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# Wing-pattern-specific effects of experience on mating behavior in Heliconius melpomene butterflies — Source link ☑

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# 1 Wing-pattern-specific effects of experience on mating behavior in *Heliconius*

### 2 *melpomene* butterflies

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# 8 Abstract

9 Many animals have the ability to learn, and some taxa have shown learned mate preference. This 10 learning may be important for speciation in some species. The butterfly Heliconius melpomene is 11 a model system for several areas of research, including hybridization, mate selection, and 12 speciation, partially due to its widespread diversity of wing patterns. It remains unclear whether 13 these butterflies can learn to prefer certain mates and if social experience shapes realized mating 14 preferences. Here we test whether previous experience with a female influences male mate 15 preference for two different H. melpomene subspecies, H. m. malleti and H. m. rosina. We 16 conducted no-choice behavioral assays to determine if latency to court and whether males 17 courted (vs no courtship) differed between naïve males and males with previous exposure to a 18 young, sexually mature, virgin female. To test whether assortative courtship preference is 19 learned in *H. melpomene*, males were either paired with a female who shared their phenotype or 20 one who did not. Naïve *H. m. malletti* males courted assortatively, while naïve *H.m. rosina* males 21 did not. Experienced H. m. malleti males reduced their courting relative to naïve males, 22 suggesting that social experience with a sexually mature female that does not result in copulation 23 may be perceived as a negative experience. In contrast, experienced H. m. rosina males exhibited

24	similar courting rates to naïve H. m. rosina males. Our results suggest that social experience can
25	influence male mating behavior in <i>H. melpomene</i> and that behavioral plasticity may differ across
26	populations in this species.
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28	Keywords
29	behavioral plasticity, mate choice, Lepidoptera, assortative mating, social learning, male choice
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# 47 Introduction

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49	Many of the behaviors and decisions that an animal makes are affected by its observations and
50	capacity to learn. Learning can be defined as a set of processes that allows an animal to acquire,
51	store, and use information gathered from the environment (Galef and Laland, 2005). Learning in
52	animals is often complex and is likely the result of the social dynamics and settings of a species
53	(Coussi-Korbel and Fragaszy, 1995). There is a substantial amount of evidence that animals have
54	the ability to socially learn (Dukas, 1998). Some of the many behaviors that might be the result
55	of social learning include food choices, predator avoidance, and mate preferences. For example,
56	many species of fish have been observed to learn how to find food, how to recognize predators,
57	and how to assess mate quality (Brown and Laland, 2003). This breadth of learning ability,
58	however, is not limited to vertebrates (Dukas, 2008; Verzijden et al., 2012).
59	

60 It is now understood that learning affects many essential activities of invertebrates, including 61 predator avoidance and social interactions (Dukas, 2008, 2010). Particularly, many insects and 62 spiders have shown the ability to learn mate preference. Studies on the wolf spider Schizocosa 63 *uetzi* have shown that female social experience in their penultimate juvenile period can affect their mate choices as adults (Hebets, 2003). Female Teleogryllus oceanicus crickets modify 64 65 their mate preferences after hearing attractive male songs (Bailey and Zuk, 2009), and female 66 Bicyclus anynana butterflies learn preferences for enhanced male ornaments (Westerman et al., 67 2012). Male B. anynana also learn preferences for wing pattern elements in females (Westerman 68 et al., 2014). Furthermore, work with Drosophila melanogaster fruit flies have shown that 69 learning to be selective leads to a higher lifetime mating success than males who court

indiscriminately (Dukas et al., 2006). Therefore, when it comes to mate preference and sexual
behavior in insects it is often beneficial to learn.

72

73 Learning can potentially increase rates of assortative mating, which can lead to speciation 74 through processes such as when young animals imprint on parents (Dukas, 2013). One such 75 example of this is how cross-fostering experiments in two subspecies of zebra finch 76 demonstrated that assortative mating is due to imprinting. Birds in this study paired with mates 77 that resembled their foster parents instead of their own phenotype (Irwin and Price, 1999). It has 78 also been shown that mate preference can be learned in mature animals, such as male guppies 79 and Syrian hamsters. These animals have demonstrated learning to discriminate against 80 heterospecific mates after courtship interactions (Verzijden et al., 2012). This type of learning 81 would help maintain speciation. With these studies in mind, we might expect that *Heliconius* 82 butterflies, or other animals with high levels of speciation, might learn to court assortatively.

