

1 **Laboratory rearing alters activity and sleep patterns in the olive fruit fly**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Olive fruit flies, *Bactrocera oleae* (Diptera: Tephritidae) that are laboratory reared in artificial diet
26 are essential for the genetic control techniques for this pest. However, the colony's laboratory
27 adaptation can affect their quality. We used the Locomotor Activity Monitor (LAM25, Trikinetics,
28 MA, USA) to track the activity and sleep patterns of adult olive fruit flies reared as immatures in
29 olives (F2-F3 generation) and in artificial diet (>300 generations). Counts of beam breaks caused
30 by the adult fly activity were used as an estimation of its locomotor activity levels during the light
31 and dark period. A longer than five minutes period of adults' inactivity during the dark period was
32 considered as one sleep episode. Activity levels and sleep parameters were found to be dependent
33 on sex, mating status and rearing history. In virgin flies reared in olives, males were more active
34 than females and increased their locomotor activity towards the end of the light period. Mating
35 decreased the locomotor activity levels of males, but not of females olive-reared flies. Laboratory
36 flies reared in artificial diet had lower locomotor activity levels during the light period and more
37 sleep episodes of shorter duration compared to flies reared in olives. We describe the diurnal
38 locomotor activity patterns of *B. oleae* adults reared in olive fruits and in artificial diet. We discuss
39 how locomotor activity and sleep pattern differences may affect the laboratory flies' ability to
40 compete with wild males in the field.

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44 Introduction

45 The olive fruit fly has been the most important pest of olives in Mediterranean countries for at
46 least 2000 years [1] and in 1998 it was first detected in California [2]. Its distribution now covers
47 the Mediterranean basin, North and Sub-Saharan Africa, south-west Asia and North America [3].
48 Because of the significant economic damage caused by *B. oleae* and the intense use of insecticides
49 to manage it, Sterile Insect Technique (SIT), as well as a self-limiting olive fly technology have
50 been proposed to control this pest [4,5]. Both methods require the mass-release of quality
51 laboratory male olive fruit flies reared in artificial diet, that will be able to survive, search, find,
52 and mate effectively with the wild population. Selection during colonization and mass-rearing
53 normally changes the biology and behavior of an insect species. A common problem in mass-
54 reared insects is the loss of irritability, because crowded rearing conditions select for individuals
55 that ignore movements in their surroundings [6]. The mass-rearing conditions reduce the flight
56 capacity of *Amyelois transitella* [7], and the overall activity of *Bactrocera tryoni* compared to
57 wild population [8], while inbreeding in *Drosophila melanogaster* decreases locomotor activity
58 and changes daily activity patterns [9]. It has been shown that in *Bactrocera dorsalis*, the time of
59 mating - which is controlled by the circadian clock - can be altered in insects that have been
60 adapted in laboratory rearing conditions, even after a period of just a year [10].

61 Sleep and sleep-like states are present in all animals and many studies have shown sleep-
62 like states exist even in arthropods and nematodes [11]. The circadian system is responsible for
63 controlling daily activity patterns, such as locomotion, mating, and also sleep [12,13]. Sleep is
64 necessary for an animal's survival and health, including replenishment of energy stores, removal
65 of harmful by-products, and maintenance of neural plasticity [14]. In *D. melanogaster* sleep
66 deprivation can result to death [15, 16]. There is also evidence that night sleep disruption,

67 including sleep deprivation (total sleep loss) and sleep restriction (partial sleep loss), caused by a
68 variety of biotic and abiotic factors in nature can cause changes in insect daily activity patterns
69 with consequences in behavioral performance during active periods [17]. Daily rhythms of activity
70 and rest can be recorded by placing individuals in glass tubes and monitoring the movements using
71 infrared beam-based activity monitors like Locomotor Activity Monitor-LAM by Trikinetics
72 (<https://trikinetics.com/>) [18]. *D. melanogaster* has been used extensively as a model organism
73 for sleep studies [19, 20] where the duration of sleep episodes or bouts during the night indicates
74 how well a fly can stay asleep [21]. In *Drosophila*, the 5 min threshold for defining sleep state is
75 widely accepted [22]. One limitation of the LAM tracking system is that it cannot differentiate
76 between inactivity and sleep [23]. For bumblebees, bouts of inactivity lasting more than 5 min
77 during the night were visually associated with posture indicating sleep, but during the day,
78 inactivity periods could not reliably be associated with sleep [24]. For this study, we accepted that
79 a bout of more than 5 min of inactivity during the dark period or light period is considered a sleep
80 or rest episode respectively.

81 The aim of this study was to record the diurnal patterns of locomotion of olive fruit flies,
82 as a detailed tracking of their activity with the use of LAM. We focused on reproductively mature
83 wild flies (F2-F3 generation reared in olive fruits) and how their diurnal patterns of locomotion
84 change according to sex and mating status. We also studied the effect of laboratory rearing on
85 artificial diet to the locomotor activity and sleep patterns of reproductively mature virgin male
86 flies. We hypothesized that wild flies reared on olives would have higher locomotor activity levels
87 than laboratory flies reared on artificial diet, as laboratory mass rearing is known to further
88 decrease the tendency of flies to move [8].

89

90 **2. Materials and methods**

91 **2.1. Insect rearing**

92 The wild olive fruit fly colony was established with flies that emerged from infested olives field
93 collected in late September in the area of Thessaloniki. Emerged adults were maintained in colony
94 wooden cages (30 x 30 x 30 cm) under laboratory conditions (24±1.5 °C, RH 40±5 %, L:D 14:10),
95 fed with a diet consisting of sugar, yeast hydrolysate and water (ratio 4:1:5) and allowed to oviposit
96 in olives. Water was provided with a soaked cotton stick extruding from a small water container.
97 Flies of this wild population that were grown in their larval stages in olives for 2-3 generations in
98 our laboratory were used in our experiments (referred to as W flies hereafter).

