

1 **Title: Drosophila species learn dialects through communal living**

2

3 **Authors:** Balint Z Kacsoh, Julianna Bozler and Giovanni Bosco*

4

5 **Affiliation:**

6 Department of Molecular and Systems Biology, Geisel School of Medicine at Dartmouth,

7 Hanover, NH, 03755, USA.

8

9 *Corresponding author: (GB) giovanni.bosco@dartmouth.edu

10

11

12 **One sentence summary:** Fruit flies learn dialects following co-habitation with other species.

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25

26 **Many species are able to share information about their environment by communicating**
27 **through auditory, visual, and olfactory cues. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, exposure to**
28 **parasitoid wasps leads to a decline in egg laying, and exposed females communicate this**
29 **threat to naïve flies, which also depress egg laying. We find that species across the genus**
30 ***Drosophila* respond to wasps by egg laying reduction, activate cleaved caspase in oocytes,**
31 **and communicate the presence of wasps to naïve individuals. Communication within a**
32 **species and between closely related species is efficient, while more distantly related species**
33 **exhibit partial communication. Remarkably, partial communication between some species**
34 **is enhanced after a cohabitation period that requires exchange of visual and olfactory**
35 **signals. This interspecies “dialect learning” requires neuronal cAMP signaling in the**
36 **mushroom body, suggesting neuronal plasticity facilitates dialect learning and memory.**
37 **These observations establish *Drosophila* as genetic models for inter-species social**
38 **communication and evolution of dialects.**

39 The ability to interpret environmental information is a phenomenon found throughout all
40 life forms. From bacteria to plants and to mammals, communication occurs within as well as
41 between species. In some cases, information that is being shared can be highly specific, such as
42 in the case of honeybees communicating instructions on where to find nectar (1-3) . In other
43 cases, opportunistic bystanders can also benefit from general information. For example, predator
44 alarm calls generated as a warning are observed, where multiple species participate in repeating
45 the alarm throughout the community (4-8) . In all cases, the information that is shared can be
46 dependent on local environmental cues and experiences and the manner in which information is

47 communicated is strongly influenced by past experiences of each individual. For example, birds,
48 which live in geographically distinct populations, manifest unique song variants or regional
49 dialects that can last for decades, but these animals are nevertheless still able to communicate
50 with others of their species (9-11) . Because dialects are learned and therefore influenced (12)
51 by specific local environmental differences, it suggests that both social and non-social
52 experiences can have dramatic effects on cognitive development (13) .

53 It is proposed that a myriad of environmental cues, both social and non-social, are critical
54 to animal development in determining the ability to convey and receive specific types of
55 information. However, there are many outlying questions as a result of this proposition: What
56 cues are important? When are these cues important? How can environmental cues interact with
57 genetically determined developmental programs? Although social communication is most
58 extensively documented in more derived organisms such as mammals and birds, insects can also
59 display a broad range of behavioral tasks. Bees are known to be able to learn from non-natural
60 sources in order to obtain a reward through social learning. Such information can be passed on to
61 naïve, student bees through the use of visual cues (14,15) . Insect social learning extends to the
62 genetic model system of *Drosophila*, where student, observer flies learn from a trained, teacher-
63 fly, using visual cues. This has been shown in communication involving food sources and
64 predator threats (16,17) .

65 Chemical cues can serve as intra- and inter-species signals, such as fox and guinea pig
66 urine affecting not only conspecific behavior, but also the behavior of other animals (18-20) .
67 Sound can also be used, such as in bats and bottlenose dolphins, which are able to distinguish
68 members of the community through the use of echolocation pitch recognition (21,22) . Plants
69 have a vast arsenal of responses to pathogens (23) , including communicating a threat to

70 neighboring plants through the use of volatile organic compounds (24) . Plant inter-species (25-
71 31) and intra-species (32-34) communication occurs both in laboratory settings and in the wild
72 (30,35) .

73 *Drosophila melanogaster* and other *Drosophila* species have provided insights into
74 mechanisms of learning, memory, and complex behaviors (36,37) . However, these behaviors
75 and phenotypes have been studied almost exclusively in domesticated *D. melanogaster* lab
76 monocultures, while *D. melanogaster* wild populations are surrounded by a broad range of
77 predators, microbes, and other *Drosophilids*, highlighting a communal component of the
78 organism's life cycle (38) . This raises the possibility of behavioral phenomenon that have yet to
79 be discovered and analyzed in domesticated lab monocultures (39-41) . Given the vast range of
80 environmental inputs on a wild *Drosophilid*, a fly must be able to discern important information
81 from extraneous inputs, while interacting with conspecifics and a variety of other species.

82 Although modes of intra- and inter-species communication are likely to be genetically
83 limited, there is also value in learning to interpret signals from variable, local environments that
84 may provide immediate survival benefits. How do genetically constrained neurological features
85 and variable environmental factors interact to produce context-dependent, meaningful
86 information? Under which environmental factors would information sharing between different
87 species occur and be beneficial? In this study, we sought to begin to address these questions in
88 the *Drosophila* model system by using a pan-*Drosophila* predator known to elicit social
89 communication (17,42) . *D. melanogaster* presented with parasitoid wasps have multiple
90 behavioral responses, including a reduction in oviposition (egg laying) through an increase in
91 ovarian apoptosis (17,43-46) . After removal of the wasp, a wasp-exposed “teacher” fly can
92 instruct a naïve “student” fly about the presence of the wasp threat through the exclusive use of

93 visual cues, such that students now reduce their own oviposition by triggering ovarian apoptosis.
94 Using this fly-fly social communication paradigm we asked (1) whether social communication is
95 conserved among other *Drosophila* species, (2) if *Drosophilids* engage in interspecies
96 communication, and (3) what environmental and genetic factors are required for interspecies
97 communication.

98 **RESULTS**

99 **INTRA- AND INTER-SPECIES COMMUNICATION**

100 We utilized the fly duplex, an apparatus with two transparent acrylic compartments to test
101 whether different species respond to seeing predators (acute response) and if exposed “teacher”
102 female flies can communicate this threat to naïve unexposed “student” female flies (17) . The
103 duplex allows flies to see other flies or wasps in the adjacent compartment, without direct
104 contact, making all communication only visual (Fig. 1A). Ten female and two male flies are
105 placed into one duplex compartment, with an adjacent compartment containing twenty female
106 wasps. Following a 24-hour exposure, wasps are removed and acute response is measured by
107 counting the number of eggs laid in the first 24-hour period in a blinded manner. Flies are shifted
108 to a new duplex, with ten female and two male naïve student flies in the adjacent compartment
109 (Fig. 1 A, see methods). Following a second 24-hour period, all flies are removed and the
110 response of both teacher and student is measured by counting the number of eggs laid in a
111 blinded manner. The 24-48-hour period measures memory of teachers having seen the wasps and
112 students having learned from the teachers. Using wild-type *D. melanogaster*, we find both an
113 acute response and a memory response to the wasp in teacher flies and a learned response in
114 naïve student flies (Fig. 1 B, Fig. S 1 A) (17,45,46) .

115 We then asked whether the acute, memory, and student social learning behaviors are
116 conserved in other *Drosophila* species, with varying relatedness to *D. melanogaster* ranging from
117 sister species, such as *D. simulans*, to very distantly related species, such as *D. virilis*. For each
118 species, we tested a sister species as an additional way to validate our observations. Across a
119 broad span of the genus *Drosophila*, we find the conservation of both the acute and memory
120 responses in teacher flies in addition to the ability of teachers to communicate to student flies.
121 (Fig. 1 C, Fig. S 1 B-H). Some of these species have been previously shown to depress
122 oviposition during wasp exposure (46) . Our experimental design allows for only visual cues to
123 be detected from the wasps and from teachers to student flies. Thus, in all species tested, visual
124 cues are sufficient for flies to detect wasps and for naïve flies to learn from wasp-exposed
125 teacher flies. Conservation of these behaviors is especially impressive as the species tested are
126 separated by millions of years of evolution, yet the basic behaviors observed in *D. melanogaster*
127 are maintained. Moreover, this conservation further underscores the importance this innate
128 behavior must have since even laboratory cultures that have not experienced wasp for many
129 generations nevertheless exhibit a robust response.

130 Oviposition reduction is modulated in part by the effector caspase Dcp-1 (17) . In *D.*
131 *melanogaster*, we observe overlapping staining of activated Dcp-1 with a punctate pattern of
132 DNA staining with 4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI), indicative of oocyte specific
133 apoptotic activity (Fig. 1 D-K, Fig. S 2). We performed immunofluorescence of activated Dcp-1
134 across a broad range of *Drosophila* species, revealing cleaved caspase following wasp exposure
135 in all 15 *Drosophila* species tested (Fig. S 3). We demonstrate an increase in positive cleaved
136 caspase oocytes following wasp exposure (Fig. S 4), along with a decrease in total number of egg

137 chambers (Fig. S 5), suggestive of ovarian apoptosis and elimination of oocytes (17) .
138 Phylogenetic trees shown are adapted from previous work (47) .

139 Following the observation that an acute response to wasps and intra-species
140 communication is conserved across the genus, we asked whether the wasp threat could be
141 communicated between two different species. We utilized 15 *Drosophila* species that respond to
142 wasps to answer this question (Fig. S 3,4). The species were selected to span the phylogeny with
143 different degrees of relatedness to *D. melanogaster* (47) . We find that *D. melanogaster* are able
144 to communicate the threat to and receive communications from closely related species, such as
145 *D. simulans* and *D. yakuba*, with oviposition of students paired with wasp-exposed teachers
146 being ~10-30% compared to unexposed (Fig. 2 A-B, Fig. S 6 A-F). Interestingly, species more
147 distantly related to *D. melanogaster*, such as *D. ananassae* and its sister species, elicit a partial
148 communication phenotype, with oviposition depression of students paired with wasp-exposed
149 teachers being ~50-65% of unexposed flies (Fig. 2 C-F, Fig. S 6 G-J). A second strain isolate of
150 *D. ananassae* also show partial communication with *D. melanogaster* (Fig. 2 C-F, Fig. S 6 G-J).
151 Species more distantly related to *D. melanogaster*, such as *D. willistoni* and *D. virilis*, cannot
152 communicate with *D. melanogaster* (Fig. 2 G-J, Fig. S 6 K-P). Collectively, the data suggest that
153 evolutionary distance contributes the to the efficiency of interspecies communication. *D.*
154 *ananassae* show varying communication phenotypes with other *Drosophila* species, though the
155 pattern of communication is different. For example, *D. ananassae* exhibit partial communication
156 with *D. simulans* (Fig. S 7 A-B), strong communication with its sister *D. kikkawai* (Fig. S 7 C-
157 D), and partial communication with *D. equinoxialis* and *D. willistoni* (Fig. S 7 E-H). *D.*
158 *ananassae*, in addition to *D. melanogaster*, are unable to communicate with the distantly related
159 *D. mojavensis* and *D. virilis* (Fig. 2 I-J, Fig. S 7 I-L). Species such as *D. virilis*, which were

160 unable to communicate with *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, can communicate with other
161 species, such as its sister species *D. mojavensis* (Fig. 2 K-L). Thus, although all species tested
162 are capable of intra-species communication, there is a fundamental, species-specific difference in
163 “fly language” or in strategy for communicating wasp threat.

164

165 **DIALECT LEARNING**

166 Given that closely related species can communicate the threat of a wasp, we examined
167 the environmental factors that could be contributing to such interspecies communication.
168 Specifically, we tested whether a period of cohabitation with frequent contact between two
169 poorly communicating species could improve interspecies communication. *D. melanogaster*
170 were cohabitated with species capable of only partial communication (*e.g.* *D. ananassae*) (Fig. 2
171 C-D) for one week in a single container, allowing for frequent and multiple channels of sensory
172 interactions. Following a weeklong cohabitation period, the two species were separated and used
173 as students paired with teachers of the other species (Fig. 3 A). In all experiments teachers had
174 existed only as a monoculture, while all flies experiencing an interspecies cohabitation period
175 were subsequently used only as students.

176 We find that cohabitation can greatly enhance communication between some species,
177 suggesting that some form of training occurs during this period. After cohabitation, *D. ananassae*
178 learn very efficiently from *D. melanogaster* teachers, demonstrating that cohabitation of two
179 species yields an expanded communication repertoire (Fig. 3, Fig. S8). This observation
180 indicates that poorly communicating species are not limited by structural barriers such as wing
181 shape or olfactory capacity. Instead this suggests that, similar to local dialects in bird songs,
182 *Drosophila* species-specific cues can be learned simply by repeated exposure to the “dialect”. We

183 observed “dialect learning” in two different *D. ananassae* strain isolates, and two additional
184 sister species (Fig. 3 B-E, Fig. S 8 A-G), indicating that dialect learning is likely to be a wide-
185 spread phenomenon in *Drosophila*. Interestingly, some distantly related species that were unable
186 to communicate with *D. melanogaster* (i.e. *D. willistoni*, *D. equinoxialis*) acquired the ability to
187 partially communicate following a cohabitation-training period (Fig. 3 F-I, Fig. S 8 H-I). This
188 was not the case for very distantly related species (i.e. *D. virilis*, *D. mojavensis*), which showed
189 no ability to communicate with *D. melanogaster* even after training (Fig. 3 J-K, Fig. S 8 J-M).
190 We also tested a transgenic *D. melanogaster*, to see if it was capable of teaching and dialect
191 learning, and find such flies can teach their dialect to and learn the dialect from *D. ananassae*
192 (Fig. S 8 N-O).

193 Additionally, we tested whether *D. ananassae* communication could benefit from
194 cohabitation-training with species other than *D. melanogaster*. We find efficient communication
195 between *D. simulans* (Fig. S 9 A-B), *D. equinoxialis* (Fig. S 9 C-D), and *D. mojavensis* (Fig. S 9
196 E-F) with *D. ananassae* following a cohabitation-training period. In contrast to the *D.*
197 *melanogaster* results, we find communication with more distantly related species is altered after
198 dialect training. *D. mojavensis* and *D. virilis* are able to dialect-learn following a cohabitation-
199 training period with *D. ananassae*. With these species, in the untrained states we observe no
200 ability to communicate (Fig. S 7 I-L), but find a partial communication phenotype following
201 cohabitation (Fig. S 9 G-J). Therefore, *D. virilis* and *D. mojavensis*, although capable of inter-
202 species communication and dialect learning, cannot learn the *D. melanogaster* dialect, but can
203 learn *D. ananassae* dialect. These results suggest that some inter-species communication barriers
204 do exist while others can be overcome by a period of dialect training and cohabitation.

205 Given our observation that two species can learn dialects following a cohabitation-
206 training period, we wondered whether having more species present during the dialect training
207 period influences dialect learning. In nature, flies are exposed to many different species of
208 *Drosophila*. Given this, we hypothesized that neuronal plasticity exists in the fly brain to allow
209 flies to learn multiple dialects from a given training period that includes multiple species as
210 inputs. To probe this question, *D. melanogaster* were cohabitated with species capable of only
211 partial communication or no communication in the untrained state, but show efficient and partial
212 communication after dialect training (*i.e.* *D. ananassae* and *D. willistoni*, respectively). These
213 three species were cohabitated for one week in a single container. We then used the trained *D.*
214 *melanogaster* as students to *D. ananassae* and *D. willistoni* teachers (Fig. 4 A). We find that
215 trained *D. melanogaster* are able to efficiently communicate with *D. ananassae* and partially
216 communicate with *D. willistoni* (Fig. 4. B-C). These results mirror assays where these species
217 were individually trained (Fig. 3 B-C, F-G), suggesting that flies can simultaneously make use of
218 multiple inputs from multiple species and be able to learn and remember each unique dialect they
219 encounter. Additionally, we tested *D. ananassae* and *D. willistoni* as students that were
220 cohabitated with *D. melanogaster*. We find that *D. ananassae* can communicate efficiently with
221 *D. melanogaster* and *D. willistoni* (Fig. 4 D-E), and that *D. willistoni* can partially communicate
222 with *D. melanogaster* and effectively communicate with *D. ananassae* (Fig. 4 F-G). These data
223 also mirror individual training (Fig. 3 B-C, F-G, Fig. S 9 E-F). Collectively, these data
224 demonstrate that a fly can have vast communication repertoires consisting of multiple dialects
225 that it acquires.

226 **DIALECT LEARNING INPUTS**

227 In order to better understand dialect learning, we tested the roles of sensory cues and
228 genetic factors during the dialect-learning period. We measured dialect learning by quantifying
229 improvement in interspecies partial communication between *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*
230 that normally exhibit efficient communication only after cohabitation. Given that in *D.*
231 *melanogaster*, and in other species tested, we found visual cues to be sufficient for the teacher-
232 student dynamic (Fig. 1) (17) , we asked if visual cues are sufficient and/or necessary for dialect
233 learning. We approached this question by performing the dialect training in the fly duplex, such
234 that the two species could only see each other (Fig. 5 A), or by performing the training in the
235 dark, so that the two species could physically interact, but lacked visual cues (Fig. S 10 A). We
236 find that visual cues alone are not sufficient (Fig. 5 B-C), but are necessary (Fig. S 10 B-C) for
237 dialect learning. The observation that visual cues are necessary but not sufficient makes the
238 dialect learning phenomena fundamentally different from the teacher-student dynamic that
239 requires only visual cues (17) . Furthermore, we wondered if seeing another species altered the
240 behavior of a fly to facilitate dialect learning. Blind *D. melanogaster ninaB* mutants do not
241 function as students. Surprisingly, *D. ananassae* cohabitated with blind *D. melanogaster* do not
242 learn the *D. melanogaster* dialect (Fig. S 10 D-E). We also performed cohabitation training
243 under two different, monochromatic light sources, and this resulted in only a partial
244 communication between *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, (Fig. 5 D-E, Fig. S 10 F-G). To
245 exclude the possibility of a dimmer light source inhibiting dialect training under monochromatic
246 settings, we repeated cohabitation-dialect-training in a full spectrum, lower light intensity setting,
247 and found both species were able to learn the dialect (Fig. S 10 H-I). Thus, full spectrum light is
248 essential in dialect learning. Importantly, the observation that blind *D. melanogaster* do not allow

249 wild-type *D. ananassae* to dialect-learn suggests that species must see each other in order to alter
250 their behavioral/chemical outputs required to facilitate dialect-learning.

251 Wing movement was shown to be required for teacher flies to instruct students in the
252 teacher-student dynamic (17) , raising the possibility that wing movement was also important for
253 dialect learning. Therefore, we tested flies mutant in the erect wing gene (*ewg*), which impairs
254 wing movement while maintaining morphologically normal wings. The allele tested has wild-
255 type EWG protein expression in the nervous system, thus is only deficient in its non-neuronal
256 functions, such as flight muscles (48) . We find that *D. ananassae* cannot dialect learn from
257 *ewg*^{NS4} flies (Fig. 5 F), although *ewg*^{NS4} mutants have no dialect learning impairment (Fig. 5 G).
258 This suggests that dialect learning by *D. ananassae* requires *D. melanogaster* to have mobile
259 wings.

