#### 1 Effects of food availability cycles on phase and period of activity/rest rhythm in

- 2 Drosophila melanogaster
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#### 23 Abstract

24 Foraging and feeding are indispensable for survival and their timing depends not only on the 25 metabolic state of the animal but also on the availability of food resources in their 26 environment. Since both these aspects are subject to change over time, these behaviours 27 exhibit rhythmicity in occurrence. As the locomotor activity of an organism is related to its 28 disposition to acquire food, and peak feeding in fruit flies has been shown to occur at a 29 particular time of the day, we asked if cyclic food availability can entrain their rhythmic 30 activity. By subjecting flies to cyclic food availability *i.e.*, feeding/starvation (FS) cycles, we 31 provided food cues contrasting to the preferred activity times and observed if this imposed 32 cycling in food availability could entrain the activity/rest rhythm. We found that phase 33 control, which is a property integral to entrainment, was not achieved despite increasing 34 starvation duration of FS cycles (FS12:12, FS10:14 and FS8:16). We also found that flies 35 subjected to T21 and T26 FS cycles were unable to match period of the activity rhythm to 36 short or long T-cycles. Taken together these results show that external food availability 37 cycles do not entrain the activity/rest rhythm of fruit flies. However, we find that starvation 38 induced hyperactivity causes masking which results in phase changes. Additionally, T-cycle 39 experiments resulted in minor period changes during FS treatment. These findings highlight 40 that food cyclicity by itself may not be a potent zeitgeber but may act in unison with other 41 abiotic factors like light and temperature to help flies time their activity appropriately.

Key words: Circadian clock, food entrainment, zeitgeber, locomotor activity rhythm,
Feeding: Starvation cycles, masking, starvation induced hyperactivity, *Drosophila melanogaster*

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#### 47 **INTRODUCTION**

48 Circadian clocks integrate cues from the environment and temporally regulate physiological 49 and behavioural programs to aid animals fulfill their daily needs by anticipating cyclic 50 changes in their day-to-day environment and time their physiology accordingly (Dunlap, 51 2003). This is achieved by the process of entrainment which is the ability of the clock to 52 synchronize to cyclic cues in the environment. Abiotic factors that cycle with time of day 53 such as light and temperature serve as time cues or "zeitgebers" to the clock (Pittendrigh, 54 1960); (Johnson et al., 2003). Similarly, biotic factors such as food resources may also serve 55 as time cues to the clock of many animals (Hau and Gwinner, 1996); (Sharma et al., 2000); 56 (Frisch and Aschoff, 1987).

57 Food resources frequently undergo changes in quality and quantity. While these changes are 58 more apparent over seasons, daily food availability may also change as is documented in the 59 case of various plant-pollinator and prey-predator interactions (Bloch et al., 2017); (Kronfeld-60 Schor et al., 2017). The cyclicity of these interactions are made possible by the circadian 61 clocks that regulate diverse aspects of pollination such as those involved in flower 62 advertisements in plants (Overland, 1960); (Matile, 2006); (Fenske et al., 2015); (Yon et al., 63 2016) and foraging activities in pollinator species (Fenske et al., 2018). Activity of several 64 insect species such as bees (Bloch et al., 2017), mosquitoes (reviewed in (Sougoufara et al., 65 2017)), bedbugs (Romero et al., 2010) (reviewed in (Barrozo et al., 2004)) have been shown 66 to be influenced by food availability.

67 Restricted food access in rodent models under laboratory conditions invokes an anticipatory 68 response in the form of an activity bout before food availability called the food anticipatory 69 activity (FAA) (Richter, 1922). FAA occurs for as long as food is restricted and even at 70 times when animals are not usually active. For example, when food is restricted to daytime, 71 FAA is observed during daytime which is otherwise a period of low activity in nocturnal 72 animals (Mistlberger, 2011); (Carneiro and Araujo, 2012). FAA is not dependent on the 73 canonical light entrainable oscillator (LEO) located in the Suprachiasmatic Nucleus (SCN) 74 (Stephan et al., 1979), and is thought to be controlled by another clock which is termed Food 75 entrainable oscillator (FEO) which has not yet been localized (Pendergast and Yamazaki, 76 2018). Furthermore, it has been shown that feeding entrains a peripheral clock in the liver 77 (Damiola et al., 2000). Therefore, food provided at unusual times of the day can disrupt the 78 phase relationship between the LEO and the liver peripheral clock. Other than the occurrence 79 of FAA, the overall activity/rest pattern of these animals remains largely unaffected by 80 change in food availability when SCN is intact. However, in SCN-lesioned animals, FEO 81 can completely entrain activity rhythms to food availability cycles (Pendergast and 82 Yamazaki, 2018), suggesting that food can act as a secondary zeitgeber

83 In the fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster* a peripheral clock in olfactory receptor neurons of 84 the antenna regulates a circadian rhythm in olfactory responses with a peak in the middle of 85 the night (Krishnan et al., 1999); (Tanoue et al., 2004). Similarly, a diurnal rhythm in 86 electrophysiological responses of the labellar gustatory receptor neurons (GRN) has been 87 reported with a peak in the morning hours. The GRN clock also regulates a behavioural 88 gustatory rhythm in proboscis extension reflex (PrER); an appetitive behaviour with a peak in 89 the morning (Chatterjee et al., 2010). Fruit flies also feed rhythmically with a peak in the 90 morning in light/dark cycles and early subjective day in constant conditions (Xu et al., 2008). 91 All these rhythms in *Drosophila* have been shown to be controlled by peripheral clocks while 92 the activity/rest rhythm is known to be regulated by the central clock neurons (Helfrich-93 Forster, 1998). However, whether and how food availability affects any of these rhythms is unknown. 94

95 An organism's active phase is the time when most of the resource gathering and energy 96 requirements are likely to be fulfilled. Hence locomotion of most animals is a function of various drives such as foraging, feeding, mating, oviposition etc. It is imperative to bring 97 98 congruence between the internal drive to feed and the availability of food resources in the 99 environment. Circadian clocks could facilitate this by adjusting the active phase of the 100 organism such that the animal performs foraging and feeding behaviours while food is likely 101 to be available in the environment. Since being in an active state is closely tied to an 102 organism's disposition to acquire food resources, we asked if changing the time of food 103 availability can bring about changes in the activity patterns and affect the underlying clock in 104 D. melanogaster. In this study, we test the hypothesis that food availability cycles can act as 105 a zeitgeber in entraining the activity/rest rhythm of *Drosophila melanogaster* by imposing 106 various types of feeding cycles.

107 **METHODS** 

#### 108 Locomotor Activity Assay

109 Locomotor activity rhythm of flies was recorded using the Drosophila Activity Monitor 110 (DAM, Trikinetics, USA). 4–5-day old virgin male flies, unless mentioned otherwise were 111 recorded in LD 12:12 with ad libitum food (standard cornmeal medium) at 25°C for 2-3 days 112 following which Feeding: Starvation (FS) cycles were imposed in constant dark (DD). The 113 period of starvation lasted for either 12, 14 or 16 h depending upon the regime. Experimental 114 flies received standard cornmeal food during the 'feeding' phase of the cycle and were 115 transferred into 2% agar during the 'starvation' phase. FS cycles were imposed for 7 days 116 following which flies were shifted to DD ad libitum food (DD ad lib) conditions for the next 117 7 days. Age matched flies that were transferred into fresh food tubes at the same time as experimental flies served as disturbance controls. All transfers were conducted under far-red
light illumination (>630nm) in DD.

For the phase-shifted FS cycle experiment, 5–6-day old flies were subjected to the first FS (FS1) for 5 days after which the second FS (FS2) was imposed by either advancing or delaying the food transfers by 6 h with respect to FS1 for a period of 7 days. Acrophase (calculated using Actogram J, (Schmid et al., 2011)) was used as a phase marker to obtain the phase of the rhythm during and after FS cycles in all the regimes.

