

1 Sex differences in fighting-induced hyperaggression in a fly

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10
11 In many animals, after experiencing an intraspecific aggressive interaction, winners are
12 more likely to win again (the winner effect) and losers more likely to lose again (the loser
13 effect). However, the winner and loser effect has been studied in few arthropod models,
14 and comparative approaches between the sexes are hard to find. In this study, we
15 evaluated the role of previous experience in male–male and female–female contests
16 of Mediterranean fruit flies, *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae). In this
17 species, lekking males fight for courtship territories, while females fight to maintain
18 single oviposition sites, as well as for mates. We addressed the following questions. (1)
19 Are winners more likely to win again and losers more likely to lose again? (2) Are different
20 interfight intervals critical to detect experience-induced effects on aggression? (3) Are
21 winning and losing probabilities affected solely by the outcome of the previous contests, or
22 is fighting experience itself sufficient to induce the effect? (4) Does experience affect
23 differently aggression displayed by males and females? Results showed reduced fighting
24 success in males and females that experienced a single defeat, while individuals that
25 experienced two previous victories or defeats had higher aggression rates and more wins
26 in subsequent contests (i.e. hyperaggression). This was achieved merely by experiencing
27 a contest, while the actual outcomes of previous fights did not affect the aggressiveness
28 level. Some differences were documented between male–male and female–female
29 contests (e.g. females fought longer than males), showing the value of a comparative
30 approach between the sexes when studying experience-induced hyperaggression. This
31 study highlights that both consecutive victories and defeats enhance fighting performances
32 of fruit fly males and females defending courtship territories and oviposition sites,
33 respectively. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first evidence about how repeated
34 defeat experiences reverse the loser effect in animals, leading to higher fighting success.

35• **Previous** article in issue

36• **Next** article in issue

37 **Keywords**

38 aggressive behaviour

39 contest

40 invertebrate

41 learning

42 physical fighting

43 winner and loser effect

44

45 Aggression plays a pivotal role across the animal kingdom (Lorenz, 1966). It enables
46 individuals to acquire and/or defend resources that are often limited (e.g. food, mates and
47 territories; Dierick & Greenspan, 2006). The defence of key resources using aggressive
48 displays enables individuals to survive and pass on their genes through the generations
49 (Dukas, 2008). In this context, the evolution of aggressive traits is shaped by a trade-off
50 between benefits (from access to limited resources) and costs (risk of injuries, time and
51 energy losses) (Hsu, Earley, & Wolf, 2006). Furthermore, the 'struggle for life' is usually
52 most severe in intraspecific dynamics, where individuals are more likely to compete for the
53 same resources (Darwin, 1859). Game theory predicts that evolutionarily stable strategies
54 for conflicts between conspecifics may involve stereotyped contests characterized by the
55 ritualized exchange of agonistic cues (Maynard Smith and Price, 1973, Parker,
56 1974, Stevenson and Rillich, 2012).

57 Aggression is a highly flexible behaviour (Dukas, 2008); for example, aggressive
58 motivation is affected by factors such as the presence and quality of resources, social
59 upbringing, physical exertion and learning from previous contests (Hsu et al., 2006, Van
60 Wilgenburg et al., 2010, Yurkovic et al., 2010). Previous aggression experience affects
61 aggressive performance in subsequent contests in animals (Stevenson & Schildberger,
62 2013), and losing tends to decrease subsequent aggression intensity, duration and/or
63 fighting success (the loser effect) in many species (Hsu et al., 2006, Iwasaki et al., 2006).
64 By contrast, winning tends to increase willingness to escalate a contest and/or the
65 probability of fighting success (the winner effect; Hsu et al., 2006, Rillich and Stevenson,
66 2011, Rutte et al., 2006, Yurkovic et al., 2010). Theoretical models based on this
67 assumption predict that the loser effect can occur with or without occurrence of the winner
68 effect (Fawcett & Johnstone, 2010). By contrast, the winner effect cannot persist alone, at
69 least when contestants lack fighting experience (Mesterton-Gibbons, 1999; but see
70 also Van Doorn et al., 2003a, Van Doorn et al., 2003b). In addition, when both effects
71 coexist, the loser effect is predicted to be longer and of greater magnitude than the winner
72 effect (Hsu et al., 2006, Kasumovic et al., 2010). However, a recent study on
73 the parasitoid *Eupelmus vuilleti* (Hymenoptera: Eupelmidae) demonstrated that the winner

74 effect also exists in the absence of any obvious loser effect (Goubault & Decuignière,
75 2012), and proposed that the winning effect may actually occur through variation in
76 contestants' subjective value of resources rather than via a reassessment of individuals'
77 fighting ability.

78 Only a few insect models have been tested to study the effect of experience on aggressive
79 behaviour, mainly crickets (Stevenson & Schildberger, 2013) and drosophilid flies
80 (Yurkovic et al., 2010, Zwarts et al., 2012). True fruit flies (Diptera: Tephritidae) are good
81 insect models for studying aggression. In a number of species, males fight for courtship
82 territories, while females fight to maintain single oviposition sites (Benelli et al.,
83 2014a, Benelli et al., 2015, Benelli et al., 2014b). The occurrence of male–male and
84 female–female combats in the same species allows a comparative approach between the
85 sexes when studying winner and loser effects. Recently, higher aggression levels have
86 been found in experienced males of the olive fruit fly, Bactrocera oleae (Diptera:
87 Tephritidae): winners and losers of two consecutive encounters displayed a higher
88 intensity of aggression, fought longer in subsequent contests and achieved higher fighting
89 success than naïve flies (Benelli et al., in press). However, this research was conducted
90 using a self-selection procedure, not ideal for measuring winner and loser effects, since
91 with this approach the particular winning/losing experience cannot be disentangled from
92 intrinsic differences in fighting ability (Hsu et al., 2006).

93 In this study, we investigated sex differences in the magnitude of winner and loser effects
94 in the Mediterranean fruit fly, Ceratitis capitata (also known as the medfly). This species is
95 a tropical polyphagous tephritid with a male dominance polygyny mating system (Benelli,
96 Daane, et al., 2014). In *C. capitata*, highly ritualized aggressive interactions are present in
97 both sexes, and directly related to their reproductive activities. Males establish leks on host
98 and nonhost plants. They fight for courtship territories, then release long-
99 range pheromones that attract females to behavioural exhibition sites. Females
100 discriminate between lek participants and copulate with males performing the best
101 courtship behaviour sequence, which includes wing movements combined with olfactory
102 and tactile cues (Benelli et al., 2014b, Briceño et al., 1999, Gaskin et al., 2002, Shelly,
103 2000a, Shelly, 2000b). Females express aggression against siblings to maintain
104 single oviposition sites, thus increasing the chances of their eggs developing successfully
105 (Benelli, Daane, et al., 2014). In addition, it has been reported that female–female
106 aggression may play a role also when they search for mates. Indeed, it has been observed
107 that female aggression against other females is virginity-related and declines strongly after
108 mating (Papadopoulos, Carey, Liedo, Muller, & Senturk, 2009). To study winner and loser
109 effects, we used a random selection procedure, whereby focal individuals are randomly

