

Accepted for publication in *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*,  
published by the Royal Society. The definitive published version is available at:  
<https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2018.1525>

1                   **Sexual selection on multiple female ornaments in dance flies**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Sex-specific ornaments typically occur in males, but they can also develop in  
20 females. While there are several models concerning the evolution of male-specific  
21 ornaments, it is not clear how, or under what circumstances, those models apply to  
22 female-specific ornament evolution. Here, we present a manipulative field  
23 experiment that explores the theoretical 'trait space' of multiple female-specific  
24 ornaments to study how these unusual traits evolved. We measured the  
25 attractiveness of two female-specific ornaments (pinnate leg scales and inflatable  
26 abdominal sacs) in the dance fly *Rhamphomyia longicauda* in a wild mating swarm.  
27 We found significant directional preferences for larger ornaments of both types,  
28 however, variation in one of the ornaments (abdominal sacs) was almost three  
29 times more effective at improving attractiveness. The abdominal ornament was  
30 consistently effective in increasing attractiveness to males regardless of leg  
31 ornament expression, while leg ornament size was only effective if abdominal  
32 ornaments were very small. These results are consistent with predictions from a  
33 sexual conflict model of ornament expression in supporting the probable role of  
34 deception in the evolution of female-specific ornaments among dance flies. Sexual  
35 conflict can be an important force in generating elaborate sex-specific ornaments in  
36 females as well as males.

37

38 **Key Words**

39 multiple ornaments, sexual conflict, sexual selection, female ornamentation, dance

40 fly, honest signaling

## 41 **Introduction**

42 Sexually selected ornaments are among the most fantastic and bizarre traits  
43 found in nature. While extravagant ornaments undoubtedly can improve an  
44 individual's reproductive success [1], they might also trade off with other important  
45 life history traits. Benefits from increased reproductive success must, therefore,  
46 outweigh any costs in order for an ornament to persist. The trade-off between  
47 sexual displays and other characters may be particularly important in explaining the  
48 rarity of female ornaments [2, 3]. Compared to males, female reproductive fitness is  
49 typically more resource limited [4], so investing in costly sexual traits might  
50 decrease fecundity in females more often than it constrains reproductive success in  
51 males [5].

52 Given their potential costs, the persistence of female ornaments in a few rare  
53 taxa is puzzling [6-9] and remains understudied. The problem is probably resolved  
54 in some taxa because what appear to be ornaments have evolved for reasons other  
55 than for improving sexual attraction [9-13]; in such cases the costs of investing in  
56 elaborate traits are outweighed by advantages in other aspects of life history. For  
57 example, female ornaments might evolve primarily for the purposes of intrasexual  
58 competition for resources rather than for access to mates [6, 7, 13, 14].

59 If, however, female ornaments arise through adaptive mate choice (e.g., via  
60 male choice for honest signals of fecundity) mediated by sexual competition, the  
61 resource investment required to express ornaments must be compensated by the  
62 subsequent payoff of winning contests for mates. One clear scenario in which this is

63 true is if resources used to construct ornaments are not limiting for offspring  
64 production [5]; in that case spending resources on ornaments need not compromise  
65 a female's reproductive effort. However, such a scenario underlines a further  
66 problem for female ornament evolution via male choice: the ornaments must not  
67 only compensate for their expression costs, but also honestly provide information to  
68 males about female reproductive value [7, 15, 16].

69         A further, and potentially more serious, constraint on the signal value of  
70 ornaments could occur if females store sperm from multiple partners. In such cases,  
71 the expected benefit of ornamentation to females (in terms of heightened  
72 attractiveness) is frequently associated with a cost to their mates; males should  
73 generally prefer relatively unattractive but monandrous females over attractive  
74 ones that present higher risks or intensities of sperm competition [5, 8, 17, 18]. In  
75 other words, the heightened attractiveness of adorned females dilutes the share of  
76 eggs to which any individual male has access, which should undermine the  
77 usefulness of any attractive trait for signaling reproductive value. However, the cost  
78 to a male of mating with an attractive female would be reduced if males were able to  
79 identify females in which the conditions of sperm competition are most favourable.  
80 In many insects, the last male to mate before oviposition often has a distinct  
81 paternity advantage, and males could conceivably identify females that are ready to  
82 oviposit by preferring mates with large abdomens that indicate late stages of  
83 vitellogenesis [8, 19].