125 For T26 and T21 cycles, 5-6-day old virgin male flies were recorded in LD 12:12 with ad 126 *libitum* food (standard cornmeal medium) at 25°C for 5 days following which FS cycles were 127 imposed in constant dark. A T26 FS cycle was imposed on these flies such that the flies 128 experienced 13 h of food availability and 13 h of starvation. Similarly, a T21 FS cycle was 129 imposed where flies experienced 10.5 h of food availability and 10.5 h of starvation. Age 130 matched flies served as disturbance controls as previously described. Seven such cycles were 131 imposed following which flies were shifted to DD ad libitum food conditions for the next 7 132 days. A chi-square periodogram analysis was done (using ClockLab software, Actimetrics, 133 Wilmette, IL, USA) to determine periodicity during T26 and T21 feeding regimes as well as 134 during DD ad libitum phase. In all the assays, flies were reared under LD12:12 regime 135 before the start of the assay and all experiments were conducted at 25°C.

#### 136 Statistical analyses

Daily acrophases were compared using repeated measures ANOVA with day as the repeated measure and treatment as the between-group factor. Mauchly's test for sphericity was performed on all the data sets and Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were applied when the assumption for sphericity was not met. The above tests were performed using IBM, SPSS Statistics for windows (version 26, 2019, IBM corp., Armonk, N.Y., USA). Multiple *post*  142 *hoc* pairwise comparisons were performed using *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections. Activity 143 levels during starvation for all the FS regimes were analysed similarly on IBM, SPSS. Inter-144 individual phase synchrony between controls and experimental flies was tested by measuring 145 the degree of dispersion of mean phases averaged across last 3 days of the FS cycles. 146 Wallraff Rank sum test for angular dispersion was performed on phase values (radians) using 147 R core team (version 3.6.1, 2019, R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R 148 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL http://www.R-project.org/).  $\Delta$ 149 phase – defined as change in phase on the first day of DD ad lib from the mean acrophase 150 (last 3 days) during FS regime, was compared using one sample t-test against a reference 151 constant 0. Additionally, two sample *t*-test was used to compare  $\Delta$  phases between controls 152 and experimental flies. For T21 & T26 experiments, a Chi Square test for proportions was 153 performed using GraphPad Prism (version 9.2.0 for Windows, GraphPad software, San 154 Diego, California, USA, www.graphpad.com) to compare proportions of flies exhibiting 155 different periodicities. Change in period was tested using Mann-Whitney U test. All other 156 analyses were performed on STATISTICA (version 7, 2004, StatSoft Inc, Tulsa, OK, USA).

#### 157 **RESULTS**

158 In order to address if external food availability cycles or the Feeding: Starvation (FS) cycles 159 entrain the activity/rest rhythm of D. melanogaster, we subjected flies to three different FS 160 cycles of increasing starvation duration – namely, FS12:12 (12 h of feeding followed by 12 h 161 of starvation, Fig 1A), FS10:14 (10 h of feeding followed by 14 h of starvation, Fig 1B) and 162 FS8:16 (8 h of feeding followed by 16 h of starvation, Fig 1C). Activity/rest rhythms were 163 recorded in LD12:12 at 25°C on *ad libitum* food for 2-3 days before shifting to one of the 164 aforementioned FS regimes in constant dark (DD). In all three FS regimes, the feeding 165 duration overlapped, partly or completely with daytime in the previous LD cycles. Following 166 7-8 days of FS regime, flies were subjected to DD with ad libitum food (DD ad lib). 167 Disturbance control and experimental flies show startle bouts of activity when they are 168 moved to new tubes (Fig 1A-C, left, arrows). While these startle bouts can be attributed to 169 disturbance due to change of tubes, we expected to observe changes in the activity/rest 170 rhythm because of FS cycles over and above the disturbance caused during the assay (Fig 1). 171 For example, as expected from previous studies (Connolly, 1966), experimental flies show 172 increased activity level during starvation compared to control flies (Fig 1A-C, right). To 173 determine if FS cycles are indeed entraining the activity/rest rhythm we examined classical 174 criteria of entrainment, namely – day-to-day phase stability, inter-individual phase 175 synchrony, phase control and period matching with zeitgeber cycle ( $\tau = T$ ) (Moore-Ede et al., 176 1982). We used acrophase which is the radial centre of mass of activity (Diez-Noguera, 177 2013) as the phase marker in all the experiments.

#### 178 Day-to-day phases vary in flies subjected to FS cycles of 10:14 and 8:16

179 We tested day-to-day stability of phases to determine stable phase relationship with zeitgeber 180 cycles. To compare daily phases, we performed repeated measures ANOVA on acrophases 181 of control and experimental flies during FS treatment with day as the repeated measure and 182 treatment as a between-group fixed factor. We found that daily acrophases of flies subjected 183 to FS12:12 were similar to those of control flies on all cycles. Further, acrophases of both 184 groups on first two cycles were different from acrophases in subsequent cycles suggesting 185 phase changes due to startle responses in both control and experimental flies (Fig 2A, 186 repeated measures ANOVA, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.56$ ,  $F_{(3.34, 176.92)} = 8.93$ , main effect of 187 day, p < 0.001 followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections for 21 comparisons). 188 In FS10:14 regime, on day 1, controls show a significantly different phase compared to 189 phases on subsequent cycles 2 and 3 suggesting that day 1 phase is affected by disturbance 190 (Fig 2B, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.66$ ,  $F_{(3,98,222,99)} = 5.66$ , day  $\times$  treatment, p < 0.001, 191 followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections for 49 comparisons). However, it 192 stabilizes within a day as phases from the 2nd to the 7th cycle remain unchanged. 193 Experimental flies under FS10:14 show gradual changes in day-to-day phases. Acrophases in 194 the first two cycles of the FS regime are significantly different from the last two cycles of the 195 treatment (Fig 2B). Furthermore, we also observed that experimental flies have acrophases 196 which are significantly different from controls in the first half of the treatment (cycles 1-3) 197 whereas these acrophases start resembling acrophases of controls in the second half of the 198 treatment (cycles 4-7). This suggests that imposing FS10:14 cycles result in transient phase 199 changes which gradually disappear after a few cycles.

200 Similarly, phases of the experimental flies experiencing FS8:16, also change gradually across 201 days with acrophases on the first and second cycles being significantly different from 202 acrophase on last day of the treatment (8th cycle, Fig 2C, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.74$ , F<sub>(5.16</sub>, 203  $_{237,45}$  = 5.26, day × treatment, p < 0.001, followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni 204 corrections for 64 comparisons). On the other hand, control flies do not show any phase 205 changes across all cycles. Additionally, similar to FS10:14, acrophases of FS8:16 flies are 206 significantly different from controls from the beginning of the treatment (cycles 2-4) but start 207 resembling acrophases of the controls towards the end of the treatment (cycles 5-8).

208 Controls in all the regimes are affected by disturbance on the first day of FS cycle after which 209 they show phase stability. On the other hand, phases of experimental flies are affected on the 210 first few FS cycles which take longer to attain phases similar to the controls. Given that the 211 internal period is not too different from 24 h (Table 1), it is difficult to ascertain whether this 212 day-to-day phase stability in the latter half of FS treatment is due to free-running, masking or 213 entrainment. Hence, we used other measures to differentiate between these possibilities.

#### 214 Feeding: Starvation cycles do not increase inter-individual phase synchrony

215 An entrained rhythm is phase-locked to the zeitgeber cycle, and this phase relationship is 216 stable across multiple cycles and reproducible across individuals. This implies that in an 217 entrained condition, individual flies will exhibit similar phases resulting in higher inter-218 individual synchrony. Here we examined the extent of phase dispersion within control and 219 experimental fly groups during FS regimes. If FS cycles were entraining the activity/rest 220 rhythm we would expect a smaller dispersion with greater consolidation of phases under 221 entrained conditions. We find that the degree of dispersion of acrophases of flies in each of 222 the experimental regimes of FS12:12 (Fig 3A, Wallraff rank sum test for angular dispersion, 223 Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square = 2.32, df = 1, p = 0.13), FS10:14 (Fig 3C, Kruskal-Wallis Chi 224 Square = 0.007, df = 1, p = 0.93) and FS8:16 (Fig 3E, Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square = 1.31, df =225 1, p = 0.25) was not statistically different from their respective disturbance controls 226 suggesting that FS cycles are not efficient in synchronizing the phases of experimental flies.