99 We used laboratory adapted olive fruit flies reared in their larval stages in artificial diet
100 (referred to as AR flies hereafter) from the colony maintained in our laboratory for more than 20
101 generations. The colony was established from the “Democritus strain”, which was developed at
102 the Democritus Nuclear Research Center, Athens, Greece and had already been reared for more
103 than 300 generations. Adult flies were kept in wooden cages (30 x 30 x 30 cm) and each cage
104 contained about 200 individuals. Adult food was given in the form of a liquid diet consisting of
105 sugar, yeast hydrolysate and water (ratio 4:1:5) (no antibiotic was added). Egg yolk powder was
106 added ad libitum as extra protein source for the colony AR flies. They were allowed to oviposit on
107 beeswax domes (diameter = 2 cm) and eggs were collected every two days with a fine brush and
108 washed with propionic acid solution (0.3 %). The collected eggs were then placed directly on the
109 larval diet inside a Petri dish (94 x 16 mm). Larval artificial diet consisted of 550 ml of tap water,
110 olive oil (20 ml), Tween 80 (7.5 ml), potassium sorbate (0.5 g), nipagin (2 g), crystalline sugar (20
111 g), brewer’s yeast (75 g), soy hydrolysate (30 g), hydrochloric acid 2N (30 ml), and cellulose

112 powder as bulking medium (275 g) as described in Tsitsipis et al [25]. The diet was kept moist to
113 stimulate last stage larvae to exit the diet which were then collected by sieving the sand on which
114 the Petri dish was placed.

115 Newly emerged W and AR flies were separated by sex in the first 24h of their emergence,
116 kept in plexiglass cages (15 x 15 x 15 cm) that contained 20 flies each and under the same
117 conditions (T: 24±1.5°C, RH: 40±5%, L:D 14:10) and fed with the same diet consisting of sugar,
118 yeast hydrolysate and water (ratio 4:1:5).

119 Male and female W flies of the same cohort were kept together after adult emergence in
120 colony wooden cages (about 70-90 flies per cage) with the same diet and environmental conditions
121 as above. They were considered mated by the time they were used for the bioassays (12-13 days
122 old at the beginning of bioassay).

123 Laboratory adaptation results in more rapid sexual maturity rate for AR flies [26, 27].
124 Sexual maturity begins on the 8th day of age of W flies of both sexes [28], while for AR males, it
125 begins on the 2nd day and for AR females on the 3rd day of age. W flies used were 12-13 days old
126 at the beginning of the bioassay, while AR flies were 6-7 days old, considering the AR flies' shorter
127 longevity [29] and that AR flies for SIT purposes are released at a young age [30].

128

129 **2.2. Locomotor Activity**

130 We recorded the locomotor activity patterns of adult olive fruit flies by using the Locomotor
131 Activity Monitor- LAM25 system (Trikinetics). In this system flies were individually kept in each
132 of 32 glass tubes with 25 mm diameter and 125 mm length. On the one end of the tube, we adjusted
133 a vinyl plastic stopper (CAP25-BLK- Vinyl Tube Cap-Trikinetics) inside which was an agar-based
134 gel diet with sugar, yeast hydrolysate, agar, nipagin and water (4:1:0.2:0.1:20) for food and water

135 provision [31]. The other end of the tube was covered with a piece of organdie to allow ventilation.
136 The tubes were maintained in a climatic room under a photoperiod of 14:10 L:D. The light period
137 was from 07:00 to 21:00 (hereafter referred to as LP), and dark period was from 21:00 to 07:00
138 (hereafter referred to as DP). Activity at each tube was measured every minute as counts of infrared
139 light beams crossed.

140 Three LAM devices were used simultaneously for the *W* flies bioassay. Thirty-two *W*
141 virgin males and thirty-two *W* virgin females were maintained in two LAMs. Sixteen *W* mated
142 males and sixteen *W* mated females were maintained in the third LAM. They were monitored for
143 5 consecutive days. After the completion of this bioassay, AR virgin flies (sixteen males and
144 sixteen females) were maintained in one LAM device and monitored for 5 consecutive days.

145

146 **2.3. Data analysis**

147 The LAM devices were set to record the sum of movements each fly performed every minute and
148 exported the data in monitor files as the number of counts for each tube. The raw monitor data
149 were processed in the DAM FileScan software and activity data collected in 1-minute intervals (1-
150 minute bins) were compressed and converted to 30-minute intervals (30-minute bins) for plotting
151 purposes. Activity/sleep analysis was performed using an in-house MATLAB program called
152 Sleep and Circadian Analysis MATLAB Program (SCAMP) [32]. Activity levels during the LP
153 and DP were the total counts for each fly during the 14 h period of lights on and 10 h period of
154 lights off respectively. We conventionally refer to bouts of > 5 min of inactivity as rest and sleep
155 episodes when they occur during the LP and DP respectively. Activity levels, the number and
156 duration of rest/sleep episodes were calculated as the average of 5 consecutive days of monitoring
157 after excluding the flies that died during the bioassay. Sample size was $n = 32$ *W* virgin flies of

158 each sex, $n = 16$ AR virgin flies of each sex, and $n = 12$ male and $n = 14$ female W mated flies.
159 For all the comparisons, a 2-tailed t -test was performed (level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$). with the
160 statistical software package JMP 14.1.0 [33].

161

162 **3. Results**

163 **3.1. Locomotor activity**

164 **3.1.1. Locomotor activity of W flies**

165 The pattern of locomotor activity of W virgin males and females during 24-h in 30 min bins is
166 shown in Fig 1A. The mean locomotor activity level (SE) of W virgin males was during the LP
167 was 2031.3 (132.0) counts and that of W virgin females was 1394.2 (86.6) counts. They differed
168 significantly (2-tailed t -test = 4.035, $df = 54$, $P = .0002$). However, during the DP, the mean
169 locomotor activity level (SE) of W virgin males and W virgin females was 257.2 (17.8) counts
170 and 246.6 (16.3) counts respectively and did not differ significantly (2-tailed t -test = .438, $df = 62$,
171 $P = .662$). High levels of locomotor activity during the DP were recorded at the time of lights off
172 and for the next hour after the transition to scotophase.

173

174 **Fig 1.** Locomotor activity levels (SE) of W virgin male and female flies (A) and W mated male and
175 female flies (B) ($n = 32$ W virgin flies of each sex, $n = 12$ W mated males, $n = 14$ W mated females
176 averaged across 5 days of monitoring).

177

178 The pattern of locomotor activity of W mated males and females during 24-h in 30 min
179 bins is shown in Fig 1B. The mean locomotor activity level (SE) of W mated males and W mated

180 females during the LP was 1153.1 (174.0) counts and 1081.9 (181.5) counts respectively and did
181 not differ significantly (2-tailed t -test = .283, df = 24, P = .779). The mean locomotor activity level
182 (SE) of W mated males and W mated females during the DP was 208.2 (30.5) counts and 219.0
183 (26.3) counts respectively and did not differ significantly (2-tailed t -test = -0.266, df = 23, P =
184 .792).

