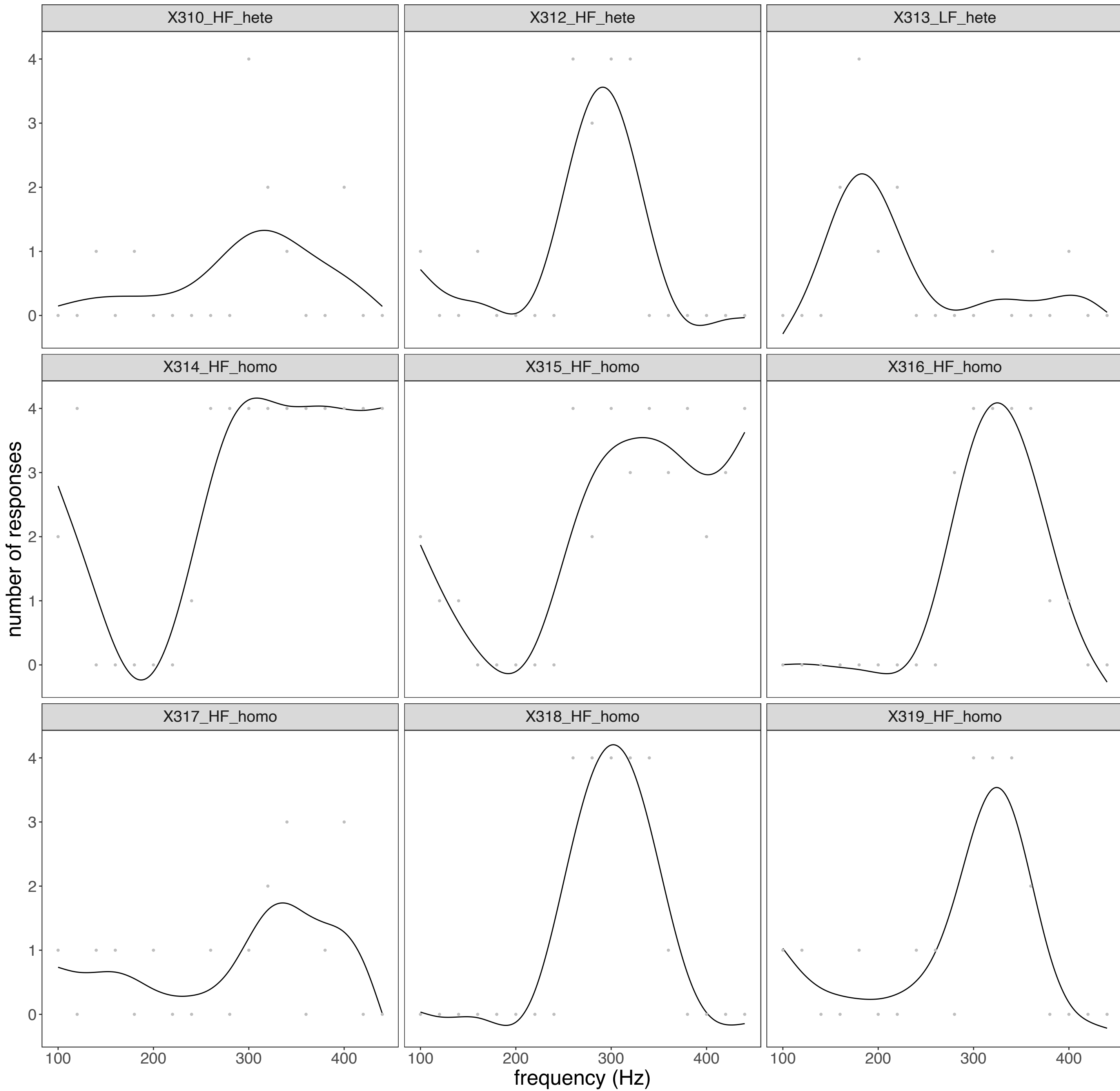


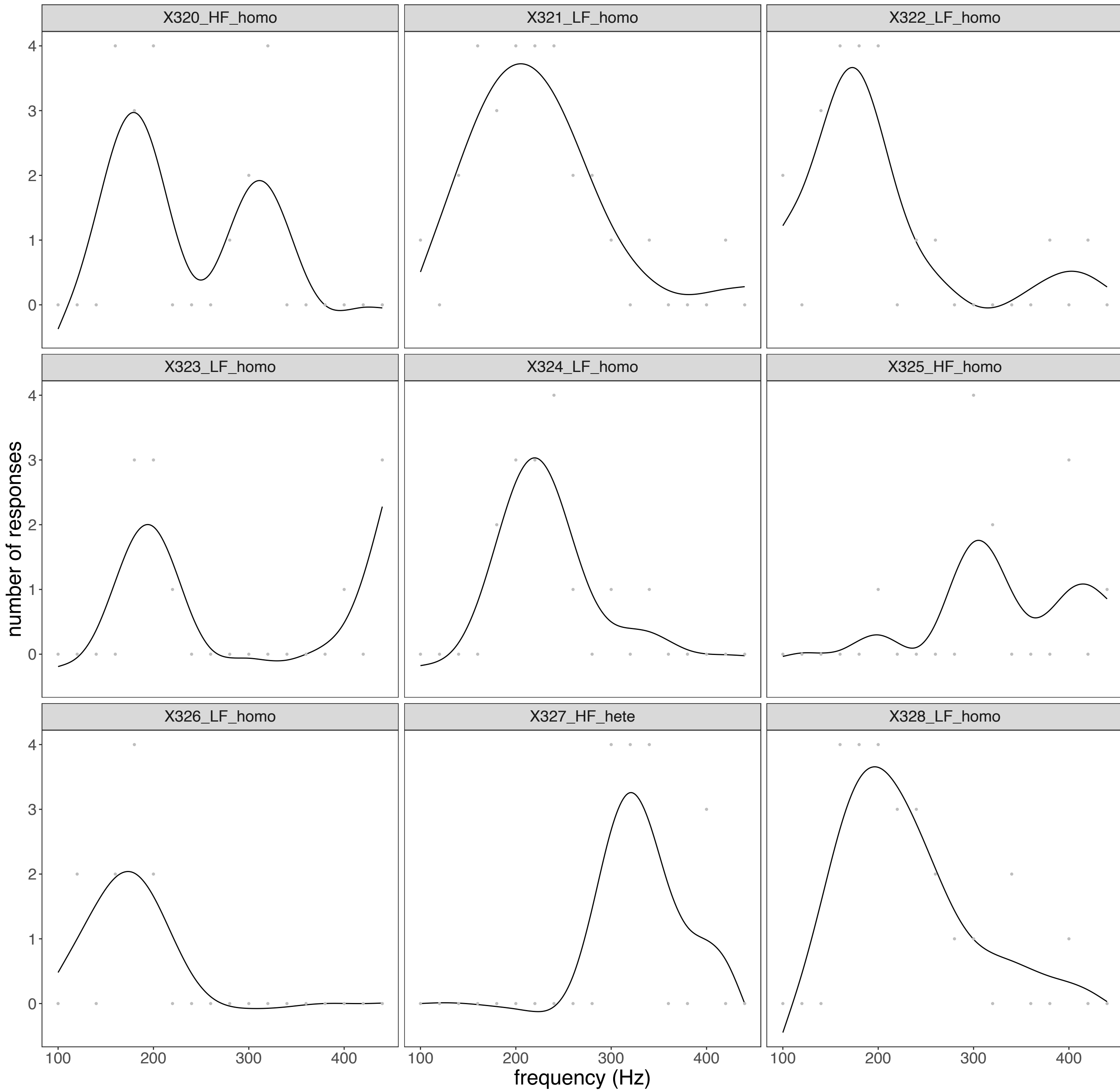


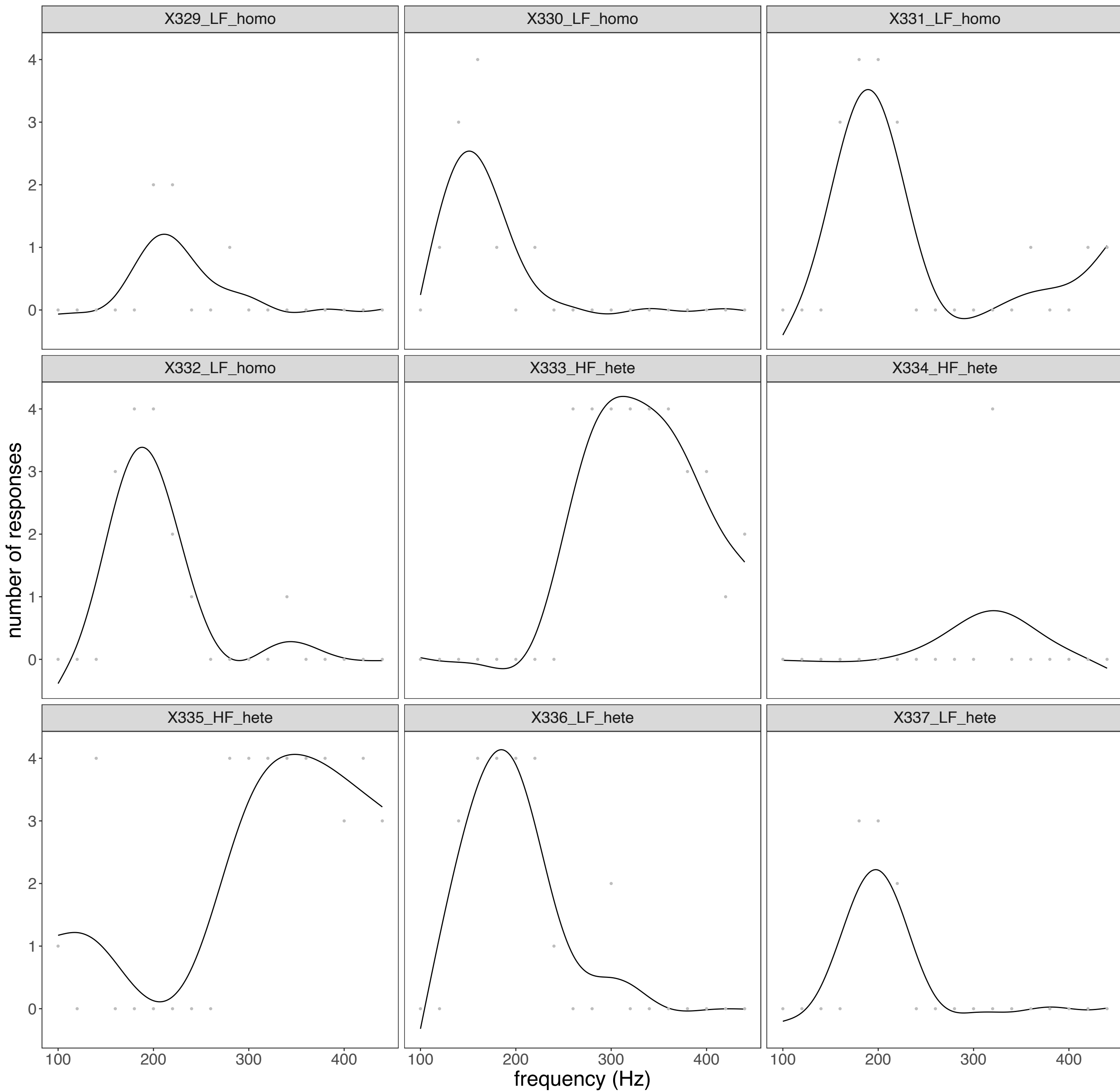


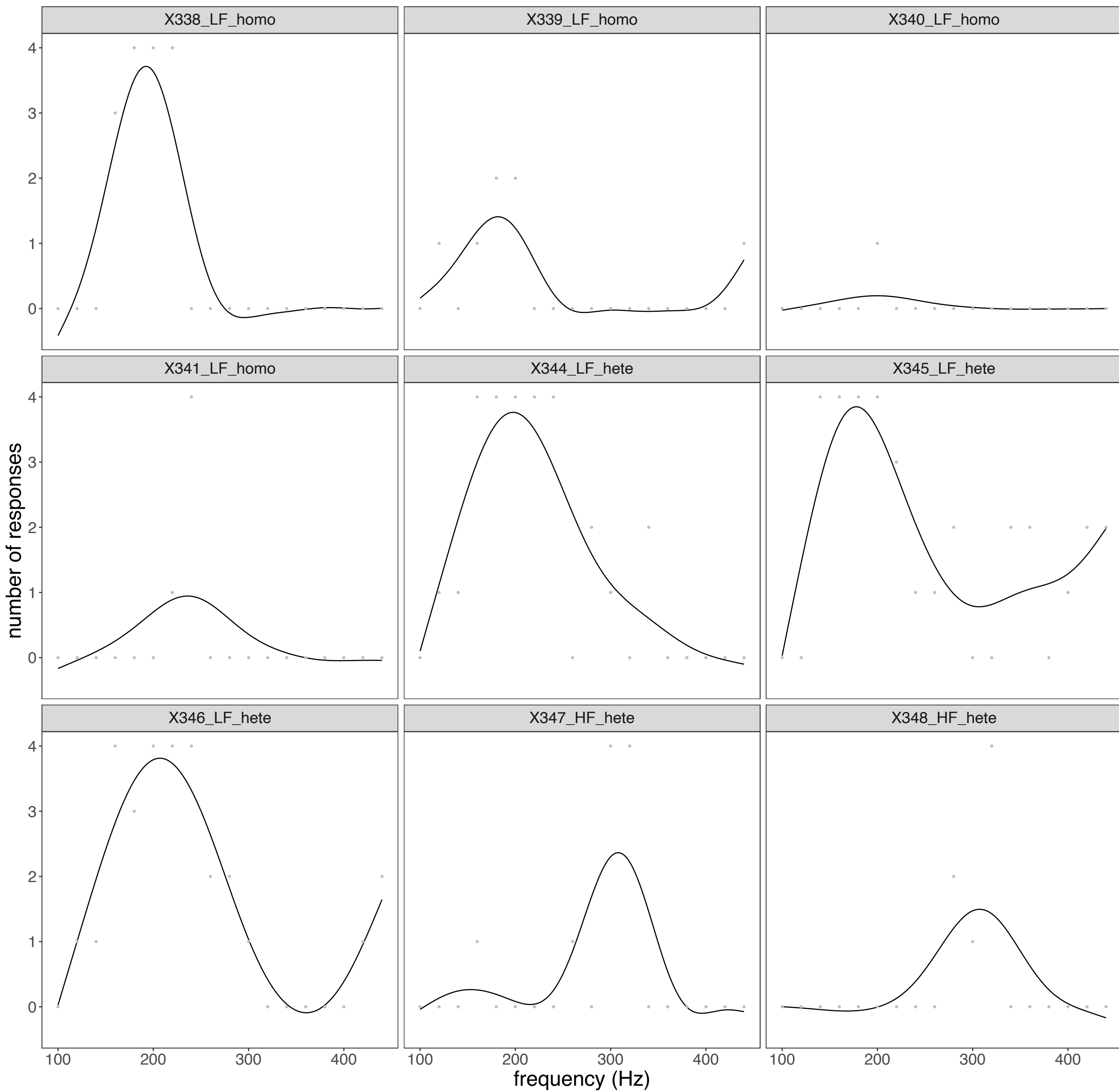


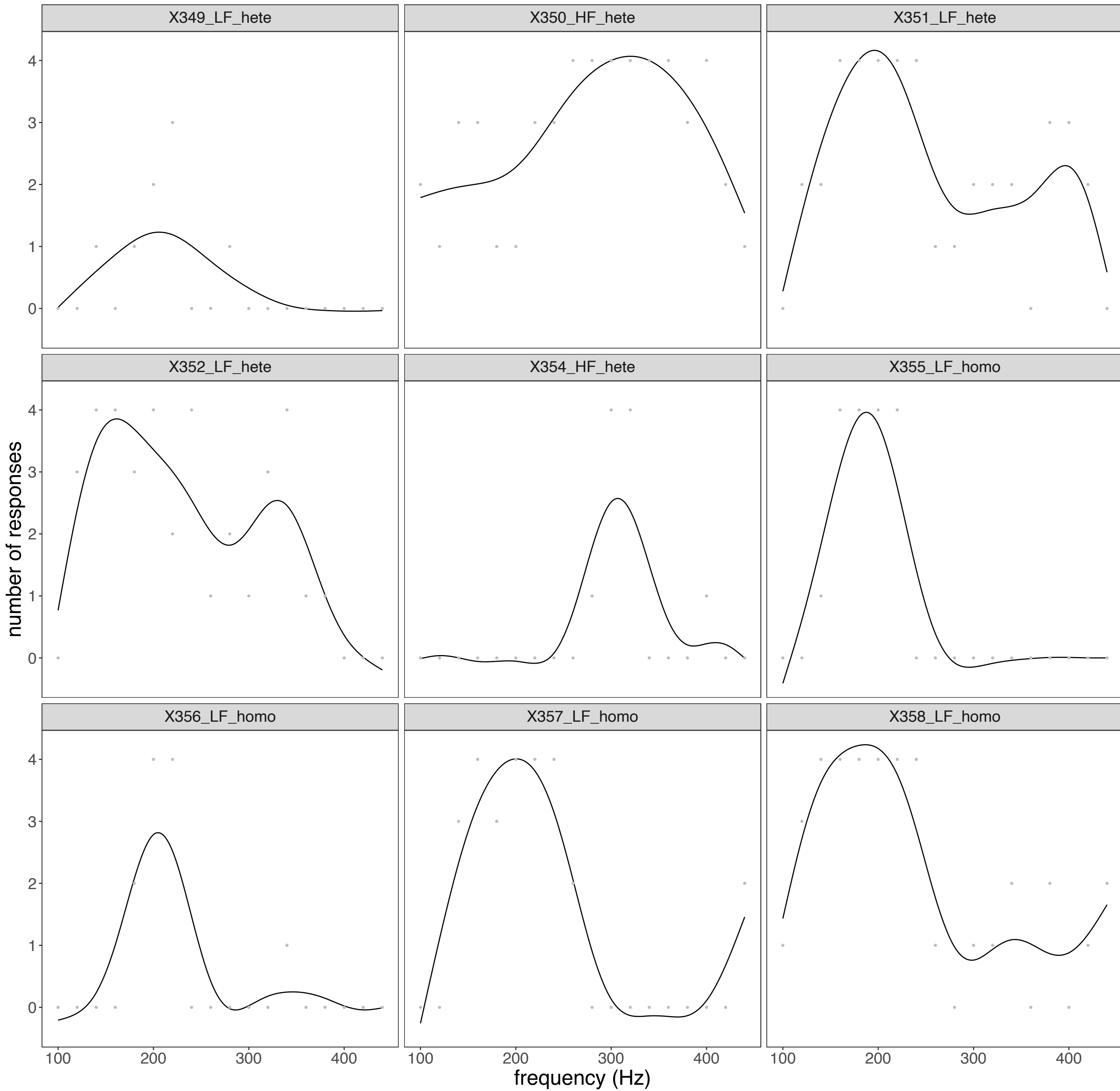


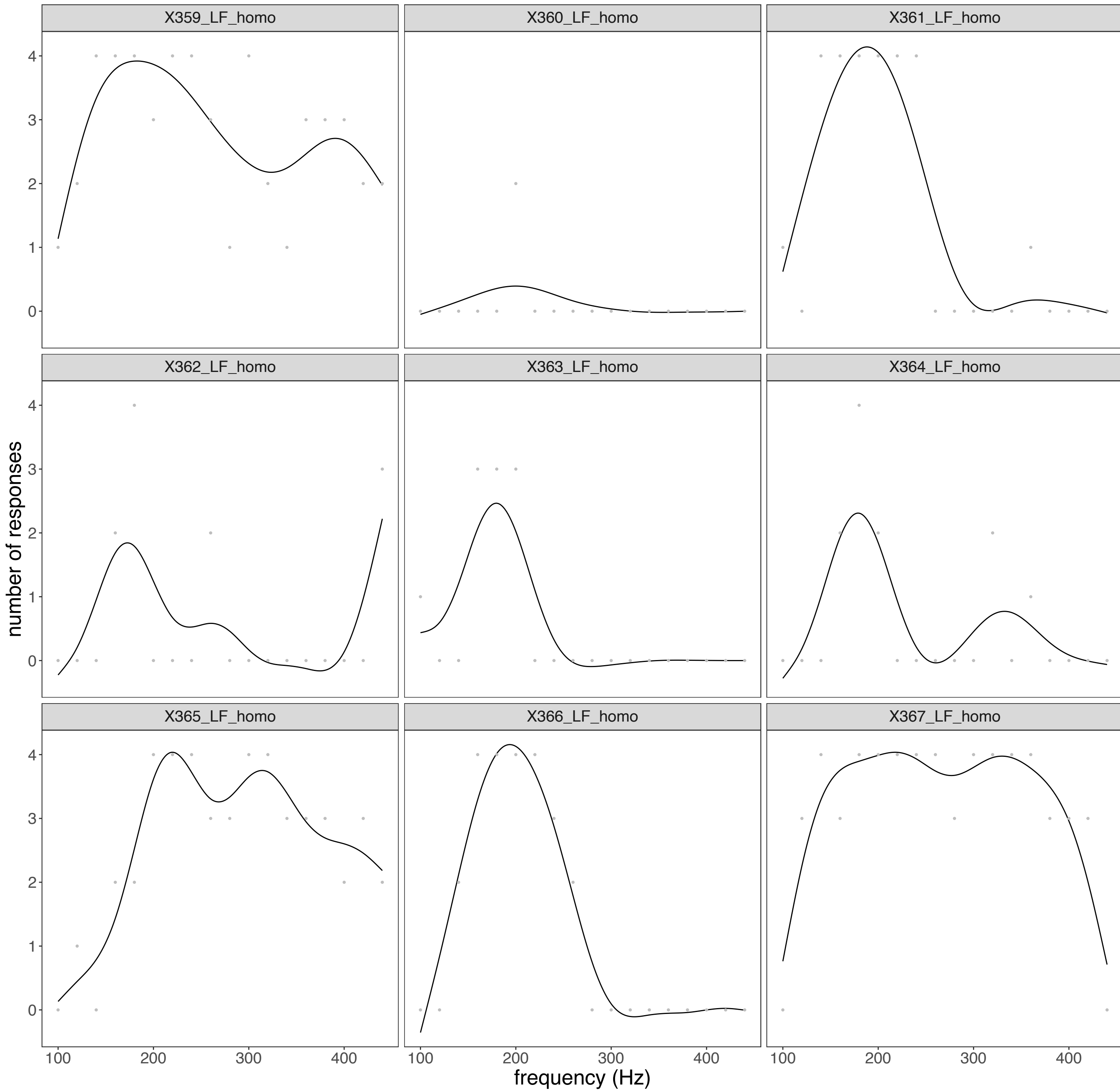


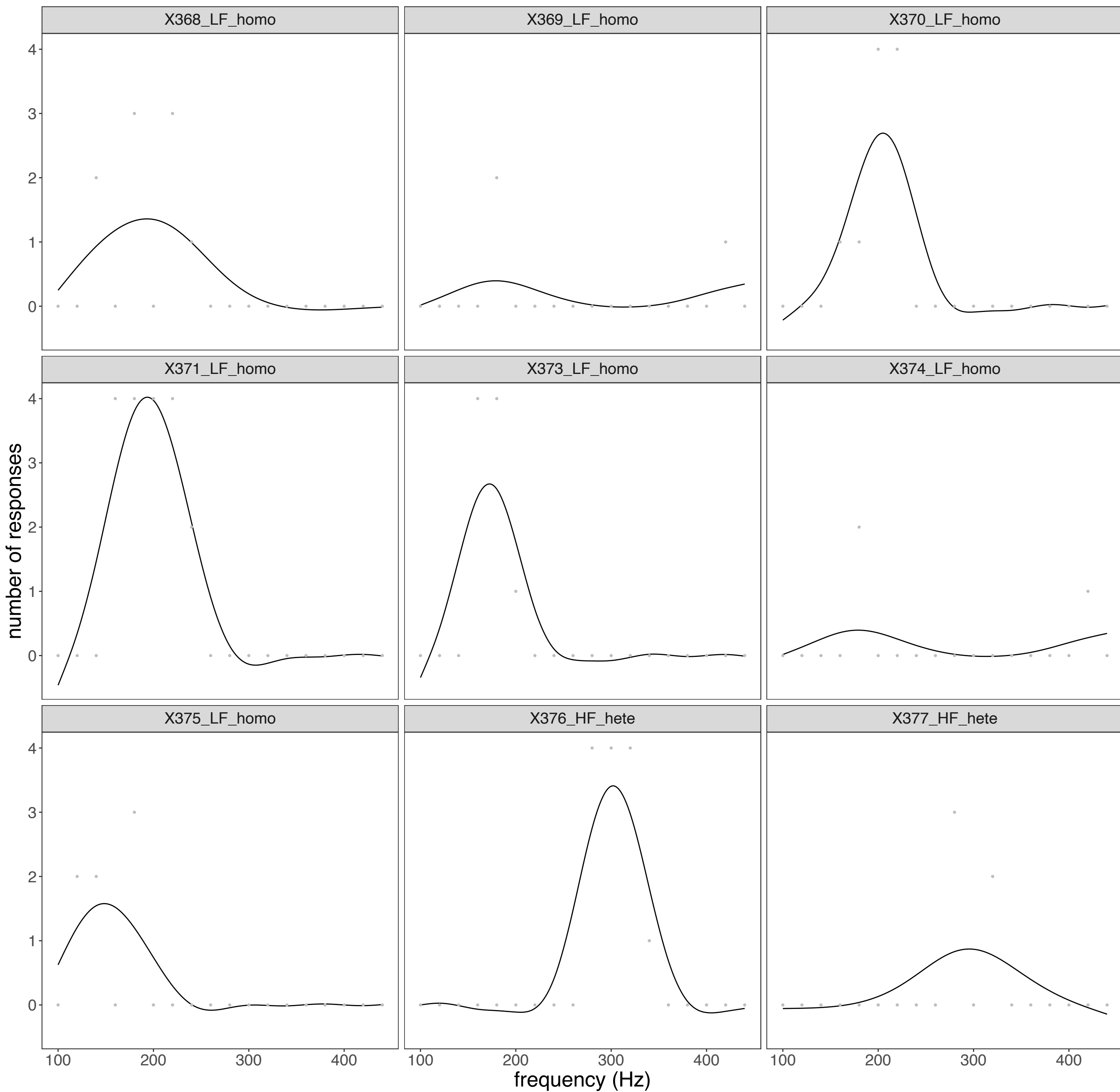


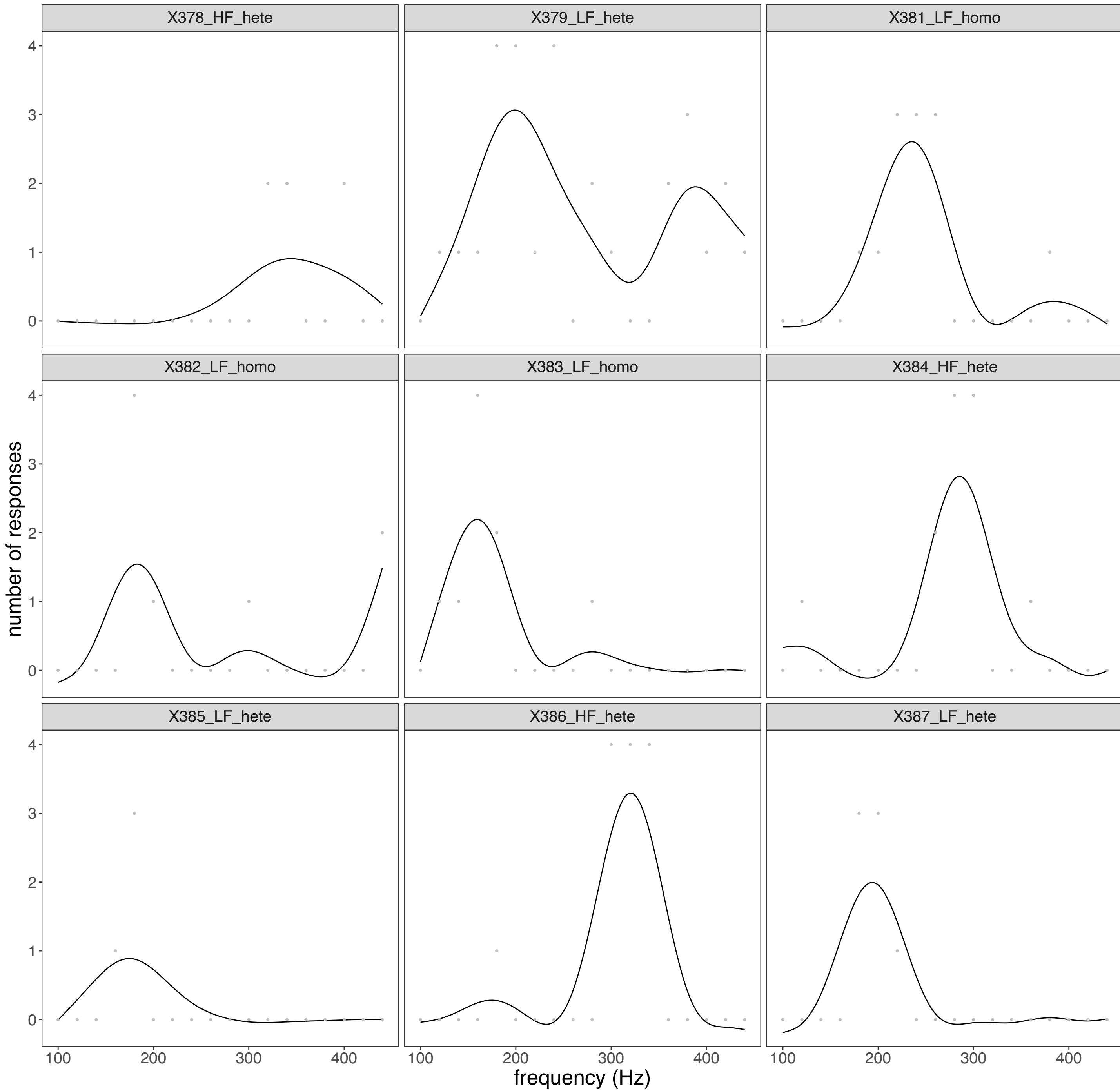


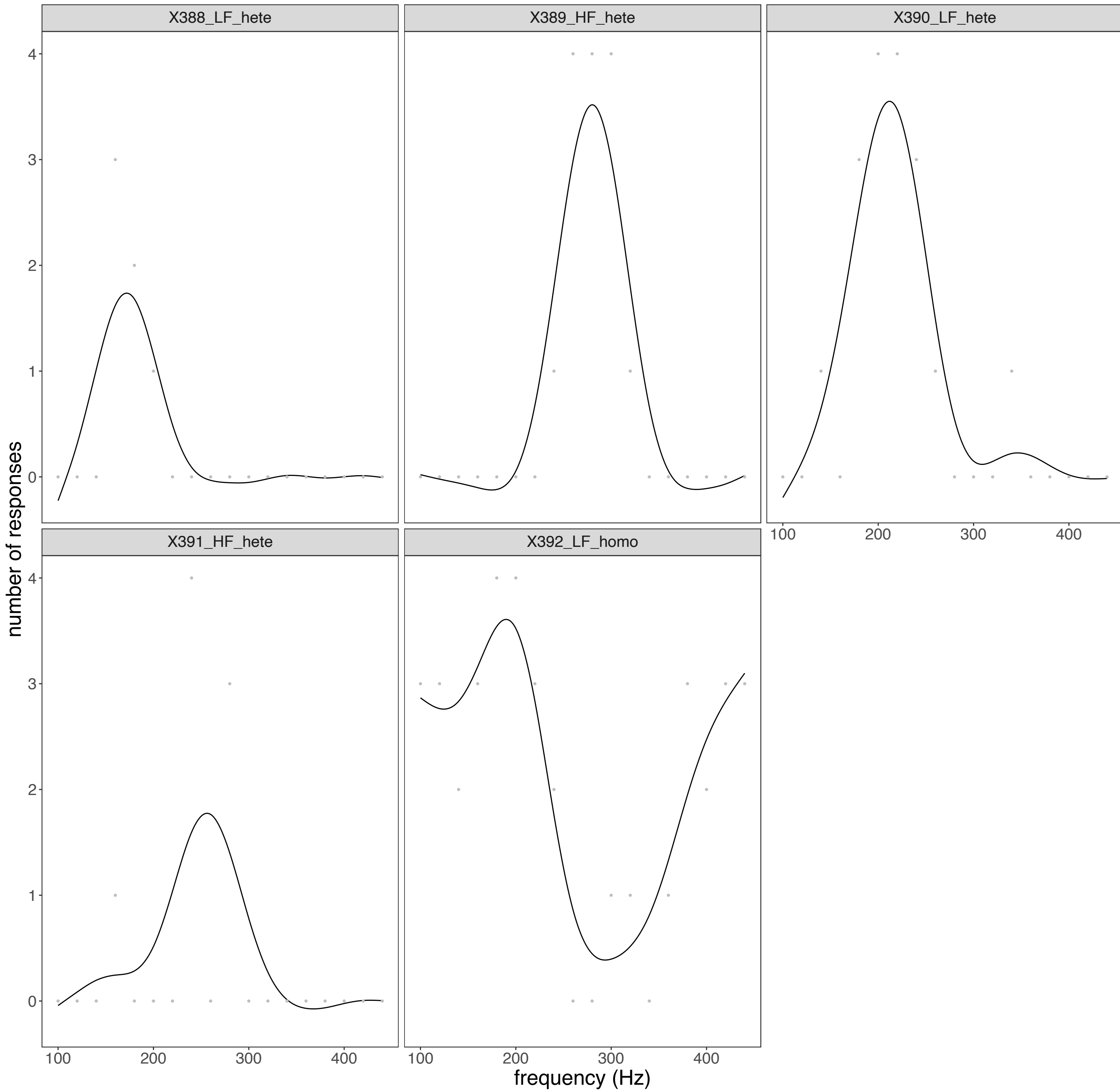












