Extremely rapid development and early reproduction reduces sexual selection in *D. melanogaster* populations.

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Abstract

The role of sexual selection in mediating levels of sexual conflict has been demonstrated in a number of experimental evolution studies on *Drosophila* sp. where the level of competition among males for fertilization success was under direct selection. Here we report that selection for a short development time and early age at reproduction can lead to inadvertent changes in levels of sexual selection in *D. melanogaster* populations, affecting reproductive competition experienced by males. We demonstrate that faster developing and early reproducing populations showed very low levels of mating in their lifetime (likely being monogamous), low courtship levels, shorter copulation duration and longer maturation time, compared to their ancestral controls. We discuss these results in light of the previously demonstrated reduction of sexual conflict in these populations.

Introduction

Due to differing parental investments per offspring (Bateman 1948, Trivers 1972), males and females are expected to evolve different reproductive strategies to maximize their respective fitness, usually resulting in higher optimal mating rates for males than females. Differences in optimal mating rates, in turn, lead to inter-sexual selection and conflict between the sexes, driving the evolution of sexually antagonistic traits (Parker 1979, Arnqvist and Rowe 2013). Therefore, changes in the ecology of a population that affect the reproductive strategies of males and females are expected to also affect the evolution of sexually antagonistic traits.

Numerous experimental evolution studies have investigated the role of sexual selection in the evolution of sexually antagonistic traits by selecting for different levels of male-male competition and female choice. By subjecting populations of *Drosophila sp.* either to random monogamy (Holland and Rice 1999, Pitnick et al 2001, Crudgington et al 2005, Hollis et al 2014, 2017, Wensing et al 2017), or by manipulating the degree of polygamy by changing the operational sex ratio in selected populations (Wigby and Chapman, 2004, Linklater et al 2007, Edwards et al 2010, Nandy et al 2013 a, b), researchers have demonstrated a strong relationship between levels of sexual selection and the evolution of sexually antagonistic traits. *D. melanogaster* females have also been shown to bear a non-linearly increasing cost of re-mating (Kuijper et al 2006). Moreover, the frequency/number of matings experienced by females in their lifetime can also drive resistance and mate avoidance behaviour (Rice et al 2006). These studies sufficiently demonstrate the role that sex ratio, breeding system and the degree of competition for

mating and fertilization play in selecting for sexually antagonistic traits in *Drosophila sp*.

Similarly, time available for reproduction, if too short, can constrain opportunities to re-

mate and in turn drive lower levels of competition among males. In fact, populations of

D. melanogaster that experience vastly different durations of effective adult life have

evolved different age-specific male reproductive strategies for improving their

fertilization success (Service 1993, Service and Fales 1993, Service and Vossbrink 1996).

Thus, a short effective adult life (time available for reproduction) can also be an

important determinant of the extent of sexual competition faced by individuals in

Drosophila populations, assuming similar probabilities of mating per unit time, that can

cause lower competition among males, and, consequently, lower life-time mating rates.

Previous work on replicate *D. melanogaster* populations that have been

maintained under long term selection for rapid development and early reproduction has

revealed a reduction in levels of inter-locus sexual conflict in selected vs control

populations, as assessed by post-mating female mortality (Ghosh and Joshi 2012, Mital et

al 2021). This has been attributed mainly to the smaller size of flies from the selected vs

control populations (Mital et al 2021), an expected direct response to the strong selection

for rapid development (Zwaan et al 1995 a, Nunney 1996, Prasad et al 2000), consistent

with studies that show smaller males to be less harmful to females than larger males,

given sufficiently large body size differences (Partridge et al 1987 a, b, Pitnick 1991,

Pitnick and Garcia-Gonzales 2002).

However, these fast-developing populations are additionally selected for

relatively early reproduction compared to their controls, wherein the effective adult life

of the selected flies is around three days while that of control flies is nine to eleven days.