83

84 *Heliconius* butterflies have a long lifespan compared to other species of butterflies, which allows 85 them to potentially mate multiple times (Gilbert, 1972). Therefore, the ability to learn in 86 response to mating experiences could be advantageous. Studies have shown that male mate 87 preferences evolve early in the speciation process in Heliconius within both intraspecific hybrid 88 mating zones and conspecific polymorphic populations (Merrill et al., 2011a). These male mate 89 preferences are based on wing color pattern cues, which are under natural selection to correspond 90 to local mimetic environments (Gray and McKinnon, 2007; Kronforst et al., 2006). Heliconius is 91 well known for its diversity in color patterns, and divergence in these color morphs is associated 92 with speciation and adaptive radiation (Heliconius-Genome-Consortium\* et al., 2012).

93

94	Here we take advantage of the social butterfly species Heliconius melpomene, whose widespread
95	diversity of color patterns makes it an ideal model for studies on speciation and mating patterns
96	(Jiggins et al., 2004). In this species, mimetic color patterns play a key role in species
97	recognition, and mate preferences based on these patterns evolve alongside changes in wing
98	pattern (Jiggins et al., 2004). Previous studies show that mimetic coloration in this species is
99	important in choosing mates, and that these butterflies show assortative mating when choosing
100	between their own and a different, closely related species (Heliconius cydno) (Jiggins et al.,
101	2001). Furthermore, males often do discriminate between conspecific females with different
102	wing patterns, and do not copy the mate preferences of conspecific males who have different
103	wing patterns (Jiggins et al., 2004). However, it remains unclear whether individual H.
104	melpomene males use past social experience with sexually receptive (or non-receptive) females
105	to inform current mating decisions. The ability to learn mate preferences for intraspecies
106	variation in wing pattern may be important for the initiation of assortative mating, reproductive
107	isolation, and the speciation process.

108

Here we test whether experience impacts future male mate preference and courting behavior in two races of *H. melpomene* using three distinct *H. melpomene* color morph phenotypes (Figure 1). We had three alternative hypotheses: 1) If males learn, then we predicted that experienced males would be more likely to court and have a shorter latency to court relative to naïve males. This type of learning is seen in *B. anynana*, where males exposed to dorsal hindwing spot number variation learn preferences for this trait (Westerman et al., 2014). 2) If however male exposure to a female is somehow a negative experience, then we predicted that experienced

116	males would court less often than naïve males. This type of learning is seen in Drosophila males.
117	Studies have shown that naïve male Drosophila court virgin females persistently, while males
118	previously exposed to an unreceptive female will then court virgin females much less vigorously
119	(Siegel and Hall, 1979). 3) If males are not able to learn, then courting was predicted to occur at
120	random in both experienced and naïve males. An example of this is seen in the butterfly Papilio
121	polytes, where a series of behavioral assays studying male preference for mimetic and non-
122	mimetic females showed that there was no difference in initial and lifetime male preference,
123	regardless of number of failed courtship attempts (Westerman et al., 2018).
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125	Materials and Methods
126	
127	Study species and husbandry
128	Heliconius melpomene is a widespread neotropical butterfly found in Central and South America
129	(Brower, 1994; Sheppard et al., 1985). The species is well known for its high diversity in color
130	patterns, which play an important role in speciation (Jiggins et al., 2004). These color patterns,
131	though diverse, are largely sexually monomorphic, with females and males of each morph
132	having predominantly identical wing patterns. H. melpomene is often used as a model organism
133	to study Müllerian mimicry and is co-mimetic with the species Heliconius erato (Jiggins et al.,
134	2004). The many color patterns of <i>H. melpomene</i> have arisen through convergent evolution and
135	selection for mimicry. The diversity of these patterns have allowed for the species to be used as
136	models for studies on speciation and mating patterns (Jiggins, 2017). Here we take advantage of
137	this species with different morphs that sometimes cohabitate in nature.
138	