110 allocated to experimental groups and pitted against either a much stronger or weaker
111 opponent, to deliver the winning or losing experience. Since true predictors of contest
112 outcomes (e.g. male body size, female egg load, Goubault and Decuignière,
113 2012, Kasumovic et al., 2010) are not available for the majority of tephritid flies (Benelli,
114 Daane, et al., 2014), we evaluated whether prior residence enhanced the fighting success
115 in our *C. capitata* strain (experiment 1). To obtain flies that experienced victories or
116 defeats, we exploited the residence effect as a predictor of fighting success in a random
117 selection procedure (Hsu et al., 2006). We expected *C. capitata* winners to be more likely
118 to win again and losers more likely to lose again. On this basis, in experiment 2 we tested
119 medflies that experienced one or two victories against naïve ones, while in experiment 3
120 we tested medflies defeated one or two times against naïve individuals. Since winner and
121 loser effects in invertebrates are transient (Rillich & Stevenson, 2011), we tested two
122 interfight intervals (5 and 15 min) to evaluate whether the amount of time elapsed from a
123 previous contest was critical to detect experience-induced effects on aggression. To shed
124 light on the role of physical fighting in increasing aggression rates, in experiment 3 we
125 assessed whether winning and losing probabilities were affected solely by the outcome of
126 the previous contests, or whether the fighting experience itself is sufficient to induce the
127 effect. All experiments were conducted on both sexes, allowing us to estimate whether
128 previous experience affected aggressive interactions displayed by males and females
129 differently.

130 **Methods**

131 **Ethical Note**

132 This research adheres to the guidelines for the treatment of animals in behavioural
133 research and teaching (ASAB/ABS, 2014). All treatments of the experimental animals
134 complied with the laws of the country (Italy) in which the study was performed (D.M.
135 116192) and the European Union regulations (European Commission, 2007). All
136 experimental procedures also followed the animal care guidelines of the University of Pisa
137 Ethical Committee. No particular permits were needed by the Italian government for
138 experiments involving *C. capitata*. All the experiments were based on behavioural
139 observations. Flies were treated as gently as possible given the constraints of the
140 experimental design. None were injured or killed during the experiments. Before the test
141 phase, having one animal per Plexiglas cup was not considered stressful, since this is not
142 a group-living species. The health of every animal was constantly assessed by checking

143 that they fed and behaved normally. After the test phase, all flies were kept separately
144 from the rest of the mass rearing, and were not reused.

145 **Insect Rearing and General Observations**

146 We reared *C. capitata* as described in Canale and Benelli (2012). This medfly strain has
147 been reared in our laboratory since 1994, starting from an original stock of about 4000 wild
148 flies collected in fruit orchards (Sicily, Italy). Our strain has been periodically renewed by
149 adding wild flies in 1997, 2003, 2007 and 2012 (about 2000 flies per renewal, sex ratio
150 1:1). The rearing production unit was composed of cylindrical PVC cages, each containing
151 about 2000 flies (sex ratio 1:1). Adults were fed on a dry diet of yeast extract and sucrose
152 mixture, at a ratio of 1:10 (w:w). Eggs were collected every 2 days and placed into plastic
153 bowls (50 × 15 cm and 2 cm high), each containing 500 g of artificial larval food medium.
154 The resulting pupae were maintained under controlled conditions (21 ± 1 °C, $55 \pm 5\%$
155 relative humidity, 16:8 h light:dark) to wait for adult emergence. Newly emerged flies were
156 gently separated and placed singly in clean Plexiglas cups (diameter: 40 mm; length:
157 7 mm), using a clean glass vial. They were fed the same diet as adults (see above). Water
158 was provided separately on a cotton wick (Benelli, 2014, Benelli et al., 2015).

159 Experiments were conducted in the laboratory (21 ± 1 °C, $55 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity)
160 during May–June 2014 in a room illuminated with fluorescent daylight tubes (16:8 h
161 light:dark, lights on at 0600). Neon tubes (Philips 30 W/33) were used; light intensity
162 around the test arena was ca. 1000 lx, estimated over the 300–1100 nm waveband with
163 an LI-1800 spectroradiometer (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, U.S.A.), equipped with a remote
164 cosine receptor. Directional light cues were avoided by using diffuse laboratory lighting to
165 reduce reflection and phototaxis. Experiments were performed in a Plexiglas test arena
166 (diameter: 150 mm; length: 200 mm). A fly entrance hole (diameter: 10 mm) was made on
167 the top, in the central part of the arena. Both ends of the arena were covered with
168 transparent chiffon fabric (mesh size: 0.05 mm). The arena contained a twig of
169 apricot, *Prunus armeniaca* cultivar ‘Bella d'Italia’, with 10 leaves and two ripe fruits. The
170 twig and the chiffon fabric used at the ends of the arena were changed every 10
171 replicates. The arena was carefully washed for about 30 s with warm water at 35–40 °C
172 after each replicate, then cleaned using water plus mild soap for about 5 min, then rinsed
173 with hot water for about 30 s and finally rinsed with distilled water at room temperature
174 (Benelli et al., 2015, Carpita et al., 2012).

175 Virgin flies (age: 12–20 days old; gonad maturation: 4–6 days; Shelly, 2000b) were used in
176 all experiments. For each replicate, flies were replaced by new ones of the same age.
177 Before beginning, each fly was cooled for 3 min at -10 °C, marked with a small dot of

178 nontoxic colour paint (Polycolor, Maimeri, Italy) on the thorax, and weighed. Only flies with
 179 a body mass of 0.005–0.007 g for males and 0.006–0.008 g for females were tested.
 180 Preliminary observations showed that cooling and colour tagging did not influence the flies'
 181 behaviour. Experiments were performed over about 60 days, to account for any daily
 182 variability.
 183 All experiments were carried out from 1000 to 1700 hours. In all experiments, the
 184 behaviour of medflies was directly recorded by an observer. The interactions in which both
 185 contestants immediately abandoned the territory (e.g. a leaf) were discarded; only
 186 interactions in which the winning contestant remained on the territory for at least 30 s after
 187 the conclusion of the aggressive interaction were considered for data analysis.

