1 **Internal needs drive the cephalic phase response in *Drosophila melanogaster***

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HIGHLIGHTS:

1. *Drosophila* **exhibit a cephalic phase response (CPR).**

2. Sensory detection triggers CPR.

3. Hunger signals and clock genes selectively drive CPR.

4. Hunger signals and clock genes do not regulate the response after nutrient intake.

SUMMARY<150

Animals are motivated to eat based on their internal need. When animals are hungry, the sensory

detection of food elicits bursts of physiological changes in their bodies. This is the cephalic phase

response (CPR), which prepares animals to properly digest food before nutrients enter their bodies.

Despite animals uniformly exhibiting a strong CPR, to what extent and how the internal state

influences CPR is largely unclear. Here, we demonstrate in *Drosophila* that tasting food triggers

CPR, which is strongly influenced by the internal state. We found that feeding an artificial

sweetener or gustatory excitation by optogenetics trigger CPR, which is a rapid and partial

recovery from the starved state. While clock genes and hunger signals profoundly drive CPR, they

are not required for the process of response after nutrient intake. Therefore, we propose that CPR

is the critical layer of regulatory mechanisms representing internal energy homeostasis and

metabolism.

INTRODUCTION

Immediately after hungry animals see, smell, or chew food, even without absorbing nutrients, bursts of physiological changes are suddenly initiated within the body. This is the cephalic phase response (CPR), a flood of saliva and gastrointestinal secretions, which prepares animals for food digestion (Chen and Knight, 2016; Garrison and Knight, 2017; Pavlov, 1902; Power and Schulkin, 2008; Zafra et al., 2006). The introduction of food to the body firmly and suddenly disturbs the internal milieu; thus, the anticipation of food is an important process that helps animals prepare for digestion. If CPR is bypassed, food is digested slowly, which lengthens digestion and delays nutrient absorption (Pavlov, 1902). Importantly, CPR is observed not only in saliva and gastrointestinal secretions but also in thermogenesis, heart rate, and respiratory rate in mammals (LeBlanc, 2000; LeBlanc and Cabanac, 1989; Nederkoorn et al., 2000). For example, starvation or malnutrition in mammals causes lower body temperature (Cintron-Colon et al., 2017; Piccione et al., 2002), and biting food triggers heat generation, which is another example of CPR (LeBlanc et al., 1984; Power and Schulkin, 2008).

Animals are motivated to eat food depending on their internal state, such as time of the day or hunger. The circadian clock drives the daily feeding rhythms (Cedernaes et al., 2019; Hirayama et al., 2018; Longo and Panda, 2016) and anticipates meal timing. Daily feeding timing influences energy homeostasis and metabolism (Chaix et al., 2019; Greenhill, 2018). Hunger and satiety dramatically affect animal behavior and physiology (Hanci and Altun, 2016; Kain and Dahanukar, 2015; Keys et al., 1950; Piccione *et al*., 2002; Root et al., 2011; Sakurada et al., 2000; Soria-Gomez et al., 2014) and control feeding. Despite hungry animals uniformly exhibiting a strong CPR, how the internal state communicates with the brain, which enables animals to exhibit CPR, is largely unclear. Therefore, we postulate the internal state, modulated by circadian rhythms and hunger

signals, is involved in CPR. If this is the case, CPR is not only an anticipatory response but also

an indispensable physiological response that requires further study. To address this question, we

focused on the relatively simple, versatile model organism, *Drosophila melanogaster* and ask

whether *Drosophila* exhibit CPR.