84 Sexual ornaments might therefore provide males with cues of female value,  
85 including egg number and egg development stage (i.e., egg size) that are difficult to  
86 perceive externally. Previous studies of female-specific ornaments [15, 20-22] have  
87 assessed the value of female ornaments as honest indicators of fecundity or egg  
88 maturity providing mixed support both across and within species. Ornaments are  
89 often positively correlated with female egg numbers or size, but the degree to which  
90 the signal improves male abilities to discern female reproduction (e.g., relative to  
91 the situation in an unadorned ancestor) is not clear. For pipefish, temporary female  
92 ornaments served to honestly signal female mating success and fecundity [20]. In a  
93 study of dance flies [8], abdomen size predicted 23% of variation in egg size in  
94 *Rhamphomyia longicauda*, a species with multiple ornaments, but the unadorned  
95 female abdomens of a closely related species (*R. sociabilis*) predicted much more  
96 (72%) of the variation in egg size [8]. The authors argued that female ornaments  
97 were deceptive traits rather than honest signals, which served to improve female  
98 access to food gifts provided by males during copulation, even though the males  
99 themselves gained relatively little information from the ornaments [8]. Further, the  
100 relatively small amount of egg size variation predicted by abdomen size in *R.*  
101 *longicauda* [8] could be indicative of a cost associated with producing ornaments in  
102 some females that are forced to trade off egg quality (in this case, egg size) in order  
103 to attract mates, as predicted by Fitzpatrick *et al* in [5]. In another study of *R.*  
104 *longicauda* [22], abdominal ornament size predicted only 6% of variation in  
105 fecundity, but 49% of variation in egg size; however, ornaments on the legs had no  
106 significant relationship with either egg number or size. In *R. tarsata* (a congener of

107 *R. longicauda* and a species that displays only leg ornamentation), leg ornament  
108 expression predicted female fecundity better than other morphological traits, but  
109 did not significantly predict egg size [15]. In fact, LeBas et al [15] argue that  
110 positioning of legs during courtship displays may actually impair male assessments  
111 of egg size. A clear constraint on the signal value of any insect exoskeleton trait  
112 (including the ornaments of dance flies) is that such characters are fixed in size at  
113 eclosion, and cannot therefore track the development of ovaries that occurs during  
114 an adult's lifespan. While such characters might conceivably indicate overall size,  
115 and therefore larval resource acquisition, it is hard to imagine how they might  
116 improve male detection of female ovarian condition. Clearly, the role of female  
117 ornaments as signals of female reproductive fecundity or ovarian maturity is, at  
118 best, unclear.

119         Dance flies from the subfamily Empidinae (Diptera: Empididae) display  
120 considerable interspecific variation in mating system. Roughly a third of the species  
121 from the group feature female ornaments, including species with some of the most  
122 extravagant female-specific ornaments yet described [8, 15, 23]. Empidine  
123 ornaments can take several forms, including darkened, patterned or enlarged wings,  
124 feathery "pinnate" leg scales and, more rarely, inflatable abdominal (pleural) sacs  
125 [23, 24]. Males of many species provide direct benefits to females by offering a prey  
126 item as a nuptial gift during copulation. In most species, females are not known to  
127 hunt as adults, and seem to rely on protein from male-provisioned gifts to  
128 supplement their nutritional reserves [25]. As is typical for insects, female dance  
129 flies can store sperm from many males, and eggs are only fertilized immediately

130 prior to oviposition. Although the precise mechanics of sperm precedence are not  
131 yet known with certainty, two lines of evidence suggest that last male sperm  
132 precedence is operating. First, the spermathecae are broadly spherical and  
133 sclerotized (our own observations), which means that they cannot expand in  
134 volume indefinitely, but rather facilitate displacement of one ejaculate by another  
135 through flushing. Second, the mean proportion of paternity assigned to the most  
136 successful genotype is not sensitive to total mate number, as predicted if the last  
137 mate displaces rival ejaculates [26].

138 Females of the long-tailed dance fly, *R. longicauda*, possess two extravagant  
139 ornaments: pinnate scales over the length of all femora and tibia, and abdominal  
140 pleural sacs that are inflated just prior to swarming. Relatively few empidine dance  
141 fly species have abdominal ornaments, whereas pinnate leg scales are reasonably  
142 common throughout the group (see [23, 24, 27]). Both ornaments appear to  
143 exaggerate a female's apparent size and to improve female attractiveness [8] in the  
144 highly competitive context of *R. longicauda* mating swarms (which are usually  
145 heavily female-biased; [8, 22, 28]).