Social plasticity enhances signal-preference co-divergence

Camille Desjonquères^{1,2}, Bretta Speck¹, Sara Seidita¹, Lauren A. Cirino¹, Ignacio Escalante¹, Clinton Sergi¹, Jak Maliszewski¹, Christine Wiese¹, Gerlinde Hoebel¹, Nathan W. Bailey², Rafael L. Rodríguez¹

¹ Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

² School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife KY16 9TH, UK

* Corresponding author: cdesjonqu@gmail.com, Tel.: +1 (414) 229-4214

Behavioral & Molecular Ecology Group, Department of Biological Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI, USA

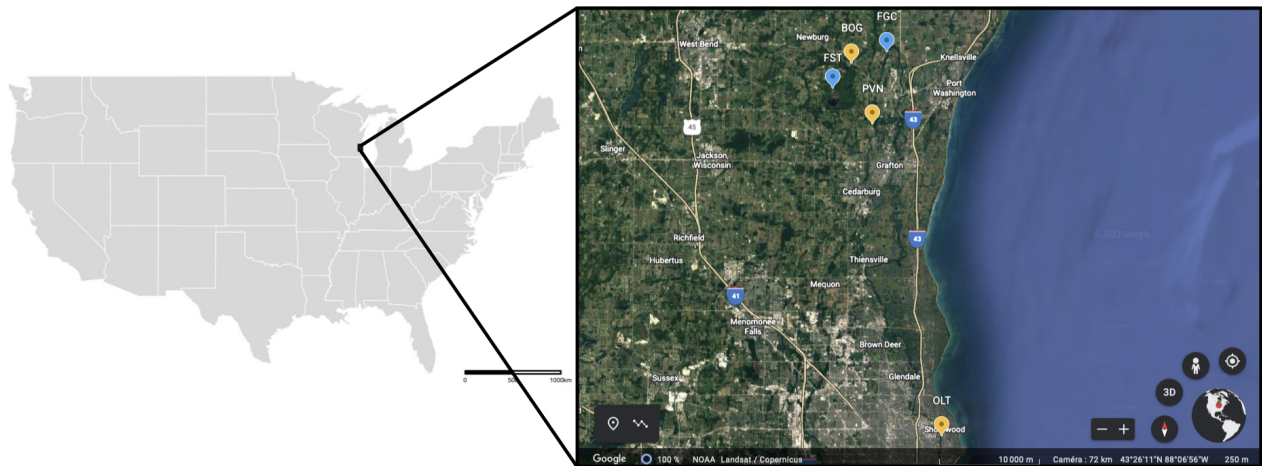


Figure S1: Map of the sampling locations. BOG, PNV and OLT are the allopatric locations in yellow. FST and FGC are the sympatric locations in light blue.