227 Additionally, we asked whether abrupt shifts in food availability schedules may reveal any 228 features that were not previously detectable. Two jetlag FS12:12 experiments were 229 conducted, where the second set of FS cycles (FS2) were either phase delayed (Supp Fig 1A) 230 or advanced (Supp Fig 1B) with respect to previous FS cycle (FS1). Similar to the previous 231 FS12:12 (Fig 1), the activity rhythm of the experimental flies during FS1 and FS2 was 232 similarly phased as their disturbance controls (Supp Fig 1). The degree of phase dispersion 233 during the first FS cycle and second FS cycle was also not different in experimental flies as 234 compared to their controls in both phase delay (Fig 4A, FS1- Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square = 235 0.9, df = 1, p = 0.77, FS2- Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square = 1.67, df = 1, p = 0.2) and advance 236 conditions (Fig 4B, FS1- Kruskal-Wallis Chi Square = 0.88, df = 1, p = 0.35, FS2- Kruskal-237 Wallis Chi Square = 1.33, df = 1, p = 0.25). These results suggest that FS cycles fail to 238 increase inter-individual synchrony of activity rhythms.

## 239 Feeding: Starvation cycles of different starvation durations do not exert phase control on 240 activity/rest rhythm

241 To test if the phase in constant conditions follows from the previously entrained phase (phase 242 control), the change in acrophase ( $\Delta$  phase) was quantified by subtracting acrophase on the 243 first day of DD ad lib from the mean acrophase (last 3 days) during FS regime. In case of 244 phase control, the expectation is that  $\Delta$  phase will not be significantly different from zero. 245 We found that the  $\Delta$  phase was significantly different from zero in both the controls as well 246 as FS12:12 flies suggesting that the disturbance itself brings about some change in phase in 247 both the groups (Fig 3B, left, experimental  $t_{(27)} = 5.73$ , p < 0.001, One sample *t*-test against 248 reference constant 0 and control  $t_{(26)} = 2.76$ , p = 0.01). However,  $\Delta$  phase in the experimental 249 flies is significantly higher than the controls implying that the FS cycles fail to exert phase 250 control (Fig 3B, left  $t_{(53)} = 2.45$ , p = 0.018, Two sample *t*-test). Additionally, when two 251 FS12:12 cycles were imposed consecutively (FS1 & FS2), either phase delayed (Fig 4C, 252 Supp Fig 1A) or phase advanced (Fig 4D, Supp Fig 1B) with respect to one another, the 253 phase of the activity/rest rhythm continued to follow from the previous entrained phase in 254 LD12:12 irrespective of FS2 suggesting lack of phase control (Fig 4C, D, Supp Fig 1) even in 255 these regimes. Here again,  $\Delta$  phase was significantly different from zero in experimental 256 flies experiencing phase shifted FS cycles suggesting lack of phase control (Fig 4C,  $t_{(29)}$  = 257 3.37, p = 0.002, One sample t-test against reference constant 0 and Fig 4D,  $t_{(27)} = 3.29$ , p =258 0.0028, One sample *t*-test against reference constant 0) as well as controls in the phase delay 259 regime suggesting some disturbance related effects (Fig 4C,  $t_{(27)} = 2.88$ , p = 0.007, One 260 sample t-test against reference constant 0). Even though control flies of FS12:12 show  $\Delta$ 261 phase value which is significantly different from zero, we found that the PERIOD (PER) 262 accumulation rhythm in the ventrolateral neurons (LNv) neurons of individual fly brains does not undergo any change because of disturbance alone (*data not shown*) suggesting that
disturbance does not affect the central clock.

265 When the duration of starvation was increased to 14 h in FS10:14, or to 16 h in FS8:16,  $\Delta$ 266 phase was significantly different from zero in the experimental flies but not in controls (Fig 267 3D, left,  $t_{(28)} = 4.14$ , p = 0.0002, One sample *t*-test against reference constant 0 and Fig 3F, 268 left  $t_{(22)} = 3.6$ , p = 0.0015, One sample *t*-test against reference constant 0). This suggests that 269 lack of phase control persists in experimental flies despite increasing starvation. In addition, 270  $\Delta$  phase of experimental flies experiencing FS10:14 and FS8:16 was significantly higher than 271 the controls (Fig 3D, left,  $t_{(56)} = 3.34$ , p = 0.0015, Two sample *t*-test and Fig 3F, left,  $t_{(46)} =$ 272 2.035, p = 0.0475, Two sample t-test). In FS10:14 the mean phase during the treatment is marginally different between the control and experimental flies (Fig 3D, right,  $t_{(56)} = 2.0007$ , 273 274 p = 0.0502, Two sample *t*-test). The change in mean phase during FS can be attributed to 275 acrophases affected by starvation induced hyperactivity (SIH, Fig 1B, right).

276 In all the FS regimes tested, we found that  $\Delta$  phase was different from zero in all 277 experimental flies (and also in FS12:12 controls). This suggests that the stable phase attained 278 during the last three FS cycles changed quickly on the first day of DD ad lib, which is 279 characteristic of masking. SIH was observed on all days among experimental flies which 280 may influence acrophases resulting in masking (Fig 1, right, Supp Fig 3). Previously we had 281 seen that FS regime induces some phase changes that gradually return to phase values similar 282 to controls during the latter half of the regime which may reflect free running phases in flies 283 experiencing FS. This suggests that phases during the FS cycles were possibly intermediary 284 between the internal clock and masking components. Overall, lack of phase control and 285 lower inter-individual synchrony suggests that FS cycles may not bring about stable 286 entrainment in activity/rest rhythms in Drosophila melanogaster.

287 Since female flies feed more compared to males (Wong et al., 2009), we asked if FS cycles 288 can entrain activity/rest rhythm in female flies. We found similar results when female flies 289 were subjected to FS8:16 wherein most flies showed excessive activity in the starvation 290 window (Supp Fig 2A). Average phase was significantly different from the controls during 291 FS8:16 which immediately reverted to pre-FS phase after the FS treatment (DD ad lib) (Supp 292 Fig 2B, repeated measures ANOVA with day as the repeated measure and treatment as 293 between-group fixed factor was performed (main effect of treatment  $F_{(1, 47)} = 27.51$ , p < 100294 0.001); C-centre  $t_{(47)} = 2.66$ , p = 0.0105, Two sample *t*-test). Additionally, we found that 295 there was no phase control - as  $\Delta$  phase was significantly different from zero (Supp Fig 2C, 296 left,  $t_{(24)} = 4.96$ , p < 0.001, One sample t-test against reference constant 0) nor was there 297 inter-individual synchrony (Supp Fig 2C-right, Wallraff rank sum test for angular dispersion). 298 Altogether, these results indicate that activity rhythms of both males and females do not 299 entrain to FS cycles.

#### 300 Starvation Induced hyperactivity is not sustained across FS cycles

301 Starvation has been shown to result in excess activity levels which fall to the baseline levels after food has been provided (Connolly, 1966); (Yang et al., 2015). Interestingly, we 302 303 observed that cyclic food availability for several cycles does not result in consistent 304 hyperactivity across all cycles. Flies that experienced 12 h of starvation per day for 7 305 consecutive days, showed activity levels comparable to the controls in the 12 h starvation 306 window each day. However, activity levels on the first two days were higher as compared to 307 other days (Supp Fig 3A, repeated measures ANOVA, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.44$ , F<sub>(2.67, 10)</sub> 308  $_{149,31} = 28.39$ , main effect of day, p < 0.001, followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni 309 corrections for 21 comparisons). When flies were subjected to FS10:14, they showed an 310 immediate increase in activity in response to lack of food (Fig 1B right, Supp Fig 3B). The 311 activity levels were higher than the controls in the first 3 cycles of the treatment, after which 312 they were comparable to the controls (Supp Fig 3B, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.52$ , F<sub>(3.13, 175,32)</sub> 313 = 3.72, day  $\times$  treatment, p = 0.012, followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections 314 for 49 comparisons). Interestingly, we found two types of behaviours among individuals 315 when subjected to 16 h of starvation, 33.3% flies (7/23) showed excessive activity during 316 starvation hours throughout the 8 days of FS 8:16 (type a flies, Fig 1C; centre) and 60.9 % 317 flies, (14/23) appeared to show excessive activity during starvation only for the first few days 318 after which the activity seemed to decrease (type b flies, Fig 1C; right). Day-to-day activity 319 levels of FS8:16 flies (Supp Fig 3C, Greenhouse-Geisser  $\varepsilon = 0.29$ ,  $F_{(2.05, 108.54)} = 6.99$ , day × 320 treatment, p = 0.001, followed by pair-wise *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections for 64 321 comparisons) showed reduction in activity levels after 6 days (Fig 1C right, Supp 3C). This 322 shows that phases during FS are masked as a result of hyperactivity occurring in response to 323 starvation.