185 As shown in Fig 2, mating affects the locomotor activity of males but not of females. The
186 mean locomotor activity was significantly higher in virgin W males compared to mated ones
187 during LP (2-tailed t -test = 4.020, df = 24, P = .0005) but not during DP (2-tailed t -test = 1.383, df
188 = 19, P = .182). However, virgin and mated W females did not differ significantly in their mean
189 locomotor activity during LP (2-tailed t -test = 1.553, df = 19, P = .136) or DP (2-tailed t -test =
190 .889, df = 23, P = .382).

191

192 **Fig 2.** Mean (SE) level of locomotor activity of W virgin and mated flies of both sexes during the LP (n =
193 32 W virgin flies of each sex, n = 12 W mated males and n = 14 W mated females, averaged across 5 days
194 of monitoring) (** P < .001).

195

196 **3.1.2. Locomotor activity of AR flies**

197 The pattern of locomotor activity of AR virgin males and females in 30-min bins across 24 h is
198 shown in Fig 3. The mean locomotor activity level (SE) of AR virgin males and AR virgin females
199 during the LP was 363.0 (63.2) counts and 324.3 (45.6) counts respectively. Contrary to the W
200 flies, in AR flies there was no statistical difference between females and males during the LP (2-
201 tailed t -test = .467, df = 27, P = .623). The mean locomotor activity level (SE) of AR virgin males
202 and AR virgin females during the DP was 100.5 (10.5) counts and 68.6 (9.6) counts respectively.

203 In contrast to the W flies, there was a statistical difference in locomotor activity between the AR
204 female and male flies during the DP (2-tailed t -test = 2.236, df = 29, P = .0329).

205

206 **Fig 3.** Locomotor activity levels (SE) of AR virgin male and female flies (n = 16 flies of each sex,
207 averaged across 5 days of monitoring).

208

209 **3.1.3. Comparison of locomotor activity between W and AR virgin flies**

210 There was significant difference in the mean locomotor activity during the LP between W and
211 AR virgin flies of both sexes (2-tailed t -test = 11.398, df = 42, P < .0001 for males and t -test =
212 10.926, df = 43, P < .0001 for females) (Fig 4).

213

214 **Fig 4.** Mean (SE) levels of locomotor activity of W virgin and AR virgin flies as total counts of activity
215 during the LP (n = 32 W flies of each sex, n = 16 AR flies of each sex, averaged across 5 days of
216 monitoring) (** P < .001).

217

218 **3.2. Rest and sleep episodes**

219 **3.2.1. Rest and sleep episodes of W flies**

220 During the LP, the mean number of rest episodes (SE) of W virgin males was 12.1 (1.1) with mean
221 duration (SE) 15.7 (1.5) min. The mean number of rest episodes (SE) of W virgin females was
222 16.8 (1.2) with mean duration (SE) 15.5 (0.8) min. There was significant difference between virgin
223 male and female flies in the mean number of rest episodes (2-tailed t -test = - 2.697 , df = 61, P =
224 .009) but not in their mean duration (2-tailed t -test = .193 , df = 45, P = .847). During the DP, the
225 mean number of sleep episodes (SE) of W virgin males was 2.9 (0.2) with mean duration (SE)

226 309.0 (21.1) min. The mean number of sleep episodes (SE) of W virgin females was 3.8 (0.2) with
227 mean duration (SE) 255.8 (16.8) min. There was significant difference between the two sexes in
228 the mean number of sleep episodes (2-tailed t -test = -2.602, df = 58, P = .011) but not in their mean
229 duration (2-tailed t -test = 1.708, df = 58, P = .0902).

230 During the LP, the mean number of rest episodes (SE) of W mated males was 16.0 (2.0)
231 with mean duration (SE) 77.5 (22.3) min. The mean number of rest episodes (SE) of W mated
232 females was 19.6 (1.8) with mean duration (SE) 47.9 (13.3) min. There was no significant
233 difference between the two sexes in the mean number of rest episodes (2-tailed t -test = -1.261, df
234 = 28, P = .217) or their mean duration (2-tailed t -test = 1.133, df = 23, P = .268). During the DP,
235 the mean number of sleep episodes (SE) of W mated males was 4.0 (0.5) with mean duration (SE)
236 250.2 (39.9) min. The mean number of sleep episodes (SE) of W mated females was 4.3 (0.3) with
237 mean duration (SE) 219.2 (29.6) min. There was no significant difference between the two sexes
238 in mean number of sleep episodes (2-tailed t -test = -0.502, df = 26, P = .619) or their mean duration
239 (2-tailed t -test = .624, df = 26, P = .537).

240 W mated males differed in the mean duration of rest episodes compared to W virgin males
241 (2-tailed t -test = -2.747, df = 14, P = .0156), but no difference was detected in the number of rest
242 episodes or the number and mean duration of sleep episodes between the two groups. Similarly,
243 W virgin and mated females differed in the mean duration of rest episodes (2-tailed t -test = -
244 2.426, df = 15, P = .0282), but not in their number nor in the mean duration and number of sleep
245 episodes (Figs 5 and 6).

246

247

248 **Fig 5.** Mean (SE) number (A) and duration (B) of rest episodes of W virgin and mated flies of both sexes
249 during the LP (* P < .05, ** P < .01).

250

251 **Fig 6.** Mean (SE) number (A) and duration (B) of sleep episodes of W virgin and mated flies of both sexes
252 during the DP (* $P < .05$).

253

254 **3.2.2. Rest and sleep episodes of AR flies**

255 During the LP, the mean number of rest episodes (SE) of AR virgin males was 9.7 (0.9) with mean
256 duration (SE) 110.6 (15.5) min. The mean number of rest episodes (SE) of AR virgin females was
257 16.0 (1.0) with mean duration (SE) 49.4 (5.0) min. There was significant difference between the
258 two sexes in mean number of rest episodes (2-tailed t -test = -4.599, $df = 29$, $P < .0001$) and mean
259 duration (2-tailed t -test = 3.735, $df = 18$, $P = .0015$). During the DP, the mean number of sleep
260 episodes (SE) of AR virgin males was 9.3 (0.7) with mean duration (SE) 116.3 (15.2) min. The
261 mean number of sleep episodes (SE) of AR virgin females was 5.6 (0.4) with mean duration (SE)
262 194.1 (25.0) min. There was significant difference between the two sexes in number of sleep
263 episodes (2-tailed t -test = 4.243, $df = 24$, $P = .0003$) and mean duration (2-tailed t -test = -2.656,
264 $df = 24$, $P = .0136$).