146 Previous work using plastic models of females within the mating swarm  
147 showed that *R. longicauda* males are more attracted to larger females, consistent  
148 with directional selection on ornament size [8]. However, Wheeler et al. [16] found  
149 that females with intermediate levels of ornamentation were more likely to mate  
150 than either extreme. This inconsistency of selection across episodes remains  
151 unexplained. One possibility is that patterns of selection are inconsistent across



152 populations of dance flies, while another is that the initial attraction during male  
153 approaches is only part of what determines eventual mate choice. In order to clarify  
154 these possibilities, we experimentally manipulated the relative size of both leg and  
155 abdominal ornaments using plastic models similar to those employed by Funk and  
156 Tallamy [8] and quantified both the independent effect of each trait on  
157 attractiveness, and the combined effects of both.

158

## 159 **Methods**

### 160 *Study system*

161 In Northeastern North America, courtship swarms of *R. longicauda* form  
162 annually along riverbanks and occur from the end of May until the beginning of July  
163 [25, 29]. Swarms are crepuscular, form beneath gaps in the forest canopy, and are  
164 typically strongly female-biased [8, 23, 30]. Before they enter the swarm, female *R.*  
165 *longicauda* swallow air to inflate abdominal sacs that exaggerate their body size.  
166 Within the swarm, females fly parallel to the ground and position their pinnate-  
167 scaled legs laterally around their inflated abdomen, which further exaggerates their  
168 size when they are viewed from below.

### 169 *Female silhouette creation*

170 We independently manipulated both female ornaments and mating swarm  
171 position in order to disentangle the partial effects of selection for attractiveness on  
172 each of the ornamental modules (abdomens and leg scales). There is strong natural  
173 covariance between both ornament types in wild female flies (because females who

174 accumulate more resources as larvae are likely to invest heavily in both ornaments;  
175 [31], which makes separating the effects of selection on each ornament in real  
176 specimens difficult [16]. Our artificial silhouettes break apart the natural covariance,  
177 and display combinations of ornaments that do not exist in nature. This  
178 manipulation improves both our ability to visualize the whole fitness landscape, as  
179 well as our statistical power for measuring partial selection on each character; it  
180 also allows us to measure the combined effects of variation in both ornaments (i.e.,  
181 to determine if the signals are complementary or otherwise).

182         We created 25 artificial female silhouettes (Figure. 1) using a template  
183 provided by David Funk (Figure. 3 in [8]). We manipulated the abdomen size  
184 independently of leg scales such that we had five different abdomen widths: mean  
185  $\pm 2SD$ , mean  $\pm SD$ , and population mean (estimates of population means and  
186 standard deviations come from Wheeler [16]). Although we initially attempted to  
187 similarly restrict our models' pinnate scales to the range of natural variation, we  
188 could not precisely and consistently control the apparent size of the legs across  
189 models, which made such fine scale variation impractical. Consequently for leg  
190 scales we used a larger range of sizes including legs similar to males (the ancestral  
191 condition) and legs twice as large as the largest found in nature: mean  $\pm 10.8SD$ ,  
192 mean  $\pm 5.4SD$ , and population mean.

193         We printed the artificial silhouettes on plastic transparencies and attached  
194 each of them to a 30cm length of fishing line. To simulate the positioning of female  
195 dance flies in the mating swarm, we fastened fishing weights above the models to

196 keep the silhouettes parallel with the ground. We placed a stake on either side of  
197 the swarm site (1.5m apart) with a piece of fishing line stretched between them 1m  
198 above the ground. For each sampling interval (e.g., each swarming event), we then  
199 chose five silhouettes at random (without replacement) from the panel of 25 and  
200 spaced them 15cm apart across the centre of the line such that the flanking  
201 silhouettes were approximately 37cm from a stake. This design ensured that our  
202 artificial silhouettes were usually greatly outnumbered by wild females; natural  
203 swarms vary in size over time and space, but during peak swarming can feature  
204 hundreds of flies packed rather densely into the swam space (with gaps of a few cm  
205 between adjacent flies). Our initial trial date includes observations for only two  
206 silhouettes, rather than five. Three silhouettes, and their associated male approach  
207 data, were discarded when they were found (after the trial) to have errors  
208 associated with their printing. As a consequence, ten days of observations yielded  
209 data for 47 silhouettes being approached by males.