## T26 and T21 Feeding: Starvation cycles do not synchronize the activity/rest rhythm of Drosophila melanogaster

326 We then assessed the third criterion for entrainment, i.e., period matching between 327 activity/rest rhythm ( $\tau$ ) and external FS cycles (T). In the previous experiments given that T 328 was 24 h, and  $\tau$  was also close to 24 h (Table 1) it was not possible to test this criterion using 329 data from FS12:12, 10:14 and 8:16 experiments. We therefore imposed FS cycles whose 330 periods were not 24 h, but also not very deviant from 24 h to account for a possibility of a 331 food entrainable oscillator if present, having narrow limits of entrainment. We imposed 332 either a 26 h or a 21 h FS regime and asked if this could result in period matching of the 333 activity/rest rhythm to external FS cycles. We subjected the flies to T26 FS cycles wherein 334 the flies were provided food for 13 hours and were starved for 13 hours (Fig 5A) in an 335 otherwise aperiodic environment (DD, 25°C). A large majority (Fig 5B) of the experimental 336 flies appear to free run with a phase similar to the previous entrained phase in LD12:12 337 despite being subjected to T26 FS regime. However, they also exhibited a masked 338 component to the disturbance caused due to change of tubes (Fig 5A, green dashed line). A 339 Chi square periodogram analysis during T26 FS revealed 2 significant periodicities; one that 340 was close to 24 h (henceforth referred to as free running component) and another that was 341 close to 26 h (Table 2, Fig 5B). Since both control and experimental flies exhibit this long 342 period (~26 h) component, the same can be attributed to the physical disturbance experienced 343 by both the controls and experimental flies (henceforth referred to as the masking 344 component). Presence of two significant periodicities in a large proportion of experimental 345 flies similar to control flies suggests that a T26 FS regime is unable to synchronise activity 346 (Fig 5B, Chi-square test for proportions shows no difference in the two groups (p = 0.18, Chi-347 square = 3.22, df = 2). We estimated the difference in free running component (~24h period) during FS ( $^{24}\tau_1$ , T26 FS) and after FS ( $^{24}\tau_2$ , DD *ad lib*) for each fly. Interestingly, we found 348 349 that experimental flies exhibited approximately 23 minutes longer period during T26 FS 350 regime. This difference was significantly greater than the controls suggesting that T26 FS 351 indeed significantly lengthens the internal period of the flies, albeit to a small degree (Fig 5C, 352 U = 2388, p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U test, Table 2).

353 Like the T26 regime, we also subjected the flies to a T21 regime with 10.5 h of food 354 availability followed by 10.5 h of starvation in DD 25°C. We found similar results wherein 355 the experimental flies continued to free run from the previously entrained LD phase along 356 with a masked response to the external food availability cycles (Fig 6A, green dashed line). 357 Akin to T26, we found flies exhibiting 2 periodicities, a near 24 h component (free running 358 component) and a near 21 h component (masked component) as estimated by Chi square 359 periodogram (Fig 6B). A higher proportion of T21 FS flies show only 21 h periodicity as 360 compared to controls, (Chi-square test for proportions shows a significant difference p < p 361 0.001, Chi-square = 15.37, df = 2) yet majority of the experimental flies still show both 21h 362 and 24h periodicities. This further provided evidence for inability of the external T21 FS 363 cycle to synchronize the activity/rest rhythm because of incomplete period matching. 364 Moreover, like the T26 regime, T21 regime also affects the intrinsic period during the treatment. We estimated the difference in free running period during FS ( $^{24}\tau_1$ , T21 FS) and 365 after FS ( $^{24}\tau_2$ , DD *ad lib*) for each fly and we found that experimental flies exhibited 366 367 approximately 24 minutes shorter period during T21 FS regime. This difference was 368 significantly lower than the controls suggesting that T21 FS significantly shortens the 369 intrinsic period of the experimental flies (Fig 6C, U = 2389, p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U test, 370 Table 3). Overall, inability to match the intrinsic period to T cycles suggests that FS cycles 371 are inefficient in synchronizing the activity/rest rhythm. Thus, another criterion for 372 entrainment (period matching:  $\Box$ =T) is not met under conditions where food availability is 373 cyclic. These results taken together, suggest that FS cycles do not entrain the activity/rest 374 rhythms controlled by the central clock in *D. melanogaster*.

#### 375 **DISCUSSION**

376 We examined if cyclic food availability can act as an entraining cue for the clock in fruit fly 377 Drosophila melanogaster. We assessed three criteria for entrainment - day-to-day phase 378 stability, phase control and period matching. We found that subjecting flies to FS cycles of 379 different durations of starvation does not result in inter-individual synchrony and phase 380 control. These results build on the findings of a previous study in which subjecting flies to 381 FS12:12 cycle with feeding restricted to night time did not affect activity/rest pattern (Oishi 382 et al., 2004). However, in each of the T24 cycles, we found that day 1 of the treatment had a 383 dramatic effect on phase which persisted for 3-4 cycles in FS10:14 and FS8:16. Furthermore, 384 T26 and T21 FS cycles could bring about a significant lengthening and shortening of period 385 while only partially synchronizing the activity/rest rhythm to the external periodicity. These results suggest that while food cannot act as an entraining agent, it affects the clock properties such as phase and period. This indicates that the clock is perceptive food availability in the environment and can respond by making small changes to clock properties without changing the overall pattern of activity/rest.

390 Drosophila larvae are known to feed voraciously until they acquire critical weight before 391 pupation; as adults however, feeding is meager. Nevertheless, when deprived of food, flies 392 are known to respond by increasing their locomotor activity (Knoppien et al., 2000); (Keene 393 et al., 2010) which has been attributed to foraging behaviour in flies (Yang et al., 2015). 394 Indeed, in all our experiments we observed SIH in both male and female flies. Since 395 hyperactivity is a direct and immediate response to starvation, it can be considered as 396 masking. In FS10:14 and FS8:16 regimes we found that SIH decreased over subsequent 397 cycles. This masking to lack of food is also reflected in the phase changes observed during 398 FS cycles. We observed that day-to-day phase changes indeed mirror the activity levels that 399 were also higher than baseline during the first few cycles and tapered to baseline in the 400 subsequent cycles. Since acrophase is a phase marker that depicts the radial centre of mass of 401 activity, SIH may influence the day-to-day phases. This influence of cyclic starvation 402 disappeared after release into constant conditions with *ad lib* food. This was evident from the 403 fact that the  $\Delta$  phase values were found to be significantly different from zero in all three T24 404 FS paradigms tested. Therefore, while food availability is unable to entrain the activity/rest 405 rhythm, masking to starvation may bring about some changes which indirectly affects the 406 phase of the clock. This is of significance to organisms that often encounter unpredictability 407 in food availability in their environment. Masking to changes in food availability becomes 408 more relevant for female flies who in addition to their own survival, also need food patches 409 for laying eggs. In fact, when female flies were subjected to FS8:16 regime, most flies show 410 excessive activity throughout the period of starvation (Supp fig 4) in contrast with male flies

that displayed reduction in SIH midway into the treatment (Fig 1C, c'). Average acrophase during the FS treatment changes in female flies but they immediately revert to a value similar to pre-FS cycle when shifted to constant conditions. However, despite SIH and its influence on the acrophases, the activity/ rest rhythm continues to free run during the FS cycles. This suggests that in females like in males, masking and free-running components together regulate day-to-day phases.