265

266 **3.2.3. Comparison of rest/sleep episodes between W and AR male flies**

267 W virgin males and AR virgin males differed in the mean number of sleep episodes (2-
268 tailed t -test = -8.142, $df = 17$, $P < .0001$), their mean duration (2-tailed t -test = 7.512, $df = 45$, P
269 $< .0001$) and also in the mean duration of rest episodes (2-tailed t -test = -6.866, $df = 15$, $P < .0001$),
270 but not in their number (2-tailed t -test = 1.633, $df = 44$, $P = .109$). Interestingly, the mean number
271 and duration of rest or sleep episodes for AR males, did not differ between the LP and DP (Fig 7).

272

273 **Fig 7.** Mean (SE) number (A) and duration (B) of rest episodes (light grey color) and sleep episodes (dark
274 grey color) for W and AR virgin males (***) $P < .001$.

275

276 **4. Discussion**

277 This study indicates that artificial rearing, mating status (virginity) and light and dark
278 phases of photoperiod affect the locomotor activity of the olive fruit fly adults. W olive fruit flies
279 are mostly active during the light period and bouts of inactivity (rest episodes) during this period
280 have mean duration of 15 min. Mate searching and courtship in this species are done in late evening
281 and W virgin males have exhibited increasing locomotor activity towards the end of the light
282 period (Fig 1) in accordance to [34]. Locomotor activity of W flies during the dark period takes
283 place mostly during the first hours after lights off. Inactivity bouts during the DP (sleep episodes)
284 have a mean duration of 255-300 min for females and males respectively.

285 W females have lower locomotor levels than males, perhaps due to their heavier body and
286 that they are monogamous. W mated males have reduced locomotor activity levels and rest
287 episodes of longer duration compared to W virgin ones. However, W mated females have similar
288 locomotor levels compared to W virgin ones, but have rest episodes of longer duration, which may
289 be due to oviposition behavior. AR flies have lower locomotor activity levels compared to W ones,
290 in accordance to many studies with mass reared insects [35]. The peak of the AR virgin males'
291 locomotor activity is earlier than the W virgin ones (Fig 5), and earlier mating times have been
292 observed in laboratory adapted populations [36, 37]. Furthermore, we found that AR virgin males
293 have higher number of sleep episodes of shorter mean duration compared to W virgin males.

294 The differences that have been detected in the level of activity and sleep patterns between
295 W and AR male olive fruit flies can be attributed to laboratory adaptation [38] and could impact

296 the AR flies' survival, dispersion and ability to compete with the wild population. Increased
297 locomotor activity has been associated with higher mating success in Tephritidae [39]. Mass reared
298 *B. curcubitae* have reduced flight ability than the wild flies [40], and laboratory adaptation can
299 change the biological traits of weevils [41], affect the fitness of parasitoids used for biological
300 control [42], or lead to loss of stress resistance to *D. melanogaster* [43].

301 Bertolini et al. [5], have compared the locomotor activity between of a wild-type and a self-
302 limiting strain of *B. oleae*, the wild-type strain referring to *Argov* and *Democritus* strains that are
303 laboratory adapted. These strains' day activity/h of male flies was found to be 17 counts/h and is
304 similar with our findings of AR mature males' day activity/h (363 counts/14 h = 25.9 counts/h).
305 The reduced activity and high mortality of flies that Bertolini et al. noticed, could have been caused
306 because the tubes used to house the flies in the LAM device had 10 mm diameter, while we used
307 larger tubes (25 mm diameter), allowing the olive fruit flies to move more freely and be less
308 stressed. Circadian clock regulates daily rhythms of animal physiology and behavior, which are
309 entrained by environmental stimuli. Sleep is one of the established circadian behavior, which is
310 also associated with health status. In *Drosophila*, genetic dissections show that sleep is regulated
311 by the circadian clock and the circadian clock in the *B. oleae* has a *Drosophila*-like organization
312 [5]. Mutations of the core clock genes have abnormal sleep, while the peptidergic clock neurons
313 regulate arousal as well as sleep stability [44]. Laboratory-adapted *B. curcubitae* strains that during
314 domestication process were artificially selected for short larval developmental time and early
315 reproductive age exhibited changes in traits like shorter circadian periods and later time of mating
316 in the day compared to the wild flies [45]. These changes could be attributed to artificial selection
317 for clock genes that pleiotropically control circadian rhythm and the time of mating [46].

318 Our study showed that AR olive fruit flies had more fragmented night sleep and less total
319 time of night sleep compared to W flies. Sleep bouts are shortened resulting in fragmented night
320 sleep, with implications on their overall fitness and longevity and reduced night sleep quality might
321 affect their day activity levels in humans [47]. When sleep is insufficient, important brain
322 processes such as learning and memory are affected, and, when sleep is insufficient over the short
323 term, this effect can be reversed by supplemental sleep [48].

324 Reduced levels of day activity for AR flies could be explained to poor night sleep quality.
325 There are two processes, the circadian clock and the sleep homeostat that work together to regulate
326 sleep. Circadian clock is responsible regulating the oscillation of sleep pressure during the day,
327 while sleep homeostat conveys the need for sleep depending on the duration and quality of
328 previous wake periods. If sleep is disrupted, the homeostat process is able to overcome the
329 circadian process, and induce sleep into a period of the day that is normally dedicated to other
330 activities, such as feeding and mating. This compensatory sleep is often referred to as “rebound
331 sleep.” In insects, sleep also has an impact on fitness and can affect reproductive output and
332 development [49]. Importantly, sleep-deprived males show reduced courtship behavior. Also,
333 males lacking a functional clock show a significant decline in the quantity of sperm in *D.*
334 *melanogaster*, for which it was demonstrated that clock genes are rhythmically and autonomously
335 expressed in testes and seminal vesicles of male flies, suggesting that these tissues harbor a
336 circadian system important for optimal sperm output and fertility [50].

337 Finally, the same experiments should be repeated in natural conditions, because the natural
338 environment provides much richer cycling environmental stimuli than the laboratory and generally
339 accepted adaptive and mechanistic explanations for fly circadian behavior from laboratory
340 experiments may require some revision if they are to account for rhythmicity in nature [51].