260 To test if olfactory cues play a role in dialect learning, we utilized *D. melanogaster*
261 mutants defective in chemosensory signaling. The majority of olfactory receptors require a co-
262 receptor for wild-type function, including *Orco* (Or83b) for odorant receptors (49) and *Ir8a* or
263 *Ir25a* for ionotropic receptors (50) . *Ir8a* olfactory sensory neurons (OSNs) primarily detect acids
264 and *Ir25a* OSNs detect amines, allowing us to probe specificity of detection. We find that *D.*
265 *ananassae* are able to learn dialect from *Orco*¹, *Ir8a*¹, *Ir25a*², single and *Ir8a*¹;*Ir25a*²;*Orco*¹
266 triple mutants and RNAi expressing *D. melanogaster* targeting each of these gene products (Fig.
267 4 H,J, Fig S 9 A-L). By contrast only *Ir25a*² mutant and RNAi knockdown *D. melanogaster*
268 were able to learn the *D. ananassae* dialect (Fig. 5 I,K, Fig S 11 A-L). These data demonstrate
269 that *Orco*- and *Ir8a*-mediated olfactory inputs are required for dialect-learning. This further
270 suggests that multiple olfactory cues play important roles in the dialect-learning period. We also
271 find that *D. melanogaster* males and females are both required for dialect-training *D. ananassae*

272 (Fig. 5 L-M, Fig. S 11 M-N) and that the length of the training period is also critical, as 24 hours
273 is insufficient a period for dialect-learning (Fig. S 11 O-P). Thus, although the exact olfactory
274 molecule(s) critical during a dialect-learning period are yet to be identified, we speculate that
275 dialect-learning is a complex process requiring visual, olfactory and sex specific cues.

276 To examine the possibility that dialect training involves active learning mediated by
277 neurons of the mushroom body, we utilized the GAL4 Gene-Switch system to transiently express
278 a transgene specifically in the mushroom body (MB). Using the GAL4 Gene-Switch ligand
279 system, RU486 (51) activates the GAL4 transcription factor, while administration of the vehicle
280 (methanol) does not (51). RU486 was administered during the cohabitation period (or methanol
281 for control), but not when flies were used as students post-dialect training (Fig. 6 A). Feeding of
282 RU486 to the MB switch driver line does not impair dialect learning (Fig. S 12 A). We expressed
283 the Tetanus toxin light chain (UAS-TeTx) specifically in the MB of *D. melanogaster* (to inhibit
284 synaptic transmission during dialect training). We find that *D. ananassae* are able to learn the
285 dialect of these MB inhibited flies (Fig. 6 B). However, *D. melanogaster* in which MB synaptic
286 transmission is inhibited during the training period are unable to learn the *D. ananassae* dialect
287 (Fig. 6 C). Control methanol only conditions (i.e. no RU486 ligand) with flies of identical
288 genotypes do not show this defect (Fig. S 12 B). These data collectively indicate that visual and
289 olfactory cues are required and possibly relayed to the MB, either directly or indirectly, to
290 facilitate dialect learning. By contrast MB function does not appear to be important for *D.*
291 *melanogaster* behavior(s) that enable *D. ananassae* to learn a dialect (Fig. S 6 B). Consistent
292 with this idea, although *Orb2^{AQ}* mutants cannot function as students (Fig. 6 E) (17), *D.*
293 *ananassae* nevertheless learns the *D. melanogaster* dialect from *Orb2^{AQ}* mutants (Fig. 6 D).

294 Because MB function is necessary for dialect learning during dialect training, we tested
295 the long-term memory proteins Orb2, FMR1, and phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN)
296 (52,53) that are known to be required in the MB for memory formation. PTEN has been
297 implicated in murine social learning models, though it has not been tested in a social learning
298 assay in *Drosophila* (54). We used the MB Gene-Switch to knockdown expression only during
299 the cohabitation period, after which expression was allowed to resume. *D. ananassae* learn the
300 dialect of each of these three knockdown lines, again suggesting that MB mediated processes in
301 *D. melanogaster* are not necessary for *D. ananassae* dialect-training (Fig. S 12 C-G). However,
302 under these conditions we find that functional Orb2 and PTEN are required for dialect learning
303 in *D. melanogaster*, but FMR1 is dispensable (Fig. 6 F-H). Orb2 and FMR1 were previously
304 shown to be important in the teacher-student transmission of a wasp threat, and knockdown of
305 either gene completely ablated students learning from teacher flies. In this case, partial
306 communication between *D. ananassae* teachers and *D. melanogaster* students can occur because
307 Orb2 and PTEN expression is restored after the dialect-training period, thus functioning as wild-
308 type *D. melanogaster*. *D. melanogaster* flies having undergone knockdown of Orb2 and PTEN
309 only during dialect-training are able to communicate with and function as students to wild-type
310 *D. melanogaster* after the cohabitation period is completed, suggesting the partial
311 communication phenotype observed with *D. ananassae* teachers is a result of gene knockdown
312 during cohabitation and not a by-product of irreversible cellular damage or death caused by the
313 RNAi treatments (Fig. S 12 H-L). Collectively, these data show critical gene products are
314 required to function in the MB for dialect learning during the training period. Importantly, MB
315 function and active learning are not necessary in *D. melanogaster* in order to in turn provide cues
316 enabling dialect learning by a wild-type *D. ananassae* student.

317

318 **DISCUSSION**

319 In this study, we present an evolutionarily conserved response to predatory wasps across
320 the genus *Drosophila*, manifesting as oviposition depression coincident with an activated effector
321 caspase, Dcp-1. We have shown that flies communicate a wasp threat through visual cues. Inter-
322 species communication occurs to varying degrees, likely dependent on evolutionary relatedness.
323 Closely related species, such as *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*, *D. ananassae* and *D.*
324 *kikkawai*, and *D. mojavensis* and *D. virilis*, communicate as effectively as conspecifics. Species
325 more distantly related to *D. melanogaster* exhibit only partial communication or lack the ability
326 to confer predator information with *D. melanogaster*. When two species are only able to partially
327 communicate, they can learn each other's dialect after a period of cohabitation, yielding inter-
328 species communication enhanced to levels normally observed among conspecifics. Although
329 dialect learning facilitates inter-species communication across broad evolutionary distances, the
330 ability to learn a specific dialect is dependent on relatedness of the two species (Fig. 7 A). This
331 observation of the role of phylogenetic distance influencing dialect learning is true in cases both
332 utilizing *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* in combination with other species tested (Fig. 7 A,
333 Fig. S 13). The observation that different strains of the same species exhibit this partial
334 communication that can then be enhanced by cohabitation, suggests that both social
335 communication and dialect learning are innate behaviors conserved among all Drosophilids
336 tested here (Fig. 7 A, Fig. S 13). Multiple strains of *D. melanogaster* reared in the laboratory for
337 many decades exhibit this behavior, supporting the idea that this is an innate behavior. Thus,
338 adult *Drosophila* neuronal plasticity allows for learning of dialects, but the specific dialect
339 learned is dependent on social interactions specific to a communal environmental context that

340 provides both visual and olfactory inputs. This same plasticity allows for the learning of multiple
341 dialects in a given environment. It is remarkable that communal rearing of two species can
342 enhance communication about a predator that is yet to be experienced by either species.
343 Furthermore, dialect-learning does not trigger Dcp-1 activation and oviposition depression,
344 suggesting that social communication about predator presence is different from social
345 interactions that enable dialect-learning that later enhances predator presence communication.

346 We propose dialect-learning to be a novel behavior requiring visual and olfactory inputs,
347 perhaps integrated in and relayed through the MB, resulting in the ability to more efficiently
348 receive information about a common predator. Without dialect learning, this information would
349 otherwise be lost in translation or muddled, resulting in an inefficient behavioral response with
350 significant survival disadvantages. Inhibiting synaptic transmission and knockdown of key
351 learning and memory genes in the MB demonstrates that these inputs must be processed and
352 consolidated in the MB, although input neuronal signaling is initiated from the visual and
353 olfactory systems (Fig. 7 B). Given the need for multiple sensory inputs, dialect learning is
354 fundamentally different from the previously described teacher-student paradigm, where visual
355 cues are necessary and sufficient for information exchange (17) . Additionally, we suggest that
356 this study also points to previously unappreciated functions of the *Drosophila* MB in integrating
357 information from multiple olfactory and visual inputs. Such cognitive plasticity that allows for
358 dialect learning from many different species hints that adult behaviors could only emerge in a
359 manner that is dependent on previous social experiences where relevant ecological pressures are
360 ever present and multiple species co-exist in nature. Thus, there is a real benefit to cognitive
361 plasticity, where sharing of information directly, or by coincident bystanders, could result in
362 behavioral immunity to pan-specific threats.

363 The specific information shared by different species during dialect learning is not known.
364 This study, however, provides important clues as the complex suite of sensory systems and cues
365 that may be required for efficient dialect learning. Visual sensory input is critical in dialect
366 learning and it is intriguing that both wing movement and full spectrum light are essential. This
367 observation raises the very interesting possibility that dialect learning may require wing
368 interference patterns (WIPs) *via* wing movement in the presence of full spectrum light (55,56)
369 (Fig. 7 B). WIPs are known to be produced by species-specific wing patterns and light
370 diffraction abilities and in *Drosophila* are a source of information for making mate choice
371 decisions (CITE). Given that visual, wing movement based cues are required for dialect learning,
372 we speculate that in full spectrum light WIPs could facilitate dialect learning in closely related
373 species, while more divergent WIPs could also prohibit distantly related species from
374 communicating at all.

375 We have presented an example of how inter-species social communication and dialect
376 learning in *Drosophila* can lead to changes in germline physiology and reproductive behavior.
377 What other ethological behaviors are modulated by MB functions and social interactions
378 typically not revealed in laboratory monocultures? We suggest that the *Drosophila* MB may
379 integrate a myriad of social and environmental cues in order to produce ethologically relevant
380 behavior that is responsive and useful to local environmental conditions.

381
382 **Acknowledgements:** We thank Yashi Ahmed, Greg Roman, Greg Suh, FlyBase, the
383 Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center, and the *Drosophila* Species Stock Center (DSSC) at the
384 University of California, San Diego, for stocks. We thank Theresa Reimels, Erin Kelleher, and
385 Mani Ramswami for helpful comments on the manuscript. We also thank the Dartmouth

386 Department of Biological Sciences Light Microscopy Facility for technical assistance. We
387 acknowledge grants from Geisel School of Medicine at Dartmouth, the National Institute of
388 Health Pioneer grant:1DP1MH110234 (GB), and the Defense Advanced Research Projects
389 Agency, grant:HR0011-15-1-0002 (GB).

390

391

392 **REFERENCES:**

393 (1) Gould JL. Honey bee communication. Nature 1974.

394 (2) Wenner AM. Sound production during the waggle dance of the honey bee. Anim Behav
395 1962;10(1):79-95.

396 (3) Winston ML. The biology of the honey bee. : harvard university press; 1991.

397 (4) Goodale E, Beauchamp G, Magrath RD, Nieh JC, Ruxton GD. Interspecific information transfer
398 influences animal community structure. Trends in ecology & evolution 2010;25(6):354-361.

399 (5) Westrip JR, Bell MB. Breaking down the species boundaries: selective pressures behind interspecific
400 communication in vertebrates. Ethology 2015;121(8):725-732.

401 (6) Elgar MA, Nash DR, Pierce NE. Eavesdropping on cooperative communication within an ant-
402 butterfly mutualism. The Science of Nature 2016;103(9-10):84.

403 (7) Virant-Doberlet M, Mazzoni V, De Groot M, Polajnar J, Lucchi A, Symondson WO, et al. Vibrational
404 communication networks: eavesdropping and biotic noise. Studying vibrational communication: Springer;
405 2014. p. 93-123.

406 (8) Lima SL. Predators and the breeding bird: behavioral and reproductive flexibility under the risk of
407 predation. Biological reviews 2009;84(3):485-513.

408 (9) Harbison H, Nelson DA, Hahn TP. Long-term persistence of song dialects in the mountain white-
409 crowned sparrow. Condor 1999:133-148.

410 (10) Koetz AH, Westcott DA, Congdon BC. Spatial pattern of song element sharing and its implications
411 for song learning in the chowchilla, *Orthonyx spaldingii*. Anim Behav 2007;74(4):1019-1028.

412 (11) MARLER P, TAMURA M. Culturally Transmitted Patterns of Vocal Behavior in Sparrows. Science
413 1964 Dec 11;146(3650):1483-1486.

- 414 (12) Soha JA, Nelson DA, Parker PG. Genetic analysis of song dialect populations in Puget Sound white-
415 crowned sparrows. *Behav Ecol* 2004;15(4):636-646.
- 416 (13) Baptista LF, Morton ML. Song learning in montane white-crowned sparrows: from whom and when.
417 *Anim Behav* 1988;36(6):1753-1764.
- 418 (14) Alem S, Perry CJ, Zhu X, Loukola OJ, Ingraham T, Søvik E, et al. Associative mechanisms allow for
419 social learning and cultural transmission of string pulling in an insect. *PLoS Biol* 2016;14(10):e1002564.
- 420 (15) Loukola OJ, Perry CJ, Coscos L, Chittka L. Bumblebees show cognitive flexibility by improving on
421 an observed complex behavior. *Science* 2017 Feb 24;355(6327):833-836.
- 422 (16) Battesti M, Moreno C, Joly D, Mery F. Spread of social information and dynamics of social
423 transmission within *Drosophila* groups. *Current Biology* 2012;22(4):309-313.
- 424 (17) Kacsoh BZ, Bozler J, Ramaswami M, Bosco G. Social communication of predator-induced changes
425 in *Drosophila* behavior and germ line physiology. *Elife* 2015 May 13;4:10.7554/eLife.07423.
- 426 (18) Beruter J, Beauchamp GK, Muetterties EL. Complexity of chemical communication in mammals:
427 Urinary components mediating sex discrimination by male guinea pigs. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*
428 1973;53(1):264-271.
- 429 (19) Apfelbach R, Parsons MH, Soini HA, Novotny MV. Are single odorous components of a predator
430 sufficient to elicit defensive behaviors in prey species? *Front Neurosci* 2015 Jul 29;9:263.
- 431 (20) Voznessenskaya VV. Influence of cat odor on reproductive behavior and physiology in the house
432 mouse (*Mus musculus*). *Neurobiology of Chemical Communication (Frontiers in Neuroscience Book*
433 *Series)*, C.Musignat-Caretta (Ed), CRC Press 2014:389-405.
- 434 (21) Schuchmann M, Siemers BM. Behavioral evidence for community-wide species discrimination from
435 echolocation calls in bats. *Am Nat* 2010;176(1):72-82.
- 436 (22) Herzog D, Johnson C. Interspecific interactions between Atlantic spotted dolphins (*Stenella*
437 *frontalis*) and bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*) in the. *Aquat Mamm* 1997;23:85-99.
- 438 (23) Meinke DW, Cherry JM, Dean C, Rounsley SD, Koornneef M. *Arabidopsis thaliana*: a model plant
439 for genome analysis. *Science* 1998;282(5389):662-682.
- 440 (24) Heil M, Karban R. Explaining evolution of plant communication by airborne signals. *Trends in*
441 *ecology & evolution* 2010;25(3):137-144.
- 442 (25) Bruin J, Dicke M, Sabelis M. Plants are better protected against spider-mites after exposure to
443 volatiles from infested conspecifics. *Experientia* 1992;48(5):525-529.
- 444 (26) Karban R, Shiojiri K, Ishizaki S. An air transfer experiment confirms the role of volatile cues in
445 communication between plants. *Am Nat* 2010;176(3):381-384.
- 446 (27) Karban R, Baldwin IT. *Induced responses to herbivory*. : University of Chicago Press; 2007.

- 447 (28) Karban R, Baldwin I, Baxter K, Laue G, Felton G. Communication between plants: induced
448 resistance in wild tobacco plants following clipping of neighboring sagebrush. *Oecologia* 2000;125(1):66-
449 71.
- 450 (29) Kost C, Heil M. Herbivore-induced plant volatiles induce an indirect defence in neighbouring plants.
451 *J Ecol* 2006;94(3):619-628.
- 452 (30) RHOADES DF. Responses of alder and willow to attack by tent caterpillars and webworms:
453 evidence for pheromonal sensitivity of willows. ; 1983.
- 454 (31) Shulaev V, Silverman P, Raskin I. Airborne signalling by methyl salicylate in plant pathogen
455 resistance.[Erratum: Apr 17, 1997, v. 386 (6626), p. 738.]. *Nature* 1997.
- 456 (32) Karban R, Shiojiri K, Huntzinger M, McCall AC. Damage-induced resistance in sagebrush: volatiles
457 are key to intra-and interplant communication. *Ecology* 2006;87(4):922-930.
- 458 (33) Farmer EE, Ryan CA. Interplant communication: airborne methyl jasmonate induces synthesis of
459 proteinase inhibitors in plant leaves. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
460 1990;87(19):7713-7716.
- 461 (34) Glinwood R, Ninkovic V, Pettersson J, Ahmed E. Barley exposed to aerial allelopathy from thistles
462 (*Cirsium* spp.) becomes less acceptable to aphids. *Ecol Entomol* 2004;29(2):188-195.
- 463 (35) Fowler SV, Lawton JH. Rapidly induced defenses and talking trees: the devil's advocate position.
464 *Am Nat* 1985:181-195.
- 465 (36) Bier E. *Drosophila*, the golden bug, emerges as a tool for human genetics. *Nature Reviews Genetics*
466 2005;6(1):9-23.
- 467 (37) Helfand SL, Rogina B. Genetics of aging in the fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Annu Rev Genet*
468 2003;37(1):329-348.
- 469 (38) Markow TA. The secret lives of *Drosophila* flies. *Elife* 2015 Jun 4;4:10.7554/eLife.06793.
- 470 (39) Markow T, Beall S, Castrezana S. The wild side of life: reproductive biology of *Drosophila* in
471 nature. *Fly* 2012;6:98-101.
- 472 (40) Markow TA. "Cost" of virginity in wild *Drosophila melanogaster* females. *Ecology and evolution*
473 2011;1(4):596-600.
- 474 (41) Markow TA. Forced Matings in Natural Populations of *Drosophila*. *Am Nat* 2000 Jul;156(1):100-
475 103.
- 476 (42) Schlenke TA, Morales J, Govind S, Clark AG. Contrasting infection strategies in generalist and
477 specialist wasp parasitoids of *Drosophila melanogaster*. *PLoS Pathog* 2007;3(10):e158.
- 478 (43) Kacsoh BZ, Bozler J, Hodge S, Ramaswami M, Bosco G. A novel paradigm for nonassociative long-
479 term memory in *Drosophila*: predator-induced changes in oviposition behavior. *Genetics* 2015
480 Apr;199(4):1143-1157.

- 481 (44) Kacsoh BZ, Lynch ZR, Mortimer NT, Schlenke TA. Fruit flies medicate offspring after seeing
482 parasites. *Science* 2013 Feb 22;339(6122):947-950.
- 483 (45) Lefevre T, de Roode JC, Kacsoh BZ, Schlenke TA. Defence strategies against a parasitoid wasp in
484 *Drosophila*: fight or flight? *Biol Lett* 2012 Apr 23;8(2):230-233.
- 485 (46) Lynch ZR, Schlenke TA, Roode J. Evolution of behavioural and cellular defences against parasitoid
486 wasps in the *Drosophila melanogaster* subgroup. *J Evol Biol* 2016.
- 487 (47) Van Der Linde K, Houle D, Spicer GS, Steppan SJ. A supermatrix-based molecular phylogeny of the
488 family *Drosophilidae*. *Genetics research* 2010;92(1):25.
- 489 (48) DeSimone S, Coelho C, Roy S, VijayRaghavan K, White K. ERECT WING, the *Drosophila* member
490 of a family of DNA binding proteins is required in imaginal myoblasts for flight muscle development.
491 *Development* 1996 Jan;122(1):31-39.
- 492 (49) Larsson MC, Domingos AI, Jones WD, Chiappe ME, Amrein H, Vosshall LB. Or83b encodes a
493 broadly expressed odorant receptor essential for *Drosophila* olfaction. *Neuron* 2004;43(5):703-714.
- 494 (50) Benton R, Vannice KS, Gomez-Diaz C, Vosshall LB. Variant ionotropic glutamate receptors as
495 chemosensory receptors in *Drosophila*. *Cell* 2009;136(1):149-162.
- 496 (51) Mao Z, Roman G, Zong L, Davis RL. Pharmacogenetic rescue in time and space of the rutabaga
497 memory impairment by using Gene-Switch. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2004 Jan 6;101(1):198-203.
- 498 (52) Keleman K, Krüttner S, Alenius M, Dickson BJ. Function of the *Drosophila* CPEB protein Orb2 in
499 long-term courtship memory. *Nat Neurosci* 2007;10(12):1587-1593.
- 500 (53) Chiang HC, Wang L, Xie Z, Yau A, Zhong Y. PI3 kinase signaling is involved in Abeta-induced
501 memory loss in *Drosophila*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010 Apr 13;107(15):7060-7065.
- 502 (54) Silverman JL, Yang M, Lord C, Crawley JN. Behavioural phenotyping assays for mouse models of
503 autism. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 2010;11(7):490-502.
- 504 (55) Shevtsova E, Hansson C, Janzen DH, Kjaerandsen J. Stable structural color patterns displayed on
505 transparent insect wings. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2011 Jan 11;108(2):668-673.
- 506 (56) Katayama N, Abbott JK, Kjaerandsen J, Takahashi Y, Svensson EI. Sexual selection on wing
507 interference patterns in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2014 Oct 21;111(42):15144-
508 15148.