139 H. melpomene butterflies were either reared in a greenhouse at the University of Arkansas, or 140 were obtained as pupae from Costa Rica Entomological Supply (Alajuela Apo. 2132-4050 Costa 141 Rica.). Butterflies reared from the greenhouse colony came from a continuously breeding colony 142 kept in two, phenotypic-specific, walk-in cages (143.51 x 110.25 x 219.71 cm). Caterpillars from 143 the colony were given *Passiflora* plants ad libitum, and prior to pupation, plants containing 144 caterpillars were removed from the breeding cages and moved to a separate 60.96 x 60.96 x 145 142.24 cm cage until butterfly emergence from pupa. Pupae obtained from Costa Rica 146 Entomological Supply were reared on native *Passiflora* host plants in natural lighting as 147 caterpillars prior to pupation and shipping. When at the University of Arkansas, they were hung 148 in a 34.29 x 34.29 x 60.96 cm cage until emergence, and then maintained as adults in the 149 Department of Biological Sciences Greenhouse at the University of Arkansas. 150 151 Butterflies were maintained at approximately 27°C, an average relative humidity of 71.5-85%, 152 and a 13:11 light:dark cycle. The greenhouse was lit by Sun Blaze T5 high output 120-volt 153 fluorescent light fixtures (containing UV wavelengths), in addition to natural sunlight, and the 154 presence of UV light in the greenhouse was confirmed using an Ocean Optics Jaz spectrometer. 155 After emergence, each butterfly was sexed, marked with a unique number on their hind wing 156 (which does not harm the butterflies, see (Gall, 1984) for details), and then moved to 60.96 x 157 60.96 x 142.24 cm cages with food where they were kept until use in a behavioral watch. Males 158 were placed into sex- and phenotype-specific cages, so they were isolated from both females and 159 other wing patterns prior to behavioral assays. Females were placed into sex- but not phenotype-160 specific cages, so they were familiar with the wing patterns of males they were paired with in 161 later behavioral assays. Each cage contained no more than 15 butterflies at any time and was

162	visually isolated so that butterflies could not see individuals of the opposite sex (or phenotype in
163	the case of males). Butterflies were fed BIRDS choice butterfly nectar (Birds Choice, Chilton,
164	WI, USA), which is composed of glucose, fructose, calcium salt, halide salt, and amino acids. In
165	addition, cages also contained Passiflora and Lantana plants for supplemental nectar and pollen.
166	All behavioral watches were conducted in 60.96 x 60.96 x 142.24 cm BioQuip (Rancho
167	Dominguez, CA, USA) observation cages, visually isolated from all other cages, between Augus
168	2017 and November 2019.
169	

170 Observational Experiment Time of Day Selection

171 To determine the time of day when the butterflies were the most active, we observed butterflies 172 in colony cages for three consecutive days, between 6:00 am and 8:00 pm. Point counts were 173 conducted every thirty minutes, where behaviors (flight, walk, flutter, abdomen lift, bask [defined 174 by resting with wings held in open position], rest [defined by resting with wings held in closed 175 position], antennae wiggle, court, and copulate) were recorded for each cage, followed by two 176 ten-minute focal watches of one male and one female butterfly selected at random. Based on 177 observations, we determined that butterflies were most active between the hours of 10:00 am to 178 2:00 pm.

179

#### 180 Behavioral Watches

181 All behavioral watches took place between 10:00 am and 2:00 pm, the time of peak *H*.

182 *melpomene* activity in our greenhouse. Each watch consisted of a male aged ten or twelve days

183 old, and a female between three and five days old. Watches were set up based on four separate

treatments, N=15 per treatment per male phenotype. In this study, two male phenotypes were

185 used (*H. m. malleti* and *H. m. rosina*) and three female phenotypes were used (*H. m. malleti*, *H.* 186 *m. rosina*, and *H. m. plessini*) (Figure 1). To test whether males courted females with matching 187 wing patterns faster than they courted conspecific females with dissimilar wing patterns, we 188 tested latency to courtship and presence of courtship of naïve, 12-day-old *H.m. malleti* and *H.m.* 189 rosina males matched with either females of their own phenotype or females of different 190 phenotypes. To test whether previous exposure influences male latency to court, a 10-day-old 191 (naïve) male was exposed to a female (with either a similar or dissimilar phenotype) until he 192 either courted the female or 90 minutes passed without courtship. Afterward, the female was 193 removed, and the male was returned to the all-male, phenotype-specific cage. On day 12, these 194 males (i.e., experienced males) were exposed to a second female of the phenotype to which they 195 had been previously exposed. The behavior of these males was then compared to that of naïve, 196 12-day-old males exposed to similar or dissimilar wing patterned females.