417 If flies were consistently masking to lack of food by increasing their activity levels, we would 418 expect a higher synchrony in inter-individual phases. However, we found that the inter-419 individual synchrony was lacking both in males as well as female flies irrespective of short or 420 prolonged hyperactivity response. Moreover, this increased activity was not only variable 421 across days but also variable across individuals. Therefore, unlike typically masked 422 responses which consists of consistent all-or-none responses, in our paradigm we observed a 423 graded response to lack of food. This graded response may in part explain why inter-424 individual synchrony is absent despite occurrence of masking.

425 Food availability has been shown to affect activity patterns of many insects. Solitary bee 426 species such as carpenter bees and orchid bees show foraging behaviour which is partially 427 regulated by circadian clocks (Bloch et al., 2017). Social honey bees *Apis mellifera* entrain to 428 food availability in their environment (Frisch and Aschoff, 1987) underlining the importance 429 of circadian clocks in anticipating availability of food. Blood mealtimes are carefully phased 430 to host availability in various hematophagous species such as bed bugs, kissing bugs and 431 mosquitoes. For example, bed bug *Cimex lectularius* are active during dawn, a time when the 432 humidity is relatively high and hosts are resting (Barrozo et al., 2004). Similarly, kissing bug 433 Triatoma infestans, the vector for Chagas disease shows peak locomotion, feeding, and 434 carbon-dioxide sensitivity in the early night presumably when hosts are inactive (Barrozo et 435 al., 2004). Flight activity and feeding/biting patterns in mosquitoes are influenced by many 436 environmental factors apart from the internal clock mechanisms (Barrozo et al., 2004). 437 However, these feeding patterns have been shown to change in nocturnal Anopheles spp from 438 peak feeding occurring during the nighttime to a relatively earlier phase due to change in host 439 availability as a result of interventions to prevent spread of malaria in some African countries 440 (Reddy et al., 2011); (Gatton et al., 2013); (Sougoufara et al., 2017). Such flexible patterns 441 are also observed in *Culex pipiens* when blood meals were restricted to a daytime window 442 (Fritz et al., 2014). Ground beetle Feronia madida, have also been previously shown to 443 change their nocturnal activity patterns to diurnal activity patterns under starved conditions (Williams, 1959); (Beck, 1980). Cockroach Periplaneta americana that have nocturnal 444 445 activity and feeding show masking response to food availability when food is restricted to 446 daytime, however, the activity is still higher during the night suggesting little change to 447 overall activity/rest pattern (Beck, 1980). Therefore, non-alignment of food availability to an 448 active state of the organism can influence the activity patterns and possibly the underlying 449 clock. Additionally, mice gauge the food reward to predation risk ratio and accordingly 450 change their temporal niche depending upon the environmental conditions (van der Vinne et 451 al., 2019). Thus, activity patterns may change from nocturnal to diurnal in response to 452 change in food availability and predation pressure. We sought to ask if similar pressure in 453 the form of restricted food access to a certain time of day can bring about a change in 454 activity/rest of *Drosophila melanogaster*. We found that while the clock does not entrain to 455 the food availability cycle it perceives these changes in food availability and accommodates 456 them by adjusting its clock properties. This means that even though the activity may free run 457 during the FS cycles, it free runs with a different phase. Different extent of clock responses 458 to food could be because of difference in amount of food required for sustenance and/or 459 difference in natural history and ecology of these species.

460 In mammals, anticipatory response to food availability suggests that circadian clocks are 461 directly responsive to food availability. While the identity of such a clock (FEO) remains 462 elusive to date, it is clear that FEO controls food anticipatory activity (Mistlberger, 1994); 463 (Stephan, 2002). In *Drosophila*, response to restricted food access is masked, which suggests 464 a homeostatic control. Our study demonstrates that this masked response in the form of SIH, 465 indirectly affects the activity-controlling central clock. The physiological basis for this 466 interaction between the homeostatic components and clock components nevertheless has not 467 been studied so far. Future studies directed at understanding this interaction between clocks 468 and a food homeostat will help to understand how food availability in the environment can 469 shape the activity/rest patterns in animals.

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## 477 Data availability statement: The data that support the findings of this study are available from 478 the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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## Figure 1: Flies subjected to FS cycles display a combination of free running and masking behaviour.

618 Representative double plotted actograms of (left) age matched disturbance controls and flies 619 subjected to FS cycles; (A) FS12:12, (B) FS10:14, (C) FS8:16 and (right) average profiles of 620 activity binned in 15 min intervals (top) before and (bottom) during FS cycles, (A) FS12:12, 621 (B) FS10:14, (C) FS8:16. Error bars for activity profiles are  $\pm$  standard error of the mean 622 (SEM). Yellow shaded region represents daytime and grey shaded region represents night-623 time with *ad libitum* food. Pink shaded region represents starvation. In every regime, 624 disturbance caused due to transfer of flies in fresh tubes results in small bursts in activity, 625 arrows indicate the startle bouts. In FS 8:16, (c') a small fraction of flies (7/23) shows 626 gradual reduction in activity (arrowhead) during the starvation window across days of the 627 treatment; (c'') another fraction of flies (14/23) displays elevated activity levels across all 628 days of the treatment. x-axis indicates external time.

629

#### 630 Figure 2: Acrophases change across days in flies experiencing FS10:14 & FS8:16

Mean acrophases  $\pm$  SEM of controls (black line) and FS flies (blue line) across days under LD 12:12, FS treatment and DD *ad lib*, (**A**) FS12:12, (**B**) FS10:14 and (**C**) FS 8:16. Error bars are standard error of the mean. Experimental flies and their controls show phase change on day 1 of the regime. Controls revert to previous phase immediately while experimental flies gradually return to phases similar to controls. Letters denote significant differences (p < 0.05) between controls and FS flies. \*, \*\*, \*\*\* denote significant differences across days with *p* < 0.05, 0.01, 0.001 respectively.

### <sup>638</sup> Figure 3: FS cycles are inefficient in exerting phase control and do not result in greater

### <sup>639</sup> phase synchrony among flies

640 (A) Polar plots depicting average acrophases of individuals for the last 3 days duringFS12:12. 641 black circles indicate phases of control flies and red circles indicate phases of experimental 642 flies. Zero degrees in each polar plot was set to ZT18 of the previous LD cycles. (B-Left) 643 Scatter plots depicting showing differences in acrophases ( $\Delta$  phase) of individual control 644 (black) and experimental (red) flies; horizontal line represents the mean  $\Delta$  phase. Horizontal 645 dotted lines at 0 indicates no change in phase. (B- Right) Bar graph depicts mean acrophase 646  $\pm$  SEM (h) of disturbance controls (black) and experimental (red) flies on the last 3 days. 647 Degree of phase dispersion, phase change and mean phase in (C, D) FS10:14 and (E, F) 648 FS8:16 respectively, all other details same as (A & B). \*,\*\* indicate p < 0.05, 0.01649 respectively.

650

## Figure 4: Phase shifted FS cycles do not reveal any difference in inter-individual phase synchrony

653 (A) Polar plots depicting averaged phases for the last 3 days of individual flies during 654 FS12:12. (Left) black circles indicate phases of control flies and (right) red circles indicate 655 the phase of flies subjected to the first FS12:12 (FS1). (Bottom) Polar plots depicting 656 average phases (last 3 days) of (left) control and (right) experimental individuals during FS2, 657 which was phase *delayed* by 6 hours compared to FS1. The degree of dispersion of 658 acrophases in disturbance controls and experimental flies was not significantly different 659 during FS1 and FS2. (B) Polar plots depicting averaged phases for the last 3 days of 660 individual flies during the first FS12:12 regime (FS1). Polar plots depicting average phases 661 (last 3 days) of control and experimental individuals during FS2, which was phase *advanced* 662 by 6 hours compared to FS1. The degree of dispersion of acrophases in disturbance controls

and experimental flies was not significantly different during FS1 and FS2. Scatter plots showing  $\Delta$  phase for individual control (black) and experimental (red) flies when phase on the first day in DD *ad libitum* was subtracted from averaged phase in the last 3 days of (**C**) phase delayed and (**D**) advanced FS2 cycles \*,\*\* indicate *p* < 0.05, 0.01 respectively. Other details as in Figure 3.