341

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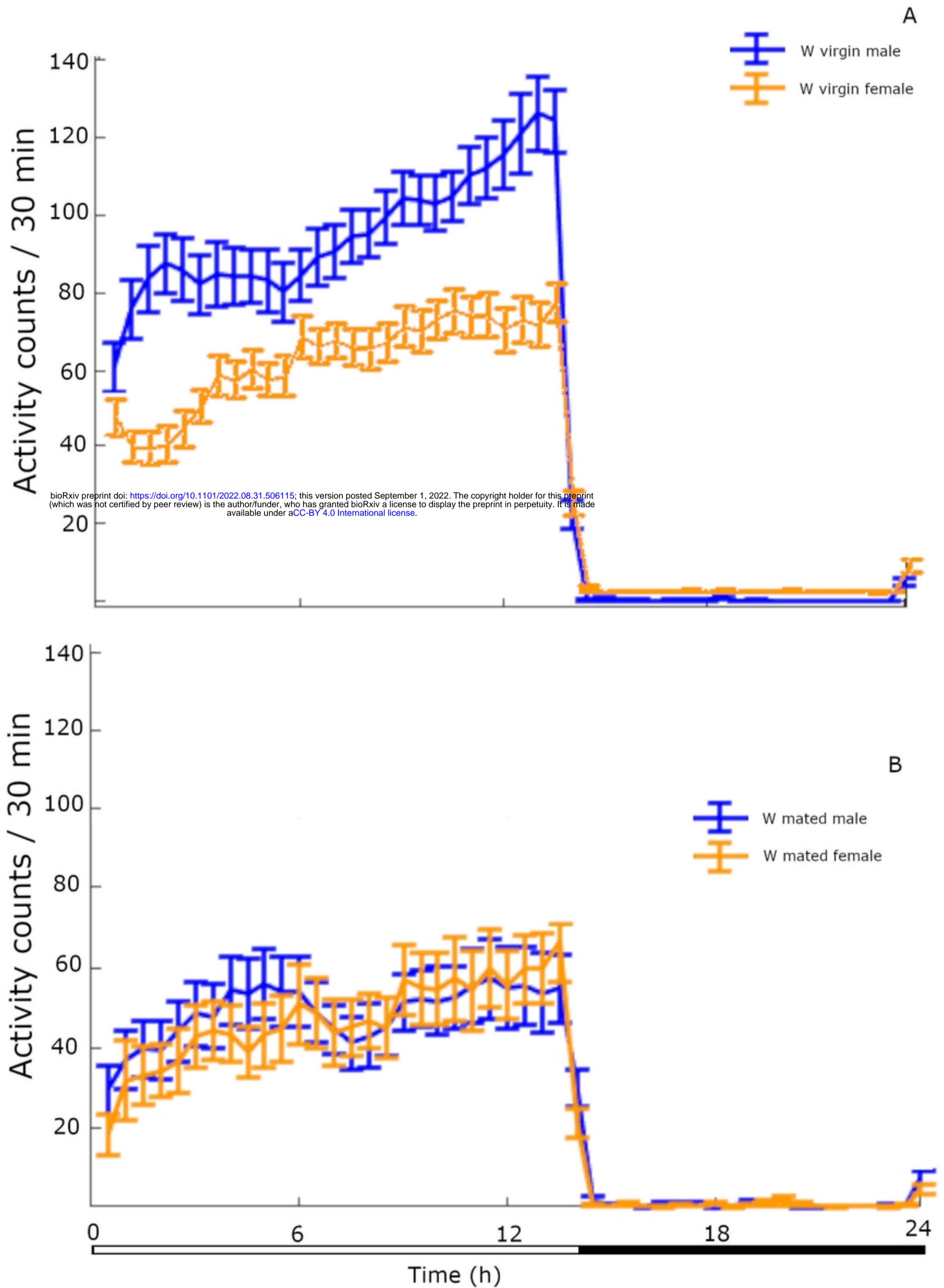