188 **Experiment 1: Does Prior Residence Affect Fighting Success?**

189 We quantified the behaviours displayed by *C. capitata* during male–male and female–
 190 female aggressive interactions, evaluating whether prior residence increased the
 191 probability of winning following contests. In each replicate, we introduced a male or
 192 female *C. capitata* into the test arena using a clean glass vial and waited for 20 min,
 193 allowing the fly to establish a territory on a leaf or a fruit. Then, we introduced a second fly
 194 of the same sex and observed it exploring the arena for 30 min or until an aggressive
 195 interaction with the resident occurred. We considered a contest to occur when, during
 196 temporary occupation of the same leaf or fruit, either fly approached the other and
 197 displayed wing waving, usually followed by escalating aggressive behaviours as reported
 198 in [Table 1](#) (Benelli et al., 2015). For each replicate, the behaviours characterizing contests
 199 in both sexes of *C. capitata* were noted (see [Table 1](#) for descriptions of behavioural
 200 parameters) and we recorded whether the resident or intruder actively attacked the other.
 201 At the end of each contest, we noted which fly (resident or intruder) was dislodged from
 202 the leaf or fruit (Benelli, 2014). One hundred replicates were carried out, for both male–
 203 male and female–female interactions. To avoid pseudoreplication, only the first aggressive
 204 interaction was considered during the observation period for each pair of medflies. If no
 205 interaction occurred for 30 min, no data were recorded and the replicate was discarded.

206
 207 Table 1. Escalating level of aggression that characterizes fighting in males and
 208 females of the Mediterranean fruit fly (modified from [Benelli et al., 2015](#))

Level	Behaviour	Description
0	Avoidance (both)	Mutual avoidance: nonaggressive interaction
1	Avoidance (one)	Pre-established dominance: one male attacks, the other retreats

Level	Behaviour	Description
2	Wing waving (one)	Attacker faces the opponent and brings both wings forwards perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of its body, while ventral surfaces of wings are turned to face anterior
3	Wing waving (both)	Both males perform wing waving
4	Chasing	Running towards the opponent
5	Fast head rocking	Rapid head twisting movements before pouncing
6	Pouncing	Lunging at the opponent ending with head butting
7	Labellar (one)	The attacker extends mouthparts to touch the opponent
8	Labellar (both)+head pushing	Both flies extend mouthparts and also try push each other away
9	Wing strike	The attacker brings a wing forwards and strikes the opponent
10	Dive	The fly attacks the opponent and quickly retreats
11	Boxing (one)	Attacker raises forelegs, repeatedly and alternately hitting opponent on the head and thorax
12	Boxing (both)	Both flies fight by boxing

209 Experiment 2: the Winner Effect

210 To evaluate the effects of winning we staged aggressive interactions between same-sex
211 pairs of male and female *C. capitata*. We used a random selection procedure, as
212 suggested by [Hsu et al. \(2006\)](#) in which focal individuals were randomly allocated to
213 experimental groups and pitted against either a much stronger or weaker opponent, to
214 deliver the winning or loser experience. Common predictors of fighting success, such as
215 size ([Garcia et al., 2014](#); [Kasumovic et al., 2010](#); [Lehner et al., 2011](#)), are not applicable to
216 medflies ([Benelli, Daane, et al., 2014](#)). To obtain flies that experienced previous victories,
217 we used a random selection method exploiting the residence effect found in experiment 1
218 as a predictor of fighting success.

219 Training phase

220 For both sexes, three categories of flies were tested in this experiment: winners of a
221 previous contest, winners of two previous contests (twofold winners) and naïve flies. To
222 obtain a winner, we used the same experimental apparatus as described in experiment 1.
223 A naïve (i.e. no previous fighting experience) resident fly was first matched against an

224 intruder naïve fly, easily achieving a victory (this was true, for both sexes, in more than
 225 80% of tested flies, Appendix Figs A1 and A2). To obtain a twofold winner, we used the
 226 same apparatus described above; a winner was allowed to establish residence again in
 227 the arena, then it was newly matched against an intruder naïve fly, easily achieving a
 228 victory. All naïve flies had no fighting experience; during the training of winners and
 229 twofold winners, their naïve opponents were allowed to establish previous residency on
 230 leaves or fruits of apricot for the same amount of time in another experimental arena
 231 without conspecifics.

232 Test phase

233 We studied the contests occurring between (1) a twofold winner versus a naïve fly, (2) a
 234 winner versus a naïve fly and (3) two naïve flies. In each test, two flies (i.e. twofold winner
 235 and naïve, winner and naïve or two naïve individuals) were gently transferred and
 236 released simultaneously onto the floor of a separate cylindrical arena and observed for
 237 30 min. Both flies usually started to explore the apricot twig. When they came close to
 238 each other, they exhibited aggressive behaviour. We recorded a contest when, during
 239 occupation of the same leaf or fruit, a fly approached a conspecific and displayed wing-
 240 waving motions, usually followed by escalating aggressive behaviours (Table 1).

241 The interfight interval between consecutive fights was 5 min or 15 min. For each replicate,
 242 the following parameters were recorded: (1) the intensity of aggression (i.e. the escalating
 243 level of aggression that characterizes fights in medflies scored from 0 to
 244 12, Table 1; Benelli et al., 2015); (2) the duration of the entire contest; (3) the outcome of
 245 the contest (i.e. whether the focal individual or the opponent was dislodged from the
 246 leaf/fruit at the end of the contest). The number of replicates for each treatment is shown
 247 in Table 2.

248 Table 2. Number of *Ceratitis capitata* flies observed for each experiment

Experiment		No. of males		No. of females	
1		100		100	
2	IFI (min)	5	15	5	15
	Naïve	100	100	100	100
	Winner	63	63	68	68
	Twofold winner	48	48	62	62
3	IFI (min)	5	15	5	15

Experiment		No. of males		No. of females	
	Naïve	100	100	100	100
	Loser	69	69	64	64
	Twofold loser	54	56	56	55
4	Naïve	60		60	
	WF	23		38	
	Wf	25		24	
	LF	32		32	
	Lf	20		24	

249 WF = twofold winners with physical combat; Wf = twofold winners without physical combat;
250 LF = twofold losers with physical combat; Lf = twofold losers without physical combat;
251 IFI = interfight interval between contests.

252 Experiment 3: the Loser Effect

253 To evaluate the effects of losing we staged contests between same-sex pairs of male and
254 female *C. capitata*, using a modification of the random selection method described above
255 for the winner effect experiment.

256 Training phase

257 For both sexes, three categories of flies were tested in this experiment: losers of a
258 previous contest, losers of two previous contests (twofold losers) and naïve flies. To obtain
259 a loser, we used the same apparatus as described in experiment 2. A naïve intruder fly
260 was first matched against a resident naïve fly and was usually defeated (Appendix Figs A1
261 and A2). To obtain a twofold loser, a loser was newly matched against a resident naïve fly,
262 easily suffering a second defeat. During the training of losers and twofold losers, their
263 naïve opponents were allowed to spend a similar time as intruders in another experimental
264 arena containing leaves or fruits of apricot, without conspecifics.

265 Test phase

266 We studied the contests occurring between (1) a twofold loser versus a naïve fly, (2) a
267 loser versus a naïve fly and (3) two naïve flies. In each test, two flies (i.e. twofold loser and
268 naïve, loser and naïve or two naïve individuals) were gently transferred and
269 simultaneously released onto the floor of a separate cylindrical arena and observed for

270 30 min. The interfight interval between consecutive fights was 5 min or 15 min. For each
271 replicate, the parameters defined in experiment 1 (see above) were recorded. The number
272 of replicates for each treatment is provided in [Table 2](#).