#### 210 *Experimental set up*

211 We carried out male mate choice trials from June 13-22, 2012 at the study  
212 site (used for previous studies of this species [16, 30, 32]), located near Glen  
213 Williams, Ontario, Canada on an island in the Credit River (43°41'11"N,  
214 79°55'34"W). A trial consisted of a single swarming event at dawn (roughly  
215 4:45am) lasting approximately one hour. We set up female silhouettes the evening  
216 before a trial began (at least eight hours in advance) so that they were already *in*  
217 *situ* when the swarm started. Each trial began when a male first approached one of

218 the female models, by which time wild females had always already joined the  
219 simulated swarm, and outnumbered the artificial flies. We recorded data by directly  
220 scoring male approaches to silhouettes within the swarm. We used one observer  
221 who was blind to the phenotypes of the female silhouettes being scored. Following  
222 methods described in [8], an approach to a model was recorded when a male fly  
223 carrying a nuptial gift hovered approximately less than 5cm beneath a female  
224 silhouette for more than 3 seconds. We did not record rejections (i.e. males that did  
225 not pause beneath silhouettes). Swarm position, ornament sizes and number of  
226 male approaches were tallied for each silhouette on each date. We concluded a trial  
227 when five minutes passed without observing a male approach (typically between  
228 5:45 and 6am). All raw data are available as electronic supplementary material  
229 (ESM1).

### 230 *Statistical Analyses*

231 We computed all analyses using R statistical software [33]. To investigate the  
232 relationship between female silhouette morphology and male attraction, we fit all  
233 models with the number of approaches by courting males as the response variable  
234 and ornament expression levels and the swarm position of silhouettes (distance  
235 from the centre of the swarm; position within the swarm is thought to affect  
236 attractiveness [32]) as predictor variables. We scaled morphological predictors in  
237 phenotypic standard deviations to facilitate comparisons between traits. Because  
238 our standardized coefficients are not strictly equivalent to selection gradients,

239 (attraction is only the first stage of mating success), they cannot be  
240 straightforwardly translated into fitness [16].

241         The nature of selection varies as a function of swarm composition, which can  
242 differ substantially from day to day [22]. Therefore we built generalized linear  
243 mixed models with Poisson error and log-link (because attraction is measured in  
244 male approaches and is a count variable), including “date” as a random effect (to  
245 represent the potentially distinct composition of each swarm), and using the lme4  
246 package in R [34]. Pinnate leg scale size, abdomen inflation and position within  
247 swarm were fit as fixed effects. We included each predictor variable as well as its  
248 square and cross-products in order to assess curvilinear and correlational effects of  
249 morphology on attractiveness [35]. We did not fit a three-way interaction for these  
250 data because we wanted to mainly focus on correlational selection. We illustrate the  
251 partial effects of each ornamental trait by plotting the fit effects after setting the  
252 other covariates to their mean value.

253         One of the ways in which the two ornaments might conceivably combine to  
254 affect attractiveness is if males simply perceive the overall actual size of legs and  
255 abdomens together, irrespective of whether the ornament is located on the  
256 abdomen or legs. To test this hypothesis, we performed a separate analysis in which  
257 we regressed male approaches on the total area (mm<sup>2</sup>) contributed by each  
258 ornament type to the silhouette area (instead of the standardized trait size). If males  
259 are primarily concerned with the total size of ornaments, we expect to see similar  
260 improvements in attractiveness for an additional unit of female silhouette area,

261 regardless of whether that increase in area comes from leg scales or abdominal  
262 inflation. By contrast, if the abdominal ornament represents a recent evolutionary  
263 innovation brought about by increasing levels of male resistance to deceptive leg  
264 pinnation, we predict that abdominal ornaments should be more effective at  
265 improving attractiveness than leg ornaments, whether these ornaments are  
266 computed in terms of absolute area or phenotypic standard deviations. All code is  
267 available as electronic supplementary material (ESM2).