This large difference in effective adult life could also lead to lower levels of sexual

selection and competition among males in the selected vs control populations, as

discussed above. Given the large body of evidence implicating levels of competition

among males in effecting the evolution of sexually antagonistic traits, selection for early

reproduction might indirectly select for further reduction in sexually antagonistic traits,

beyond that due to a smaller body size of males (Mital et al 2021). We, therefore, assayed

various aspects of the breeding ecology of the selected and control populations in order to

estimate the potential for differences in male-male competition in selecting for different

levels of sexually antagonistic traits.

Lifetime mating frequency directly estimates the expected competition that males

face (Kuijper et al 2006), and courtship frequency is indicative of male mating effort

since *D. melanogaster* males perform extensive and energetically expensive courtship for

which they likely bear a fitness cost (Partridge and Fowler 1990, Cordts and Partridge

1996, Anholt et al 2020) and courtship is also an opportunity for females to exercise mate

choice. Copulation duration is another estimate of reproductive effort/ investment by

males as it is substantially larger than that required for sperm transfer alone, with the

additional time likely spent in transfer of accessory gland proteins (Gilchrist and

Partridge 2000) which are known to mediate sexually antagonistic selection in this

species (Chapman et al 1995, Wolfner et al 1999, Chapman et al 2003). We also

estimated maturation time, which has been known to evolve in these populations (Prasad

2004, Ghosh-Modak 2009), and the relevant window of mating that would translate into

high fertilization success for JB males, given that they have a substantially long breeding

duration and are effectively semelparous. Long et al (2010) have shown that the timing of

mating can be a source of variation in reproductive success among *D. melanogaster*

females, implicating age specific mating and courtship patterns as crucial factors for

understanding the breeding ecology of such populations. Assessment of overall mating

and courtship rates alone, without information on fertilization success, would grossly

ignore the details of male-female post-copulatory interactions and any trade-offs with

other fitness requirements.

We report that selected and control populations differ significantly with respect to

lifetime mating and courtship frequencies of males, and copulation duration and time till

sexual maturation (or mating latency) of virgin females. The reproductive behaviour of

these flies indicates comparatively lower levels of sexual selection operating in selected

vs control populations. We further report that the timing of mating is crucial for effective

reproductive success in our control populations, which likely creates additional

competitive conditions for mating. While most laboratory selection experiments

investigating sexual antagonistic and sexual selection have focused on direct selection on

reproductive traits, our study populations were selected for life-history related traits but

show reduced levels of sexual antagonism (Ghosh and Joshi 2012, Mital et al 2021) via

evolution of correlated traits. This study establishes that the difference in selection for

effective adult lifetime between the selected and control populations has also resulted in

divergence in their reproductive behaviour and level of male-male competition, and has

likely, inadvertently selected for lower levels of sexual antagonism in the selected

populations compared to the controls. We believe this work highlights the nuanced

interplay between sexual and natural selection, and significantly contributes to the body

of experimental evolution studies that focus on life-history strategies as well as sexual
selection and conflict.

Methods

Study Populations

We studied eight outbred *D. melanogaster* populations that have a common ancestry.
Four of these populations were selected for faster pre-adult development and early
reproduction and are referred to as the **FEJ**s (**F**aster developing, **E**arly reproducing, **J**B
derived); the other four are ancestral controls, called the **JB**s (**J**oshi **B**aseline). Details of
the ancestry of these populations (Sheeba et al 1998) and their maintenance (Mital et al
2021) have been reported previously.

In summary, JBs are maintained on a 21day discrete generation cycle with eggs collected
into 40 replicate vials per populations (~60-80 eggs/ 6mL of food banana-jaggery
medium). All adults typically emerge by the 12th day from egg collection and are
transferred to fresh food vials on days 14 and 16. On day 18, all flies are collected into to
a Plexiglas cage provided with food supplemented with additional yeast for three days
before collected eggs for a new generation. The FEJ maintenance is similar and except
that only the first 20-25% of eclosing flies from each vial are collected directly into a
Plexiglas cage with food supplemented with additional yeast. After allowing three days
for the adults to breed, eggs are collected to initiate the next generation. Populations are
maintained at a breeding adult number of 1500-1800 flies, under constant light, 25∘C ±

1◦C and about 90% relative humidity. Only the fastest developing 20-25% of flies make it

to the breeding pool and reproduce relatively early, i.e., on day three after eclosion. Thus,

by the time these studies were conducted (~600 generations of FEJ selection), FEJs were

being maintained on a 10-day discrete generation cycle. Since each of the four FEJ

populations has been derived from one JB population, we could account for ancestry by

treating FEJ and JBs with matched subscripts as random blocks in the statistical analyses.