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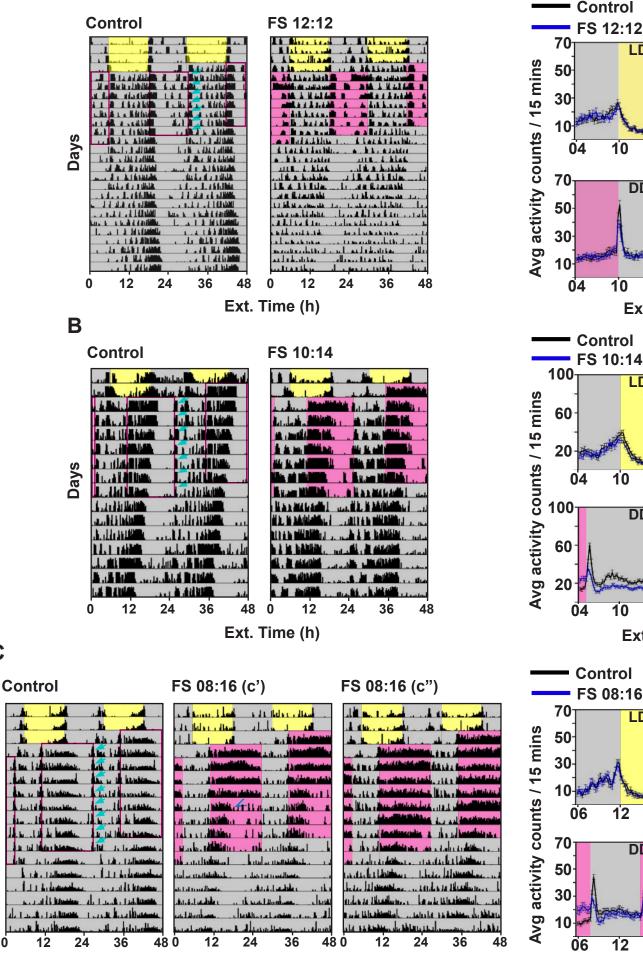
#### **Figure 5: FS T26 cycles do not entrain the locomotor activity/rest rhythm.**

670 (A) Representative actograms of (left) control and (right) experimental flies recorded under 671 LD12:12 conditions for the first 4 days before being subjected to T26 FS cycles in DD 672 conditions. Pink shaded region represents 13 hours of starvation on each day. T26 FS cycles 673 continued for 7 days followed by DD ad libitum conditions. Both the control and the 674 experimental flies show masked responses to the T26 regime along with a free running component of activity  $({}^{24}\tau_1)$  that seems to follow the phase from the LD12:12 cycle. Dashed 675 676 line tracks the startle activity due to food changes (green) and dotted line tracks activity 677 offset phase after LD 12:12 (red). (B) Proportion of flies showing two different periodicities 678 (26 h and 24 h), only 26 h or only 24 h periodicity or arrhythmicity during T26 FS are 679 indicated. A major proportion of both control and experimental flies show dual periodicities. 680 (C) Distribution of changes in the  $\sim 24$  h periodicity during the T26 regime for controls and experimental flies. Differences were calculated by subtracting periods after T26 FS ( $^{24}\tau_2$ ) 681 from the periods during T26 FS ( $^{24}\tau_1$ ). T26 FS flies have a longer free-running component 682 683 (~24 h) during T26. NS denotes no difference between controls and T26 FS flies. \*\*\* 684 denotes p < 0.001.

## Figure 6: T21 cycles do not entrain the locomotor activity/rest rhythm in D. *melanogaster*

688 (A) Representative actograms of (left) control and (right) experimental flies recorded in LD 689 12:12 conditions for the first 4 days before being subjected to T21 FS cycles in DD. Pink 690 shaded region represents 10.5 hours of starvation on each day. T21 FS cycles continued for 7 691 days followed by DD ad libitum conditions. Both the control and the experimental flies show masked responses to the T21 regime along with a free running component of activity  $({}^{24}\tau_1)$ 692 693 that seems to follow the phase from the LD12:12 cycle. (B) Proportion of flies showing two 694 different periodicities (21 h and 24 h), only 21 h or only 24 h periodicity or arrhythmicity 695 during T21 FS are indicated. A major proportion of both control and experimental flies show 696 dual periodicities. A higher proportion of T21 FS flies show only 21 h periodicity. (C) 697 Distribution of changes in the  $\sim 24$  h period during the T21 regime for (left) controls and 698 (right) experimental flies. Differences were calculated by subtracting periods after T21 FS 699  $({}^{24}\tau_2)$  from the periods during T21 FS  $({}^{24}\tau_1)$ . T21 FS flies have a shorter free-running (~24 h) 700 component during T21. \*\*\* denotes p < 0.001. All other details as in Figure 5.

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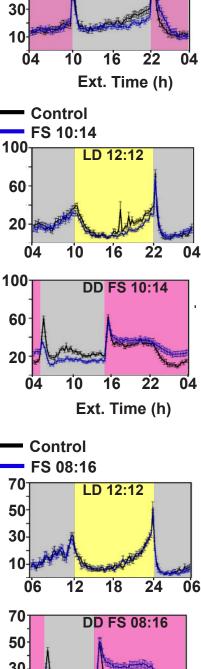


С

Days

0

Ext. Time (h)



24

06

12

18

Ext. Time

LD 12:12

16

DD FS 12:12

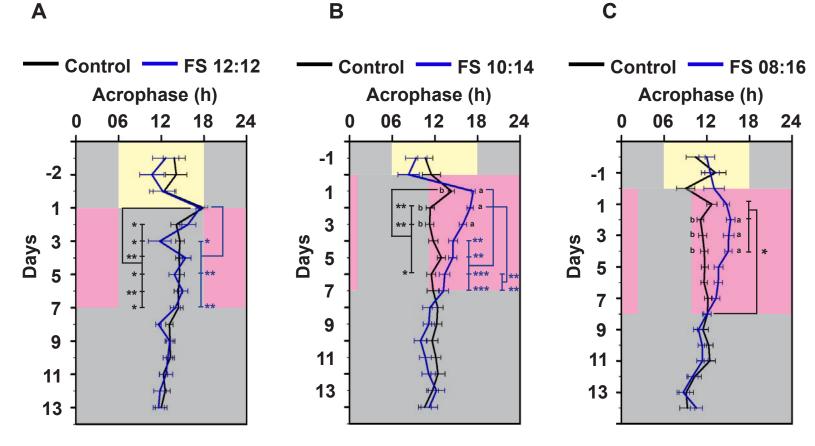
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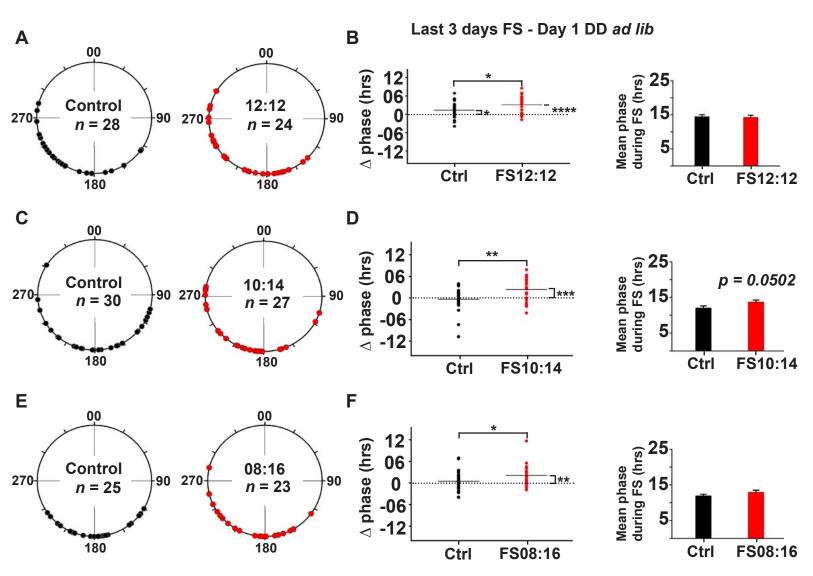
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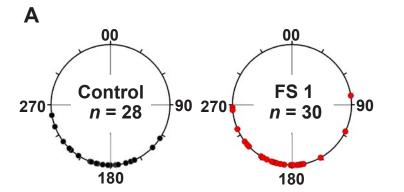
**Males** 