Figure1

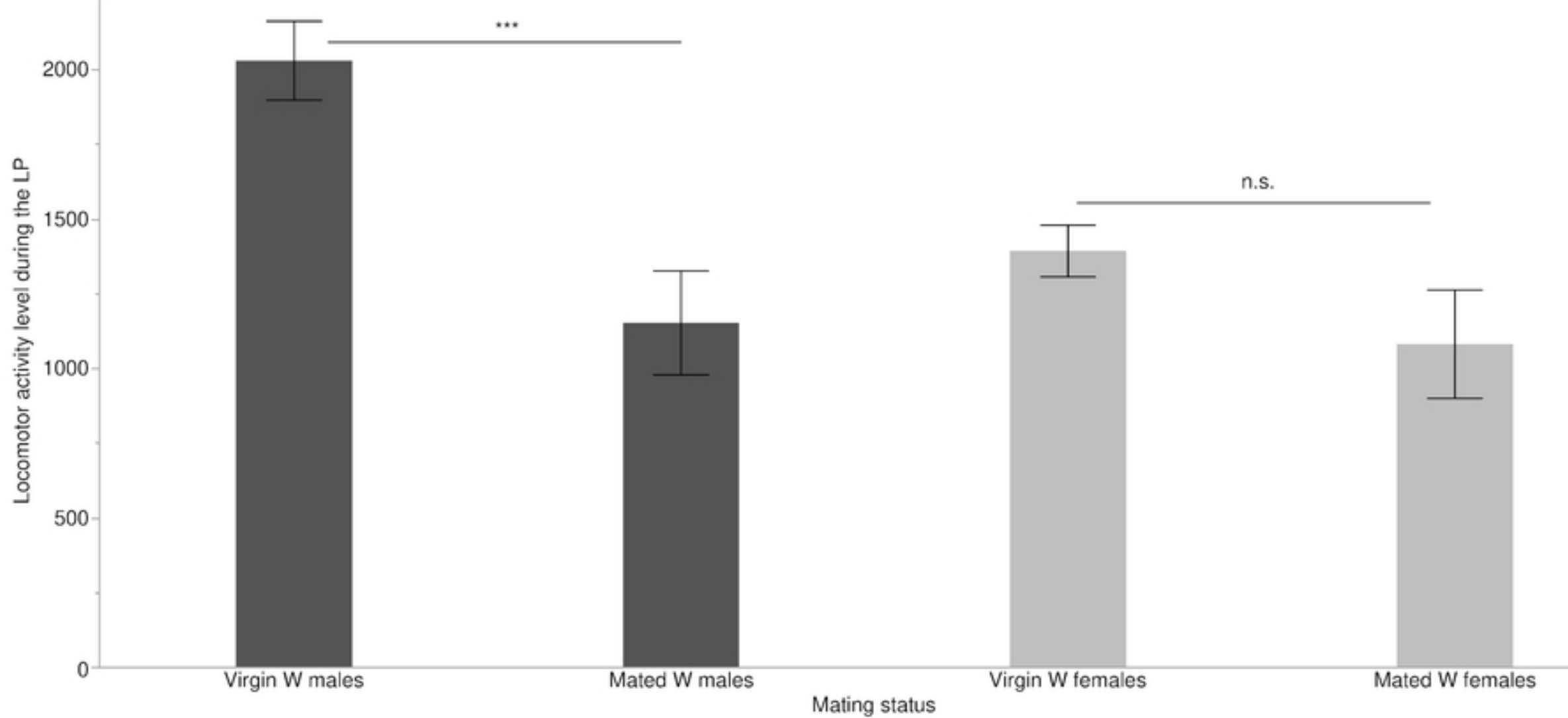


Figure2

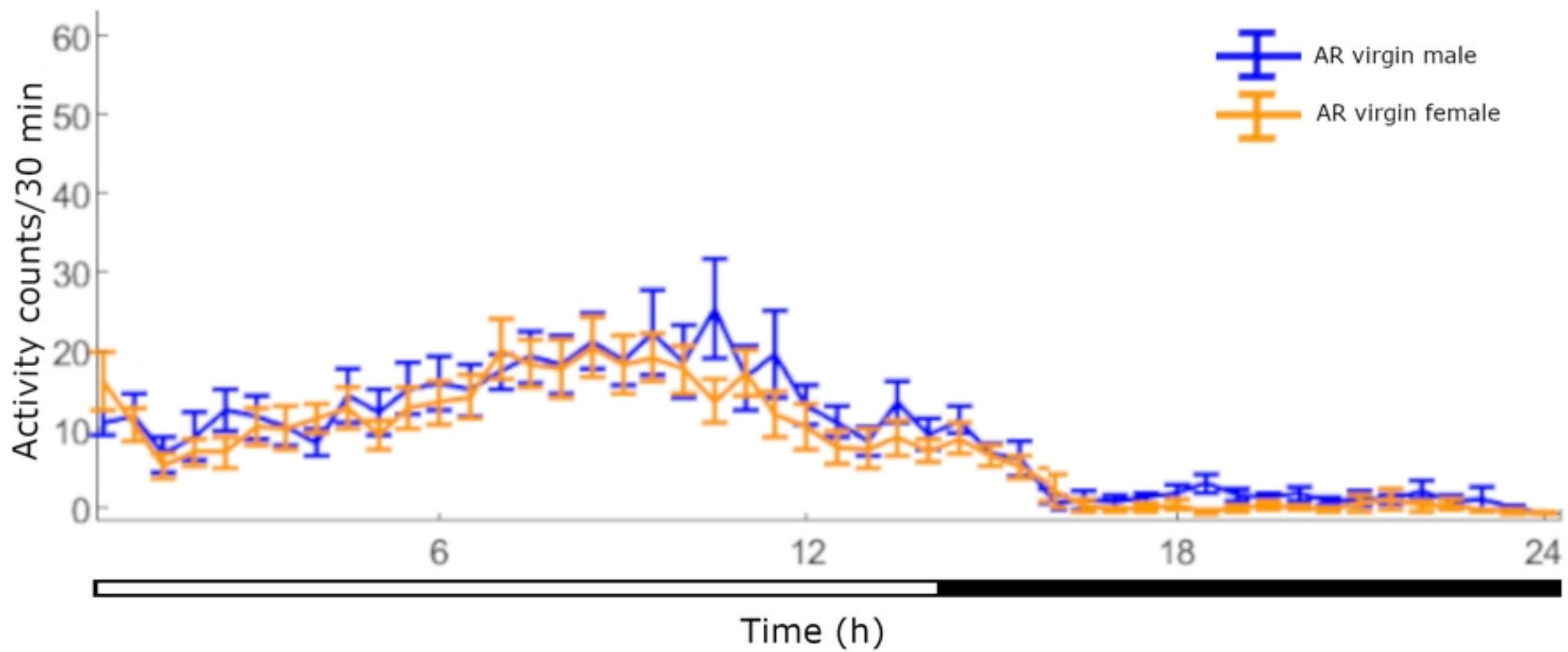