Standardization (common rearing conditions for a single generation in order to avoid

non-genetic parental effects confounding results) was done only for estimating time till

reproductive maturity, mating duration of the FEJ and JB populations, and breeding

success of JB males. We also used **SE**, an outbreeding population into which the **S**carlet

Eye mutation was introgressed for estimating the breeding success of JB males, where a

genetic marker was required.

Mating and Courtship Frequencies

We cultured JB and FEJ from flies derived from running cultures without undergoing any

standardization to assess breeding ecology differences that flies experience during their

maintenance, including those due to non-genetic parental effects. For JBs, flies from

these cultures were collected on day 12, pairing five males and five females per vial with

fresh banana-jaggery food medium (to facilitate courtship observations), 10 vials per

population. Observation vials were again setup on days 14 and 16 as described for day

12. For observing flies in the last two days prior to egg lay, we set up 100 pairs of flies

per Plexiglas cage (22 cm × 18 cm × 18 cm) with a plate of fresh food medium covered

with a paste of live yeast, as in their regular maintenance. We set up three replicate cages

per population. Flies were first collected into a regular cage (from holding vials in case of

JBs and culture vials in case of FEJs) and then 100 pairs were lightly anesthetized (using

carbon dioxide) and transferred into each replicate observation cage. In case of FEJs, as

in regular stock maintenance, only the first ~25% of the flies were selected to become

part of the observation set.

We took three 'instantaneous' observations every four hours (corresponding to

one time point) starting from day one of observation (i.e., day 12 from JB culture

initiation, ~day 6.5 from FEJ culture initiation) noting the number of males observed to

be performing a courtship behaviour (Spieth 1974) towards a female and the number of

pairs in copula. Observations were conducted for 144 hours (six days) in the vials for JBs

only and for 72 hours (three days) in Plexiglas cages for both JBs and FEJs, for each

replicate population. Daily average of courtship and mating frequency (fraction of males

that were courting or mating) for each day were estimated and these averages were then

summed over all days of the effective lifetime.

Copulation Duration and Female Maturation Time

To obtain adults of the same age at the beginning of the experiment, FEJ cultures were

started about 60 hours after the JB cultures, to account for the difference in their egg to

adult development times. We allowed egg laying time for 30 minutes only to have a

narrow eclosion distribution and collected females that emerged within the same one-

hour window. Females were paired with one day old virgin males, with 20 pairs per

population, per treatment (single pair per food vial) and kept for observation undisturbed.

In their regular maintenance, the first matings occur with food supplemented with

additional yeast for FEJs, but without it for JBs. We recorded time till first mating

(maturation time) and copulation duration under both treatments. Total observation

duration lasted for 56 hours, or until 80% of pairs per population, per treatment, had

mated, whichever occurred first.

Breeding Success of JB Males

Since JB flies experience a long adult life (about 9-11 days), assessed the reproductive

success of males that mate on different days after eclosion. For this, we used females

from a similar population with a recessive eye colour mutation, scarlet eye (SE). The SE

population is homozygous for this mutation and by allowing males from the wild type

(WT) i.e., JB population to mate with SE females only during certain stages of their adult

life, while housing them with SE males for the remainder of their lives, we were able to

assess the reproductive success of the JB males, and which window of mating, if any,

resulted in maximum offspring production.