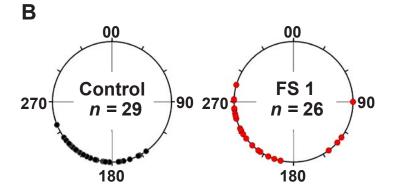


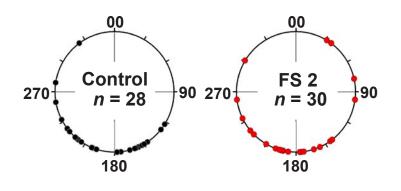
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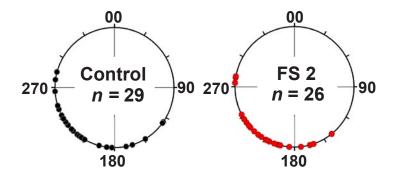
Phase Delay

**Phase Advance** 

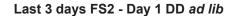








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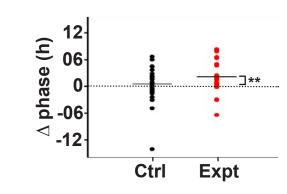
 $\Delta$  phase (h)

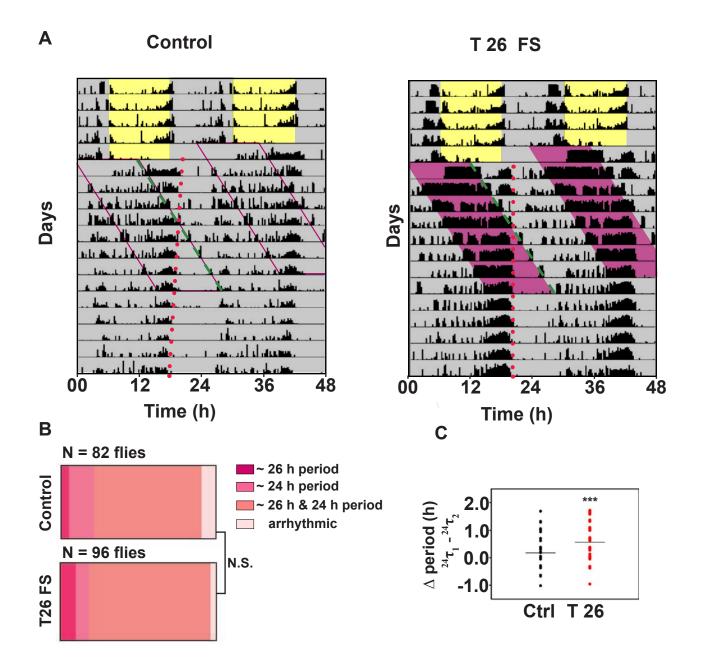


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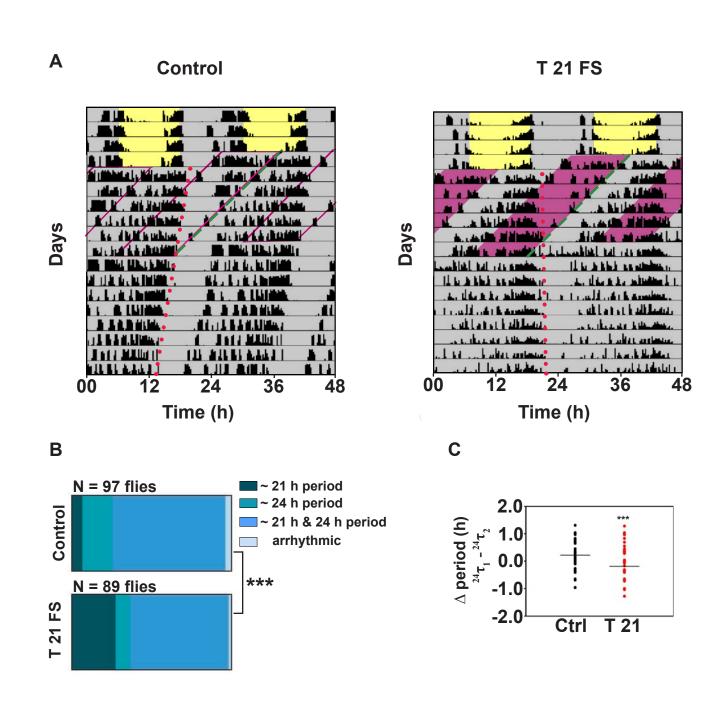
Expt

Last 3 days FS2 - Day 1 DD ad lib





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## **Supplementary online material**

Effects of food availability cycles on phase and period of activity/rest rhythm in

Drosophila melanogaster

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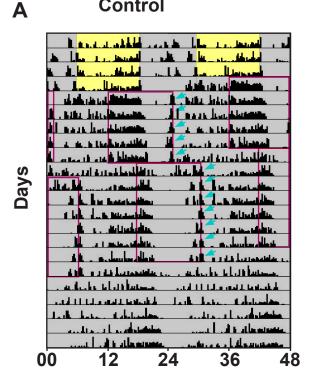
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## 6 hour phase delayed cycles

### Control



### 6 hour phase advanced cycles

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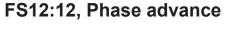
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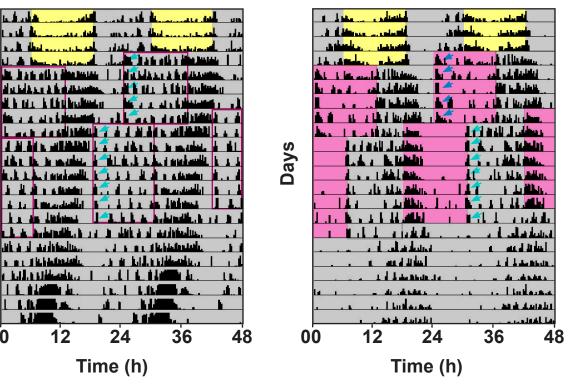
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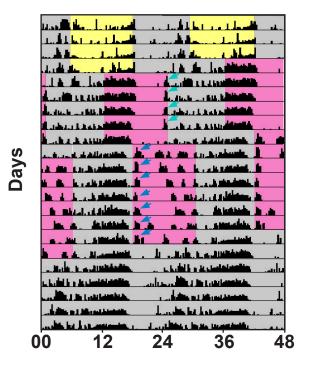
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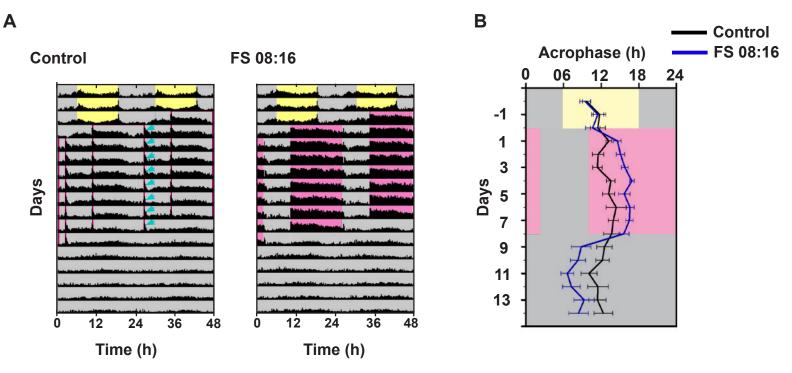