273 **Experiment 4: Does Physical Combat Increase Aggression?**

274 The aim of this experiment was to test whether the winner and loser effects depend solely
275 on experience of physical combat against a contestant ([Rillich & Stevenson, 2011](#)). Here
276 we staged aggressive interactions using the methods described in experiments 1–3.

277 Training phase

278 For both sexes, five categories of flies were studied in this experiment: (1) flies that won
279 twice in succession with fighting (WF); (2) flies that won twice in succession without
280 fighting (Wf); (3) flies that lost twice in succession with fighting (LF); (4) flies that lost twice
281 in succession without fighting (Lf); (5) naïve flies. Twofold winners were obtained using the
282 random selection procedure described in experiment 2. For WF flies, ‘with fighting’ means
283 that physical contact occurred during the contest. For Wf flies, ‘without fighting’ means that
284 the contest reached wing waving as a maximum and did not involve physical contact.
285 Twofold losers were obtained using the random selection procedure described in
286 experiment 3. For LF flies, ‘with fighting’ means that physical contact occurred during the
287 contest. For Lf flies, ‘without fighting’ means that the contest reached wing waving as a
288 maximum and did not involve physical contact. Naïve flies had no previous fighting
289 experience; during the training of losers or twofold losers, their naïve opponents were
290 allowed to spend a similar time as intruders in another experimental arena containing
291 leaves or fruits of apricot, without conspecifics.

292 Test phase

293 We studied the contests occurring between (1) a WF fly versus a naïve fly, (2) a Wf fly
294 versus a naïve fly, (3) an LF fly versus a naïve fly, (4) an Lf fly versus a naïve fly and (5)
295 two naïve flies. In each test, the two flies were gently transferred and simultaneously
296 released onto the floor of a separate cylindrical arena and observed for 30 min. The
297 interfight interval between consecutive fights was 5 min for all tournaments. Then, after
298 5 min, flies in each the five treatments described above were tested in the same
299 experimental conditions against naïve flies. For each replicate, the parameters defined in
300 experiments 1 and 2 were recorded. The number of replicates for each treatment is
301 provided in [Table 2](#).

302 **Data Analysis**

303 In experiment 1, differences in fighting success of resident and intruder males and females
304 were analysed by likelihood chi-square tests with Yates' correction ($\alpha = 0.05$).

305 In experiments 2 and 3, aggression intensity and fighting duration data were analysed by
306 JMP 7 by using a weighted generalized linear model (GLZ, Poisson distribution) with three
307 fixed factors: $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$ where y is the vector of the observations (e.g. aggression
308 intensity), X is the incidence matrix, β is the vector of fixed effects (i.e. sex, interfight
309 interval and previously experienced fighting outcome) and ε is the vector of the
310 random residual effects ($\alpha = 0.05$). Differences in fighting success were evaluated
311 using the GLZ described above with a binomial distribution (to model win/loss outcomes;
312 $\alpha = 0.05$).

313 In experiment 4, aggression intensity and fighting duration data were analysed using the
314 GLZ described above (Poisson distribution), with two fixed factors (i.e. sex and previously
315 experienced fighting outcome; $\alpha = 0.05$). Differences in fighting success were
316 evaluated using the GLZ described above with a binomial distribution ($\alpha = 0.05$).

317 **Results**

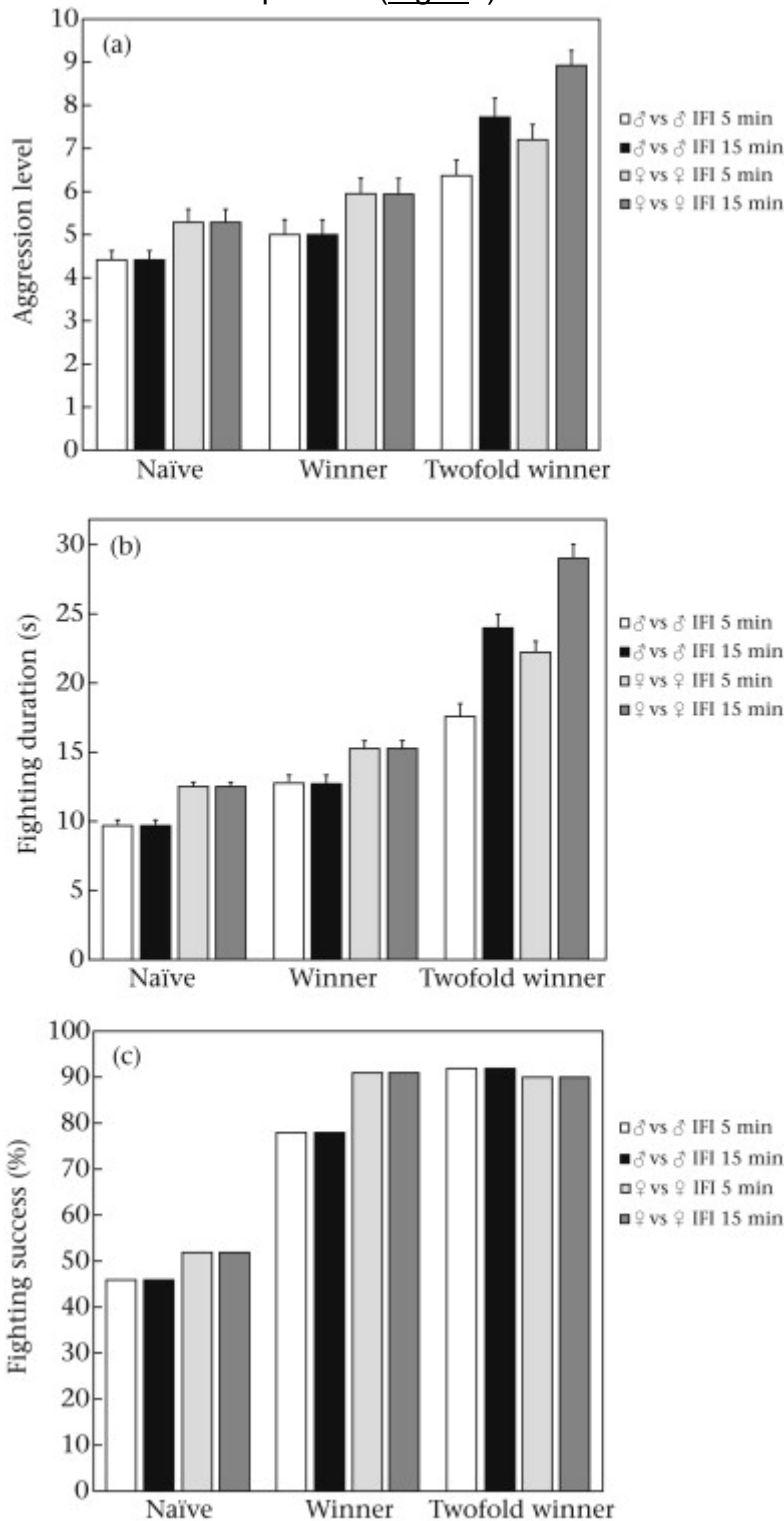
318 **Experiment 1: Does Prior Residence Affect Fighting Success?**