We collected both SE and JB cultures for the experiment at the same time and on

day 12 from their initiation, 24 vials were setup with 10 pairs of flies in each. We split the

adult stage of the JB flies into four phases depending on the vial transfer and cage

collection regime as is experienced by the JBs in their regular maintenance protocol. We

introduced JB males with SE females on day 12 and housed them till day 14 after which

the JB males were replaced with SE males using light carbon dioxide anesthesia, terming

this Phase 1 (P1). Similarly, we housed SE females with JB males on days 14 and 15

(P2), 16 and 17 (P3) and 18, 19 and 20 (P4) after which the SE females were allowed to

lay eggs (in individual vials) for 18 hours.

We set up 30 egg laying vials for each phase, sampling five females from each of

the breeding vials. The SE females were allowed to lay eggs (one female per vial) for 18

hours before being discarded and the cultures were maintained at 25∘C and constant light

for the next 10-11 days until all flies had eclosed. We estimated the proportion of SE and

WT progeny for each female and averaged this across females for a particular phase.

Statistical Analyses

We used mixed model analyses of variance (ANOVA) for all statistical analyses.

Average time till maturation for a population, life-time courtship and mating frequency

per population and proportion of WT offspring averaged across females per population

were used as the response variables. Tukey's HSD test was used for comparing individual

means and calculating all confidence intervals for post-hoc analyses. Since the data is of

fractional nature, we also repeated each analysis with arcsine square root transformed

values to check if there were any differences obtained in the significance of the fixed

factors. Selection regime and yeasted/non-yeasted conditions for time till maturation and

copulation duration, selection regime for courtship and mating rate assays, and phase for

breeding success assay were treated as fixed factors in the analysis. Additionally, we

checked within the JB population for significance in the differences between the vial and

cage ecology in courtship and mating rates. All experiments were performed on four

replicate populations of a selection regime, replicate populations with matching

numerical subscripts were assayed together which also share the same ancestry (FEJ$_i$ and

JB$_i$) and were therefore treated as random blocks in the analyses. All analyses were

carried out using STATISTICA™ using Windows Release 5.0B (StatSoft Inc. 1995).

Results

Mating and Courtship Frequencies

The differences between FEJ and JB lifetime mating ($F=1020.928$, $P<0.001$) and

courtship frequencies ($F=1372.439$, $P< 0.001$) were statistically significant with JBs

showing considerably higher frequencies (Fig 1A, 1B, Table 1). When we compared the

mating and courtship frequencies only within the cage ecology (the last three days of

mating of their effective life), courtship frequencies were still significantly greater for JB

than for FEJ, but their mating frequencies did not differ significantly (Table 1). The sheer

magnitude of difference in the mating and courtship frequencies experienced by the FEJ

and JB males over their effective lifetime revealed the potential for large differences in

levels of sexual selection operating in these populations. Moreover, although overall

courtship frequencies were very low for FEJ, the results from the analysis of data from

only within the cages indicated a very low courtship requirement for arousal of FEJ

females for copulation, given that mating frequencies in the cage were very similar for JB

and FEJ, despite courtship frequencies being much lower in FEJ (Fig 1B, 1D). It is also

worth noting that both courtship and mating frequencies dropped by almost an order of

magnitude for JB when only the cage ecology was considered.

Maturation Time and Copulation Duration

Maturation time of the JB and FEJ differed significantly ($F= 149.885$, $P= 0.001$), as did

copulation duration ($F= 15.260$, $P= 0.029$), with JB females maturing faster (consistent

with previous reports (Prasad 2004, Ghosh-Modak 2009)) and mating longer than FEJ

females (Fig 2 Tables 2). Although a lot of work has provided evidence for change in

mating behaviour with adult diet and nutrition in flies (Fricke et al 2008, Schultzhaus et

al 2018, Duxbury and Chapman 2020), these results did not demonstrate any effect of

additional yeast on female maturation time or copulation duration. There was no

significant selection-by-environment interaction (Table 2), indicating a lack of

differential effect of yeasting on FEJ and JB female mating behaviour. Female condition

(adults being fed a protein rich diet) is also known to increase male courtship vigour

through an increased attractiveness of the female (Nandy and Prasad 2012), but such

effects on the FEJ or JB males, or differences in these effects, did not manifest in the

assays reported here.