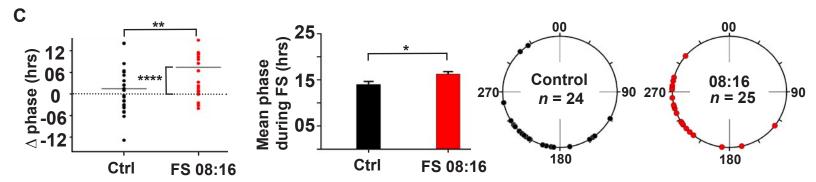
FS12:12, Phase delay

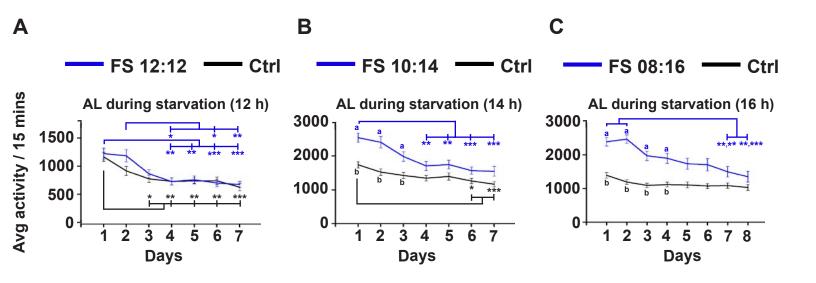






Last 3 days FS - Day 1 DD ad lib





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#### **1 Figure legends:**

# Supplementary Figure 1: Phase delayed and phase advanced FS cycles do not synchronize the locomotor activity/rest rhythm in *D. melanogaster*

4 (A) Representative double plotted actograms of age matched disturbance control flies (left) 5 and flies subjected to two consecutiveFS12:12 cycles phase delayed to one another (right). Flies were housed in LD12:12 and later subjected to FS12:12 (pink shaded region depicts 6 starvation hours) for 5 cycles. Starvation period (FS1) began 6 hours phase delayed with 7 8 respect to the LD12:12 such that the LD and the FS regime were not in-sync with each other. 9 FS1 cycles were further delayed by another 6 hours after the first 5 days, and this continued for another 7 days (FS2). Flies were subsequently released into constant conditions with ad 10 *libitum* food (DD, 25°C). Arrows indicate the startle bouts. (B) Representative double 11 plotted actograms of age matched disturbance control flies (left) and flies subjected to two 12 consecutiveFS12:12 cycles phase advanced to one another (right). Flies were subjected to 13 14 FS12:12 for 5 cycles in DD. FS1 was 6 hours phase advanced compared to the initial 15 LD12:12 regime. FS1 was followed by FS2 which was further advanced by 6 hours 16 compared to FS1. All other details are same as (A). Experimental flies fail to synchronise to FS1 and FS2 in both phase delay and phase advance experiments and continue to display a 17 phase from the previous LD cycle. 18

19

#### 20 Supplementary Figure 2: Female flies do not get entrained to FS8:16 cycles

(A) Double plotted batch actograms of (left) age matched disturbance control flies and
(right) female flies subjected to FS8:16 regime. Flies show a prolonged activity bout on all
cycles of the treatment. (B) Mean acrophases ± SEM of controls (black line) and FS flies

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(blue line) across days of LD 12:12, FS8:16 treatment and DD ad lib. Experimental flies 24 show phase change during the regime. Phases revert to previous values immediately after 25 DD ad lib. (C) (Left) scatter plots showing  $\Delta$  phases of individual control (black) and 26 experimental (red) flies, \*, \*\* indicate p < 0.05, 0.01 respectively. (Centre) Bar graph 27 depicts mean acrophase (h)  $\pm$  SEM during FS8:16 of disturbance controls (black) and 28 experimental (red) flies in the last 3 days. (**Right**) polar plots depicting average acrophases 29 30 for the last 3 days of individual flies during FS 8:16. (left) black circles indicate phases of control flies and (right) red circles indicate the phase of experimental female flies that were 31 32 subjected to FS8:16 regime. All other details as in Figure 1 & 3.

33

## Supplementary Figure 3: FS12:12, 10:14, 08:16 cycles do not result in sustained starvation-induced hyperactivity throughout the period of FS regime

36 Activity levels during starvation period of each day  $\pm$  SEM during (A) FS12:12, (B) FS10:14,

37 (C) FS8:16. Starvation induced hyper-activity in the experimental flies progressively reduces

during the latter half of the 10:14, 8:16 FS cycles. Letters denote significant differences (p

<0.05) between controls and FS flies. \*, \*\*, \*\*\* denote p < 0.05, 0.01, 0.001 respectively.

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### Table:1 Period and amplitude values of control and experimental flies during and after

#### FS 12:12, FS 10:14 and FS 8:16 cycles

MALES								
Regime	Period		Power		n		% Rhyt	hmicity
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.
During FS 12:12 1	23.8 ± 0.05	23.7 ± 0.05	167.07 ± 6.9	166.48 ± 5.7	29	32	100	100
During FS 12:12 2 (phase delayed)	24.02 ± 0.04	23.99 ± 0.02	203.7 ± 8.4	190.04 ± 7.2	29	32	100	100
DD ad lib after FS 12:12	23.83 ± 0.07	23.72 ± 0.07	170.8 ± 12.6	156.5 ± 12.2	28	30	96.43	96.67
Regime	Period		Power		n		% Rhyt	hmicity
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.
During FS 10:14	23.91 ± 0.04	23.84 ± 0.06	205.3 ± 6.6	229.7 ± 8.8	30	28	100	100
DD ad lib after FS 10:14	23.67 ± 0.04	23.62 ± 0.08	210.38 ± 14.4	237.94 ± 16.1	30	27	87.09	88.89

Regime	Period		Power	n		% Rhythmicity		
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.
During FS 08:16	23.97 ± 0.02	23.95 ± 0.02	249.9 ± 9.43	243.85 ± 10.1	32	23	100	100
DD ad lib after FS 08:16	23.76 ± 0.09	23.70 ± 0.08	120.11 ± 6.6	122.31 ± 6.6	32	23	87.5	95.65

#### FEMALES

Regime	Period		Pov	n		% Rhythmicity		
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.
During FS 12:12 1	23.8 ± 0.07	23.99 ± 0.14	131.04 ± 5.28	126.49 ± 4.9	28	29	85.71	93.1
During FS 12:12 2 (phase delayed)	23.89 ± 0.26	24.46 ± 0.41	155.65 ± 10.52	140.87 ± 7.19	26	27	73.08	81.5
DD ad lib after FS 12:12	23.96 ± 0.11	23.6 ± 0.16	125.75 ± 11.3	103.5 ± 8.52	23	25	52.2	26.09*

Regime	Period		Power	n		% Rhythmicity		
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control Expt.		Control	Expt.
During FS 10:14	24 ± 0.02	23.92 ± 0.05	164.8 ± 7.3	179.2 ± 9.8	25	25	100	100
DD ad lib after FS 10:14	23.6 ±0.15	23.4 ±0.54	169.18± 13.23	152.8 ±10.93	20	25	60	40

Regime	Period		Power	n		% Rhythmicity		
	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.	Control	Expt.
During FS 08:16	24.15 ± 0.1	24.3 ± 0.24	160.5 ± 9.07	215.77 ±13.1	24	25	95.83	96
DD ad lib after FS 08:16	23.75 ± 0.21	23.36 ± 0.18	98.4 ± 6.6	98.65 ± 9.53	20	16	40	37.5

#### Table:2 Number of flies showing two periodicities when subjected to FS T26

	n	No. of flies with 2 periodicities ~24h & ~26	•	Flies exhibiting only ~ 24 h periodicity	Flies exhibiting >2 periodicities	Arrhythmic flies	Average period (~24 h)	Average period (~26 h)
Control	94	57	5	13	7	7	23.94 ± 0.06	$25.96 \pm 0.02$
T26	120	75	10	8	14	3	$\begin{array}{c} 24.27 \pm \\ 0.14 \end{array}$	$25.98 \pm 0.004$

## Table:3 Number of flies showing two periodicities when subjected to FS T21

	n	No. of flies with 2 periodicities ~24h & ~21h	Flies exhibiting only ~ 21 h periodicity	Flies exhibiting only ~ 24 h periodicity	Flies exhibiting >2 periodicities	thes	Average period (~ 24 h)	Average period (~ 21 h)
Controls	108	69	7	18	11	3	$\begin{array}{c} 24.03 \pm \\ 0.05 \end{array}$	20.97 ± 0.009
T21	95	55	25	8	6	1	$\begin{array}{c} 23.82 \pm \\ 0.03 \end{array}$	21.01 ± 0.02