Here, we discovered that *Drosophila* exhibit CPR and that sensory detections trigger CPR,

which is strongly influenced by the internal state. Hunger stress compels flies to seek a lower-

temperature environment, causing lower body temperatures and metabolic rates (Berrigan and

Partridge, 1997; Schilman et al., 2011; Umezaki et al., 2018b). Due to the low mass of small

ectotherms, their body temperatures are nearly equivalent to their surrounding temperature

(Stevenson, 1985a; Stevenson, 1985b). We showed here that tasting food initiates compelling the

hungry flies to seek a warmer environment as CPR, that is, immediately increasing body

temperatures and metabolic rates. In mammals, starvation results in lower body temperatures, and

biting food triggers a rapid increase in heat generation, showing CPR in thermogenesis (LeBlanc,

2000; LeBlanc and Cabanac, 1989). Thus, the *Drosophila* CPR may be a functional, physiological

response equivalent to the CPR observed in mammals. Furthermore, we found that clock genes,

hunger signals, and light are required for CPR, but not the nutrient response. The data suggest that

CPR is an indispensable physiological response that represents the internal state. Thus, our data

shed new light on the role of CPR, which would highlight a crucial aspect of our understanding of

feeding state and energy homeostasis.

RESULTS

Starved flies quickly move to a warmer place right after a brief refeeding.

Drosophila exhibit robust thermoregulatory and temperature preference behavior (Hamada et al., 2008; Sayeed and Benzer, 1996; Umezaki *et al.*, 2018b). Small ectotherms such as *Drosophila* avoid harmful hot or cold temperatures and choose appropriate temperatures to set their body temperature (Dillon et al., 2009; Hamada *et al*., 2008; Sayeed and Benzer, 1996). To examine how the internal state regulates temperature preference behavior, *white^{1118}* (*w^{1118}*) flies were fed fly food containing carbohydrate, protein and fat sources all the time. They were separated into two groups and one of them was starved overnight only with water (starved flies) (Fig. 1A). We then tested temperature preference behavior of the fed and starved flies using a gradient of temperatures ranging from 16-34 °C for 30 min (Hamada *et al.*, 2008). Fed flies preferred 25.2±0.2 $^\text{O}$C (Fig. 1B: Fed, white bar), whereas starved flies preferred 21.7±0.3 $^\text{O}$C (Fig. 1B: Starvation overnight (STV), gray bar). Thus, starvation causes a lower temperature preference, as we previously reported that temperature preference behavior is greatly influenced by feeding state (Umezaki *et al.*, 2018b).

To determine how long of a refeeding is required to recover from the starved state to the fed state, starved flies were offered fly food for 5, 10, 30 min, and 1 hr (Fig. 1A). We found that the preferred temperature (Tp) of refed flies increased (Fig. 1B; orange bars) from that of the starved flies (Fig. 1B; gray bar, statistics shown in green stars). Notably, Tps of the 10 min, 30 min, and 1 hr refed flies were similar to that of fed flies (Fig. 1B**:** white bar), suggesting a full recovery. Importantly, refeeding with fly food for only 10 min is sufficient to recover to a similar Tp as fed flies. On the other hand, Tp of the 5 min refed flies was intermediate between fed and starved flies, suggesting a partial recovery (Fig. 1E, statistics shown in red stars, Table S1). Thus, our data suggest that flies can quickly move to a warmer place after at least 5 min refeeding of fly

food and that 10 min refeeding of fly food is sufficient to recover from the starved state to the fed

state.

Sucralose intake results in intermediate recovery.

We showed that only 5 min fly food refeeding let the starved flies increase Tp and that 10 min fly

food refeeding restored Tp to that of fed flies (Fig. 1B). We wondered whether this rapid Tp

recovery might be driven by food sensory cues and therefore hypothesized that gustatory cues

might play an essential role in this recovery. Sucralose is an artificial sweetener and non-

metabolizable sugar. Like glucose, sucralose activates sweet taste neurons in *Drosophila*

(Biolchini et al., 2017) and modulates taste behaviors like the proboscis extension reflex

(Dahanukar et al., 2007; Dus et al., 2011; Park et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016). We asked whether

sucralose could lead to the Tp recovery. The starved flies were refed sucralose for 10 min or 1 hr

(Fig. 1A). We found that starved flies partially increased Tp upon 10 min or 1 hr sucralose

refeeding, but Tp remained between those of fed and starved flies, indicating intermediate recovery

(Fig. 1C: blue, Table S1). Thus, our data suggest that sucralose intake results in an intermediate

recovery.