Breeding Success of JB Males

A significant effect of mating window (df=3, MS=0.53, $F=121.625$, $P= <0.001$) indicated

overwhelming last male precedence in reproductive success in the JB populations,

showing that mating in the final three days of their lifetime resulted in as much as 80%

paternity share of eggs laid on day 21 from egg collection (Fig 3). The first two days of

mating yielded the least success, significantly lower than that of the two middle windows

of mating (corresponding to day 14 to day 18 from egg collection), with there being no

significant difference between mating windows two and three, as revealed by pair wise

comparisons using Tukey's HSD (Fig 3).

Discussion

Mating Frequency

Results from the study of breeding ecology of FEJ and JB populations confirm that

reducing the time available for mating can reduce sexual competition experienced by the

flies in their effective lifetimes, possibly by constraining re-mating opportunities. Such a

large difference in the duration of effective adult life, coupled with selection for rapid

development, has significantly affected sexual selection in these populations. The large

difference in life-time mating rates between FEJs and JBs is more easily interpreted by

scaling the mating frequency results by the maximum possible number of matings

achievable in that time for that population. We multiplied the FEJ mating rate by 24

(maximal possible mating events being once every hour) to obtain an expected number of

life-time mating events, which was projected to a single mating event. In comparison to

this, we projected that a JB fly is likely to mate about six times in its lifetime (scaling

factor of 12, mating once every two hours). These scaling factors were chosen based on

the mating duration and likely recovery required by FEJ and JB males before attempting

re-mating (Mital A, personal observations) and we believe these are overestimates of the

maximum number of matings possible within a day. Therefore, one and six are

conservative estimates of the average lifetime mating events per fly for FEJs and JBs,

respectively. Given the large body of evidence supporting the evolution of different male

reproduction related traits in males with different levels of sexual selection

(Introduction), we speculate that FEJ males experience selection for very low levels of

manipulative and mate harming ability as they are effectively monogamous.

Consequently, FEJ females are likely selected to produce weaker or no defense against

post mating manipulation and harm, as a co-evolutionary response.

This reduction in requirement of sexually antagonistic traits in FEJ flies could

have affected their resource requirement and allocation patterns, possibly allowing them

to be even smaller and further pushing the boundaries of rapid development. Such a

change in resource use may have resulted in increased investment in egg production;

there is evidence for larger egg size (B M Prakash and A Joshi, unpublished data) and

more eggs per unit lipid (Prasad 2004, Ghosh-Modak 2009) in FEJ than JB females.

Furthermore, Nandy et al (2013a, b) have demonstrated a possible trade-off between

sexually antagonistic traits and life-history related traits such as fecundity and longevity

(through body size) in *D. melanogaster* females. Since production of Acps is also known

to be costly to males (Chapman and Edwards 2011), a similar trade-off with life-history

related traits in the FEJ males would not be surprising.

Courtship Frequency

We found large differences in courtship frequencies between the FEJ and JB flies (Fig

1B), even when only the cage stage was compared when the mating rates were similar

(Fig 1C, 1D). We present the following arguments for the evolution of a low arousal

threshold in the FEJ females and low courtship from FEJ males.

Mating at least once is necessary to realize fitness and time available for

reproduction in the FEJ ecology is short, which has also been further constrained by a

longer maturation time (Fig 2A) making frugal courtship by males and a low arousal

threshold in females selectively advantageous. The period between eclosion and

reproduction is also the only opportunity for females to feed and thereby accumulate

additional resources for egg production; additional yeast is known to significantly boost

fecundity in this lineage of *D. melanogaster* populations (Luckinbill et al 1985,

Chippindale et al 1997b). This can partially compensate for the small body size of FEJs at

eclosion and potentially impose strong selection on FEJ females to mate quickly,

contributing to selection for a lower arousal threshold and, co-evolutionarily, lower

courtship effort from males.