509

510

511

512

513 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535 **Figure 1.** A predator threat is communicated through visual cues within species across the genus
536 *Drosophila*, modulating reproductive behavior and caspase activation.

537
538 (A) Standard experimental design. (B) Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to
539 eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown. Wild-type *D. melanogaster* (Canton S) exposed to wasps
540 lay fewer eggs than unexposed flies. (C) Phylogeny of 8 species tested across the genus
541 *Drosophila* that demonstrate the ability to communicate through visual cues. Green boxes
542 indicate social learning is present in species tested. Representative ovary of control and wasp
543 exposed *Drosophila* showing caspase activation (*D. melanogaster*). DAPI (D, H), activated Dcp-
544 1 (E, I), WGA (F,J), and the merged images (G, K) are shown. Arrows denote apoptotic egg
545 chambers. Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558 **Figure 2.** Interspecies communication of predator threats.

559

560 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.

561 Flies exposed to wasps lay fewer eggs than unexposed flies. Communication between *D.*

562 *melanogaster* and: *D. simulans* (A, B), *D. ananassae* (C, D), *D. kikkawai* (E,F), *D. willistoni*

563 (G,H), and *D. virilis* (I,J) shows varying communication abilities.. Communication between *D.*

564 *virilis* and *D. mojavensis* occurs (K,L). Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological

565 replicates) (*p < 0.05).

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581 **Figure 3.** Species cohabitation enables inter-species communication.

582

583 (A) Experimental design of dialect training for flies that are used as students. Two species are
584 cohabitated for one week prior to being used as students for naive, untrained teacher flies of the
585 opposite species. Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed
586 flies is shown. Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and: *D. ananassae*
587 showing strong communication following cohabitation (B, C), *D. kikkawai* showing strong
588 communication following co-incubation (D, E), *D. willistoni* showing partial communication
589 following co-incubation (F,G), *D. equinoxialis* showing partial communication following co-
590 incubation (H,I), and *D. virilis* showing no communication following co-incubation (J,K). Error
591 bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604 **Figure 4.** Flies can learn multiple dialects.

605

606 (A) Experimental design of dialect training for flies that are used as students using multiple three
607 unique species Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed
608 flies is shown. Communication between *D. melanogaster* students trained by *D. ananassae* and
609 *D. willistoni*, shows that *D. melanogaster* learn each species dialect even in the presence of more
610 than one species (B, C). Communication between *D. ananassae* students trained by *D.*
611 *melanogaster* and *D. willistoni*, shows that *D. ananassae* learn each species dialect even in the
612 presence of more than one species (D, E). Communication between *D. willistoni* students trained
613 by *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, shows that *D. willistoni* learn each species dialect even in
614 the presence of more than one species (F, G). Error bars represent standard error (n = 12
615 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627 **Figure 5.** Dialect training requires multiple sensory inputs.

628

629 (A) Experimental design of dialect training for flies that are used as students using only visual
630 cues (panels B,C). Flies only see each other through the duplex, with no direct interaction. Two
631 species are co-incubated for one week prior to being used as students. Percentage of eggs laid by
632 exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown. Communication between
633 trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* with training through visual cues only,
634 shows that visual cues are not sufficient (B, C). Communication between trained students *D.*
635 *melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* with training through monochromatic, red light only, shows a
636 lack of dialect training (D, E). Communication between trained students *ewg^{NS4}*, mutant flies,
637 and *D. ananassae* shows that moving wings are necessary (F, G). Communication between
638 trained students *Orco¹* and *D. ananassae* shows that olfactory cues are necessary (H, I).
639 Communication between trained students *Ir8a¹* and *D. ananassae* shows that *Ir8a* is a necessary
640 receptor (J, K). Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*
641 with training by male *D. melanogaster* only or by female *D. melanogaster* only, is not sufficient
642 for dialect training (L,M). Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p <
643 0.05).

644

645

646

647

648

649 **Figure 6.** Genetic perturbations reveal a critical role of the mushroom body and memory
650 proteins for dialect learning.

651
652 (A) Experimental design of dialect training for flies being fed RU486 or methanol that are used
653 as students. Both species are fed either RU486 or methanol during dialect training. Two species
654 are co-incubated for one week prior to being used as students for naive, untrained teacher flies of
655 the opposite species. Standard *Drosophila* media is used once the training period is over.
656 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.
657 Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* trained by flies
658 expressing tetanus toxin (UAS-TeTx) in the mushroom body (MB) shows that the MB serves a
659 critical role during the training period. *D. ananassae* learn from *D. melanogaster* with an
660 inhibited MB, demonstrating that a functional MB is not needed to confer information during the
661 training period (B, C). Communication between trained students *Orb2^{AQ}* and *D. ananassae*
662 shows that Orb2 is required in students, but is dispensable for teachers to *D. ananassae* (D, E).
663 Communication between *D. ananassae* and students co-incubated with *D. ananassae* that have
664 RNAi-mediated Orb2 knockdown in the MB through RU486 feeding shows that the MB requires
665 Orb2 during the training period (F). Communication between *D. ananassae* and students co-
666 incubated with *D. ananassae* that have RNAi-mediated FMR1 knockdown (strain #24944) in the
667 MB through RU486 feeding shows that FMR1 is not required in the MB during the training
668 period (G). Communication between *D. ananassae* and students co-incubated with *D. ananassae*
669 that have RNAi-mediated PTEN knockdown in the MB through RU486 feeding shows that
670 PTEN is required in the MB during the training period (H). Error bars represent standard error (n
671 = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

672 **Figure 7.** Phylogenetic summary of dialect learning and pathway model for interspecies social
673 learning.

674
675 Utilizing species across the genus *Drosophila* (A) demonstrates conservation of oviposition
676 depression following wasp exposure, mediated by activated Dcp-1 to varying degrees and with
677 varying expression patterns. The ability to communicate with *D. melanogaster* and the ability to
678 demonstrate interspecies communication varies across the genus, with species closely related to
679 *D. melanogaster* able to communicate without barriers. More distantly related species have
680 difficulty communicating, though the barrier can be alleviated with dialect training. Finally,
681 some species are too distantly related to communicate even after dialect training. Double boxes
682 in a given row and column indicate multiple wild-type strains were tested. Interspecies
683 communication is dependent on the presence of both male and female flies, the visual and
684 olfactory systems, the mushroom body, and various long-term memory gene products (B). This
685 model is based of the use of *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananasse*. Alleles tested in (B) are: Orco[1],
686 Ir8a[1];Ir25a[2];Orco[1], Ir8a[1], Ir25a[2], ninaB[P315], Orb2ΔQ, ewg[NS4], Orb2[RNAi],
687 PTEN[RNAi], FMR1[RNAi] , and UAS-TeTx.

688
689
690
691
692
693
694

695 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS**

696

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Intra-species communication is present across the genus *Drosophila*.

719

720 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.

721 Species shown are (A) *D. melanogaster* (Oregon-R), (B) *D. simulans*, (C) *D. ananassae*, (D) *D.*

722 *kikkawai*, (E) *D. willistoni*, (F) *D. equinoxialis*, (G) *D. mojavensis*, and (H) *D. virilis*. Error bars

723 represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Activated Dcp-1 is indicative of apoptotic events in *D. melanogaster*.

742

743 Magnified images from Figure 1 (H-K) showing apoptotic egg chamber displaying activated

744 caspase. DAPI (A), activated Dcp-1 (B), WGA (C) and merge are shown (D). Additional

745 representative ovaries of unexposed and wasp-exposed *D. melanogaster* are shown. DAPI (E, I,

746 M, Q, U), activated Dcp-1 (F, J, N, R,V), WGA (G, K, O, S, W), and the merged images (H, L,

747 P, T, X) are shown. Arrows denote apoptotic egg chambers.

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Increases in activated caspase are observed in the ovary across the
764 genus *Drosophila* following wasp exposure.

765
766 Representative images of unexposed and wasp-exposed ovaries stained for activated Dcp-1 for
767 *D. yakuba* (A-F), *D. tsacasi* (G-L), and *D. equinoxialis* (M-R). DAPI, Dcp-1, and the merged
768 images are shown. The broad range of staining patterns observed in these species is
769 representative of other species tested.

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786 **Supplementary Figure 4.** Increases in activated caspase are quantified in the ovary across the
787 genus *Drosophila* following wasp exposure.

788

789 Proportion of egg chambers with Dcp-1 signal shown for (A) *D. melanogaster*, (B) *D. simulans*,
790 (C) *D. mauritiana*, (D) *D. sechellia*, (E) *D. yakuba*, (F) *D. tsacasi*, (G) *D. kikkawai*, (H) *D.*
791 *ananassae*, (I) *D. pseudoobscura*, (J) *D. neocordata*, (K) *D. equinoxialis*, (L) *D. willistoni*, (M)
792 *D. immigrans*, (N) *D. mojavensis*, and (O) *D. virilis*. Error bars represent standard error (n = 36
793 ovaries) (*p < 0.05).

794

795

796

797

798

799

800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808 **Supplementary Figure 5.** A decrease in egg chamber numbers are quantified in the ovary across
809 the genus *Drosophila* following wasp exposure.

810
811 Total number of egg chambers shown for (A) *D. melanogaster*, (B) *D. simulans*, (C) *D.*
812 *mauritiana*, (D) *D. sechellia*, (E) *D. yakuba*, (F) *D. tsacasi*, (G) *D. kikkawai*, (H) *D. ananassae*,
813 (I) *D. pseudoobscura*, (J) *D. neocordata*, (K) *D. equinoxialis*, (L) *D. willistoni*, (M) *D.*
814 *immigrans*, (N) *D. mojavenensis*, and (O) *D. virilis*. Error bars represent standard error (n = 36
815 ovaries) (*p < 0.05).

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831 **Supplementary Figure 6.** Interspecies communication of predator threats

832

833 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.

834 Communication between *D. melanogaster* and: *D. sechellia* (A, B), *D. mauritianna* (C, D), *D.*

835 *yakuba* (E, F), *D. tsacasi* (G, H), *D. pseudoobscura* (I, J), *D. neocordata* (K, L), *D. immigrans*

836 (M, N), and *D. mojavensis* (O, P), shows varying communication abilities.. Error bars represent

837 standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854 **Supplementary Figure 7.** Interspecies communication of predator threats using *D. ananassae*.

855

856 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.

857 Communication between *D. ananassae* and: *D. simulans* (A, B), *D. kikkawai* (C, D), *D.*

858 *equinoxialis* (E, F), *D. willistoni* (G, H), *D. mojavenensis* (I, J), and *D. virilis* (K, L), shows varying

859 communication abilities. Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p <

860 0.05).

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

874

875

876 **Supplementary Figure 8.** Cohabitation of additional species with *D. melanogaster* allows for
877 interspecies communication.
878
879 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.
880 Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and: *D. ananassae* (second line) (A-
881 C), *D. tsacasi* (D, E), *D. pseudoobscura* (F, G), *D. neocordata* (H, I), *D. immigrans* (J, K), and
882 *D. mojavensis* (L, M). (C) An additional *D. melanogaster* line (w^{1118}) learns from w^{1118} trained
883 *D. ananassae*. Communication between *D. ananassae* and a transgenic *D. melanogaster*
884 (Histone-RFP) occurs following training period (N, O). Error bars represent standard error (n =
885 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

886

887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

897

898 **Supplementary Figure 9.** Cohabitation of additional species with *D. ananassae* allows for
899 interspecies communication.

900
901 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.
902 Communication between trained students *D. ananassae* and: *D. simulans* (A,B), *D. equinoxialis*
903 (C,D), *D. willistoni* (E,F), *D. mojavensis* (G,H), and *D. virilis* (I,J). Error bars represent standard
904 error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

920 **Supplementary Figure 10.** Additional evidence demonstrating that dialect training requires
921 visual cues.

922

923 (A) Experimental design of dialect training for flies that are used as students using no visual cues
924 by running the dialect training period in the dark (B,C). Flies do not see each other, but still
925 interact and innervate other sensory inputs. The two species are co-incubated for one week prior
926 to being used as students for naive, untrained teacher flies of the opposite species. Percentage of
927 eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown. Communication
928 between trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae* with training involving no visual
929 cues (dark-trained), shows that visual cues necessary for dialect learning (B, C). Communication
930 between trained students *D. ananassae* and the mutant *ninaB* (D,E). Communication between
931 trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, with training in monochromatic blue light
932 only, shows a lack of dialect training (F, G). Communication between trained students of *D.*
933 *ananassae* and *D. melanogaster* at 4.0₈ light intensity shows communication (H,I). Error bars
934 represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

935

936

937

938

939

940

941

942

943 **Supplementary Figure 11.** Further evidence demonstrating that dialect training requires
944 multiple sensory inputs including olfactory cues and duration of training.
945
946 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.
947 Communication between naïve *D. ananassae* and *Ir8a*¹ mutant flies shows partial
948 communication (A). Communication between naïve students of *Ir8a* knockdown in *Ir8a*-
949 expressing neurons and *D. ananassae* shows partial communication (B). Communication
950 between trained students *Ir8a*^{RNAi} knockdown in *Ir8a* expressing neurons and *D. ananassae*
951 shows that IR8a receptor-mediated cues are necessary (C, D). Communication between naïve
952 *Ir25a*² mutants and *D. ananassae* shows partial communication (E). Communication between
953 trained students *Ir25a*² mutants and *D. ananassae* shows communication suggesting that IR25a
954 receptors are not required for dialect training (F,G). Communication between naïve *Ir25a*
955 knockdown in *Ir25a*-expressing neurons and *D. ananassae* shows partial communication (H).
956 Communication between trained students *Ir25a*^{RNAi} knockdown in *Ir25a*-expressing neurons and
957 *D. ananassae* shows communication suggesting that IR25a receptors are not required for dialect
958 training (I, J). Communication between trained *Ir8a*¹;*Ir25a*²;*Orco*¹ students and *D. ananassae*
959 shows that olfactory and IR-receptor mediated cues are necessary (K, L). Communication
960 between students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, with training by males only or by females
961 only, shows partial communication, suggesting that both male and female flies are required for
962 dialect learning (M, N). Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D.*
963 *ananassae*, with training for only one day, shows that 24 hours is not sufficient for dialect
964 training (O, P). Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).

965 **Supplementary Figure 12.** Further evidence showing a critical role for the mushroom body and
966 memory proteins for dialect learning.
967
968 Percentage of eggs laid by exposed flies normalized to eggs laid by unexposed flies is shown.
969 Communication between trained *D. melanogaster*, MBswitch/+ (outcrossed to *Canton S*)
970 students and *D. ananassae* teachers fed RU486 during the training period shows communication
971 between the two species, demonstrating that RU486 feeding does not perturb dialect learning
972 (A). Communication between trained students *D. melanogaster* and *D. ananassae*, with training
973 by flies not expressing tetanus toxin (UAS-TeTx) in the mushroom body (MB) (i.e. methanol
974 fed), shows communication between the species (B). Communication between *D. ananassae* and
975 students trained with *D. ananassae* with no RNAi-mediated Orb2 knockdown in the MB (i.e.
976 methanol fed) shows communication between the species (C). Communication between *D.*
977 *ananassae* and students trained with *D. ananassae* with RNAi-mediated FMR1 knockdown
978 (strain #34944) in the MB (i.e. RU486 fed) shows that FMR1 is not required in the MB during
979 the training period (D). Communication between *D. ananassae* and students trained with *D.*
980 *ananassae* with no FMR1 knockdown (strain #24944) in the MB (i.e. methanol fed) shows wild-
981 type behavior (E). Communication between *D. ananassae* and students trained with *D.*
982 *ananassae* with no FMR1 knockdown (strain #24944) in the MB (i.e. methanol fed) shows wild-
983 type behavior (F). Communication between *D. ananassae* and students trained with *D.*
984 *ananassae* with no PTEN knockdown in the MB (i.e. methanol fed) shows wild-type behavior
985 (G). Error bars represent standard error (n = 12 biological replicates) (*p < 0.05).
986 Communication between various *D. melanogaster* lines trained by *D. ananassae* show wild-type
987 communication with *D. melanogaster* (*Canton S*). Lines shown are MB switch expressing TeTx

988 (H), Orb2^{RNAi} (I), FMR1^{RNAi} (strain number 27484) (J), FMR1^{RNAi} (strain number 34944) (K),
989 PTEN^{RNAi} (L), and were fed RU486 during cohabitation with *D. ananassae*.
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000
1001
1002
1003
1004
1005
1006
1007
1008
1009
1010

1011 **Supplementary Figure 13.** Phylogenetic summary of dialect learning for *D. ananassae*.

1012

1013 We utilize species across the genus *Drosophila* to show communication ability of *D. ananassae*

1014 (A). We observe the ability to demonstrate interspecies communication, which varies across the

1015 genus, with species closely related to *D. ananassae* able to communicate without barriers. More

1016 distantly related species have difficulty communicating, though the barrier can be alleviated with

1017 dialect training. Double boxes in a given row and column indicate multiple wild-type strains

1018 were tested.

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1028

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034 **SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE LEGENDS**

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

1052

1053

1054

1055

1056

1057 **Supplementary Table 1.** Fly lines and species used in this study.

1058

1059

1060

1061

1062

1063

1064

1065

1066

1067

1068

1069

1070

1071

1072

1073

1074

1075

1076

1077

1078

1079

1080 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

1081

1082 Insect Species/Strains

1083 The *D. melanogaster* strains Canton-S (CS), Oregon-R (OR), white¹¹¹⁸(w¹¹¹⁸), and
1084 transgenic flies carrying Histone H2AvD-RFP (His-RFP) were used as wild-type strains.
1085 Experiments were primarily performed using CS as wild type flies except where otherwise
1086 indicated. *Orco*¹(*Or83b*¹), UAS-TeTx, UAS-Orb2^{RNAi}, UAS-FMRI^{RNAi}, UAS-FMRI^{RNAi}, UAS-
1087 PTEN^{RNAi}, UAS-Ir8a^{RNAi}, UAS-Ir25a^{RNAi}, *ninaB*^{P315} were acquired from the Bloomington
1088 Drosophila Stock Center (stock numbers 23129, 28838, 27050, 27484, 34944, 25841, 25813,
1089 43985, and 24776 respectively). Drosophila species were acquired from the Drosophila Species
1090 Stock Center (DSSC) at the University of California, San Diego. Flies and their respective stock
1091 numbers are listed: *D. simulans* (14021-0251.196), *D. mauritiana* (14021-0241.01), *D. sechellia*
1092 (14021-0248.25), *D. yakuba* (14021-0261.01), *D. tsacasi* (14028-0701.00), *D. kikkawai* (14028-
1093 0561.00), *D. ananassae* (14024-0371.13 and 14024-0371.11), *D. pseudoobscura* (14011-
1094 0121.00), *D. neocordata* (14041-0831.00), *D. equinoxialis* (14030-0741.00), *D. willistoni*
1095 (14030-0811.00), *D. immigrans* (15111-1731.08), *D. mojavensis* (15081-1352.22), and *D. virilis*
1096 (15010-1051.87). All experiments with *D. ananassae* used strain number 14024-0371.13 unless
1097 otherwise noted (Table S 1).