319 In male and female contests, when an intruder landed on a leaf or a fruit occupied by a
320 resident fly, the aggressive interaction was initiated by the resident or the intruder in equal
321 proportions (Appendix Figs A1 and A2). The resident fly was more successful than the
322 intruder (resident male: 83% success versus 17% displacement; $\chi^2_1 = 42.25$, $P < 0.001$;
323 resident female: 81% success versus 19% displacement; $\chi^2_1 = 37.21$, $P < 0.001$). No main
324 differences between the sexes were detected in the escalating aggression sequence
325 displayed during fighting (Table 1; Appendix Figs A1 and A2). Male and female aggressive
326 interactions started with wing waving, escalated to chasing, followed by fast head rocking
327 and pouncing at the opponent. Then, fighters started labellar displays and wing strikes.
328 The most aggressive behaviours were diving and boxing (Table 1).

329 **Experiment 2: the Winner Effect**

330 Intensity of aggression was affected by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 166.933$, $P < 0.001$), sex
331 ($\chi^2_1 = 32.354$, $P < 0.001$), interfight interval ($\chi^2_1 = 5.556$, $P = 0.018$) and the interaction of
332 experience and interfight interval ($\chi^2_2 = 11.130$, $P = 0.004$), while effects of other

333 interactions were not significant. In male and female contests, intensity of aggression was
 334 higher in twofold winners than in naïve flies, while performances of twofold winners and
 335 winners were comparable (Fig. 1a).



336
 337 Figure 1. Impact of winning experience on subsequent aggressive interactions. Bar
 338 graphs of (a) intensity, (b) duration and (c) success of same-sex contests
 339 in Mediterranean fruit flies with different winning experiences. Naïve = fight-
 340 inexperienced flies. Winners = winners of one previous encounter. Twofold

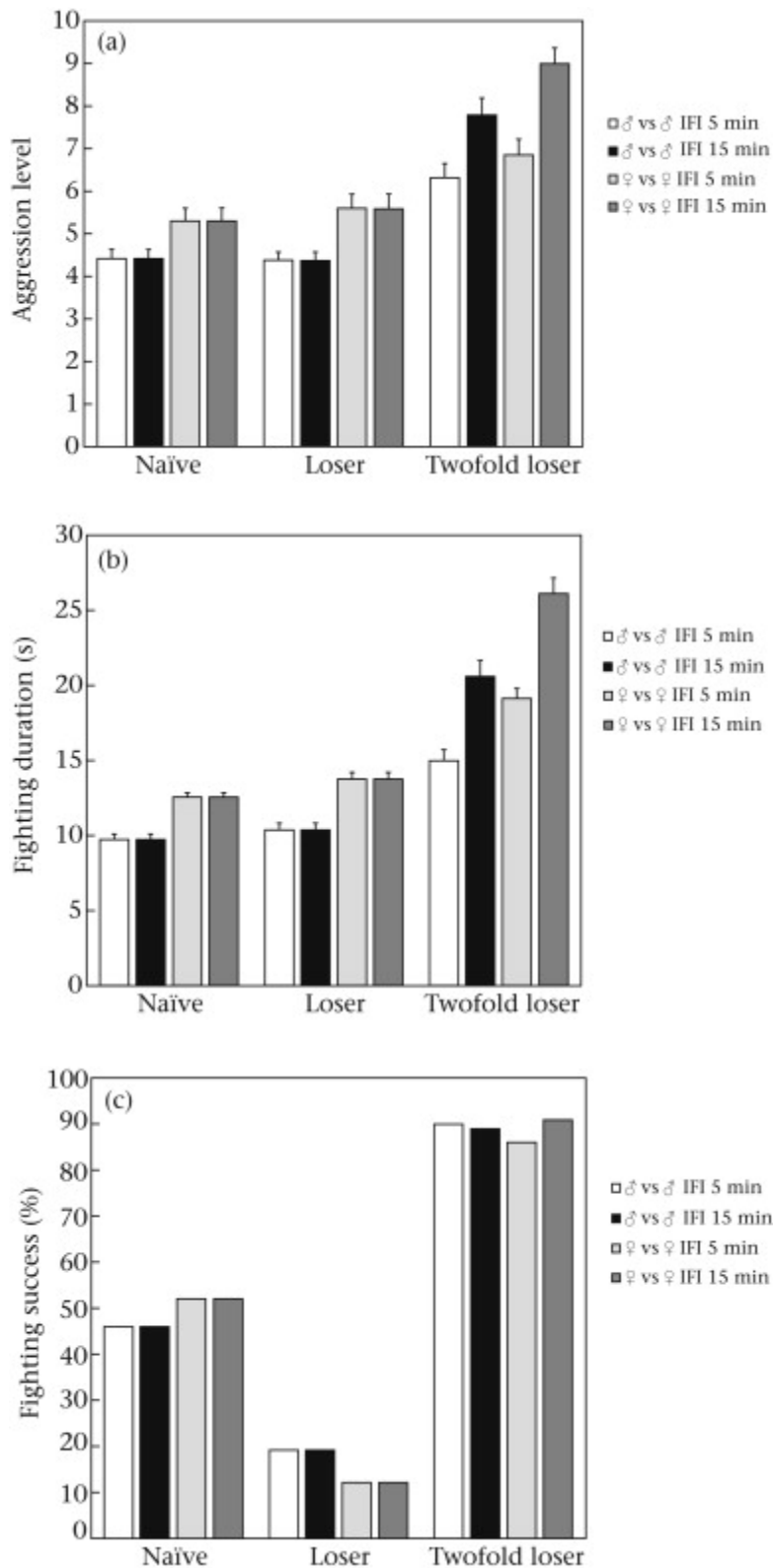
341 winners = winners of two previous encounters. Interfight interval (IFI) was 5 min and
342 15 min. Vertical lines are SEs.

343 Fight duration was affected by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 126.531, P < 0.001$), sex
344 ($\chi^2_1 = 148.552, P < 0.001$), interfight interval ($\chi^2_1 = 29.102, P < 0.001$) and the
345 experience*interval interaction ($\chi^2_2 = 62.421, P < 0.001$); other interactions were not
346 significant. As a general trend, females had longer aggressive interactions than males.
347 Contest duration was longer in twofold winners than in winners or naïve flies, while there
348 were no duration differences between the latter two at fight intervals of either 5 or 15 min
349 (Fig. 1b).

350 Fighting success was affected only by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 216.602, P < 0.001$), sex
351 ($\chi^2_1 = 4.289, P = 0.038$) and the interaction of sex and experience ($\chi^2_2 = 8.919, P = 0.012$).
352 It was lower in naïve flies than in winners and twofold winners, regardless of sex and
353 interval. No differences were detected between fighting success of winners and twofold
354 winners (Fig. 1c).