197

198 On the morning of a watch, a male was placed into an observation cage approximately two to 199 three hours before the watch to acclimate to the new setting, and a female was added right before 200 the start of a watch. Once a trial began, butterflies were observed for 90 minutes or until 201 courtship took place. In the case that courtship did occur, time to court was recorded, and 202 butterflies were not allowed to copulate. Behaviors were recorded to determine if any had an 203 effect on mate preference. The number of incidents of each type of behavior (*flight, walk, flutter*, 204 abdomen lift, bask (wings open), rest (wings closed), antenna wiggle, sitting near, and court) 205 were recorded. Spectator Go BIOBSERVE (Fort Lee, NJ, U.S.A.) running on an Apple iPad was 206 used to record time to court and all behaviors of the male and female during the testing period. 207

### 208 Statistical Analyses

209 All statistical analyses were performed in JMP v. 14 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, U.S.A.). We 210 assessed whether latency to court was influenced by male experience or female wing pattern 211 (similar or different from the male's) using a GLM with male experience and female wing 212 pattern as factors, as well as an interaction term. To assess if there was an effect of experience or 213 female wing pattern on likelihood to court we ran a nominal logistic regression model using male 214 experience and female wing pattern as factors, as well as an interaction term. Since we used two 215 different morphs for our "different female" treatments (H.m. plesseni and H.m. rosina for H. m. 216 malleti males; and H. m. plesseni and H. m. malleti for H. m. rosina males), we also tested 217 whether there was an effect of female phenotype on male likelihood to court in our four different 218 phenotype treatments using nominal logistic regression models. To test whether female behavior 219 during a male's first experience with a female had an effect on the observed courtship behavior 220 in later interactions with females, we analyzed all behavioral data collected on day 10 watches 221 (N=51 watches with behavioral data) and examined whether any of these behaviors were 222 predictive of male courting on day 12. To do this we ran a principal components analysis on all 223 the female behaviors and then ran logistic regression models on the first three principal 224 components.

225

#### 226 Ethical Note

227 All *H. melpomene* butterflies were kept under laboratory conditions as defined by U.S.

228 Department of Agriculture, Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service permit P526P-17-00343.

229 Before being used in behavioral watches all butterflies were maintained in cages in a climate-

230 controlled setting in conditions similar to those of their native habitat, and cages were inspected

231 daily for ample food and appropriate conditions. All males and females used in a behavioral

watch were either euthanized by freezing for use in future analyses or added to colony breeding

233 cages where they were maintained in cages with ample food until natural death.

234

235 Results

236

# 237 Morph-specific effect of experience on likelihood to court

238 Experienced H. m. malleti males were less likely to court females than naïve H. m. malleti males,

and were more likely to court *H. m. malleti* females than either *H. m. rosina* or *H. m. plessini* 

females (nominal logistic regression model, whole model  $\chi^2$ =14.935, p=0.0019, AICc=75.900,

241 N=60; male experience  $\chi^2$ =8.85, p=0.009; female phenotype (same or different)  $\chi^2$ =6.85,

242 p=0.009; interaction  $\chi^2$ =0.07, p=0.794) (Figure 2A). However neither experience nor female

243 wing pattern influenced *H. m. rosina* male's likelihood to court (nominal logistic regression

244 model, whole model  $\chi^2$ =0.472, p=0.925, AICc=92.852; N=63, male experience  $\chi^2$ =0.313,

p=0.576; female phenotype (same or different)  $\chi^2$ =0.126, p=0.722; interaction  $\chi^2$ =0.029,

p=0.864) (Figure 2B). The effect of prior exposure to a female on likelihood of *H.m. malleti* to

court two days later was independent of whether the male courted during the initial exposure