Figure3

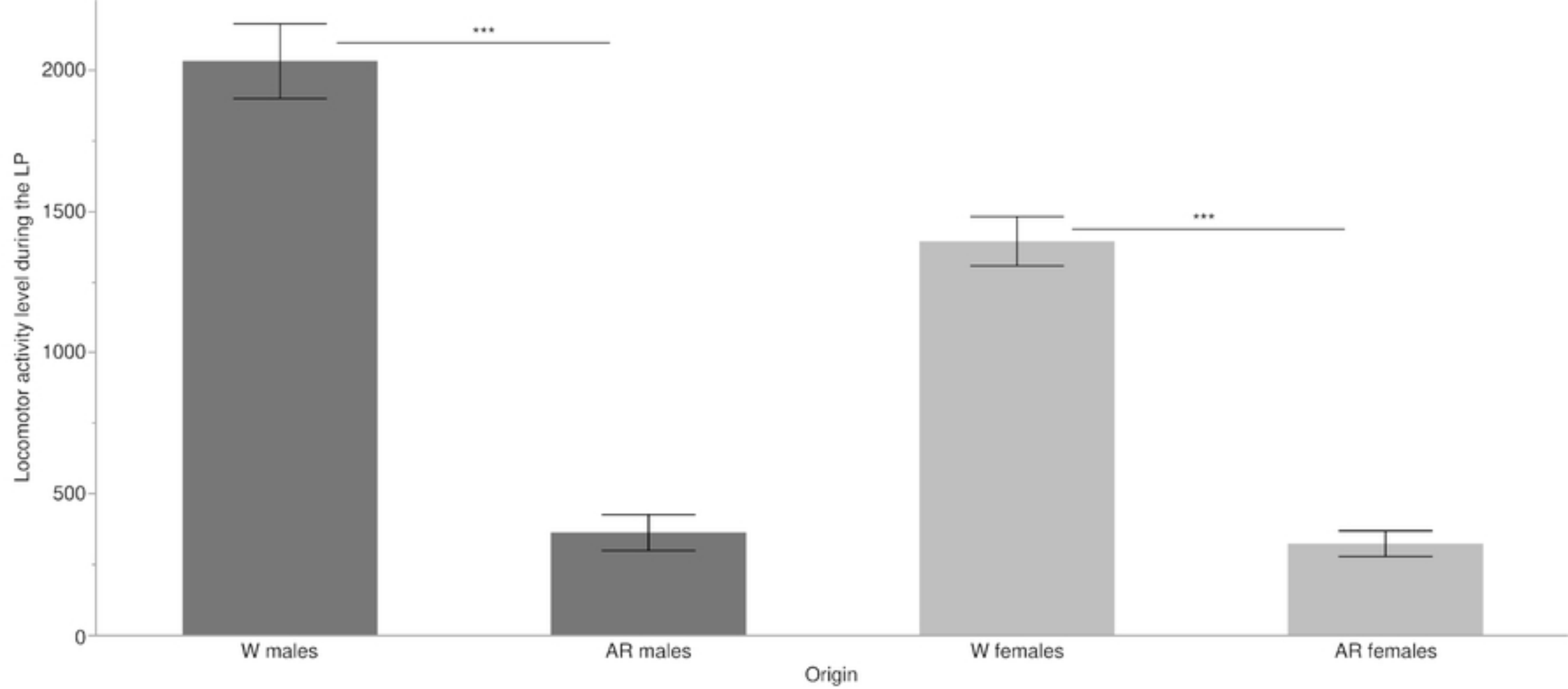


Figure4

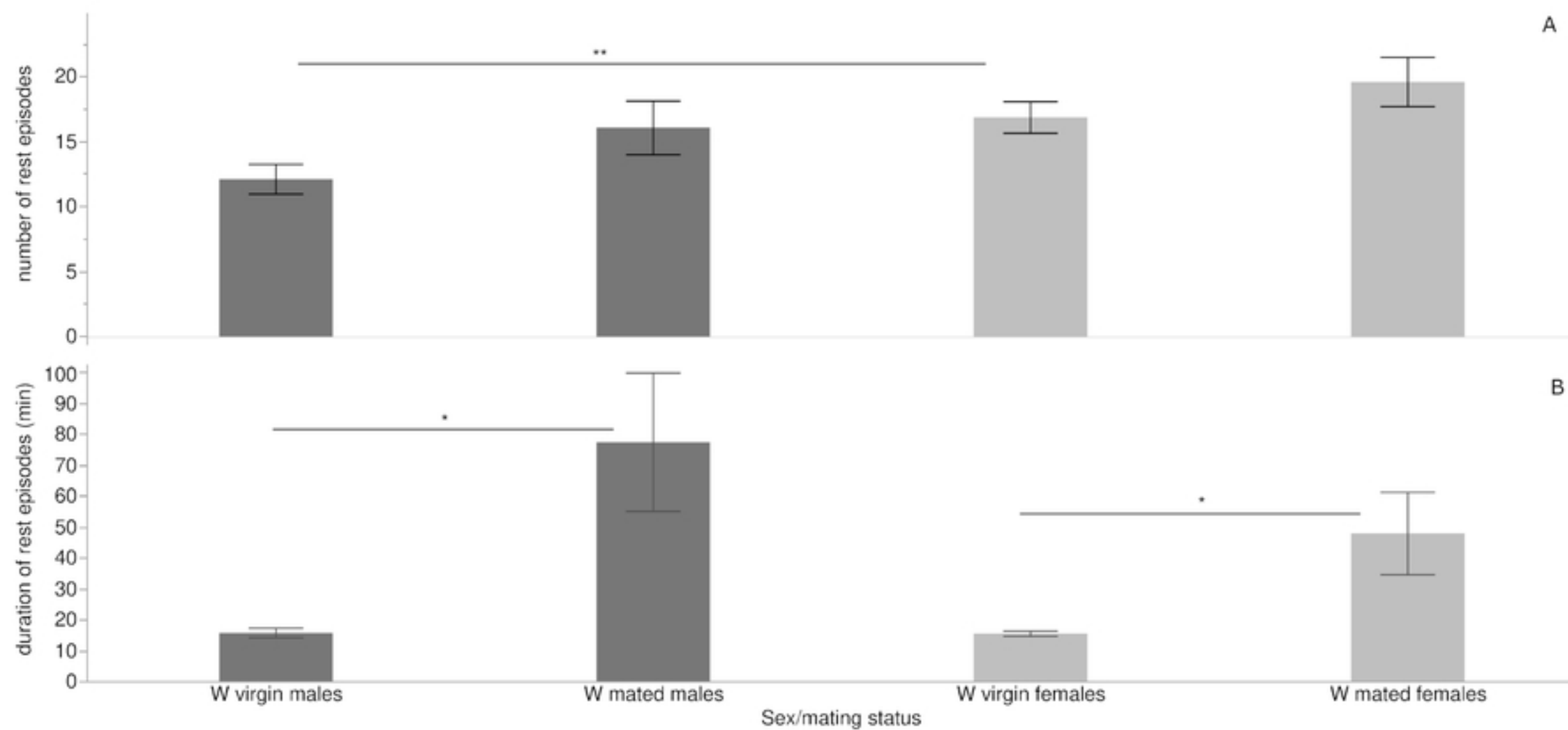


Figure 5