355 **Experiment 3: the Loser Effect**

356 Aggression intensity was affected by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 158.876, P < 0.001$), sex
357 ($\chi^2_1 = 179.984, P < 0.001$), interfight interval ($\chi^2_1 = 7.563, P < 0.001$) and the
358 experience*interval interaction ($\chi^2_2 = 15.563, P < 0.001$), while other interactions were not
359 significant. Intensity of aggression was higher in twofold losers than in naïve flies, while
360 performances of twofold losers and losers were comparable. In females, twofold losers
361 showed higher aggression levels after an interfight interval of 15 min than an interval of
362 5 min (Fig. 2a).



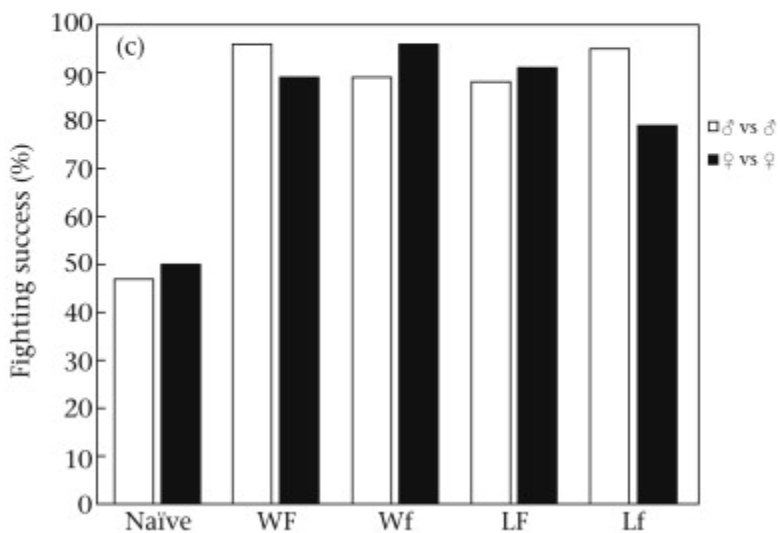
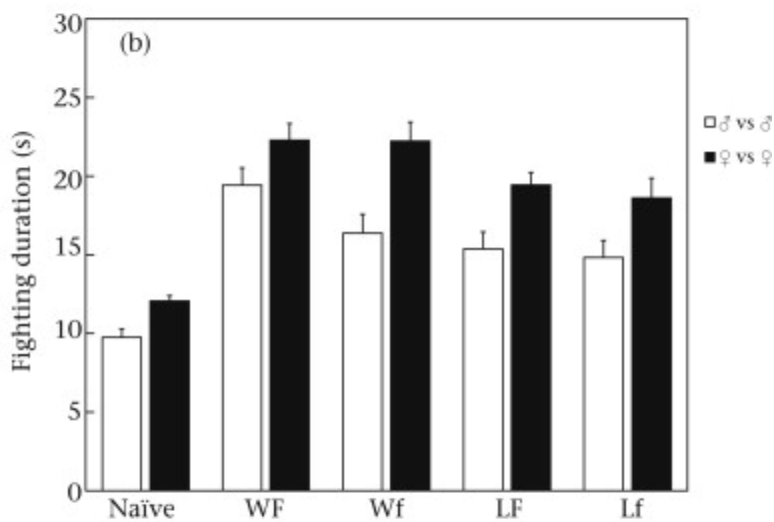
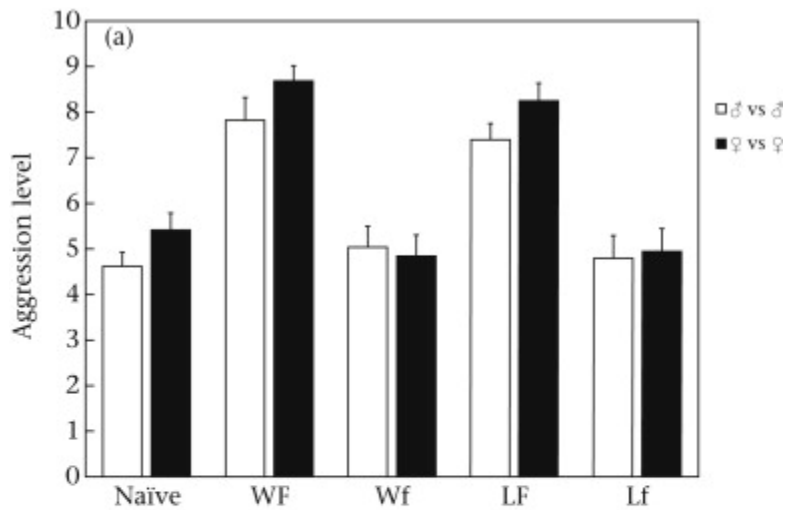
363
 364 Figure 2. Impact of losing experience on subsequent aggressive interactions. Bar
 365 graphs of (a) intensity, (b) duration and (c) success of same-sex contests
 366 in Mediterranean fruit flies with different losing experiences. Naïve = fight-
 367 inexperienced males. Losers = losers of one previous encounter. Twofold
 368 losers = losers of two previous encounters. Interfight interval (IFI) was 5 min and
 369 15 min. Vertical lines are SEs.

370 Fighting duration was affected by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 790.485, P < 0.001$), sex
371 ($\chi^2_1 = 196.956, P < 0.001$), interfight interval ($\chi^2_1 = 34.423, P < 0.001$) and the
372 experience*interval interaction ($\chi^2_2 = 69.281, P < 0.001$); other interactions were not
373 significant. Fighting duration was longer in twofold losers than naïve flies, while duration of
374 contests in naïve flies and losers was comparable. Generally, females fought longer than
375 males. Contests were longer with the 15 min interfight interval only in twofold losers
376 (Fig. 2b).

377 Fighting success was affected only by experience ($\chi^2_2 = 493.241, P < 0.001$). It was lower
378 in naïve flies than twofold losers, while losers achieved less success than naïve flies
379 (Fig. 2c).

380 **Experiment 4: Does Physical Combat Increase Aggression?**

381 Intensity of aggression was affected by experience ($\chi^2_4 = 114.211, P < 0.001$), while
382 effects of sex and the interaction of sex and experience were not significant. Intensity of
383 aggression was higher in flies that experienced physical combat than those that had not,
384 and this was true for winners and losers, with no differences due to sex. Aggression
385 intensity in naïve flies was similar to Wf and Lf, but lower than in WF and LF (Fig. 3a).



386
 387 Figure 3. Effect of physical combat on aggressive behaviour. Bar graphs of (a)
 388 intensity, (b) duration and (c) success of same-sex contests in Mediterranean fruit
 389 flies with different winning and losing experiences. Naïve = fight-inexperienced flies.
 390 WF = winners with physical combat. Wf = winners without physical combat.
 391 LF = losers with physical combat. Lf = losers without physical combat. Interfight
 392 interval (IFI) was 5 min and 15 min. Vertical lines are SEs.