248 period (nominal logistic regression model, whole model  $\chi^2$ =3.099, p=0.377, N=30; courted

249 initially  $\chi^2$ =0.182, p=0.670; female phenotype  $\chi^2$ =2.325, p=0.127; interaction  $\chi^2$ =0.181,

250 p=0.671). Male courtship response to females with different wing patterns was independent of

the female wing pattern the male saw (*H. m. rosina* or *H. m. plesseni* for *H. m. malleti* males:

nominal logistic regression model, whole model  $\chi^2$ =3.513, p=0.319, N=30; female phenotype

253  $\chi^2$ =0.683, p=0.409; male experience  $\chi^2$ =2.305, p=0.129; interaction  $\chi^2$ =0.391, p=0.531; *H. m.* 

254 malleti or H. m. plesseni for H. m. rosina males: nominal logistic regression model, whole model  $\chi^2$ =0.188, p=0.979, N=32; female phenotype  $\chi^2$ =0.002, p=0.966; male experience  $\chi^2$ =0.387, 255 p=0.844; interaction  $\gamma^2$ =0.112, p=0.738). 256 257 258 No effect of experience or female wing pattern on latency to court 259 For those males that did court during the 90 minute observation period, there was no effect of 260 experience or female wing pattern on male latency to court, for either H.m. malleti or H.m. 261 rosina (GLM, H.m.malleti, whole model F ratio=0.391, p=0.761, N=23; male experience F 262 ratio=0.375, p=0.548; female phenotype F ratio=0.599, p=0.449; interaction F ratio=0.038, 263 p=0.848; H.m. rosina, whole model F ratio=1.663, p=0.205, N=25; male experience F 264 ratio=0.200, p=0.659; female phenotype F ratio=3.22, p=0.087; interaction F ratio=1.452, 265 p=0.242). 266 267 Female Behavior Had No Effect on Future Likelihood to Court 268 We found no effect of female behavior during first exposure on male courtship rates during 269 second exposure (Table 1 and 2). 270 271 Discussion 272 273 Our results show that male *H. melpomene* butterflies change their mating behavior in response to 274 a social experience. This change in behavior is lineage specific, with *H. m. malleti* males, but not 275 H. m. rosina males, exhibiting a reduction in likelihood to court after a social experience where 276 they interact, but do not get to copulate, with a conspecific female. This effect was independent

of the female's wing pattern, though it did co-occur with a lineage-specific preference for
assortative mating. *H. m. malleti* males courted *H. m. malleti* females more often than *H. m. rosina* and *H. m. plesseni* females in no-choice assays, while *H. m. rosina* males courted all
female *H. melpomene* wing patterns equally often. Male likelihood to court was not significantly
influenced by female behavior, and when males did court, experienced males did not court faster
than naïve males.

283

284 *Heliconius* butterflies have many of the characteristics often found in species where past 285 experience informs future social behavior; thus, our finding that *H. melpomene* males modify 286 their mating behavior in response to experience, while novel, may not be unexpected. H. 287 melpomene butterflies are relatively long-lived (up to 6 months in nature) (Gilbert, 1972), highly 288 social (they roost in groups at night) (Mallet and Gilbert, 1995), and learn food sources and color 289 cues (Toure et al., 2020). They have large brains (Montgomery et al., 2016) and are both 290 physically larger, and longer lived than the butterfly *Bicyclus anynana*, which also uses past 291 experience to inform current mating behavior (Dion et al., 2020; Westerman et al., 2012; 292 Westerman et al., 2014). However, the negative effect of the pre-mating social exposure, and the 293 wing-pattern-specific response to this pre-mating social exposure, were unexpected.