Ruhmann et al (2016) report that *D. melanogaster* males keep maturing

reproductively, especially in terms of increase in accessory gland size, for up to six days

after eclosion, and younger males tend to have poor sperm competitive ability and

courtship effort, as compared to older, more mature males. FEJs have also evolved a

significantly different developmental schedule and maturation time (Prasad 2004, Ghosh-

Modak 2009, Fig 2A), and developmental changes or delays can further add to poor

courtship performance, given the young age at which FEJ males complete reproduction.

Finally, low courtship frequencies despite similar mating frequencies of FEJ than

JB males can be explained using the chase-away selection model for the evolution of

female choice in *D. melanogaster* (Holland and Rice 1998, Gavrilets et al 2001). The

chase away selection model suggests that female choice can evolve as a consequence of

persistent male mating effort when it is harmful to females (sexual antagonism) and give

rise to female resistance towards such sensory manipulation, and that this resistance may

be interpreted as female bias/ preference/ selection for high courtship (Holland and Rice

1998, 1999). Since persistent male courtship is known to reduce female survival in *D.*

melanogaster (Partridge and Fowler 1990), reduced sexual antagonism driven by low

male-male competition (FEJs are effectively monogamous, Fig 1A), may release the

sexes from this co-evolutionary cycle, and appear as lack of female choice and male

courtship effort. Therefore, low courtship frequency for similar mating frequency may be

driven by female ecological constraints, changes in the developmental process, reduced

male-male competition, or a combination of these.

Maturation Time and Copulation Duration

FEJ females take about 10 hours longer than JB females to attain their first mating (Fig

2A) likely due to the drastic reduction in FEJ development time which may have resulted

in the postponement of many aspects of reproductive development to adulthood (Prasad

2004). Although the significant reduction in copulation duration in FEJs (Fig 2B) may

allow more mating events, possibly compensating for the limited time available for

breeding, this does not play out as revealed by their very low life-time mating frequency

(Fig 1A). Faster development and the subsequent body size reduction has put significant restrictions on resource allocation towards reproduction. It has been suggested that in *D. melanogaster*, most sperm transfer occurs during the first half of mating (Gilchrist and Partridge 2000), the remaining time being spent in the transfer of SFPs responsible for the female post-mating response. Since FEJ females mate for around 15 minutes while JB females mate for around 25 minutes, on average (in yeasted or non-yeasted conditions, Fig 2B), a smaller investment in the non-sperm components of the *D. melanogaster* ejaculate would explain the shorter copulation duration in FEJ. This is consistent with our results that FEJ males are less manipulative and harmful to females than JB males, thus driving the co-evolution of less resistant females (Mital et al 2021) and explaining the reduced levels of sexual antagonism in the FEJ than JB populations reported earlier (Ghosh and Joshi 2012).

Breeding Success of JB Males

The results from the breeding success experiment provide further evidence of selection for the high courtship frequency in the JB populations, especially in the cage stage when mating frequency is very low. JB populations show significant last male fertilization success with mating in the last three days resulting in ~80% paternity share (Fig 3) of eggs collected to initiate the next generation, indicating high fitness reward for mating effort despite low chance of mating success. The large paternity share from the final mating window, thus, explains the disproportionate courtship effort by JB males in cages (Fig 2), and may also indicate high variation in JB male mating success, a long-standing

argument for stronger selection in males for exaggerated reproductive traits (Bateman

1948, Andersson 1994).

The greater paternity share from matings occurring in the final mating window

can also be explained by females having already laid eggs that were fertilized by earlier

matings, before we collected eggs to start the next generation. Our experiment does

distinguish between the possible causes for this pattern of fertilization success. However,

these results demonstrate that increased selection is experienced by JB populations for

sexually antagonistic traits, as males experience very intense competition, especially in

the final stage of their operative adult life, unlike FEJ males.