Because sucralose intake led to an intermediate recovery, starved flies might need both

gustatory cues and nutrients to recover Tp fully. To test this possibility, we used glucose, which

includes both sweetness (gustatory cues) and nutrients (i.e., metabolizable) (Fig. 1A). We

previously showed that overnight glucose refeeding restored the Tp of starved flies to that of fed

flies. Therefore, we shortened the glucose refeeding time to 5 min, 10 min and 1 hr (Umezaki *et*

al., 2018b). We found that 10 min or 1 hr glucose refeeding resulted in full recovery (Fig. 1D and

E: statistics shown in red NS, Table S1) and significantly differed from starved flies (Fig. 1D and

E: statistics shown in green stars, Table S1). Thus, our data showed gustatory cues trigger an

intermediate recovery and both gustatory and nutrient cues lead to a full recovery.

That said, it is still possible the starved flies might eat glucose more or faster than sucralose

during the first 10 min, which could cause a different Tp recovery. To exclude this possibility, we

examined how often starved flies touch glucose, sucralose, or water during the 30 min via Fly

Liquid-food Interaction Counter (FLIC) system (Ro et al., 2014). The FLIC system assays

interaction between the fly and liquid food, which reflects feeding/drinking episodes. We found

that starved flies touched glucose and sucralose food at a similar frequency and more often than

water during the 30 min test period (Fig. 1F, Table S1). The data suggest that flies most likely eat

glucose and sucralose at a similar speed and amount. Therefore, we concluded that the different

Tp recovery between sucralose and glucose is not due to differences in feeding rate or amount.

Instead, the gustatory cues trigger the intermediate Tp recovery, and gustatory cue plus nutrients

trigger a full Tp recovery.

Activation of sweet gustatory neurons trigger intermediate recovery.

Sweet taste is detected by sweet gustatory receptors (Grs). We asked whether sweet Grs are

involved with recovery. Two different sweet Gr mutants, *Gr5a*^{-/-}; *Gr64a*^{-/-} and *Gr5a*^{-/-};;*Gr61a*^{-/-},

Gr64a-f^{-/-} cannot recognize sweetness in sugar choice assays (Dahanukar *et al*., 2007; Dus *et al*.,

2011; Fujii et al., 2015; Yavuz et al., 2014) and have reduced sugar sensitivity compared to the

control (Fujii *et al.*, 2015; Yavuz *et al.*, 2014). We found that sweet Gr mutants showed normal

starved response, in which Tp of starved flies was lower than that of fed flies (Fig. 2A and B, white

and gray bars, Table S1). However, starved flies did not increase Tp upon 10 min sucralose

refeeding (Fig. 2A and B, blue bars, Table S1). The data suggest that sweet Grs are required for Tp

recovery.

Sweet Grs are expressed in the sweet Gr-expressing neurons (GRNs) in the proboscis and

forelegs (Yarmolinsky et al., 2009). To further examine the involvement of sweet GRNs for Tp

recovery, we silenced sweet GRNs using *uas-Kir* (Baines et al., 2001) with *Gr64f-Gal4,* which is

expressed in all-sweet-GRNs (Gr64f$^+$ neurons) in both proboscis and forelegs (Dahanukar *et al.*,

2007; Thoma et al., 2016). Silencing of Gr64f$^+$ neurons did not impair the normal starved response

because Tp of starved flies was lower than that of fed flies (Fig. 2C, white and gray bars). However,

no Tp recovery was observed after 10 min of sucralose refeeding (Fig. 2C, blue bar, Table S1),

similar to the sweet Gr mutants (Fig. 2A and B). On the other hand, control flies (*Gr64f-Gal4*/+

and *uas-Kir*/+) showed a normal starved response and Tp recovery upon sucralose refeeding (Fig.

2D and E, gray and blue bars, respectively, Table S1). Therefore, our data indicate that sweet Grs

are required for an intermediate Tp recovery.