Table S1: Replication levels for male and female *Enchenopa binotata* in different treatment, site and year.

Site sp_{low}	Site sp_{high}	Treatment	Years	Plant replicate	Nymphs	Males	Females
BOG	x	own	2018-2020	9	360	sp_{low} 14	sp_{low} 51
FGC	x	own	2019-2020	8	320	sp_{low} 21	sp_{low} 41
x	FGC	own	2019-2020	5	200	sp_{high} 2	sp_{high} 15
FST	x	own	2018-2020	10	400	sp_{low} 10	sp_{low} 32
x	FST	own	2018-2020	7	280	sp_{high} 18	sp_{high} 17
OLT	x	own	2018	4	160	sp_{low} 7	sp_{low} 18
PVN	x	own	2020	4	160	sp_{low} 26	sp_{low} 27
BOG	FST	mixed	2018-2020	7	280	sp_{low} 6 sp_{high} 6	sp_{low} 17 sp_{high} 8
FGC	FST	mixed	2019-2020	7	280	sp_{low} 2 sp_{high} 2	sp_{low} 18 sp_{high} 18
FST	FGC	mixed	2019-2020	2	80	sp_{low} 1 sp_{high} 1	sp_{low} 7 sp_{high} 13
FST	FST	mixed	2018-2019	6	240	sp_{low} 10 sp_{high} 3	sp_{low} 15 sp_{high} 13
OLT	FST	mixed	2018	4	160	sp_{low} 7 sp_{high} 2	sp_{low} 11 sp_{high} 6
PVN	FGC	mixed	2020	2	80	sp_{low} 2 sp_{high} 0	sp_{low} 6 sp_{high} 3
PVN	FST	mixed	2020	5	200	sp_{low} 5 sp_{high} 7	sp_{low} 20 sp_{high} 18
Total				80	3200	153	375

Table S2: Playback stimuli features for the two species.