1098 The *ewg*^{NS4} mutant line was kindly provided by Yashi Ahmed (Geisel School of
1099 Medicine at Dartmouth). The mushroom body Gene-Switch line was kindly provided by Greg
1100 Roman (Baylor College of Medicine). *Ir8a*¹, *Ir25a*², *Ir8a>GAL4*, *Ir25a>GAL4* and
1101 *Ir8a*¹;*Ir25a*²;*Orco*¹ lines were kindly provided by Greg S. B. Suh (Skirball Institute at NYU).
1102 Flies aged 3-6 days post-eclosion on fresh Drosophila media were used in all experiments. Flies

1103 were maintained at room temperature with approximately 30% humidity. All species and strains
1104 used were maintained in fly bottles (Genesse catalog number 32-130) containing 50 mL of
1105 standard *Drosophila* media. Bottles were supplemented with 3 Kimwipes rolled together and
1106 placed into the center of the food. *Drosophila* media was also scored to promote oviposition. Fly
1107 species stocks were kept separate to account for visual cues that could be conferred if the stocks
1108 were kept side-by-side.

1109 The Figitid larval endoparasitoid *Leptopilina heterotoma* (strain Lh14) was used in all
1110 experiments. *L. heterotoma* strain Lh14 originated from a single female collected in Winters,
1111 California in 2002. In order to propagate wasp stocks, we used adult *D. virilis* in batches of 40
1112 females and 15 males per each vial (Genesse catalog number 32-116). Adult flies were allowed
1113 to lay eggs in standard *Drosophila* vials containing 5 mL standard *Drosophila* media
1114 supplemented with live yeast (approximately 25 granules) for 4-6 days before being replaced by
1115 adult wasps, using 15 female and 6 male wasps, for infections. These wasps deposit eggs in
1116 developing fly larvae, and we gave them access specifically to the L2 stage of *D. virilis* larvae.
1117 Wasp containing vials were supplemented with approximately 500 μ L of a 50% honey/water
1118 solution applied to the inside of the cotton vial plugs. Organic honey was used as a supplement.
1119 Wasps aged 3-7 days post eclosion were used for all infections and experiments. Wasps were
1120 never reused for experiments.

1121

1122 Fly Duplexes

1123 Briefly, fly duplexes were constructed (Desco, Norfolk, MA) by using three standard
1124 25mm x 75mm pieces of acrylic that were adhered between two 75mm x 50mm x 3mm pieces of
1125 acrylic. Clear acrylic sealant was used to glue these pieces together, making two compartments

1126 separated by one 3mm thick acrylic piece. Following sealant curing, each duplex was soaked in
1127 water and Sparkleen detergent (Fisherbrand™ catalog number 04-320-4) overnight, then soaked
1128 in distilled water overnight and finally air-dried. The interior dimensions of each of the two units
1129 measured approximately 23.5mm (wide) x 25mm (deep) x 75mm (tall).

1130 For experiments using Fly Duplexes (teacher-student interaction), bead boxes (6 slot
1131 jewelers bead storage box watch part organizer sold by FindingKing) were used to accommodate
1132 12 replicates of each treatment group. Each compartment measures 32 x 114 mm with the tray in
1133 total measuring 21 x 12 x 3.5 mm. Each compartment holds 2 duplexes, and the tray in total
1134 holds 12 duplexes. Empty duplexes were placed into the bead box compartments. 50 mL
1135 standard *Drosophila* media in a standard *Drosophila* bottle (Genesse catalog number 32-130) was
1136 microwaved for 39 seconds. This heated media was allowed to cool for 2 minutes on ice before
1137 being dispensed. Each duplex unit was then filled with 5 mL of the media and further allowed to
1138 cool until solidification. The open end of the Fly Duplex was plugged with a cotton plug
1139 (Genesse catalog number 51-102B) to prevent insect escape. 10 female flies and 2 male flies
1140 were placed into one chamber of the Fly Duplex in the control, while 20 female Lh14 wasps
1141 were placed next to the flies in the experimental setting for 24 hours. After the 24-hour exposure,
1142 flies and wasps were removed by anesthetizing flies and wasps in the Fly Duplexes. Control flies
1143 underwent the same anesthetization. Wasps were removed and replaced with 10 female and two
1144 male “student” flies. All flies were placed into new clean duplexes for the second 24-hour
1145 period, containing 5 mL *Drosophila* media in a new bead box. For fly duplexes containing a
1146 subset of species, specifically *D. mojavensis*, *D. immigrans*, and *D. virilis*, 10 yeast granules
1147 were added to the standard *Drosophila* media after solidification of the food. This activated yeast
1148 was added to promote oviposition. Flies showed minimal oviposition in food lacking yeast. We

1149 speculate this was observed due to the fly food being optimized for *D. melanogaster*. Plugs used
1150 to keep insects in the duplex were replaced every 24 hours to prevent odorant deposition on
1151 plugs that could influence behavior. The oviposition bead box from each treatment was replaced
1152 24 hours after the start of the experiment, and the second bead box was removed 48 hours after
1153 the start of the experiment. Fly egg counts from each bead box were made at the 0-24 and 24-48-
1154 hour time points.

1155 All experimental treatments were run at 25°C with a 12:12 light:dark cycle at light
1156 intensity 16₇, using twelve replicates at 40% humidity unless otherwise noted. Light intensity
1157 was measured using a Sekonic L-308DC light meter. The light meter measures incident light and
1158 was set at shutter speed 120, sensitivity at iso8000, with a 1/10 step measurement value (f-stop).
1159 Fly duplexes and bead boxes soaked with distilled water mixed with Sparkleen after every use
1160 for 4 hours at minimum and subsequently rinsed with distilled water and air-dried. All egg plates
1161 were coded and scoring was blind as the individual counting eggs was not aware of treatments or
1162 genotypes.

1163

1164 Dialect Exposure

1165 Species were cohabitated in standard *Drosophila* bottles (Genesee catalog number 32-
1166 130) containing 50 mL standard *Drosophila* media. Three Kimwipes were rolled together and
1167 placed into the center of the food. Batches of 3 bottles were made per treatment. Two species
1168 were incubated in each bottle with 100 female and 20 males of each species per bottle. Every two
1169 days, flies were placed into new bottles prepared in the identical manner. Flies were cohabitation
1170 for approximately 168 hours (7 days), unless otherwise noted. Following cohabitation, flies were
1171 anesthetized and the two species were separated. The flies were then used as students to wasp or

1172 mock exposure teachers of the opposite species. For example, we cohabitated *D. melanogaster*
1173 and *D. ananassae* for one week. Following the weeklong cohabitation, we separated the dialect-
1174 trained flies. Trained *D. melanogaster* were placed in duplexes next to *D. ananassae* either mock
1175 or wasp exposed. Trained *D. ananassae* were placed in duplexes next to *D. melanogaster* either
1176 mock treated or wasp exposed.

1177 For experiments utilizing more than two species for dialect learning, species were
1178 cohabitated in standard Drosophila bottles (Genesee catalog number 32-130) containing 50 mL
1179 standard Drosophila media. Three Kimwipes were rolled together and placed into the center of
1180 the food. Batches of 3 bottles were made per treatment. The three species were incubated in each
1181 bottle with 100 female and 20 males of each species per bottle. Every two days, flies were placed
1182 into new bottles prepared in the identical manner. The three-fly species were cohabitation for
1183 approximately 168 hours (7 days), unless otherwise noted. Following cohabitation, flies were
1184 anesthetized and one of the three species was tested by pairing them with teachers of the other
1185 two species. For example we cohabitated *D. melanogaster*, *D. ananassae*, and *D. willistoni* for
1186 one week. Following the weeklong cohabitation, we separated the dialect-trained flies. Trained
1187 *D. melanogaster* were placed in duplexes next to either *D. ananassae* or *D. willistoni*, mock or
1188 wasp exposed.

1189 For cohabitation experiments where two species were allowed visual only cues, the Fly
1190 Duplex was utilized. The two species were co-incubated side-by-side with 100 female and 20
1191 males of each species per unit using the two chambers of the fly duplex such that the flies could
1192 only see each other. The fly duplex was placed into bead boxes, with each unit of the duplex
1193 containing 5 mL of standard Drosophila media. Every two days, flies were placed into new fly
1194 duplexes with fresh 5 mL standard Drosophila media. Following the weeklong co-incubation,

1195 flies were anesthetized and the two species were separated. The flies were then used as students
1196 to wasp or mock exposure teachers of the opposite species.

1197 For cohabitation experiments where the two species did not have visual cues, the two
1198 species were incubated in bottles with 100 female and 20 males of each species per bottle in
1199 complete darkness. The only difference between this method and other training sessions was the
1200 lack of light—meaning flies were subject to 25°C with 40% humidity. Every two days, flies were
1201 placed into new bottles prepared in the identical manner. Flies were exposed to light for less than
1202 30 seconds, during which they were placed into a new bottle, and immediately returned to the
1203 dark. Following the weeklong dark-cohabitation, flies were anesthetized and the two species
1204 were separated. The flies were then used as students to wasp or mock exposure teachers of the
1205 opposite species.

1206 For cohabitation experiments under monochromatic light settings, batches of 3 bottles
1207 with 100 female and 20 males of each species were placed into 27.9cm x 16.8cm x 13.7cm
1208 plastic boxes (Sterilite 1962 Medium Clip Box with Blue Aquarium Latches sold by Flikis).
1209 These boxes were externally wrapped with colored cellophane wrap, allowing only a certain
1210 wavelength of light to be transmitted into the boxes. Red and blue cellophane wraps were
1211 purchased from Amscam (Amscam Party Supplies for Any Occasion Functional Cellophane
1212 Wrap, 16' x 30", Rose Red and Spanish Blue). Cellophane wrapped boxes with bottles containing
1213 flies were subject to 25°C with 40% humidity under the same light intensity as previous
1214 experiments. Light intensity within the red wrapped box was 11_2 and within the blue wrapped
1215 box was 11_5 measured using the Sekonic L-308DC light meter. Every two days, flies were placed
1216 into new bottles prepared in the manner described previously. Flies were exposed to broad-
1217 spectrum light for less than 30 seconds, during which they were placed into a new bottle, and

1218 immediately returned to monochromatic light. Following the weeklong monochromatic-light-
1219 cohabitation, flies were anesthetized and the two species were separated. The flies were then
1220 used as students to wasp or mock exposure teachers of the opposite species.

1221 For the one-day cohabitation experiments, batches of 3 bottles with 100 female and 20
1222 males of each species were placed at 25°C with 40% humidity for 24 hours. Following the 24-
1223 hour cohabitation, flies were anesthetized and the two species were separated. The flies were
1224 then used as students to wasp or mock exposure teachers of the opposite species.

1225

1226 RU486 feeding

1227 RU486 (Mifepristone) was used from Sigma (Lot number SLBG0210V) as the ligand for
1228 Gene-Switch experiments. Dialect training bottles were prepared by directly pipetting an RU486
1229 solution onto the 3 Kimwipes in the bottle. The solution was prepared by dissolving 3.575 mg of
1230 RU486 in 800 μ L methanol (Fisher Scientific Lot number 141313). This solution was added to
1231 15.2 mL of distilled water. The total solution (16 mL) was thoroughly mixed and 4000 μ L was
1232 pipetted onto the Kimwipe in each bottle. For bottles containing no RU486 (methanol only)
1233 800 μ L methanol was mixed with 15.2 mL of distilled water. The total solution (16 mL) was
1234 thoroughly mixed and 4000 μ L were pipetted onto the Kimwipe in each bottle. Flies were shifted
1235 to new bottles prepared in the exact same manner every two days. Flies were cohabitated for
1236 approximately 7 days. Following cohabitation, flies were anesthetized and the two species were
1237 separated. The flies were then used as students to wasp or mock exposure teachers of the
1238 opposite species.

1239

1240 Immunofluorescence

1241 Ovaries were collected from flies that were placed in vials along with female wasps for
1242 experimental or no wasps for control settings. Flies were placed in batches into standard vials
1243 (Genesee catalog number 32-116) of 20 females, 2 males along with 20 female wasps for
1244 exposed vials, or simple placing 20 female and 2 male flies in vials for the unexposed treatments.
1245 Three vials were prepared to produce three replicates to account for batch effects. We observed
1246 no batch effects so each of the 12 ovaries imaged from each treatment were then counted as a
1247 replicate, thus providing an n of 36. Ovaries that were prepared for immunofluorescence were
1248 fixed in 4% methanol-free formaldehyde in PBS with 0.001% Triton-X for approximately five
1249 minutes. The samples were then washed in PBS with 0.1% Triton-X, and blocked with 2%
1250 normal goat serum (NGS) for two hours. The primary antibody, cleaved *Drosophila* Dcp-1
1251 (Asp216) (Cell Signaling number 9578) at a concentration of 1:100, was used to incubate the
1252 ovaries overnight at 4° C in 2% normal goat serum (NGS). The secondary antibody used was
1253 Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugated (Jackson ImmunoResearch), and used at a
1254 concentration of 1:200 for a two-hour incubation at room temperature. This was followed by a
1255 10-minute nuclear stain with 4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). For confocal imaging of *D.*
1256 *melanogaster* ovaries, wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) was also used as a membrane marker (Fig.
1257 1 F,J, Fig. S 2).

1258

1259 Imaging

1260 A Nikon A1R SI Confocal microscope was used for imaging activated Dcp-1 caspase
1261 staining in *D. melanogaster* (Fig. 1 D-K, Fig. S 2). Image averaging of 4x during image capture
1262 was used for all images. A Nikon E800 Epifluorescence microscope with Olympus DP software
1263 was used to image Dcp-1 caspase staining on all other *Drosophila* species tested. This

1264 microscope was also used to quantify egg chambers with Dcp-1 signal and total number of egg
1265 chambers in all species tested.

1266

1267 Statistical analysis

1268 Statistical tests were performed in Microsoft Excel. Welch's two-tailed t-tests were performed
1269 for data. P-values reported were calculated for comparisons between paired treatment-group and
1270 unexposed.

1271

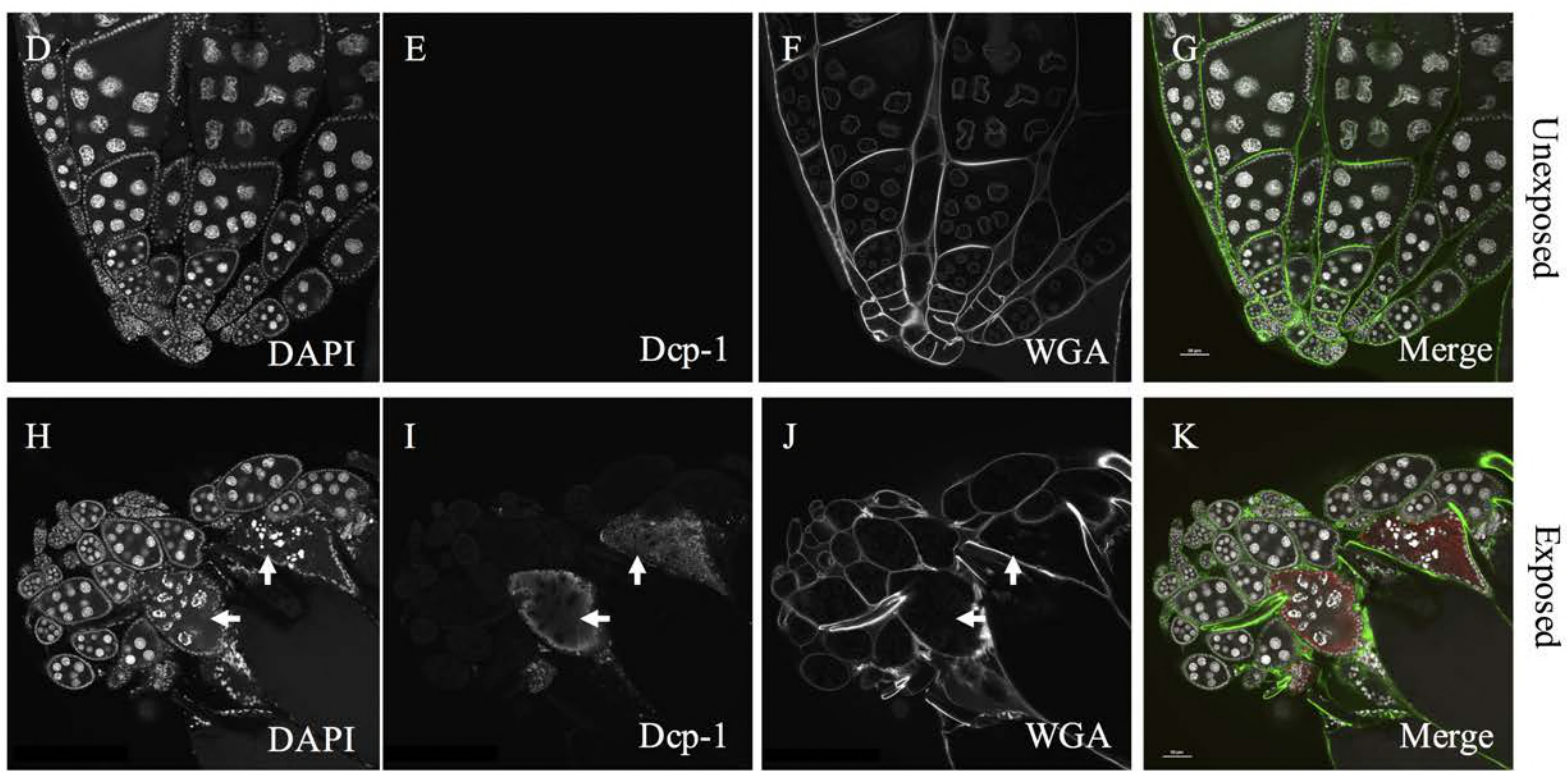
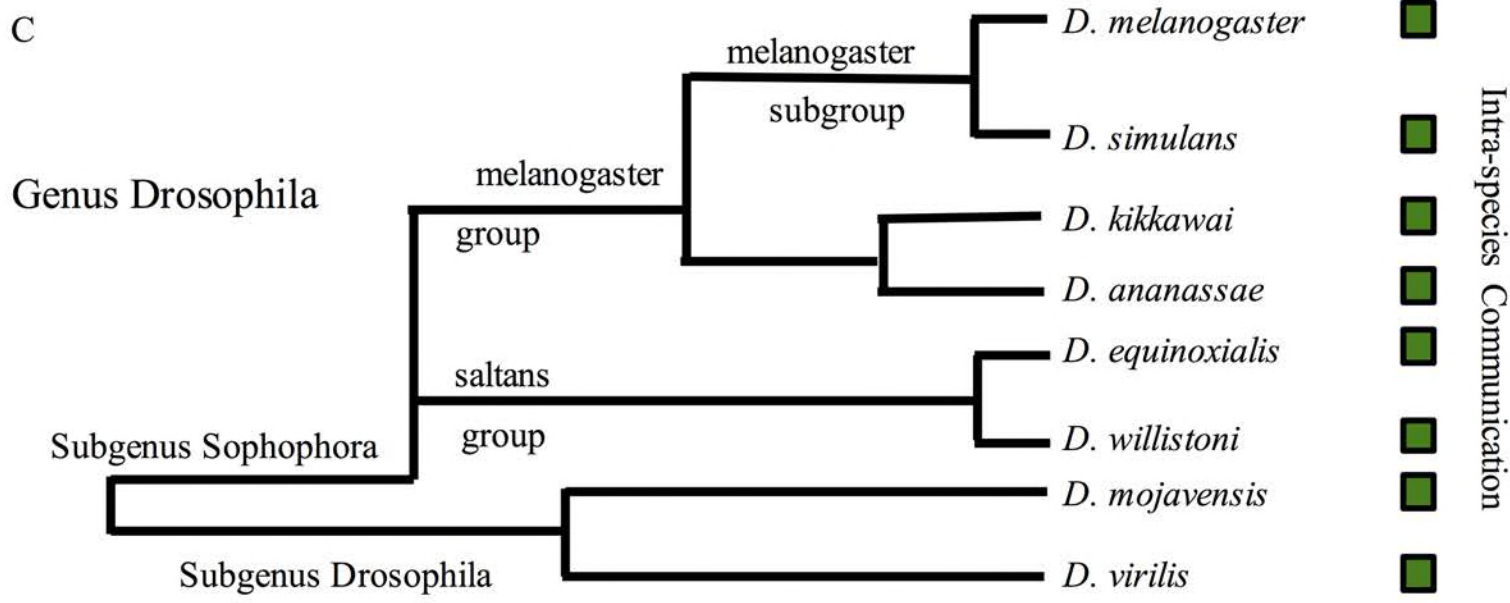
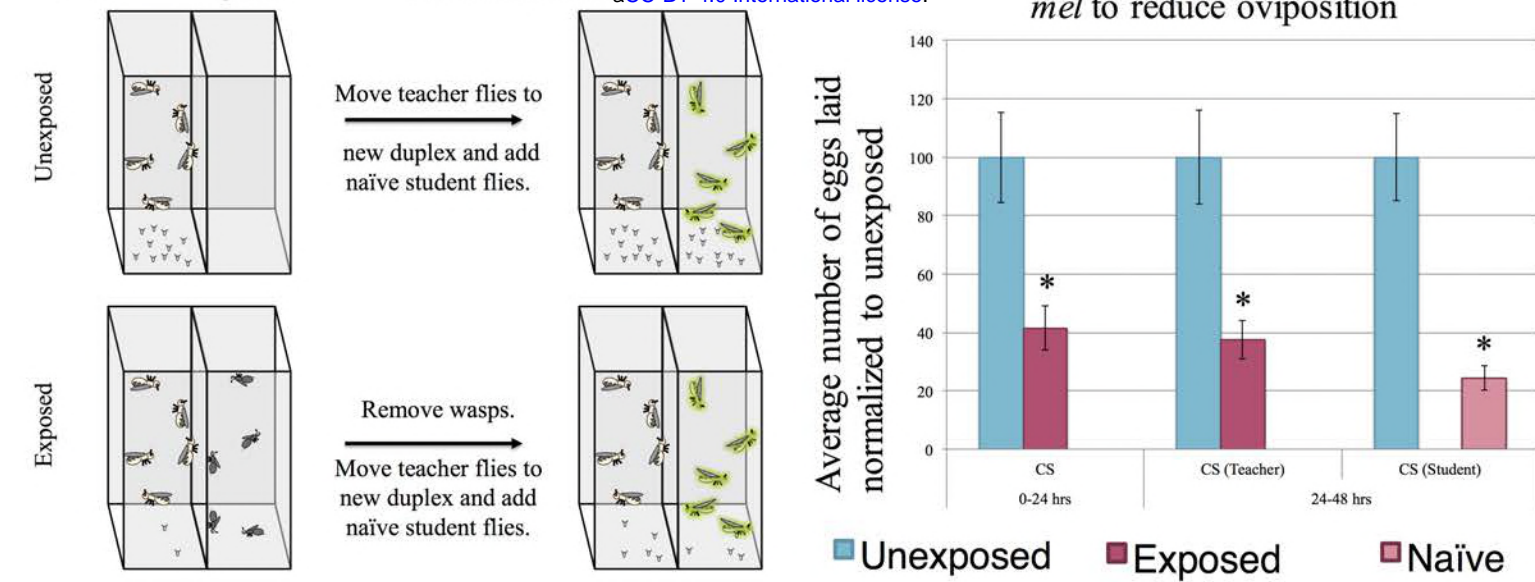
1272