294

We initially hypothesized that early exposure to a female would prime the males to court faster and more often upon second exposure to females. This was based on previous findings in *B. anynana*, where naïve males do not exhibit a mate preference, but males with previous social experience do (Westerman et al., 2014). However, we found instead that early exposure to a female was a negative experience for *H. m. malleti* males, as they tended not to court on the

300 repeat trial when exposed to a female of the same wing pattern and age as they had previously 301 seen. One possible cause for this negative response could be that males who do court on day 10 302 are pulled from the watch upon courtship and are not allowed to copulate. This type of negative 303 learning occurs in *Drosophila melanogaster* males, where previously unsuccessful males are 304 reluctant to court females who smell similarly to females who previously rejected them (Griffith 305 and Ejima, 2009; Siegel and Hall, 1979). Heliconius butterflies do have species-specific 306 olfactory signals which are used in mating decisions (González-Rojas et al., 2020; Mérot et al., 307 2015), and olfactory signals have been shown to influence visual learning in *B. anynana* 308 butterflies (Westerman and Monteiro, 2013). It would be interesting to see if olfactory cues play 309 a similar role in Heliconius.

310

311 Although males did not learn to prefer certain phenotypes, avoidance learning from a negative 312 experience could be beneficial to these males. D. melanogaster males have demonstrated 313 learning to reduce courting females of the species *Drosophila simulans*, as these females 314 typically reject mating attempts by male *D. melanogaster* (Dukas, 2004). Heterospecific 315 courting can be costly for males because they could be wasting time and energy courting females 316 that are likely to reject them (Dukas, 2009). This suggests that learning to avoid unreceptive 317 females, or learning mate preference in general, may be beneficial relative to indiscriminately 318 courting females. Negative learning in *H. m. malleti* may therefore lead to higher lifetime mating 319 success, particularly if females who reject them once are likely to reject them again, and re-320 encounter rates are high due to nighttime social roosting.

321

322 It is worth noting that a characteristic of the social experience we used, the removal of a male as 323 soon as he initiated courtship, resembles a component of the experimental design historically 324 used in *Heliconius* butterfly mate choice trials. In many studies, males are allowed to approach a 325 female and initiate courtship, and then they are physically removed from the female before given 326 an opportunity to copulate (Chamberlain et al., 2009; Kronforst et al., 2006; Merrill et al., 2019; 327 Merrill et al., 2011b). These males are then tested repeatedly, and past experience is often not 328 accounted for when male preference is assessed, assuming that past experience does not inform 329 present courting decisions. This assumption is partially based on a previous study showing that 330 exposure to conspecific females with different wing patterns does not induce a preference for 331 those wing patterns (Jiggins et al., 2004). However, this earlier study did not test for a negative 332 effect of exposure on male preference or courtship behavior. Our results support the previous 333 finding that prior exposure does not induce a positive preference, but suggest it instead may be a 334 negative experience, at least for *H. m. malleti*. This wing-pattern specific response to experience 335 should be seen as a cautionary tale for future comparative research with *Heliconius* butterflies, as 336 repeated trials may be experienced differently by different lineages, which could confound 337 interpretation of results. It also highlights the importance of checking for both positive and 338 negative valence when testing the presence of learning.

339

The presence of both a lineage-specific response to prior experience and a lineage-specific
presence of assortative courtship suggest that *H. m. malleti* and *H. m. rosina* may experience
different mating-related selective pressures. Maintaining the capacity to learn can be
energetically costly, and is often associated with fitness trade-offs, such as reduced fecundity
(Kotrschal et al., 2013; Snell-Rood et al., 2011), reduced lifespan (Burger et al., 2008; Kotrschal

345 et al., 2019), or extended development time (Kolss and Kawecki, 2008). Though conspecifics, H. 346 *m. malleti* and *H. m. rosina* rarely co-occur in nature (Brower, 1996). The stronger innate 347 preference and response to prior social experience exhibited by H. m. malleti suggest that H. m. 348 *malleti* butterflies may, on average, co-occur with a more diverse *Heliconius* butterfly 349 community than *H. m. rosina* butterflies, as is suggested by previously published range maps 350 (Brower, 1996; Sheppard et al., 1985). This could lead to the maintenance of male assortative 351 courtship and response to prior social experience in *H. m. malleti*, as limiting courtship efforts to 352 those most likely to be successful would be energetically adaptive in an environment with many 353 unreceptive females (Dukas et al., 2006). Assortative courtship and response to prior social 354 experience may not be as strong in *H. m. rosina* as a result of either differences in generational 355 exposure to polymorphic conspecifics, or differences in female receptivity. If most H. 356 *melpomene* females are receptive to *H. m. rosina* males, independent of female wing pattern, 357 there would be little pressure for males to maintain an assortative preference among conspecific 358 wing patterns, or to maintain the ability to use past social experience to inform current courting 359 behavior.