Signal trait	<i>sp_{low}</i>	<i>sp_{high}</i>
Signal length (ms)	950	710
Pulse number	3	4
Pulse rate (s ⁻¹)	21	13.5
Pulse length (ms)	38	25
Intersignal interval (ms)	2841	3460
Signals per bout	4	4

Table S3: Smoothing values for female preference curves.

female number	smoothing	treatment	species
1	0,005	homo	LF
2	0,005	homo	LF
3	0,05	homo	LF
4	0,05	homo	LF
5	0,005	homo	LF
6	0,008787994	homo	LF
7	0,05	homo	LF
8	0,005	homo	LF
9	0,005	homo	LF
10	0,05	homo	LF
11	0,005	hete	LF
12	0,005	homo	LF
13	0,05	homo	LF
14	0,005	homo	LF
15	0,005	homo	LF
16	0,0348664	homo	LF
17	0,005	hete	HF
18	0,05	hete	LF
19	0,005	hete	LF
20	0,0289302	hete	HF
21	0,005	hete	HF
22	0,005	hete	HF
23	0,05	hete	LF
24	0,005	hete	LF
25	0,05	homo	LF
26	0,005	homo	LF
27	0,005	homo	LF
28	0,005	homo	LF
29	0,005	homo	LF
30	0,05	hete	LF
31	0,05	hete	LF
32	0,005	homo	LF
33	0,05	homo	LF
34	0,05	homo	LF
35	0,05	homo	LF
36	0,05	homo	LF
37	0,005	homo	LF
38	0,05	homo	LF
39	0,005	homo	LF
40	0,005	homo	LF
41	0,005	hete	LF
42	0,008933725	hete	LF
43	0,01640138	hete	HF
44	0,005	hete	HF
45	0,005	hete	LF

46	0,005 hete	LF
47	0,005 hete	LF
48	0,005 hete	LF
49	0,05 hete	HF
50	0,05 homo	HF
51	5,00E-04 homo	LF
52	0,005 homo	LF
53	0,05 homo	LF
54	0,05 homo	LF
55	0,005 homo	LF
56	0,04163705 homo	LF
57	0,005 homo	LF
58	0,001 homo	LF
59	0,005 hete	LF
60	0,005 hete	LF
61	0,005 hete	LF
62	0,05 hete	HF
63	0,005 hete	HF
64	0,05 hete	LF
65	0,005 hete	HF
66	0,005 homo	LF
67	0,01114964 homo	LF
68	0,005 homo	LF
69	0,005 homo	LF
70	0,005 homo	LF
71	0,006344236 homo	LF
72	0,01153259 hete	LF
73	0,005 hete	HF
74	0,005 hete	LF
75	0,005 hete	HF
76	0,005 hete	HF
77	0,005 homo	LF
78	0,005 homo	LF
79	0,02842651 homo	LF
80	0,03282305 homo	LF
81	0,05 homo	LF
82	0,005 homo	LF
83	0,006143665 homo	LF
84	0,005 homo	LF
85	0,005 homo	LF
86	0,005 homo	LF
87	0,03995623 hete	HF
88	0,005 hete	LF
89	0,005 homo	LF
90	0,02015132 homo	LF
91	0,005 homo	LF
92	0,005 homo	LF
93	0,01735497 hete	LF
94	0,01472007 hete	HF

95	0,005 hete	LF
96	0,005 hete	LF
97	0,005 hete	LF
98	0,05 hete	LF
99	0,005 hete	LF
100	0,005 homo	HF
101	0,005 homo	HF
102	0,005 homo	LF
103	0,005 homo	LF
104	0,005 hete	LF
105	0,05 hete	HF
106	0,005 hete	LF
107	0,05 hete	HF
108	0,005 homo	LF
109	0,001 homo	LF
110	0,005 homo	LF
111	0,005 homo	LF
112	0,005 hete	HF
113	0,05 homo	LF
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115	0,005 hete	HF
116	0,01522379 hete	LF
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118	0,005 homo	HF
119	0,005 homo	HF
120	0,05 homo	LF
121	0,005 homo	LF
122	0,005 homo	LF
123	0,005 homo	LF
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125	0,005 homo	LF
126	0,05 homo	LF
127	0,008579381 hete	LF
128	0,005 hete	LF
129	0,008984747 hete	LF
130	0,005 hete	LF
131	0,005 hete	LF
132	0,05 hete	LF
133	0,00861887 homo	HF
134	0,05 homo	HF
135	0,005 hete	HF
136	0,005 hete	LF
137	0,005 hete	LF
138	0,05 hete	LF
139	0,05 hete	LF
140	0,05 hete	HF
141	0,008337663 hete	LF
142	0,005 hete	LF
143	0,005 hete	LF

144	0,006565031 hete	HF
145	0,0193478 hete	HF
146	0,005 hete	LF
147	0,01817277 homo	LF
148	0,05 homo	HF
149	0,005 homo	LF
150	0,005 homo	LF
151	0,005 homo	LF
152	0,005 homo	LF
153	0,02842651 hete	LF
154	0,005 homo	HF
155	0,01488127 homo	HF
156	0,05 homo	HF
157	0,005 homo	LF
158	0,02870255 homo	LF
159	0,005 homo	LF
160	0,03296894 homo	LF
161	0,005 homo	LF
162	0,005 homo	LF
163	0,005 homo	LF
164	0,01428094 homo	LF
165	0,005 homo	LF
166	0,005 homo	LF
167	0,005 homo	LF
168	0,005 homo	LF
169	0,005 homo	LF
170	0,008458835 homo	LF
171	0,005 homo	LF
172	0,005 homo	LF
173	0,005 homo	LF
174	0,05 homo	HF
175	0,005 homo	HF
176	0,005 homo	LF
177	0,005 homo	LF
178	0,05 homo	LF
179	0,005 homo	LF
180	0,005 homo	LF
181	0,05 homo	LF
182	0,01395171 homo	HF
183	0,02829996 homo	HF
184	0,005 homo	HF
185	0,05 homo	HF
186	0,005 homo	LF
187	0,005 homo	LF
188	0,005 homo	LF
189	0,005 homo	LF
190	0,02510162 homo	LF
191	0,005 homo	LF
192	0,005 homo	LF

193	0,04008847 homo	LF
194	0,02912358 homo	LF
195	0,005 hete	LF
196	0,007402557 hete	LF
197	0,005 hete	LF
198	0,005 hete	LF
199	0,05 hete	LF
200	0,005 hete	LF
201	0,005 hete	LF
202	0,005 hete	HF
203	0,005 homo	LF
204	0,0132327 homo	LF
205	0,005 homo	LF
206	0,005 homo	LF
207	0,005 homo	LF
208	0,005 homo	LF
209	0,005 hete	HF
210	0,005 hete	LF
211	0,001 hete	LF
212	0,05 hete	HF
213	0,005 hete	LF
214	0,005 hete	HF
215	0,007370676 hete	HF
216	0,005 hete	LF
217	0,005 hete	LF
218	0,005 homo	LF
219	0,007161673 homo	LF
220	0,005 homo	LF
221	0,005 hete	HF
222	0,005 hete	LF
223	0,005 hete	HF
224	0,006297506 hete	HF
225	0,005 hete	HF
226	0,02846831 homo	LF
227	0,005 homo	LF
228	0,005 homo	LF
229	0,005 homo	LF
230	0,005 hete	HF
231	0,01474261 hete	HF
232	0,005 hete	HF
233	0,005 hete	LF
234	0,05 hete	LF
235	0,005 hete	LF
236	0,005 homo	LF
237	0,005 homo	LF
238	0,005 homo	LF
239	0,02725187 hete	LF
240	0,005 hete	HF
241	0,05 hete	HF