393 Fighting duration was affected by both experience ($\chi^2_4 = 330.878$, $P < 0.001$) and sex
394 ($\chi^2_1 = 64.302$, $P < 0.001$), while the interaction of sex and experience was not significant.
395 For both males and females, fighting duration was lower in naïve flies than in WF, Wf, LF
396 and Lf. Duration of contests was comparable among WF, Wf, LF and Lf, and was longer in
397 female–female aggressive interactions than those involving males (Fig. 3b).
398 Fighting success was affected by both experience ($\chi^2_4 = 169.516$, $P < 0.001$) and the
399 interaction of sex and experience ($\chi^2_4 = 20.241$, $P < 0.001$), while the effect of sex itself
400 was not significant. Fighting success was lower in naïve flies than in other treatments. No
401 differences in fighting success were detected among WF, Wf, LF and Lf flies (Fig. 3c).

402 Discussion

403 Does Prior Residence Affect Fighting Success?

404 The ownership advantage in contests occurs throughout the animal kingdom (Kemp &
405 Wiklund, 2004). In the present study, the effect of prior residence on fighting success was
406 observed in both sexes (experiment 1), while we found no differences in the escalating
407 aggression sequence displayed in male–male versus female–female contests. Ramos
408 (1991) also found that prior residence increases fighting success in *C. capitata*, at variance
409 with previous studies conducted on other strains (Shelly, 2000a, Whittier et al., 1994), and
410 this may be due to behavioural modifications induced by mass rearing (see Benelli et al.,
411 2014a, Benelli et al., 2014b for recent reviews). More generally, prior residency is known
412 to affect fighting success in several other true Tephritidae species (Benelli, 2014, Benelli,
413 2015a, Benelli et al., 2014a, Benelli et al., 2014b), although no studies have been carried
414 out to shed light on physiological and ecological mechanisms underlying the residence
415 effect in these flies.

416 Winner and Loser Effects

417 In fighting *C. capitata* flies, we observed both a winner and a loser effect after one contest
418 experience. However, while the winner effect remained after two consecutive victories, the
419 loser effect disappeared and reversed after two defeats. Results from experiment 2
420 showed that winners of two previous encounters displayed a higher intensity of
421 aggression, fought for longer and achieved greater fighting success (i.e. hyperaggressive
422 performances, hereafter) in subsequent contests than naïve males. These findings are
423 consistent with those of previous studies on several invertebrate species (Hsu et al.,
424 2006; Stevenson & Schildberger, 2013), in which aggression intensity, fighting duration
425 and/or probability of winning were higher in previous contest winners than in naïve

426 contestants (i.e. cricket, Adamo & Hoy, 1995; crayfish, Bergman et al., 2003). The winner
427 effect is recognized in a number of vertebrates, including fishes, birds and mammals
428 (see Rutte et al., 2006 and Hsu et al., 2006 for reviews).
429 Experiment 3 showed reduced fighting success in males and females that experienced a
430 single defeat, while losers of two previous encounters displayed a higher intensity of
431 aggression, fought longer and achieved greater fighting success in subsequent contests
432 than naïve males. This effect lasted at least 15 min. Similar effects have rarely been
433 observed, in either invertebrates (Moore, Ciccone, & Breed, 1988) or vertebrates (Kim and
434 Zuk, 2000, Stamps and Krishnan, 1998). Previous studies in other invertebrate species
435 mostly report decreased intensity of aggression and/or shorter fighting duration in
436 individuals that experienced a defeat in previous contests, compared to naïve individuals
437 or winners (e.g. crickets and *Drosophila* flies; Adamo and Hoy, 1995, Hsu et al.,
438 2006, Iwasaki et al., 2006, Khazraie and Campan, 1999, Yurkovic et al., 2010). Similar
439 findings have been reported for vertebrates, such as fish, reptiles, birds and mammals
440 (Hsu et al., 2006, Lan and Hsu, 2011). In *C. capitata*, the higher aggressive level and
441 fighting success observed in twofold losers could be because after two consecutive
442 defeats the flies placed a much higher value on the defended resource. We hypothesize
443 that they would be willing to pay higher costs to get access to the resource during further
444 contests. Further studies are needed to quantify the fighting performances of naïve and
445 winner/loser males at the individual level. Why medflies show such a divergent response
446 to prior social experience compared to other invertebrate and vertebrate species is still
447 unclear. Additional research is required to understand whether previous fighting
448 experience can modify the contestants' subjective value of a given resource (i.e. male
449 courtship territory or female oviposition site) in flies.

450 **Effect of Aggression Experience on Males and Females**

451 A comparative approach between the sexes when studying aggression is hard to find, and
452 mostly concerns behavioural lateralization of aggressive displays (see Ariyomo and Watt,
453 2013, Benelli et al., 2015, Bianki and Filippova, 2001, Reddon and Hurd, 2008). In
454 experiments 2, 3 and 4, experiencing previous aggression led to some behavioural
455 differences between the sexes in *C. capitata*. As a general trend, females fought longer
456 than males. Aggressive interactions are of pivotal importance for males and females in the
457 medfly, as well as in a number of other tephritids relying on both male
458 dominance polygyny and resource defence polygyny as mating systems (Benelli, 2015a).
459 However, the amplified effect of experience on consecutive contests we found in females
460 relative to males (e.g. longer fighting duration) may be connected with the fact that female

461 flies rely on aggression for more than one purpose in their life, while this has not been
462 ascertained for males. Indeed, it has been reported that *C. capitata* females express
463 aggression against siblings when competing for mates (Papadopoulos et al., 2009) and for
464 oviposition sites (Benelli, Daane, et al., 2014). Conversely, calling males fight only when
465 searching for mates, to defend territories in leks (Benelli, 2015a, Shelly, 2000a, Shelly,
466 2000b).

467 **Does Physical Combat Increase Aggression?**

468 Experiment 4 showed that longer fighting duration and higher success of winning and
469 losing males relative to naïve ones were mainly due to experience in a previous contest,
470 while the outcome and the experience of physical combat did not affect subsequent
471 aggressiveness level any more than an aggressive interaction without physical contact. In
472 contrast, we found that aggression intensity was increased only in winning or losing
473 experiences that had physical contact during contests; in Wf and Lf treatments the
474 aggression level was similar to that of naïve individuals. Concerning fighting duration,
475 in *C. capitata* the experience of winning without physical combat led to a behavioural effect
476 similar to that shown in crickets; in both taxa this experience alone is sufficient to prolong
477 fight duration in subsequent male–male contests (Rillich and Stevenson 2011). In some
478 vertebrates (e.g. East African cichlids), it has been proved that fighting experience itself
479 (coupled with an androgen response) increases the subsequent likelihood of winning,
480 even in the absence of a prior winning experience (Dijkstra, Schaafsma, Hofmann, &
481 Groothuis, 2012). We showed that experiencing two consecutive defeats without physical
482 contact induced a similar effect in both sexes of *C. capitata* (Lf), which achieved higher
483 fighting success in subsequent combat to a level comparable to flies that had experienced
484 two consecutive defeats with physical interaction (LF). Fighting success in LF and Lf flies
485 was also comparable to that of WF and Wf individuals, demonstrating that experiencing
486 either consecutive victories or defeats, with or without physical contests, led to
487 hyperaggression in this fly and increased fighting success in subsequent contests.