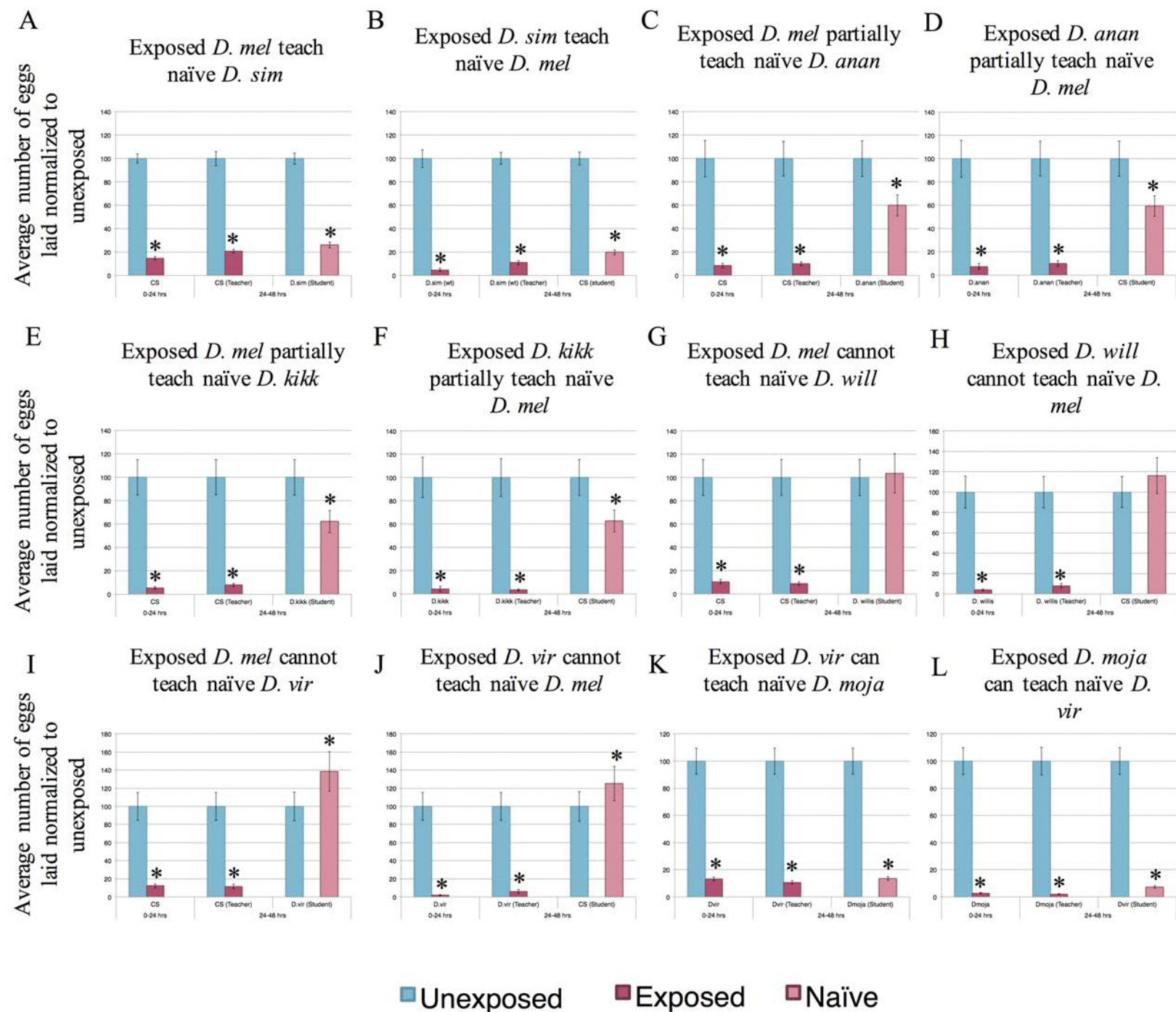
1273

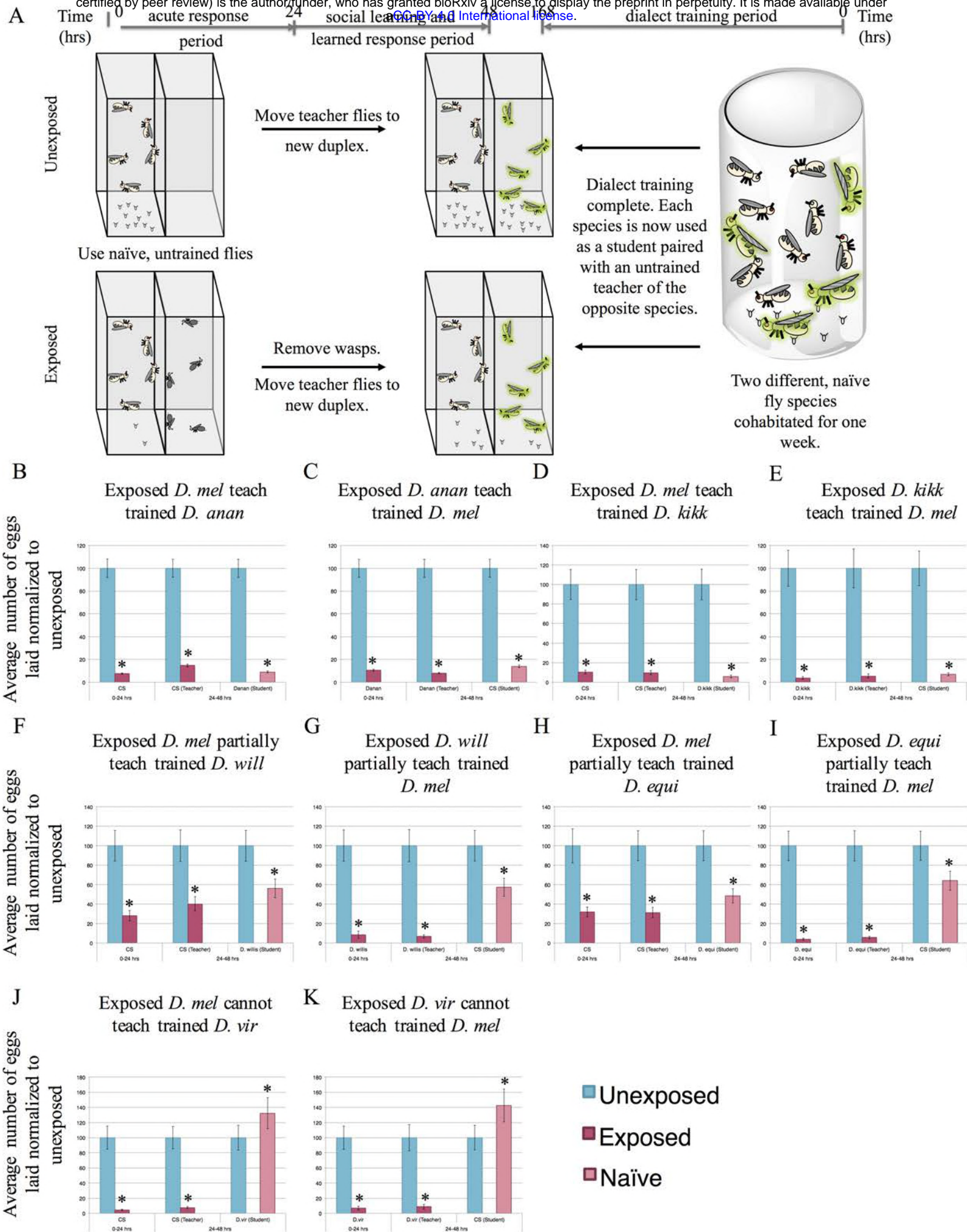
1274

1275

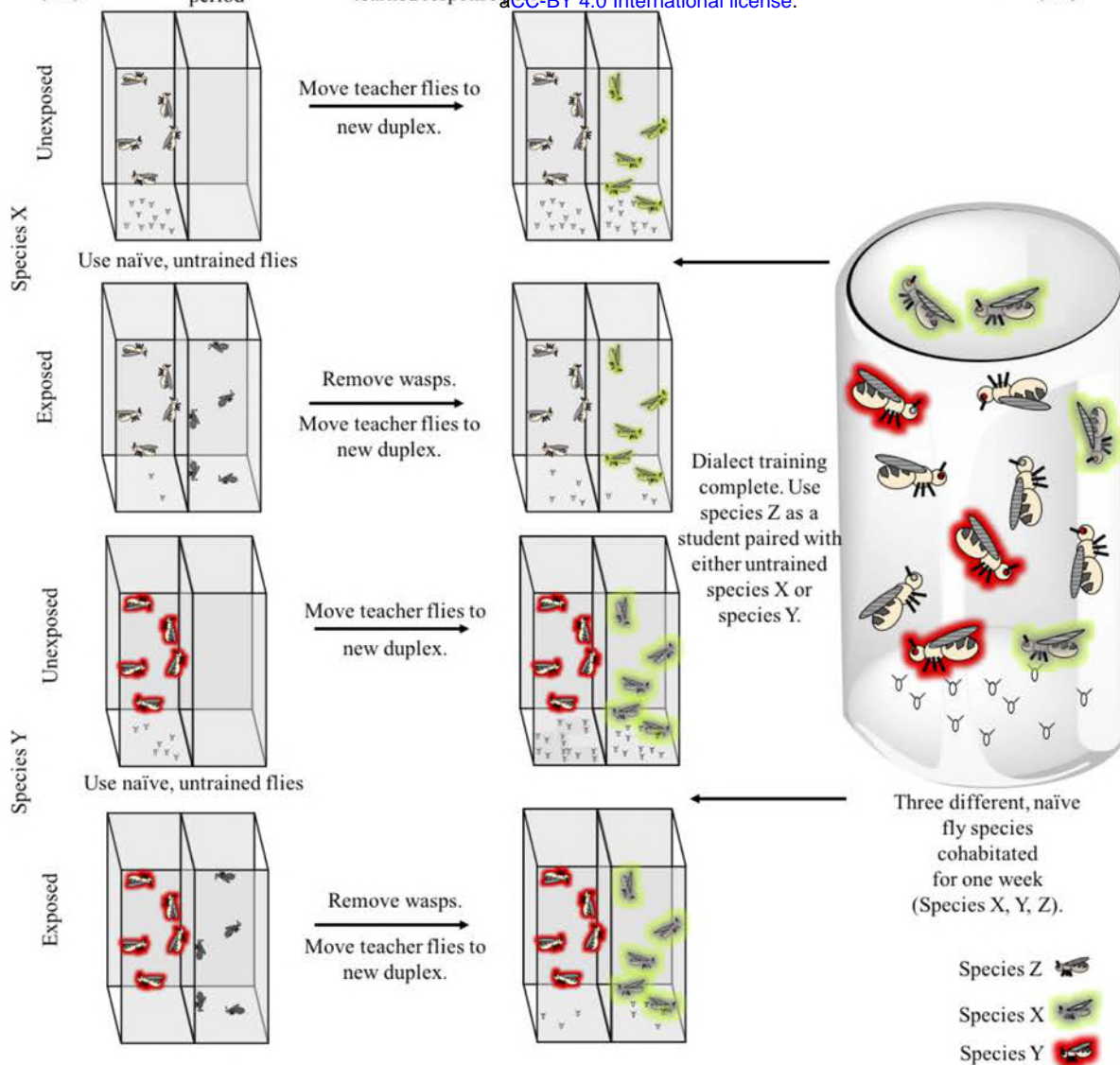
1276







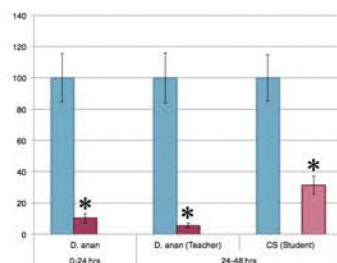
A



B

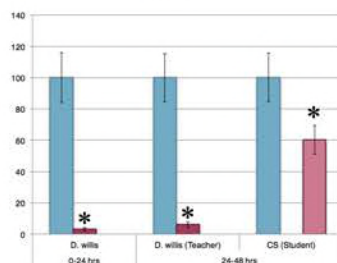
Exposed *D. anan* teach *D. anan* and *D. will* – trained *D. mel*

Average number of eggs laid normalized to unexposed



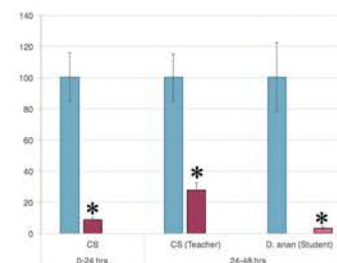
C

Exposed *D. will* partially teach *D. anan* and *D. will* – trained *D. mel*



D

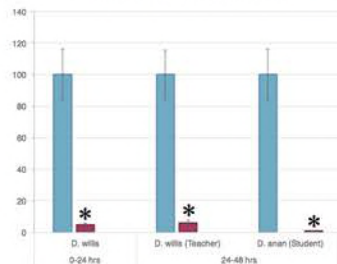
Exposed *D. mel* teach *D. mel* and *D. will* – trained *D. anan*



E

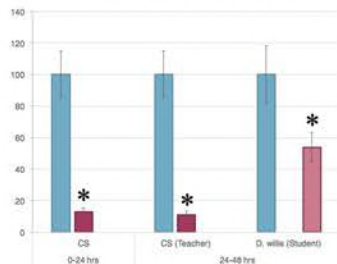
Exposed *D. will* teach *D. mel* and *D. will* – trained *D. anan*