## 268 **Results**

269 We recorded a total of 1479 male approaches over the course of ten mating  
270 swarms. We cannot be sure of exactly how many males this represents, but given  
271 the large number of receptive females, this number is unlikely to represent many  
272 repeated approaches by the same male. Consistent with Funk and Tallamy [8], and  
273 our own predictions, males preferentially approached female silhouettes displaying  
274 larger ornaments (leg scale pinnation  $B = 1.35 \pm SE 0.379$ ;  $z = 3.57$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ;  
275 abdomen size  $B = 3.72 \pm 0.438$ ;  $z = 8.50$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ; Table 1). Males were also more  
276 likely to approach and court a female silhouette if it was positioned near the centre,  
277 rather than the periphery, of the swarm (swarm position  $B = -2.94 \pm 0.216$ ;  $z = -$   
278  $13.6$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ; Table 1, Figure 2).

279 Figure 3 illustrates the partial effects of abdomen and leg scale size on  
280 numbers of male approaches. We have superimposed the raw data to assist with  
281 visualization, but note that much of the variation in attractiveness is explained by  
282 orthogonal dimensions of the silhouette phenotype that are accounted for in the

283 estimation of the partial effects. We also note that although the effects illustrated in  
284 Figure 3 appear curvilinear, this is due to the back-transformation from loglinear  
285 phenotypic space; on the log scale there was no evidence of significant quadratic  
286 selection on either of the ornaments (leg scale pinnation  $B = -0.278 \pm 0.252$ ;  $z =$   
287  $1.11$ ;  $P = 0.269$ ; abdomen size  $B = -0.0731 \pm 0.433$ ;  $z = -0.169$ ;  $P = 0.866$ ; Table 1).  
288 Instead, we found straightforward directional selection for both ornamental traits:  
289 males are more likely to approach female silhouettes with larger pinnate leg scales  
290 and larger abdomens. Although the variation in silhouette pinnate leg scales was  
291 larger than variation in abdominal ornamentation, ( $\pm 10.8SD$  compared with  $\pm$   
292  $2SD$ , respectively), male dance flies responded much more strongly to variation in  
293 abdomens than in pinnate leg scales (Figure 3).

294 We also found a significant negative coefficient associated with the term  
295 describing an interaction between abdominal and leg ornamentation ( $B = -0.0136 \pm$   
296  $0.0031$ ;  $z = -4.36$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ; Table 1). Figure 4 helps to illustrate this nonlinear  
297 correlational effect: the convex curvature near the apex shows that the two  
298 ornaments combine in a less than additive way. Furthermore, while abdominal  
299 ornaments are always important for attracting mates, pinnate leg scales are only  
300 important if a female's abdomen is small.

301 In order to compare the effects of both ornaments on attractiveness as a  
302 function of overall signal area (rather than in terms of phenotypic variation), we  
303 performed the same analysis as that described in Table 1 except using the area (in  
304  $\text{mm}^2$ ) of each ornament as a predictor. Table 2 illustrates that abdominal area still

305 has a stronger effect on attractiveness than leg scales; a given unit of silhouette area  
306 is nearly twice as effective at improving attractiveness if it contributes to the  
307 abdomen ( $B = 11.29 \pm 1.86$ ;  $z = 6.07$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ) rather than the leg ( $B = 6.98 \pm$   
308  $1.59$ ;  $z = 4.38$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ).

## 309 **Discussion**

310 We measured male attraction to two female-specific ornaments in *R.*  
311 *longicauda* and show that males are attracted to both ornaments, but that variation  
312 in inflatable abdominal sacs has a stronger effect on attractiveness than variation in  
313 pinnate leg scales. Furthermore, rather than combining additively, as predicted for  
314 multiple ornaments that reinforce an honest signal of quality [36, 37], we found that  
315 large leg ornaments are only favoured when abdominal ornaments are small. This  
316 difference in selection is sustained whether we regress attractiveness on units of  
317 ornament area or phenotypic standard deviations, which suggests that the two  
318 ornaments are not simply acting together to reinforce a single signal of overall size.  
319 Below we discuss the implications of our study for understanding the nature of  
320 sexual selection on female dance flies.

### 321 ***The effect of mating swarm position on female attractiveness***

322 Our results show that a female silhouette is more likely to attract courting  
323 males if it is displayed closer to the centre of the lek-like mating swarm (Figure 2).  
324 This finding is consistent with previous work on a male-lekking insect species,  
325 *Ceratitis capitata*, which found that male lek position was an important indicator of  
326 attractiveness [38]. Further, many studies investigating diverse taxa with lek