Conclusion
413

Although mating with smaller males which are less harmful to females (Pitnick and

Garcia-Gonzalez 2002) has triggered a reduction in overall inter-locus sexual conflict

levels in FEJs (Mital et al 2021), the work reported here demonstrates that the adult FEJ

ecology can also select for reduced levels of inter-locus sexual conflict. The shorter

breeding time, coupled with strong directional selection for rapid development has

resulted in significantly lower levels of sexual selection operating in these populations, as

estimated by the lifetime mating frequency. This supplements other studies that have

reported reduced sexual antagonism upon directly selecting for different levels male-male

competition (Introduction). A recent study has reported divergence in life-history related

traits (development time) between populations of *D. pseudoobscura* that were selected

for adaptation to different mating systems (Garlovsky et al 2021), well complementing

the work we report here. Our results show that selection on life-history related traits

(development time and age at reproduction) could give rise to major changes in

reproductive behaviour that indirectly affect sexual selection in *D. melanogaster*. This is

especially relevant as differences in sexual selection and sexual conflict are often

implicated in the emergence of speciation phenotypes (Ritchie 2007). FEJ and JB

populations have diverged in their reproductive behaviour to a degree that incipient

reproductive isolation has occurred (Ghosh and Joshi 2012). Our work highlights that

selection on traits not directly associated with sexual selection can, nonetheless, drive the

evolution of reproductively isolating mechanisms, either directly as a consequence of

rapid development (Mital et al 2021) or indirectly by affecting overall levels of sexual

selection, or both. The nuanced interaction of life-history trait selection and sexual

selection is crucial for understanding adaptation to specific ecologies and this work

demonstrates the significant impact of such an interaction.

Tables

Table 1. Results summary of ANOVA for mating and courtship frequencies.[1]

Effect	df	MS	*F*	*P*
Life-time Mating Fr	1	0.5502	1020.928	< 0.0001
Life-time Courtship Fr	1	120.2025	1372.439	< 0.0001
Cage Mating Fr	1	0.0001	4.163	0.1339
Cage Courtship Fr	1	0.0010	910.352	<0.001

Table 2. Results summary of ANOVA for maturation time (MT) and copulation duration (CD).[2]

Effect	df	MS	*F*	*P*
	MT | CD	MT | CD	MT | CD	MT | CD
Selection	1 | 1	535.6813 | 143.8742	149.885 | 15.260	0.0011 | 0.0297
Environment	1 | 1	1.6626 | 0.6389	0.203 | 0.646	0.6823 | 0.4802
Selection × Environment	1 | 1	1.0137 | 0.0867	0.003 | 0.0326	0.9542 | 0.8680

[1] Summary of results of a one-way ANOVA each for lifetime and cage mating and courtship frequencies. Main effects of selection regime for the two traits are shown. In this design, random factors and interaction effects cannot be tested for significance and have been left out for brevity.

[2] Selection regime and environment (yeasted or non-yeasted) are fixed factors in the ANOVA. Random factors and interactions cannot be tested for significance in this design and have been left out for brevity.

Figures

Fig 1. A) Mean lifetime mating frequency averaged across the four replicate populations

of JB and FEJ. B) Mean lifetime courtship frequency averaged across four replicate

populations of JB and FEJ. C) Mean mating frequency in the cage, or the final three days

of adult life, averaged across four replicate populations of JB and FEJ. D) Mean courtship

frequency in the cage, averaged across the four replicate populations of JB and FEJ. Error

bars are 95% confidence intervals around the means.

Fig 2. A) Mean maturation time, or mating latency of virgins from eclosion, averaged across four replicate populations of JB and FEJ, under yeasted (Y) and non-yeasted (NY) conditions. B) Mean copulation duration of the first mating averaged across four replicate populations of JB and FEJ, under yeasted (Y) and non-yeasted (NY) conditions. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals around the means.

Fig 3. Mean proportion of JB flies in the breeding success assay that resulted from eggs

laid on day 21 from egg collection, averaged across four replicate populations, showing

success in various mating windows. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals around the

means.

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