Average number of eggs laid normalized to unexposed



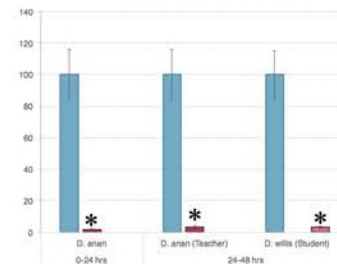
F

Exposed *D. mel* partially teach *D. mel* and *D. anan* – trained *D. will*



G

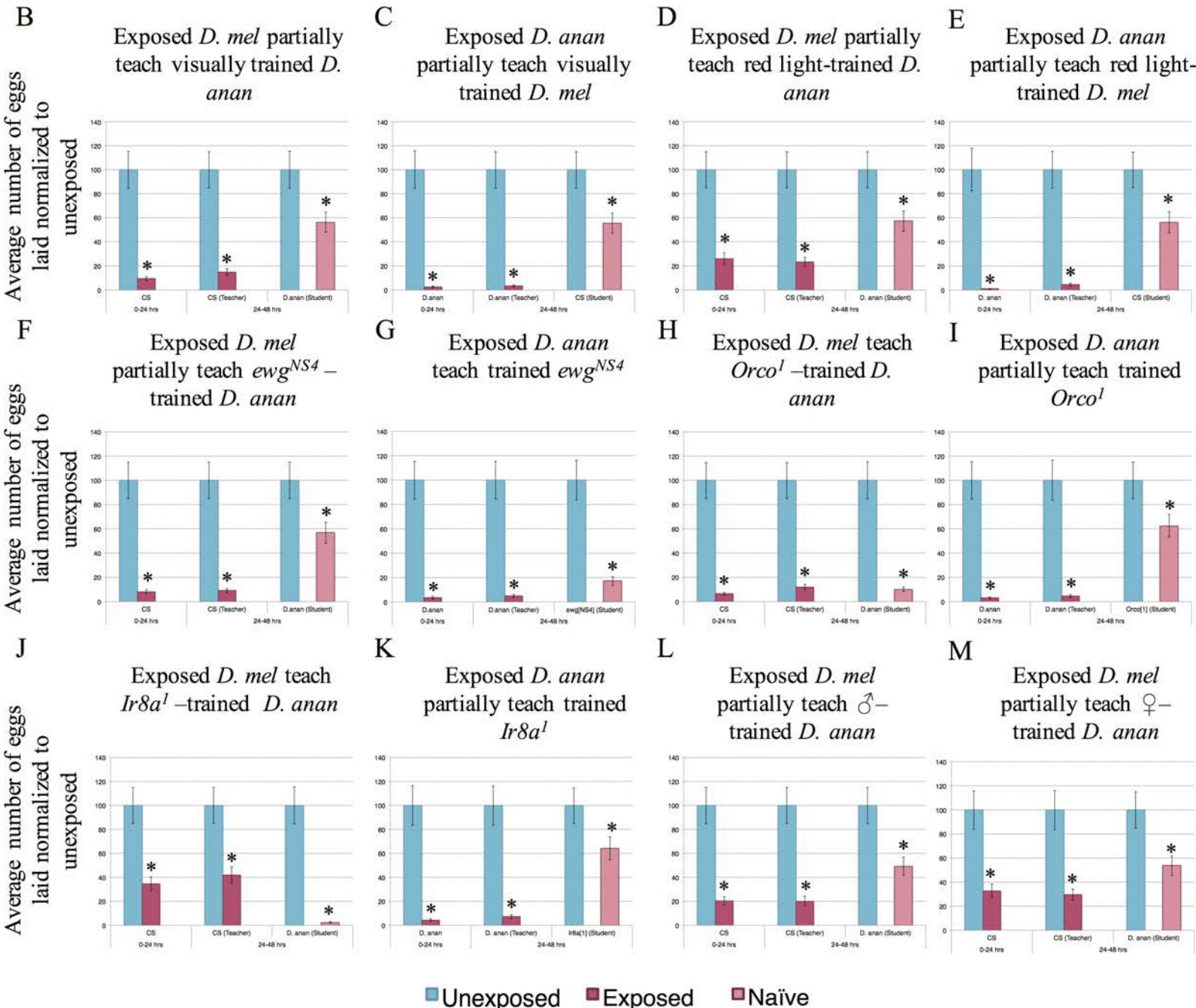
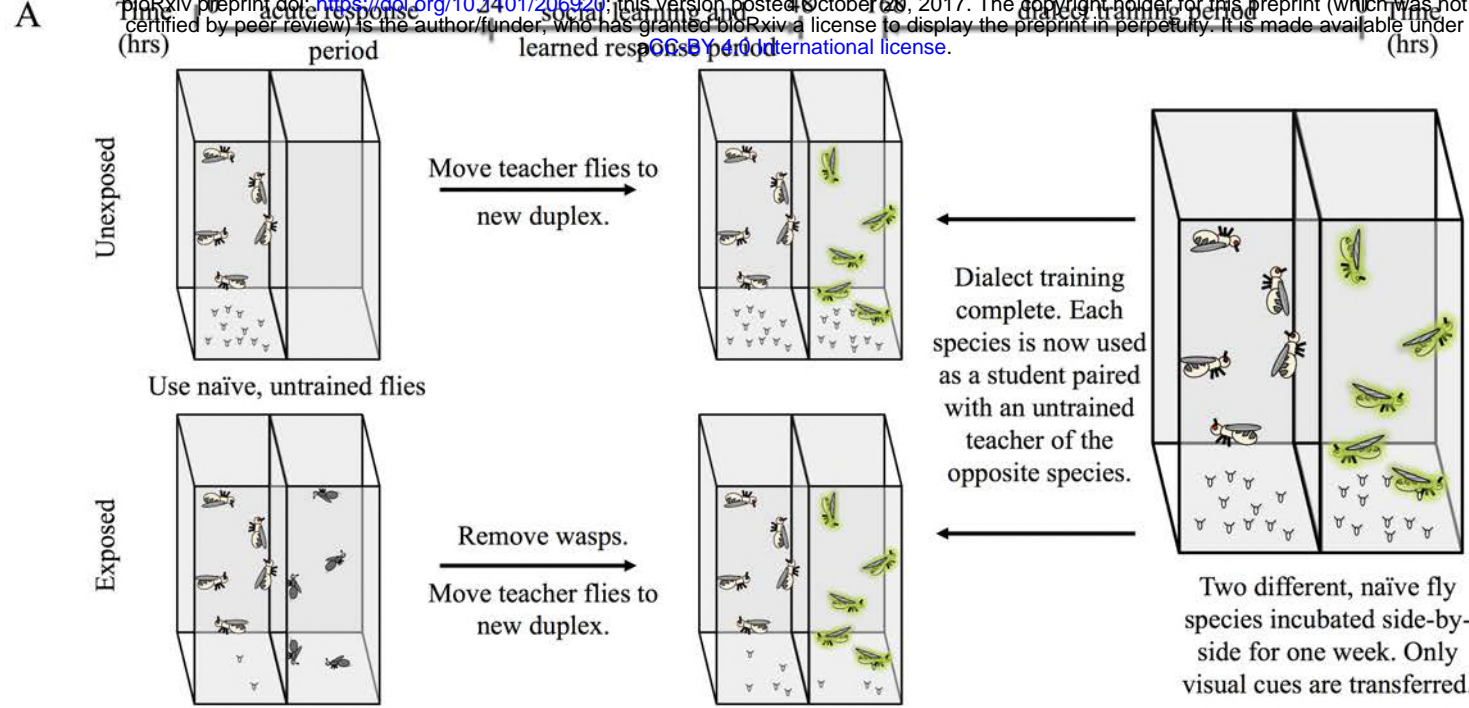
Exposed *D. anan* teach *D. mel* and *D. anan* – trained *D. will*