327 mating systems have shown that centrally positioned males are the most attractive  
328 [39-41]. In many male leks, intra- as well as intersexual selection for a central  
329 position is described, however, in *R. longicauda* mating swarms, while we have  
330 compelling evidence for intersexual selection on swarm position (Figure 2), there is  
331 no evidence that females physically engage with one another [22, 32]. Previous  
332 work on *R. longicauda* swarm position [32] showed that female flies at the bottom of  
333 the swarm (where males enter) were larger than females higher up in the swarm.  
334 Our study suggests that the swarm may also be structured horizontally; with  
335 centrally located females possessing an advantage due to their proximity to the  
336 entry point for swarming males. Additionally or alternatively, being close to the  
337 periphery of the swarm might make individuals more vulnerable to predation.  
338 *Tetragnatha* spiders build webs around the periphery of *R. longicauda* mating  
339 swarms and dance flies are frequently preyed upon [42]. It is likely that being in the  
340 centre of the swarm means that both sexes are safer from spider predation, which  
341 could confer an advantage to centrally positioned silhouettes in the absence of any  
342 intraspecific competition for position.

#### 343 ***How did multiple female ornaments evolve in dance flies?***

344         Several hypotheses could explain how multiple female-specific ornaments  
345 arise in *R. longicauda*, including nonadaptive mate choice models (involving  
346 Fisherian processes, e.g., via sensory biases), adaptive models (e.g., honest signaling  
347 of direct or indirect benefits), and sexually antagonistic coevolution via sexual  
348 conflict.

349           Nonadaptive models [43, 44] could conceivably have contributed to the  
350 origin of female ornaments in dance flies, because larger objects are easier to  
351 perceive from a distance. Although these models may well have been crucial for the  
352 initial evolution of ornaments, however, the extravagance of pinnate leg scales and  
353 inflatable abdomens (and the presumably large costs that accompany their  
354 expression, (see[30, 45])) suggests that they are probably maintained by other  
355 mechanisms.

356           Adaptive models based on direct benefits are frequently invoked in systems  
357 featuring male choice, because variation among females in fecundity or sperm  
358 competition intensity is expected to be most important for choosing males [19, 46].  
359 In dance flies, if ornaments can communicate the remaining time required for  
360 vitellogenesis, then males might favour females primarily because their chosen  
361 mates would be less likely to mate again prior to oviposition (assuming a last male  
362 paternity advantage in sperm competition; [8, 46-48]). Under this “honest  
363 signaling” hypothesis, female ornaments evolve in spite of their costs because they  
364 clarify or exaggerate an aspect of female phenotype that is difficult for males to  
365 discern from the unadorned female’s phenotype [21].

366           Many previous studies investigating female ornamentation have concluded  
367 that ornaments serve to honestly signal female fecundity or egg maturity [15, 20-  
368 22]. In one sample from our study site, *R. longicauda* abdominal ornaments  
369 predicted 49% of the variation in egg size, but did not covary with fecundity;  
370 furthermore, leg ornaments did not predict egg size or number [22]. If female

371 ornaments are generally serving to honestly signal mate quality to males, then we  
372 would expect that all ornamental traits should have evolved to correlate with some  
373 measure of female quality and that many would continue to do so. While it is  
374 possible that the two ornaments in *R. longicauda* evolved for different purposes  
375 [37], (e.g. maybe pinnate leg scales are important in intrasexual competition, while  
376 abdominal ornaments are important for intersexual competition) this explanation  
377 seems unlikely. First, there is no evidence of physical competition between  
378 swarming females [32] and second, in other dance fly species leg scales are known  
379 to be involved in intersexual selection [15]. In addition, the fact that dance fly  
380 ornaments are fixed in size at eclosion (and therefore cannot accurately reflect  
381 differences in ovarian development as vitellogenesis progresses) undercuts the  
382 potential for ornaments to be honest signals of female quality related to egg  
383 maturity. Finally, if exaggerated ornaments were strong signals, it is unclear why  
384 there would be such a striking divergence in selection between patterns of  
385 attraction to large ornaments (Figure 3; [8]) and copulation with individuals  
386 displaying moderate ornaments [22] in this species.

387         Our experimental design allowed us to assess how the ornaments combined  
388 to improve attractiveness. Both the combined effect of ornaments in standardized  
389 phenotypic space (Table 1, Figure 4) and our analysis of ornament area (Table 2)  
390 suggest that males are not simply attending to the overall size of a silhouette. This  
391 finding suggests that the multiple female-specific ornaments displayed by *R.*  
392 *longicauda* are not providing complementary information that additively  
393 contributes to male perceptions of mate quality [37].