360

*H. m. malleti*'s response to prior experience could be associated with its assortative preference or
a high social learning capacity. If *H. m. malleti* males have a stronger innate assortative
preference than *H. m. rosina* males, it is possible that the initial exposure to a female creates a
stronger negative memory for *H. m. malleti* males than for *H. m. rosina* males. Aversive signals
are easier than appetitive signals for *D. melanogaster* to learn, and this is hypothesized to be due
to the type of response to the initial cue (Schwaerzel et al., 2003). Alternatively, *H. m. malleti*might have a higher learning capacity (social or otherwise) than *H. m. rosina*. *Heliconius cydno*

368	and Heliconius melpomene have different sized brain neuropils associated with sensory
369	processing (Montgomery et al., 2020); it would be interesting to see if similar neuropil variation,
370	and associated variation in learning, occurs in H. m. malleti and H. m. rosina. Future research
371	should examine the neural responses of H. m. malleti and H. m. rosina males to an early social
372	experience, as well as their relative flower color and nectaring location learning abilities and
373	neural anatomy, to determine the mechanisms underlying their observed difference in response
374	to prior social experience.
375	
376	Conclusion
377	
378	Here we show that male <i>H. melpomene</i> butterflies use past social experience to inform current
379	mating behavior. This response is lineage (wing pattern) specific, and coincides with lineage-
380	specific differences in male assortative preference. Our findings strongly suggest that there are
381	lineage-specific selective forces acting on cognitive function in Heliconius butterflies. Future
382	research should explore the effect of cognition on speciation in this speciose group.
383	
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# 391 Data Accessibility Statement

- 392 Analyses reported in this article can be reproduced using the data provided by Rather et al.,
- 393 (XXX).
- 394
- 395

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541	Figure Legends
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543	Figure 1. Heliconius melpomene phenotypes. A) H. m. malletti, B) H. m. rosina, and C) H. m.
544	plesseni.
545	
546	Figure 2. Lineage-specific effect of experience on male courtship. A) H. m. malleti reduce
547	courtship after exposure to, but not copulation with, a female (N=60, male experience $\chi^2$ =8.85,
E 4 0	$p=0.000$ ; female phanetype (some or different) $x^2=6.85$ , $p=0.000$ ; interaction $x^2=0.07$ , $z=0.704$ )
548	$p=0.009$ , remain phenotype (same or different) $\chi = 0.85$ , $p=0.009$ ; interaction $\chi = 0.07$ , $p=0.794$ ).
549	B) <i>H. m. rosina</i> do not (N=63, male experience $\chi^2$ =0.313, p=0.576; female phenotype (same or

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550 different) \chi^2=0.126, p=0.722; interaction \chi^2=0.029, p=0.864).
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#### **Tables and Table Legends**

**Table 1.** Loadings for principle components from PCA for female behavior during the training

period for day 10 males. 

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560		PC 1	PC 2	PC 3
561	Flutter Count (Ct)	0.513	0.091	0.046
562	Fly Ct	0.432	-0.047	-0.134
563	Walk Ct	0.441	-0.171	-0.010
564	Lift Abdomen Ct	0.061	0.216	0.817
	Bask Ct	0.292	0.023	0.023
	Court Ct	-0.032	0.548	-0.516
	Ant Wiggle Ct	0.235	-0.416	-0.160
507	Resting Ct	0.19372	0.035	0.096
568	Sitting Near Ct	0.414	0.662	0.013
569	% Variance Explained	34.712	14.446	11.563
570	% Total Variance Explained	34.712	49.158	60.721

- **Table 2**. Female behavior during early exposure did not influence male likelihood of courting in
- 585 later female encounters. Test statistics and p-values from logistic regression models using

586	composite	behavioral	variables	PC1,	PC2,	PC3.	N=51.	
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	PC 1	PC 2	<b>PC 3</b>
$\chi^2$	0.046	0.013	1.460
<b>P-value</b>	0.830	0.907	0.226
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