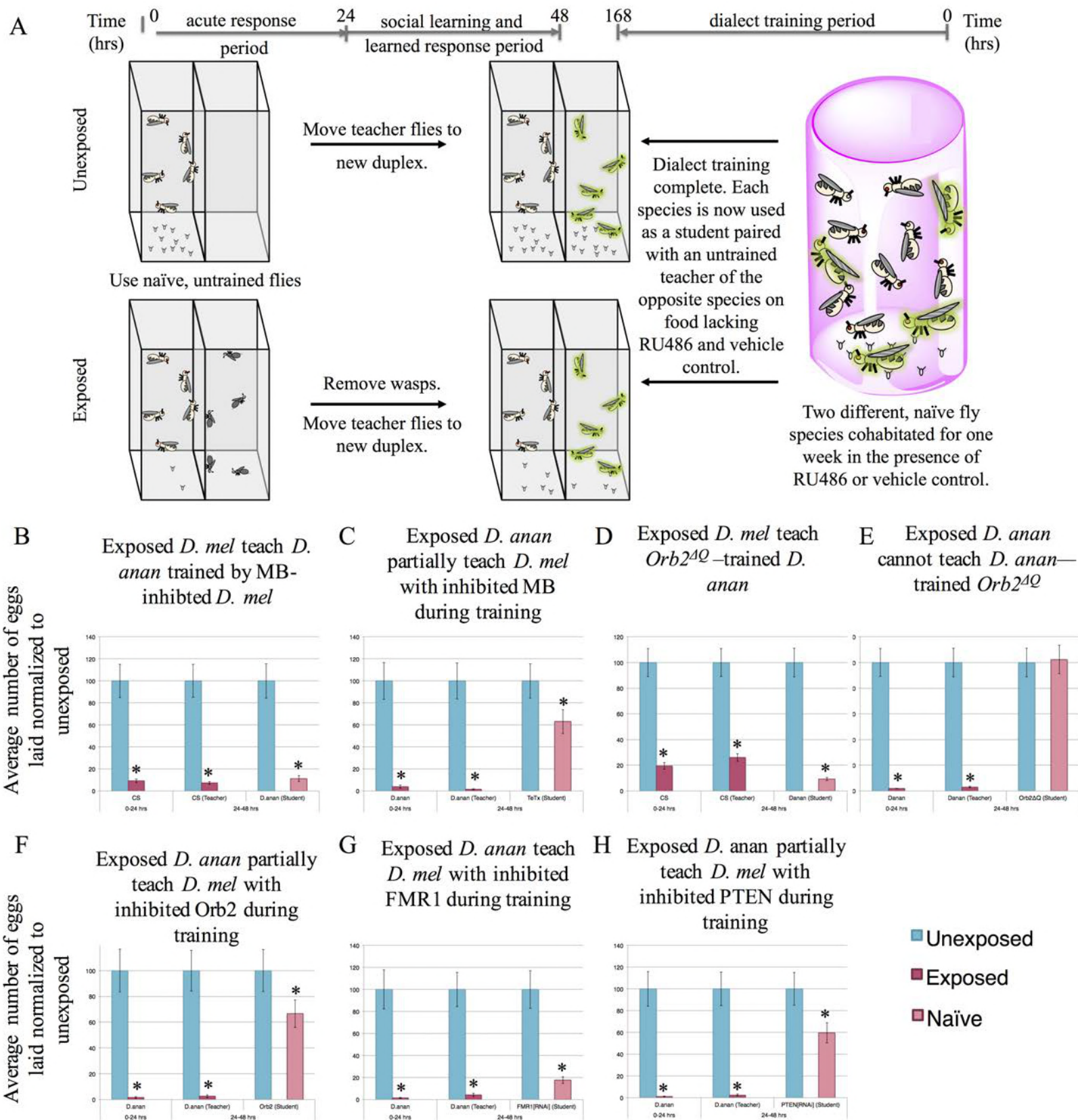


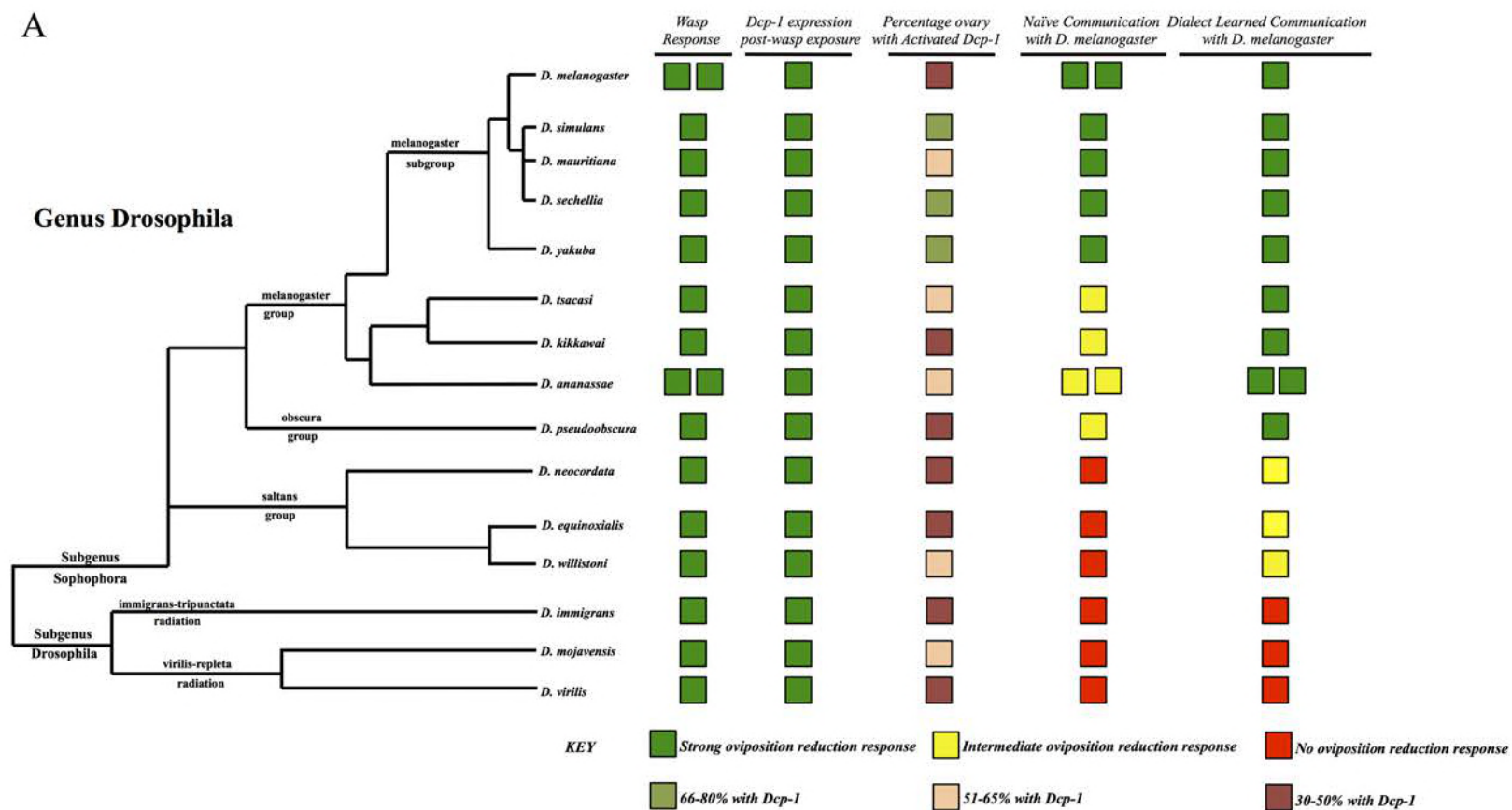
Unexposed

Exposed

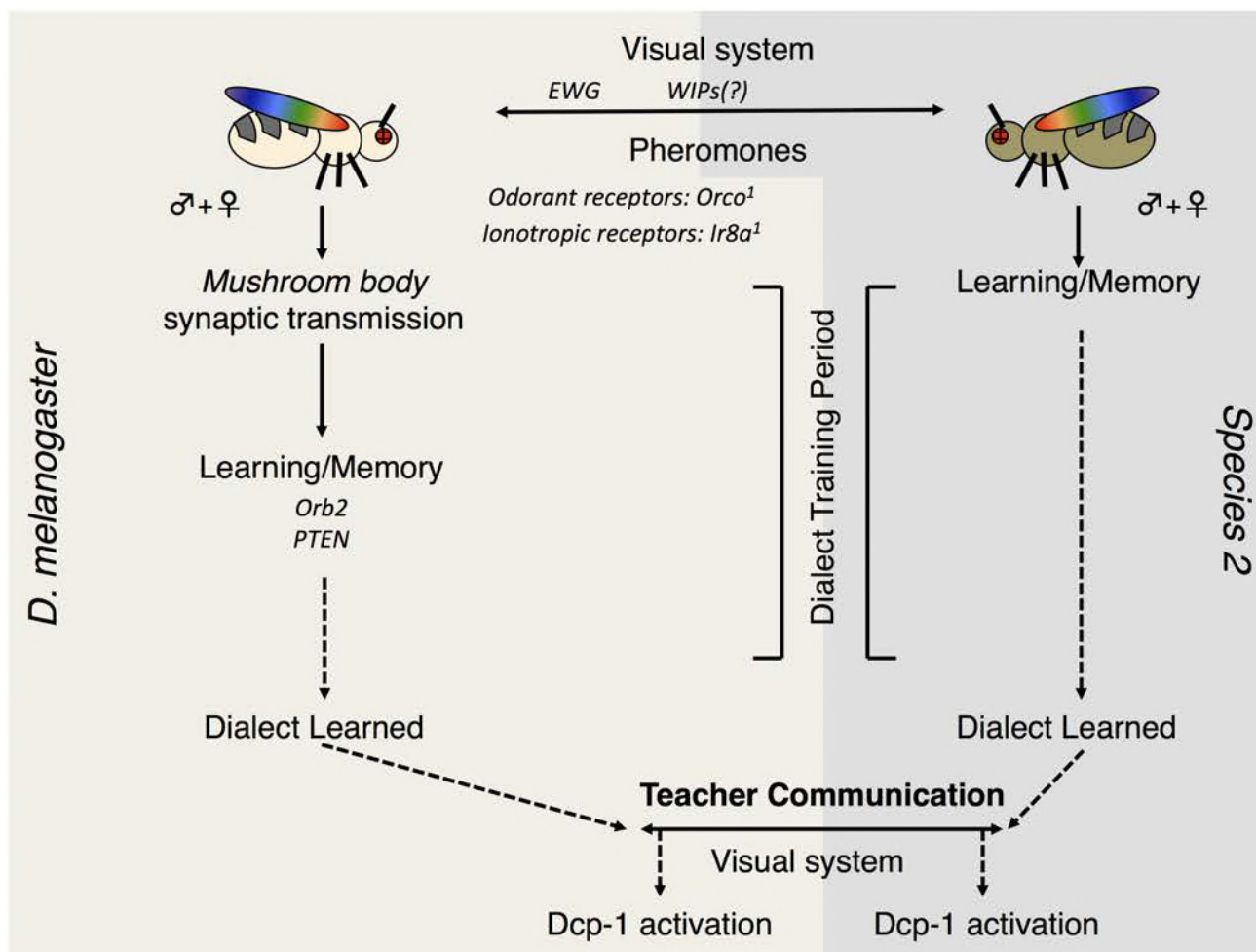
Naïve

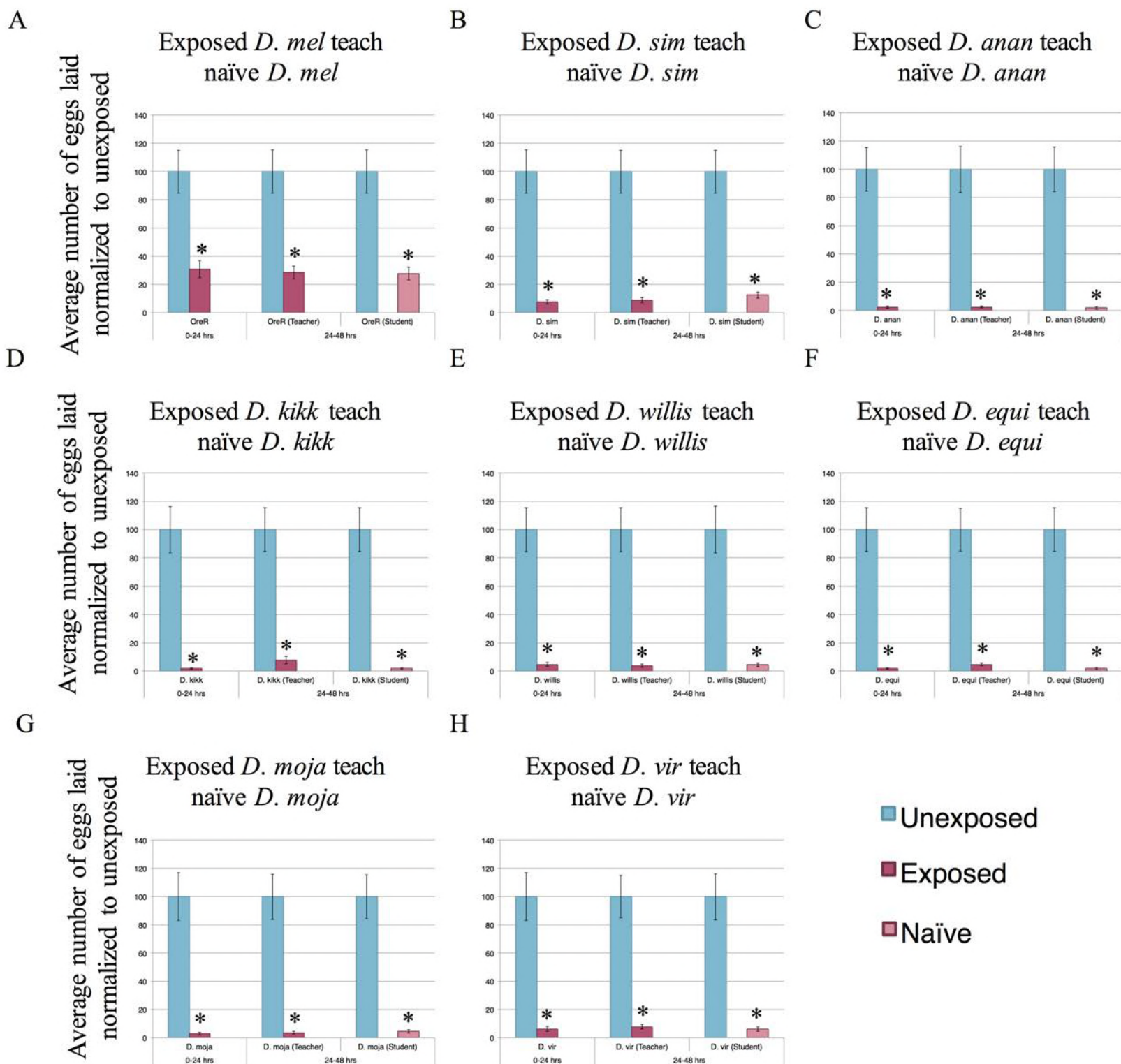


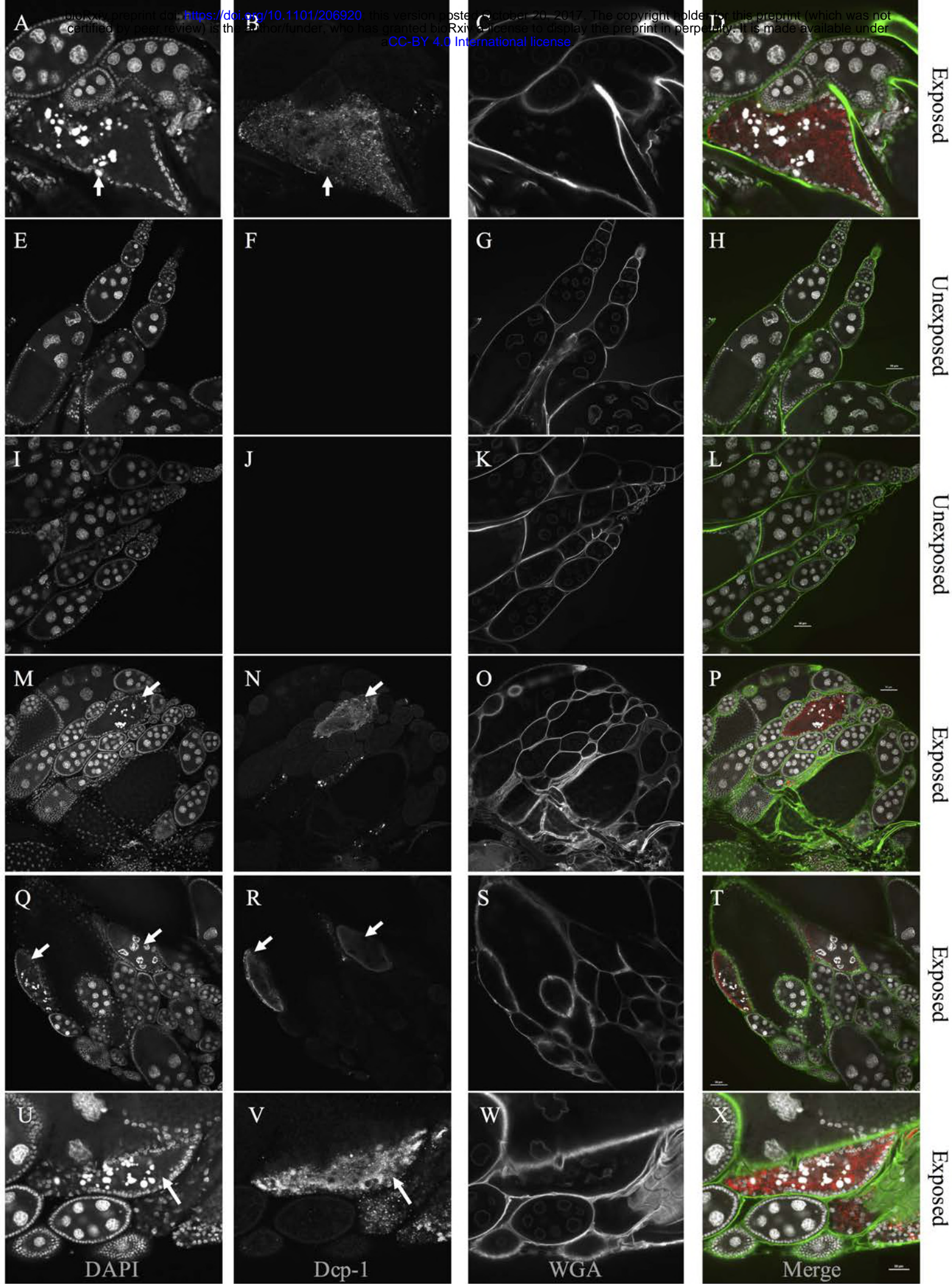


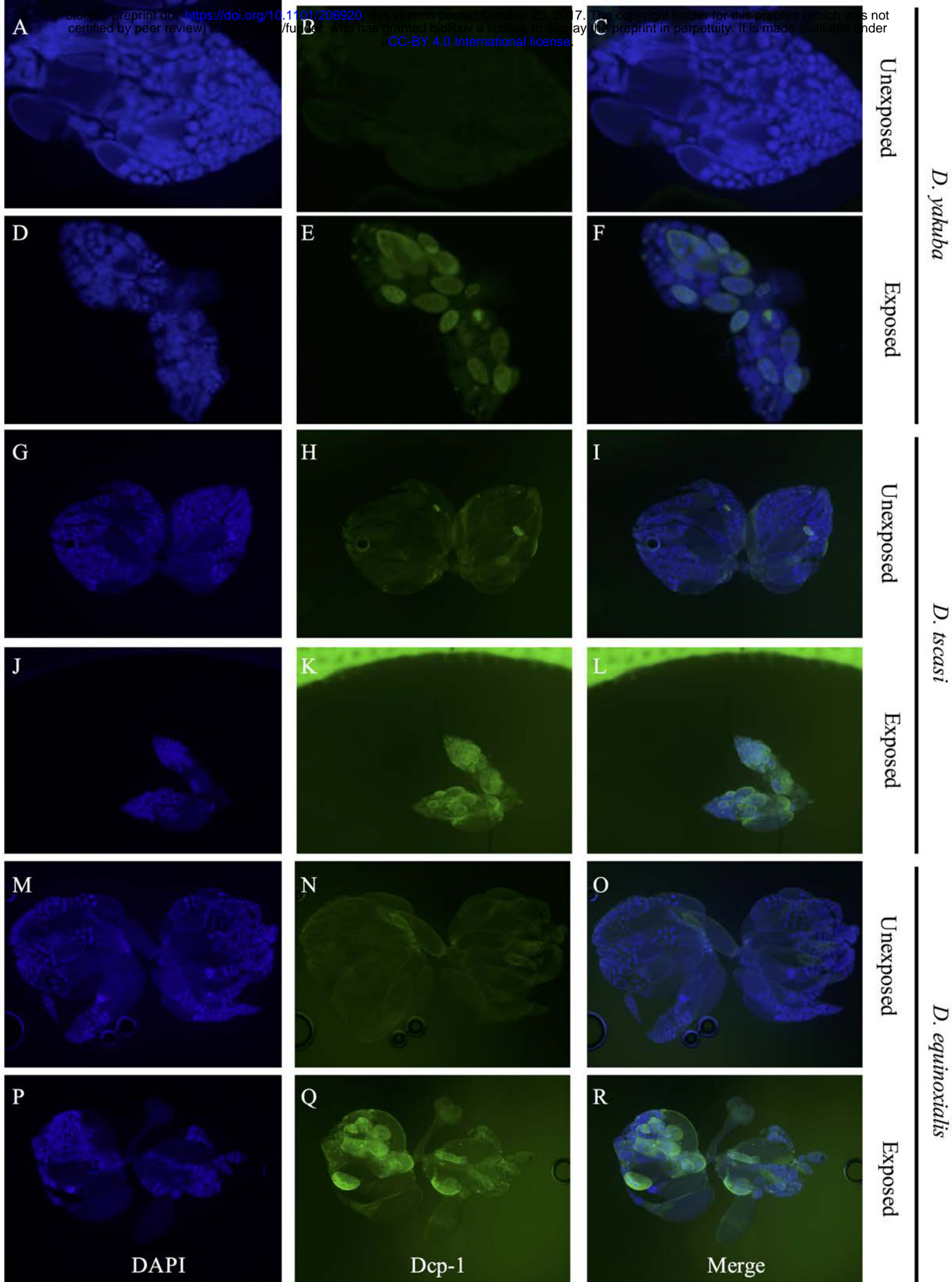


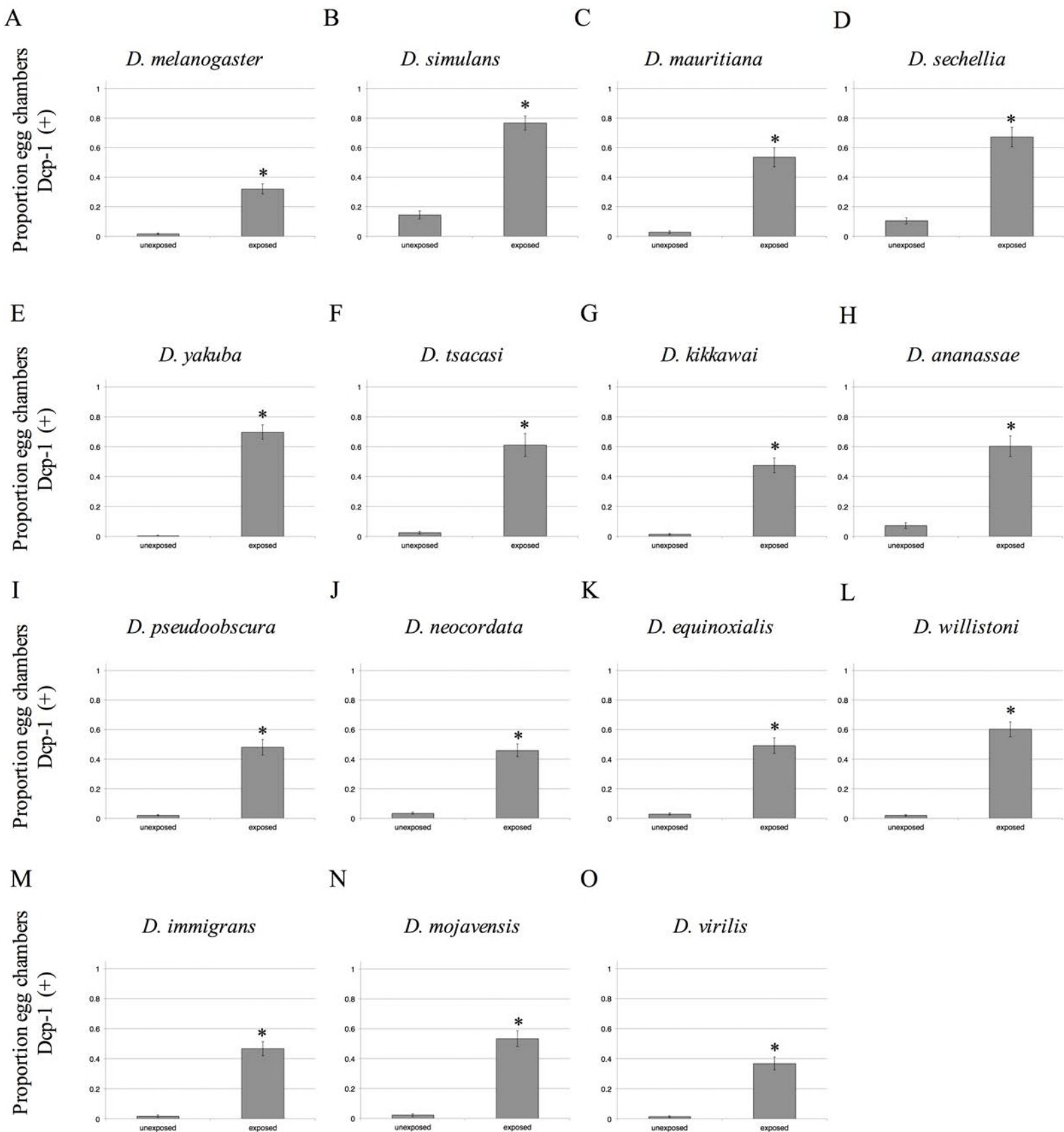