394           An alternative to adaptive mate choice is that sexual conflict [49] helps to  
395 maintain ornament expression in this species (7). In fact, an arms race resulting  
396 from sexual conflict might explain the presence of two extravagant female  
397 ornaments in *R. longicauda* without requiring adaptive male choice: female  
398 ornaments are favoured because they improve female access to male-provisioned  
399 nuptial gifts, while males try to resist seduction by deceptive females by more  
400 closely inspecting mates prior to passing over prey. Cyclic bouts of sexually  
401 antagonistic coevolution [50] (in which females develop deceptive ornaments, and  
402 males evolve to resist them) would result in the development of a series of  
403 ornamental traits, of which some are only marginally effective thanks to selection  
404 for resistance by the opposite sex. As we found for pinnate scales, weaker selection  
405 is expected for more ancestral forms of ornamentation (pinnate leg scales are a  
406 prevalent form of ornamentation that is presumably relatively ancient among dance  
407 flies, although further phylogenetic study is needed [51]) compared to more  
408 recently derived ornaments (possibly including inflatable abdominal sacs).  
409 Moreover, pinnate leg scales are only effective at increasing attractiveness when the  
410 abdominal ornament is small; when abdominal sacs are large there is no discernible  
411 effect of pinnate leg scales (Figure 4).

412           Our results indicate that abdomens currently have a bigger influence on male  
413 impressions of female attractiveness than legs do. Perhaps there is an advantage for  
414 males that attend more closely to the details of a female's phenotype. We predict  
415 that inspections prior to pair formation (such as are observed in *R. longicauda*)  
416 should be especially prolonged in taxa featuring female ornaments that might

417 otherwise disguise a female's ovarian condition. Similarly, any trait (such as visual  
418 acuity) that allows males to better distinguish between potentially deceptive  
419 ornaments and cues of actual fecundity should be favoured, and increase selection  
420 for novel ornaments that circumvent male resistance. The inflatable abdomens  
421 found in *R. longicauda* (and which may have evolved independently in a few other  
422 dance flies) may be more effective disguises because the degree to which they  
423 exaggerate fecundity may be difficult to detect by male sensory systems (i.e., it is  
424 probably harder to distinguish egg-filled from air-filled abdomens than it is to  
425 separately assess ovarian condition and pinnate leg ornament expression). It may  
426 also be easier to differentiate a deceptive fecundity signal that evolves on the legs  
427 compared to the abdomen simply because abdomen size is more closely associated  
428 with fecundity [19]. Interestingly, it is unknown whether *R. longicauda* females  
429 display variation in the amount they inflate their abdomens. While their maximum  
430 inflation size is fixed during the moult to adulthood, it is possible that the amount  
431 females inflate their abdominal sacs could vary with changes in environmental  
432 conditions, through space or time; it is possible that variable inflation could provide  
433 a mechanism by which egg development and ornament were temporally related.

434         We note that episodes of selection beyond initial attraction are undoubtedly  
435 important for determining mating success in dance flies. Following male approach, a  
436 female might undergo further assessment by her mate, resulting in discrimination  
437 against (overinvesting) females displaying the largest ornaments that are a greater  
438 cost to fecundity [5, 21]. In fact, Wheeler et al [16] showed that *R. longicauda*  
439 females displaying the largest ornaments are less likely than intermediately

440 ornamented females to mate. An alternative explanation for the intermediate female  
441 advantage predicted by Chenoweth [21] and observed by Wheeler [16] is that  
442 females displaying the largest ornaments are actually too cumbersome (e.g.  
443 awkward for males to carry females with large, inflated abdomens) or heavy (e.g.  
444 larger pinnate scales) for some males to carry while flying united. Further study  
445 investigating the biomechanics of aerial copulation as well as quantifying the total  
446 load a male carries (female and nuptial gift) and traits related to a male's own load-  
447 lifting ability (e.g. wing load, aspect ratio) is required to fully assess the role of  
448 constraints in the evolution of female ornaments [52].

449         Although our findings are compellingly consistent with a partial role of  
450 sexual conflict, it is important to recognize that the alternative models of ornament  
451 evolution need not be exclusive, and that patterns from one species may not reflect  
452 the evolutionary trajectories for its entire subfamily. We need more work  
453 comparing selection on ornaments in other dance fly species, including taxa with  
454 different numbers of ornaments and levels of ornament expression. Such work will  
455 need to be creative to overcome the currently limited capacity for experimental  
456 work on these systems.