Because sucralose feeding causes intermediate recovery, we asked whether the artificial

activation of sweet GRNs trigger intermediate recovery. We used the optogenetic approach, a red-

light sensitive channelrhodopsin, CsChrimson (Klapoetke et al., 2014; Simpson and Looger,

2018). Starved flies were given water with 0.8 mM all-trans-retinal (ATR), which is the

chromophore required for the CsChrimson activation. These flies were not fed sucralose; instead,

gustatory neurons in starved flies were excited by red-light pulses (flashing on and off at 10 Hz)

for 10 min (Fig. 2L). In this case, even though flies were not refed, the gustatory neurons were

artificially excited so we could evaluate the effect of the excitation of gustatory neurons for

intermediate recovery.

To this end, we expressed CsChrimson in either all-sweet-GRNs (Gr64f$^+$ neuron),

proboscis (Gr5a$^+$ neurons), or legs (Gr64a$^+$ neurons). All flies showed normal starved response in

that Tps of fed and starved flies were significantly different (Fig. 2F-I, white and gray bars, Table

S1). With excitation of all-sweet-GRNs (Gr64f$^+$ neuron) by red-light pulses, starved flies showed

a Tp between fed and starved flies, suggesting an intermediate recovery (Fig. 2F, yellow bar, Table

S1). However, neither excitation of gustatory neurons in the proboscis nor legs induced Tp

recovery (Fig. 2G and H, yellow bars, Table S1). Notably, control flies (*UAS-CsChrimson*/+) did

not show Tp recovery upon red light with ATR application (Fig. 2I). Taken together, our data

suggest that the excitation of all-sweet-GRNs leads to intermediate recovery.

Sensory cues trigger intermediate recovery.

We next asked whether sweet taste is required for the intermediate recovery, as compared to other

taste cues like bitter taste; therefore, we wondered whether these cues induce intermediate recovery.

We expressed CsChrimson in the bitter sensing Gr (Gr66a)-expressing (Gr66a$^+$) neurons

(Dahanukar *et al.*, 2007). The flies show normal starved response: Tps of fed and starved flies

were significantly different (Fig. 2J, white and gray bars, Table S1). The excitation of Gr66a$^+$

neurons caused a significant increase in Tp of starved flies (Fig. 2J, yellow bar, Table S1),

suggesting that the excitation of bitter taste neurons triggers Tp recovery. Furthermore, we also

investigated the potential role of olfaction. We used mutants of the odorant receptor co-receptor,

Orco (*Orco[1]*), which shows olfactory defectiveness (Larsson et al., 2004). Tps of fed and starved

Orco[1] flies were significantly different (Fig. 2K, white and gray bars, Table S1), showing normal

starved response. However, they failed to show a Tp recovery upon sucralose refeeding (Fig. 2K,

blue bar, Table S1). Thus, our data suggest that bitter taste and olfactory response are possible

other cues for Tp recovery.

Intermediate Tp recovery is CPR.

Starved flies show a lower Tp, indicating lower body temperature (Umezaki *et al*., 2018b). Sweet

taste and activation of sweet- or bitter-sensing neurons initiate starved flies to increase Tp,

indicating a warmer body temperature. Similarly, in mammals, starvation or malnutrition causes

lower body temperatures (Cintron-Colon *et al*., 2017; Piccione *et al*., 2002), and biting food, even

before food enter the stomach, quickly initiate heat generation, namely CPR (LeBlanc *et al*., 1984;

Power and Schulkin, 2008). Thus, in both flies and mammals, starvation causes lower body

temperatures, and feeding cues quickly induce heat generation before the nutrition enter the bodies.

Based on the reasons above, we propose that intermediate Tp recovery upon the sensory signals in

flies is likely CPR. In this article, we further elucidate how sensory information elicits CPR and

how the internal state regulates CPR using flies.

The activation of temperature-sensing neurons triggers CPR.