B

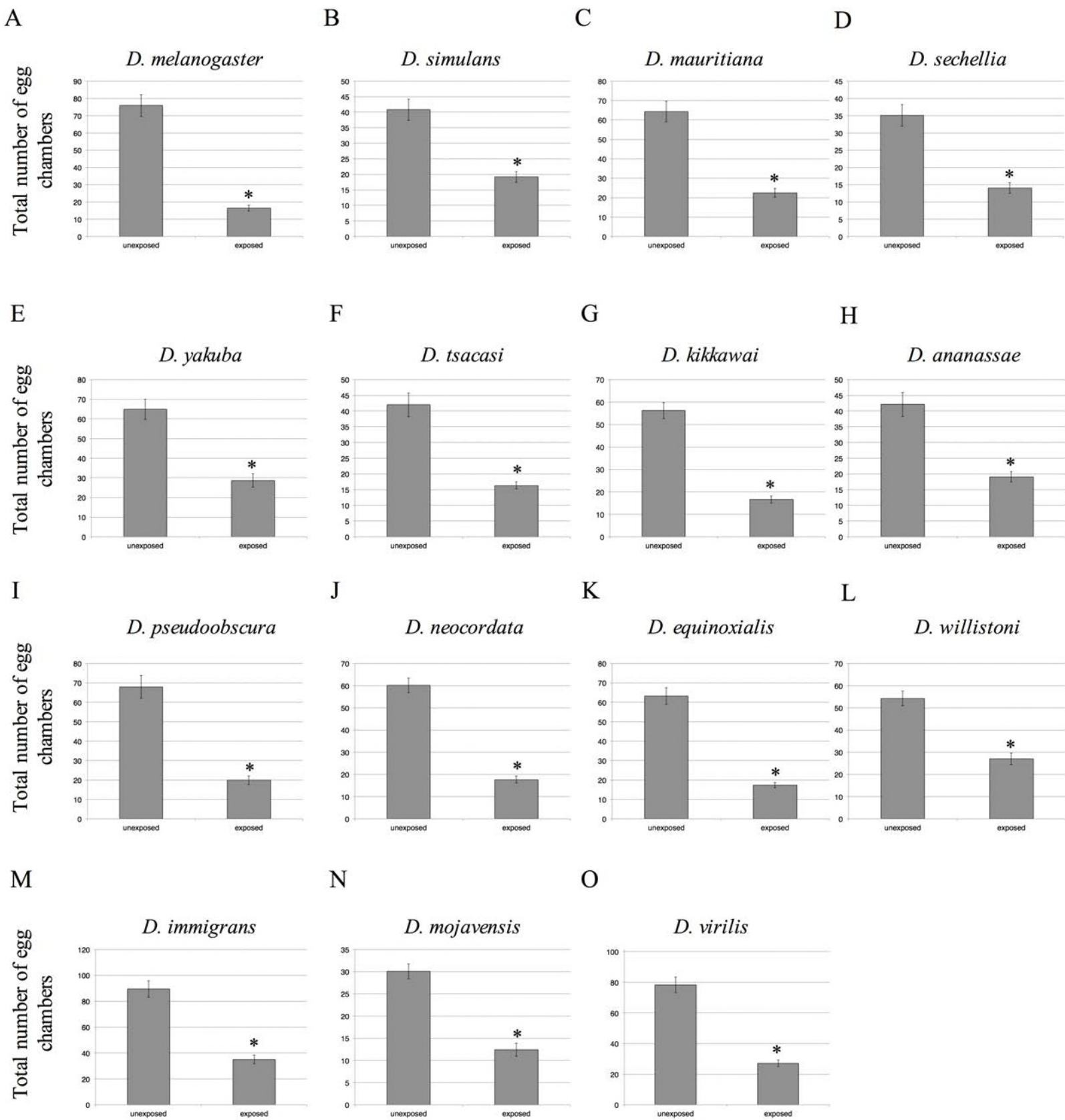


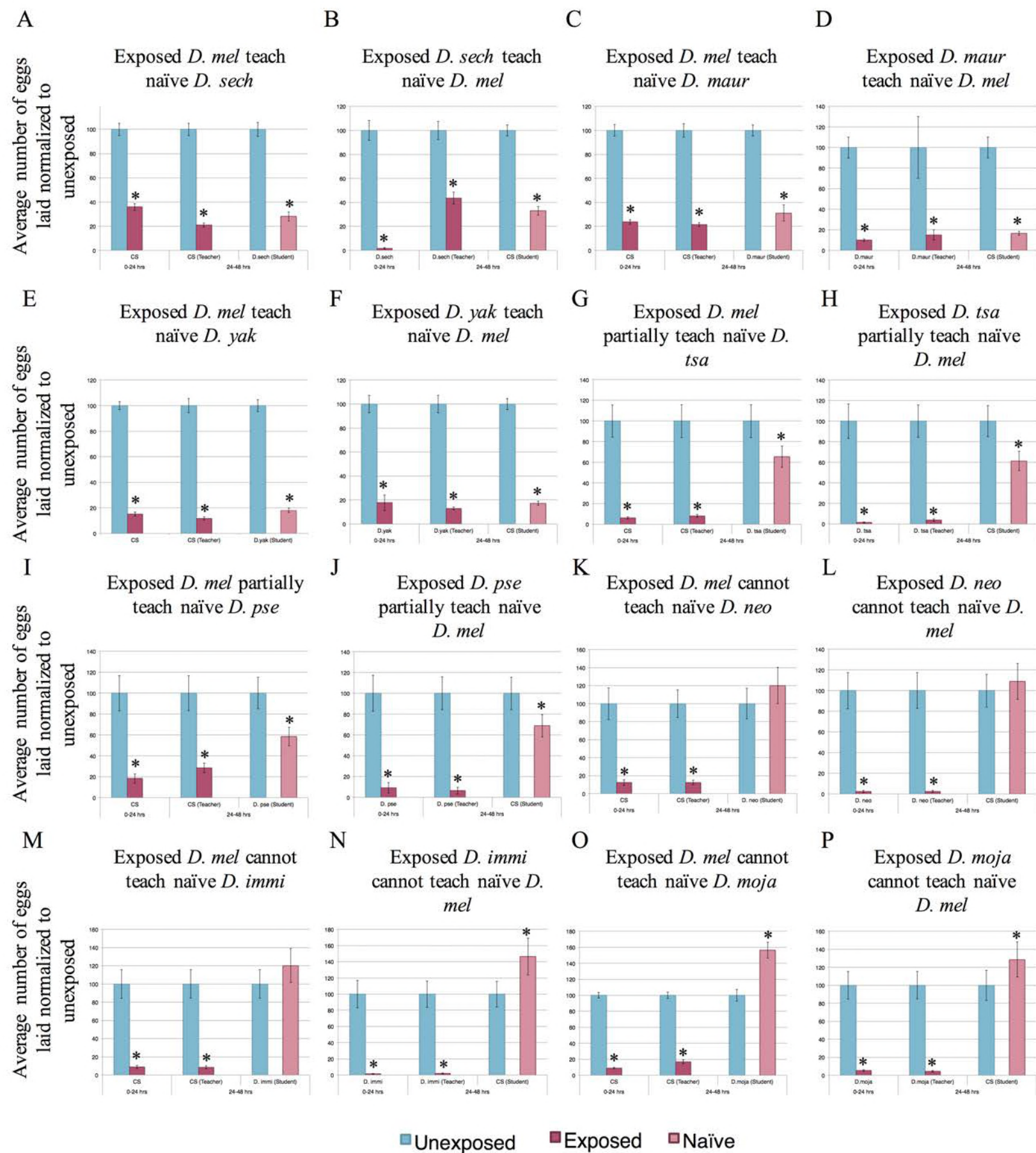


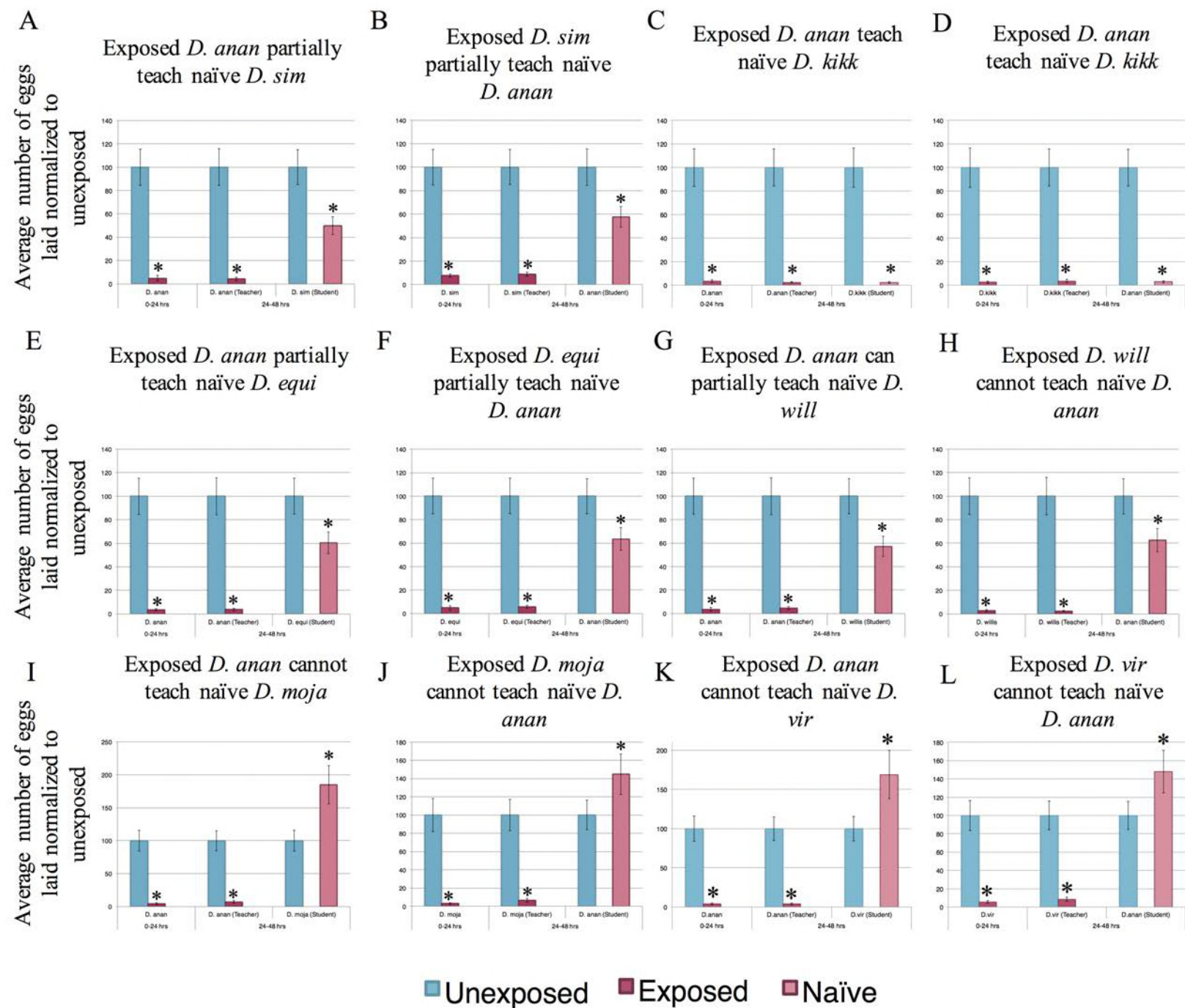


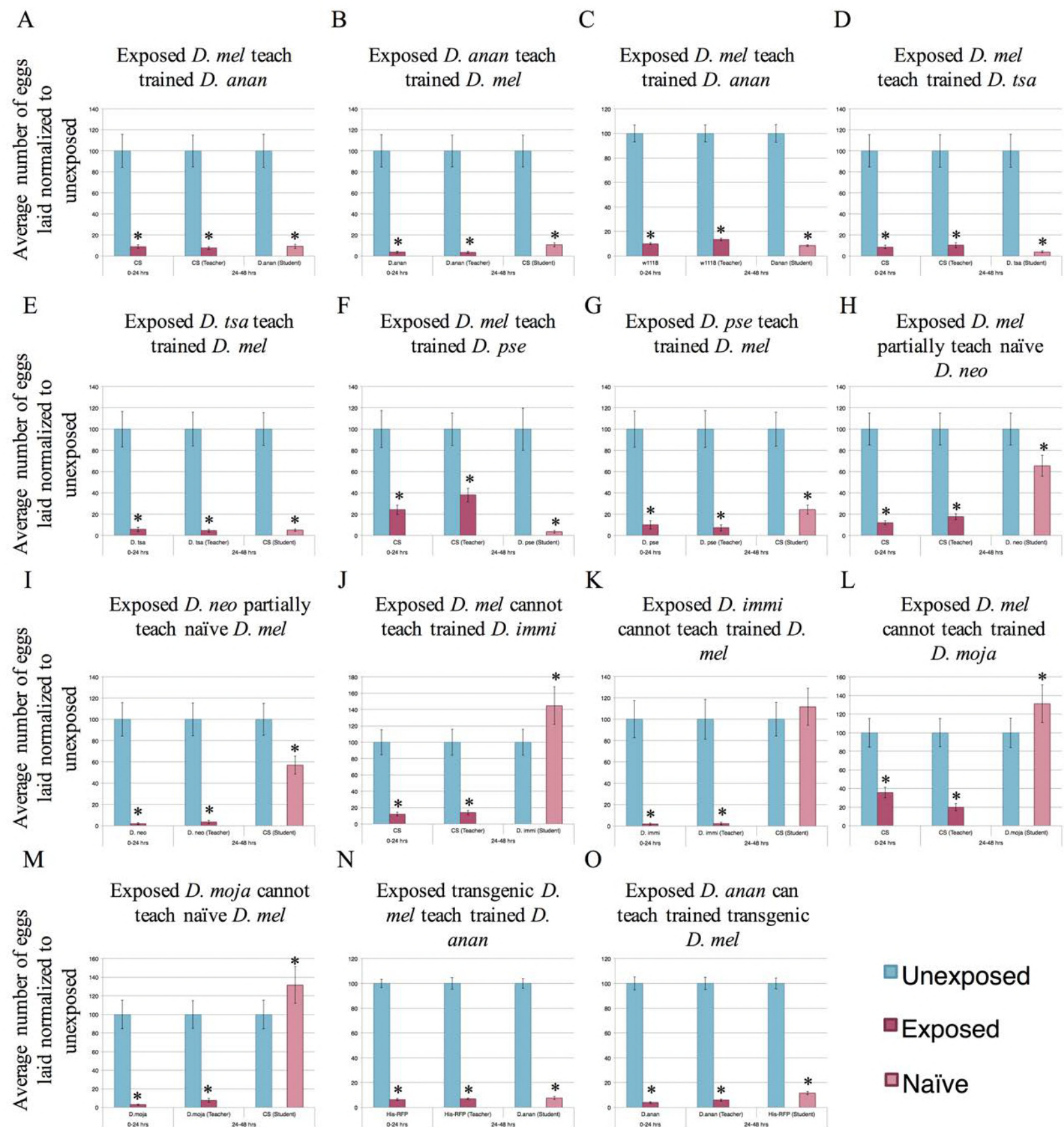


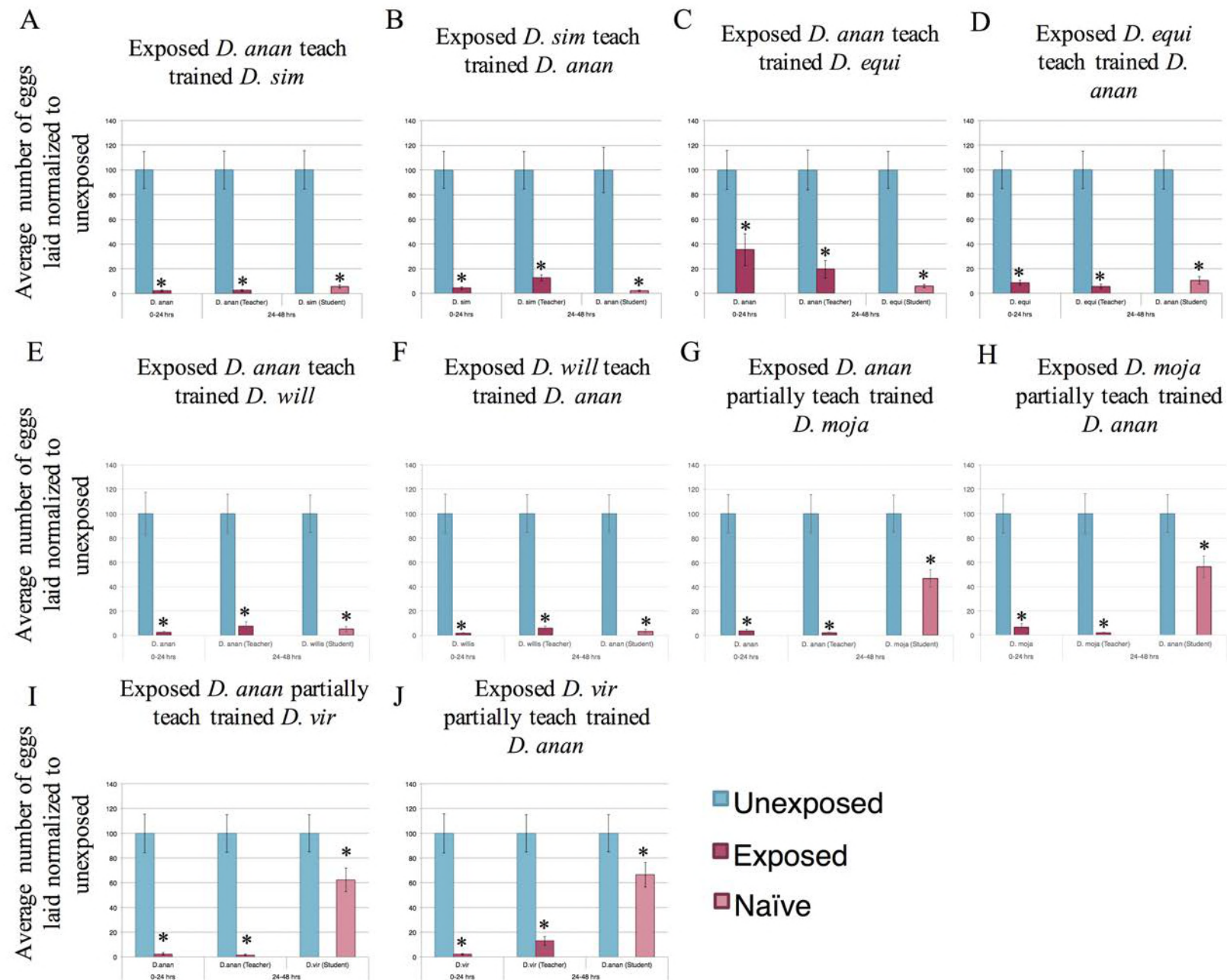


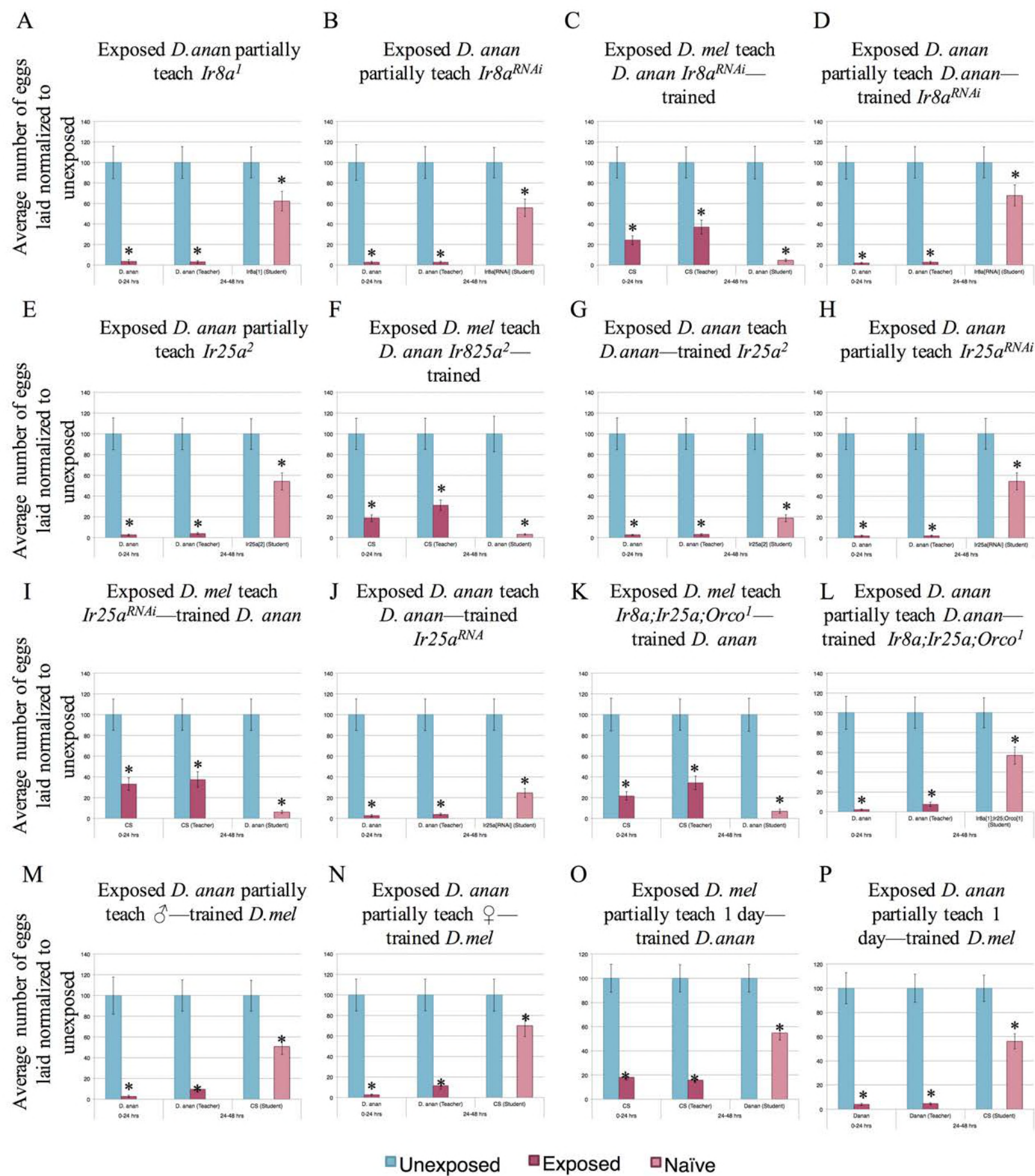


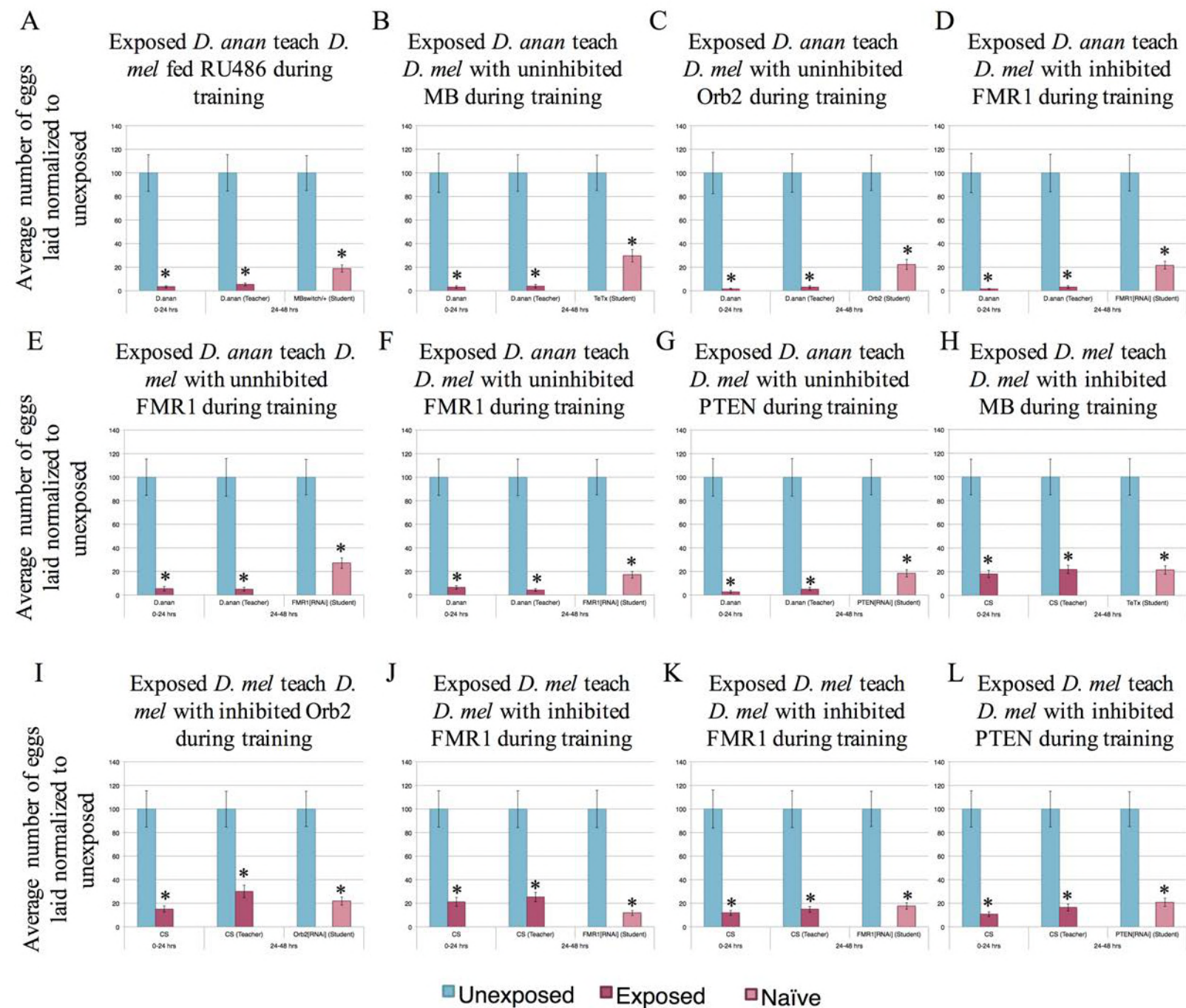












A