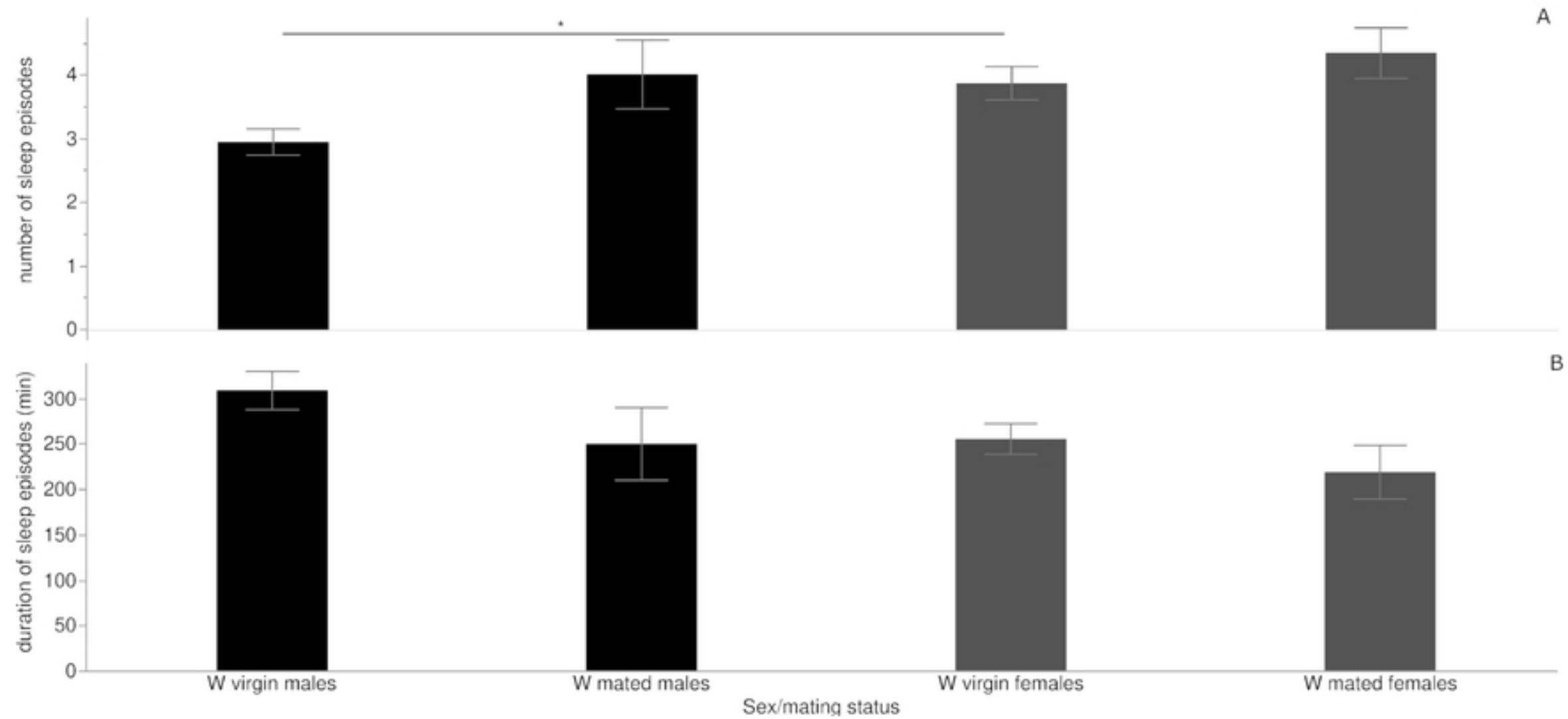


Figure6

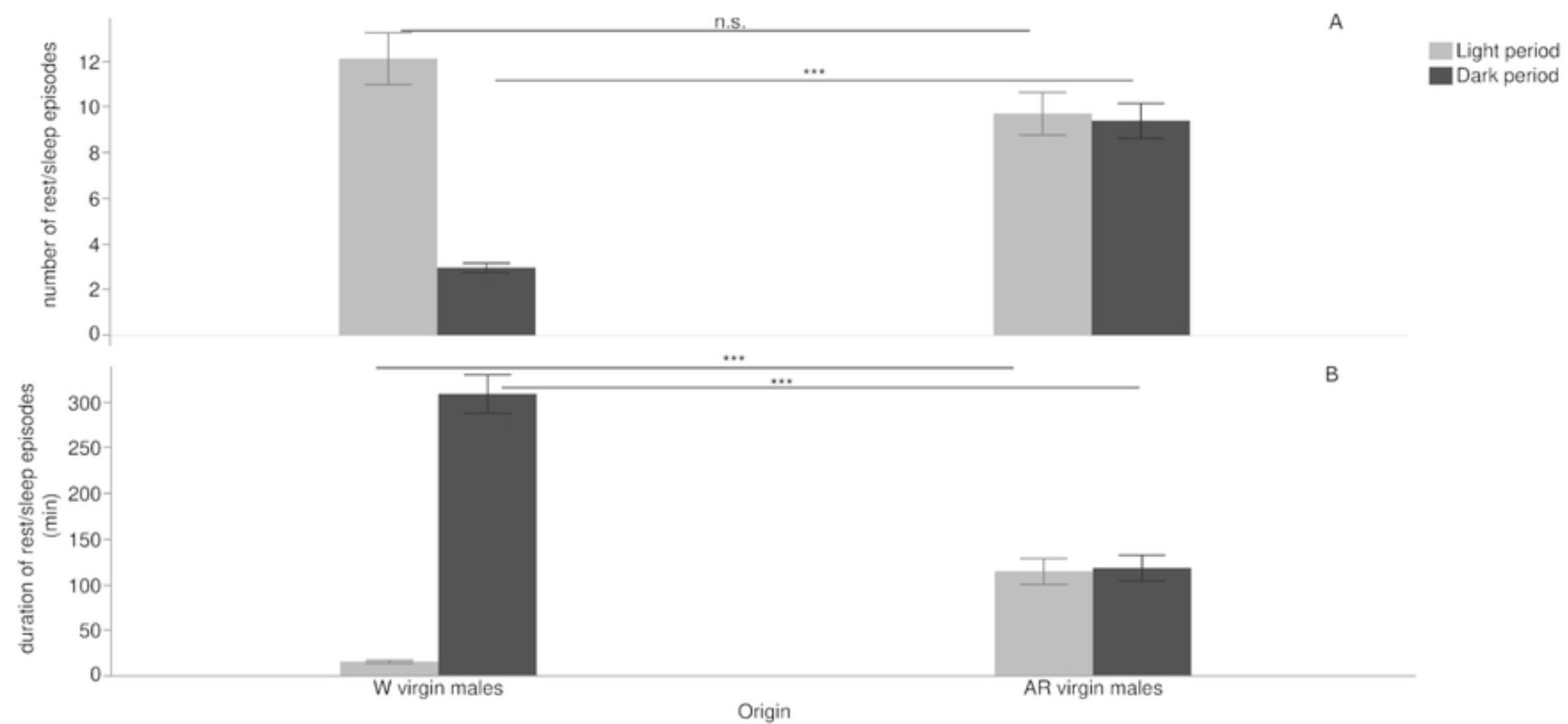


Figure7