457

## 458 **Tables**

459 **Table 1.** Parameter estimates for a generalized linear mixed effects model  
460 describing how standardized ornamentation and swarm position traits affect female  
461 attractiveness. Variance component: 0.768.

	trait	estimate	standard error	z value	p value
<b>linear</b>	swarm position	-2.94	0.216	-13.6	<0.0001
	leg scale pinnation	1.35	0.379	3.57	<0.0001
	abdomen size	3.72	0.438	8.50	<0.0001
<b>quadratic</b>	swarm position	-1.02	0.187	-5.43	<0.0001
	leg scale pinnation	-0.278	0.252	-1.11	0.269
	abdomen size	-0.0731	0.433	-0.169	0.866
<b>interaction</b>	swarm position * leg scale	0.0078	0.0067	1.16	0.246
	swarm position * abdomen	-0.0196	0.0294	-0.667	0.505
	leg scale * abdomen	-0.0136	0.0031	-4.36	<0.0001

462

463

464 **Table 2.** Parameter estimates for a generalized linear mixed effects model

465 describing how area (mm<sup>2</sup>) of ornamentation and swarm position affect female

466 attractiveness. Variance component: 0.782.

	trait	estimate	standard error	z value	p value
<b>linear</b>	swarm position	-4.39	2.44	-1.8	0.0725
	leg scale pinnation	6.98	1.59	4.38	<0.0001
	abdomen size	11.29	1.86	6.07	<0.0001
<b>quadratic</b>	swarm position	-1.00	0.188	-5.32	<0.0001
	leg scale pinnation	-0.273	0.235	1.161	0.246
	abdomen size	-0.0894	0.43	-0.208	0.835
<b>interaction</b>	swarm position * leg scale	0.114	0.118	0.966	0.339
	swarm position * abdomen	-0.0284	0.069	-0.412	0.68
	leg scale * abdomen size	-0.532	0.119	-4.47	<0.0001

467

468

469 **Figure captions**

470

471 **Figure 1.** Silhouettes of 25 plastic models of females created to display to males  
472 within the mating swarm. Silhouettes vary in the amount of two female-specific  
473 ornaments on display. Abdomen ornament sizes are population mean, mean  $\pm$  1.5  
474 SD and mean  $\pm$  2.5 SD. Leg scale ornament sizes are population mean, mean  $\pm$  5.4  
475 SD and mean  $\pm$  10.8 SD.

476 **Figure 2.** The partial quadratic effect of female swarm position on male visitation  
477 from a linear mixed effects model. Swarm position was measured as the distance  
478 from the centre of the mating swarm in increments of 15cm. The shaded area  
479 represents the standard error around the measure, values for the mode are  
480 reported in Table 1.

481 **Figure 3.** The partial effect of manipulated female ornamentation (abdomen width  
482 and pinnate leg scale length) on male courtship attempts overlaid on the raw data.  
483 Abdomen size was partitioned from the population's natural size variation ranging  
484 from two standard above and below the mean population size (-2 to 2 on the x-axis).  
485 The leg scale length was manipulated such that males were presented with  
486 ornament sizes from outside the natural population range (no scales (mean male leg  
487 size), 0.5 $\times$ , 1.5 $\times$  and 2 $\times$  mean female scale length).

488 **Figure 4.** The mate attraction landscape incorporating linear and correlational  
489 attraction on abdominal ornaments and pinnate leg scales in *R. longicauda* females,  
490 as visualized using a nonparametric thin plate spline. Values on contour lines  
491 indicate the predicted number of male visitors for the trait space that each line  
492 occupies.

493



494 **Data accessibility**

495 All data and code used in this manuscript are available as supplementary materials

496

497 **Competing interests**

498 We have no competing interests.

499

500 **Authors' contributions**

501 RM and LB conceived the experiment; RM, JW, DG carried out the field experiment;  
502 RM and LB carried out the statistical analysis; all authors contributed to the writing  
503 of the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

504

505 **Acknowledgements and Funding**

506 We would like to thank E. J. Herridge, T.M. Houslay, R. W. Ness, T. J. Little, P. Lee, K.  
507 Vahed and three anonymous for their discussions and/or helpful comments on this  
508 manuscript. Funding was provided by the University of Stirling (Horizon  
509 Scholarship to RM) and NSERC (Discovery Grant to DG and PGS-D to RM).

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