242	0,005 hete	HF
243	0,005 hete	LF
244	0,005 hete	LF
245	0,01065837 hete	HF
246	0,01066943 hete	HF
247	0,005 hete	LF
248	0,005 hete	HF
249	0,008305693 hete	HF
250	0,005 hete	LF
251	0,005 hete	LF
252	0,05 hete	LF
253	0,005 hete	LF
254	0,005 hete	HF
255	0,005 hete	HF
256	0,005 hete	LF
257	0,005 hete	LF
258	0,05 hete	HF
259	0,007890447 hete	HF
260	0,005 hete	HF
261	0,01265992 hete	HF
262	0,04672711 hete	HF
263	0,005 hete	LF
264	0,005748247 hete	LF
265	0,005 hete	HF
266	0,005 hete	HF
267	0,01893001 hete	HF
268	0,005 hete	LF
269	0,005 hete	LF
270	0,005 hete	LF
271	0,0132224 hete	HF
272	0,05 homo	LF
273	0,005 homo	LF
274	0,005 homo	LF
275	0,005091953 homo	LF
276	0,005 homo	LF
277	0,005 hete	HF
278	0,005 hete	HF
279	0,005 hete	HF
280	0,05 hete	LF
281	0,005 hete	LF
282	0,005 hete	HF
283	0,005797086 hete	HF
284	0,005 hete	LF
285	0,005 hete	HF
286	0,0108547 homo	HF
287	0,005 homo	HF
288	0,005 homo	HF
289	0,005 homo	HF
290	0,005 homo	HF

291	0,005 homo	LF
292	0,005 homo	LF
293	0,005 hete	HF
294	0,005 homo	HF
295	0,01689381 homo	HF
296	0,005381584 hete	HF
297	0,005 hete	LF
298	0,05 hete	HF
299	0,005 hete	HF
300	0,006644961 hete	LF
301	0,005 homo	HF
302	0,005 homo	HF
303	0,005 homo	HF
304	0,005 homo	HF
305	0,005 homo	HF
306	0,005 homo	HF
307	0,005 homo	HF
308	0,02014902 homo	LF
309	0,005 homo	LF
310	0,005 homo	LF
311	0,005 homo	LF
312	0,005 homo	HF
313	0,01429245 homo	LF
314	0,005 hete	HF
315	0,01022045 homo	LF
316	0,005 homo	LF
317	0,005 homo	LF
318	0,005 homo	LF
319	0,005 homo	LF
320	0,005428979 hete	HF
321	0,05 hete	HF
322	0,0172832 hete	HF
323	0,005073751 hete	LF
324	0,005 hete	LF
325	0,005 homo	LF
326	0,005 homo	LF
327	0,05 homo	LF
328	0,05 homo	LF
329	0,0209091 hete	LF
330	0,01208893 hete	LF
331	0,01382503 hete	LF
332	0,006074263 hete	HF
333	0,01893001 hete	HF
334	0,05 hete	LF
335	0,0346496 hete	HF
336	0,005 hete	LF
337	0,005 hete	LF
338	0,005 hete	HF
339	0,005 homo	LF

340	0,005 homo	LF
341	0,005653506 homo	LF
342	0,005 homo	LF
343	0,005 homo	LF
344	0,05 homo	LF
345	0,01194879 homo	LF
346	0,005 homo	LF
347	0,005 homo	LF
348	0,005 homo	LF
349	0,001 homo	LF
350	0,005 homo	LF
351	0,005 homo	LF
352	0,05 homo	LF
353	0,05 homo	LF
354	0,005 homo	LF
355	0,005 homo	LF
356	0,005 homo	LF
357	0,05 homo	LF
358	0,005 homo	LF
359	0,005 hete	HF
360	0,05 hete	HF
361	0,05 hete	HF
362	0,005 hete	LF
363	0,005 homo	LF
364	0,005 homo	LF
365	0,005 homo	LF
366	0,005 hete	HF
367	0,02842651 hete	LF
368	0,005 hete	HF
369	0,005 hete	LF
370	0,005 hete	LF
371	0,005 hete	HF
372	0,005 hete	LF
373	0,005 hete	HF
374	0,005 homo	LF

Table S4: Variation in the variance of male signal frequency and female peak preference in two *Enchenopa* species according to own- vs. mixed-species rearing treatments. Significant effects and marginally significant in bold.

Variance comparison	Term	F	Df (num, denom)	p
Females	Peak preference of sp_{low} in own- vs. mixed-species treatment	1.43	168, 93	0.058
	Peak preference of sp_{high} in own- vs. mixed-species treatment	3.40	31, 78	<<0.001
Males	Signal frequency of sp_{low} in own- vs. mixed-species treatment	1.12	77, 30	0.76
	Signal frequency of sp_{high} in own- vs. mixed-species treatment	1.19	19, 20	0.70

Table S5: Results of generalized linear mixed model exploring the variation in the effect of rearing treatment on male signal frequency and female preference peak in one *Enchenopa* species (*sp_{low}*) according to population type (sympatric vs. allopatric). Significant effects (p-value < 0.10) are marked in bold.

Fixed effects			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Sex	28.12	1	<0.0001
Treatment	0.04	1	0.84
Population type (sympatric/allopatric)	2.03	1	0.15
Year	9.72	1	0.0077
Temperature	6.41	1	0.011
Sex × treatment	0.87	1	0.35
Treatment × population type	0.10	1	0.75
Random effect			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Rearing plant/aggregation	0.61	1	0.43

Table S6: Results of generalized linear mixed model exploring the variation in the effect of rearing treatment on female preference strength in one *Enchenopa* species (*sp_{low}*) according to population type (sympatric vs. allopatric). Significant effects (p-value < 0.10) are marked in bold.

Fixed effects			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Population type	0.02	1	0.88
Treatment	1.63	1	0.20
Year	0.53	1	0.77
Temperature	1.91	1	0.17
Treatment $\times$ population type	0.00	1	0.99
Random effects			
Term	χ^2	Df	P-value
Rearing aggregation	1.52	1	0.22