488 **Conclusions**

489 Our research highlighted that male and female *C. capitata* experiencing a single defeat
490 suffered lower fighting success in the following contest, while flies that experienced two
491 previous victories or defeats had higher aggression rates and more wins in further
492 combats. This effect was due to merely experiencing a contest, while the actual outcomes
493 of previous fights did not affect the aggressiveness level. To the best of our knowledge,

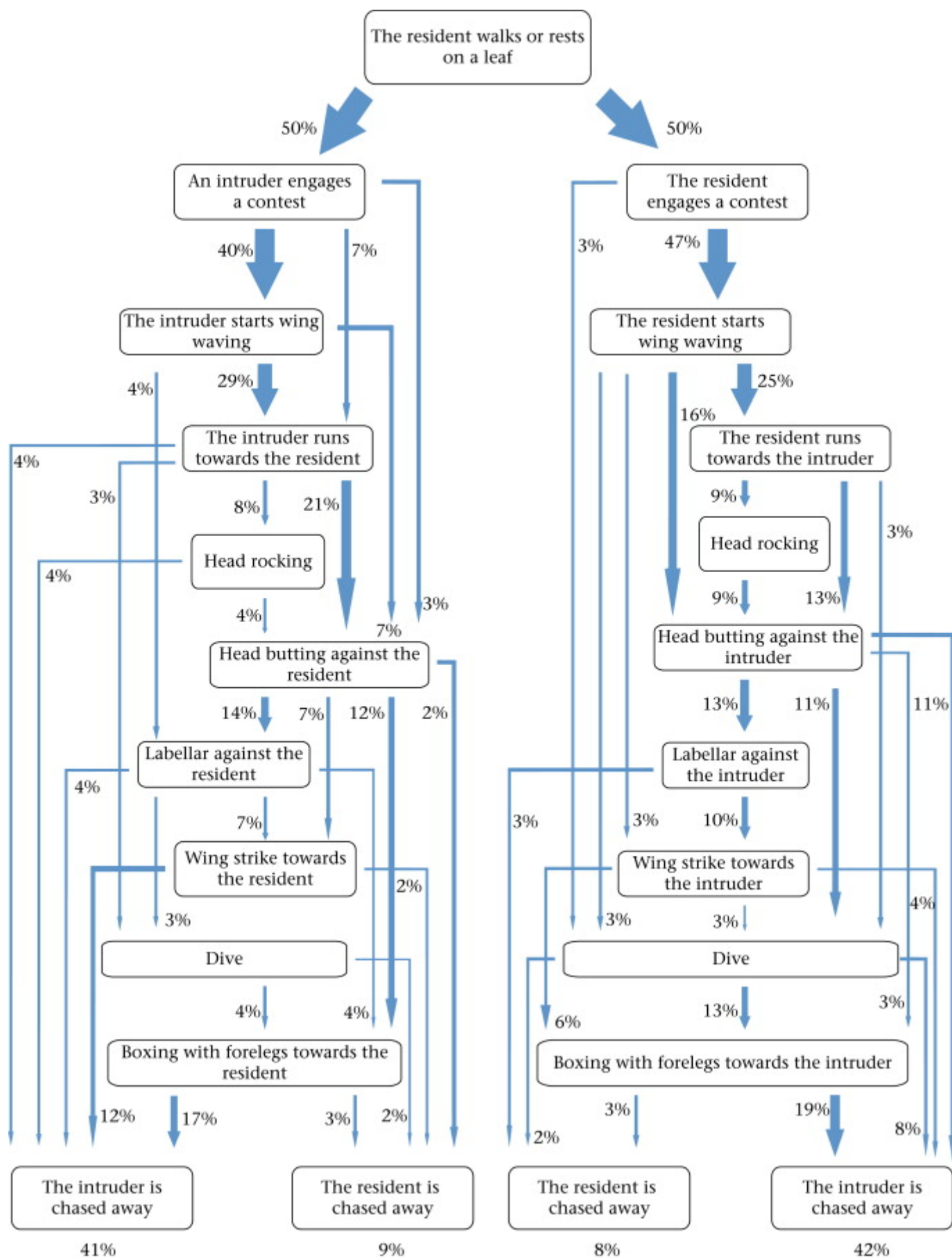
494 this is the first evidence that consecutive defeats can reverse the loser effect, leading to
495 higher fighting success. Although extensive research has been conducted to understand
496 the role of social experience in affecting the outcomes of aggression, the ultimate and
497 proximate causes for the existence of the winner and loser effects are unknown (Hsu
498 et al., 2006, Rutte et al., 2006, Stevenson and Schildberger, 2013). Rutte et al.
499 (2006) formulated two adaptive hypotheses to explain these effects, namely the 'social-
500 cue hypothesis' (i.e. victory and defeat leave traces that affect the decisions of subsequent
501 opponents) and the 'self-assessment hypothesis' (i.e. winners and losers gain information
502 about their own relative fighting ability in the population). In this latter scenario, it appears
503 conceivable that *C. capitata* males and females are able to gain information from previous
504 fighting experience to refine their future performances, regardless of previous outcomes
505 (see also Fawcett & Johnstone, 2010).

506 Can this knowledge help to improve pest management strategies against fruit fly pests? To
507 our mind there are some connections. The sterile insect technique is one of the most
508 reliable nondisruptive control tools against tephritids. However, sterile males have
509 lower mating competitiveness than wild ones, owing to mass-rearing procedures as well as
510 to damage/stress occurring during sterilization, shipping and release (Hendrichs,
511 Robinson, Cayol, & Enkerlin, 2002). Our findings outline the possibility of inducing
512 hyperaggression in sterile males by manipulating the flies' density in cages, thus
513 increasing the number of contests, and providing small potted host plants to create a
514 semifield environment during the prerelease phase. This may help sterile males to refine
515 their fighting skills and achieve better subsequent contest outcomes against wild ones
516 (Benelli, 2015a, Benelli, 2015b).

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525 **Appendix**



527 Figure A1. Effect of previous residence on male–male contests of Mediterranean
528 fruit flies. The thickness of the arrows indicates the percentage of individuals
529 displaying different behavioural phases; 100 males were observed.

531 Figure A2. Effect of previous residence on female–female contests of
532 Mediterranean fruit flies. The thickness of the arrows indicates the percentage of
533 individuals displaying different behavioural phases; 100 females were observed.

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