To understand how gustatory information elicits CPR, we focused on the temperature-sensing

neurons; the warm-sensing neurons, anterior cells (ACs) (Hamada *et al.*, 2008), and the cold-

sensing *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons, which control temperature preference behavior (Ni et

al., 2016; Umezaki et al., 2018a). We previously showed that thermal activation of threshold of

ACs, which is ~25°C, is lowered in the starved condition, which results in a lower Tp (Umezaki

et al., 2018b). Because hungry flies increase their Tp after detecting food quickly (Fig. 1 and 2),

we asked whether ACs or *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons are involved in CPR.

To this end, we silenced ACs or *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons by *uas-Kir*. We found

that Tps of fed flies and starved flies were significantly different, showing the normal starved

response (Fig. 3A and B, white and gray bars, Table S1). However, the 10 min sucralose refeeding

did not cause CPR (Fig. 3A and B, blue bars, Table S1). Notably, the control flies, *TrpA1^{SH}-Gal4/+*,

R11F02-Gal4/+, and *uas-Kir/+*, showed normal starved effect and CPR (Fig. 3C-E). Therefore,

these data suggest that ACs and *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons are required for CPR upon

sucralose refeeding.

To further ensure the involvement of ACs and *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons in CPR,

we used optogenetics to excite them artificially by red-light pulse exposure for 10 min. We

compared Tp of starved flies with and without ATR under the red light. Tp of starved flies with

ATR was significantly increased (Fig. 3F and G, yellow bars, Table S1) compared to those of

starved flies without ATR (Fig. 3F and G, gray bars, Table S1). Thus, our data suggest that the

excitation of ACs or *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons causes CPR upon sucralose refeeding.

Gustatory and temperature-sensing neurons regulate response after 10 min glucose intake.

We showed that activations of gustatory or temperature-sensing neurons are required for CPR (Fig.

2 and 3). We wondered if they are also crucial for the response after glucose refeeding, which

enables the starved flies to fully recover. To this end, we used all sweet GRNs silenced flies (*Gr64f-*

Gal4>uas-Kir), two Grs mutants (*Gr5a$^{-/-}$*; *Gr64a$^{-/-}$* and *Gr5a$^{-/-}$*;;*Gr61a$^{-/-}$*, *Gr64a-f$^{/-}$*), and the warm

or cold neuron silenced flies (*TrpA1^{SH}Gal4* or *R11F02-Gal4>uas-Kir*). We found that all of these

starved flies did not increase Tp upon 10 min glucose intake (Fig. S1A-E, green bars, Table S1),

but increased Tp upon 10 min refeeding with fly food, which includes carbohydrate, fat, and

protein (Fig. S2A-E, orange bars, Table S1). The data suggest that gustatory and temperature-

sensing neurons are required for recovery upon carbohydrate but dispensable for other nutrition

such as fat or protein (see discussion). Since flies have sensory neurons that detect fatty acid (Ahn

et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2021; Masek and Keene, 2013) and also amino acids-responsive neurons

(Chen and Dahanukar, 2017; Croset et al., 2016; Ganguly et al., 2017; Steck et al., 2018), these

neurons may control the response after fly food intake. This is likely why the sweet- or

temperature-sensing-blind flies still exhibit the normal recovery after fly food intake (Fig. S2A-

E). On the other hand, the control flies and olfactory mutant (*Orco^1*) showed normal responses for

both 10 min glucose and fly food intake (Fig. S1F-J, green bars, S2F-J, orange bars, Table S1).

The data suggest that in contrast to the gustatory neurons, olfactory neurons are not involved in

the Tp recovery upon glucose intake.

Neuropeptide F is a crucial factor for CPR.

Animals uniformly exhibit a strong CPR triggered by sensory signals. We showed in flies that

sensory cues trigger CPR. Though it is known that internal state strongly influences eating

motivation, the relationship between the internal state and CPR is largely unclear. Hunger

represents the energy state in the body, which induces a release of hunger signals such as a

neuropeptide Y (NPY). NPY promotes food-seeking and feeding behavior in mammals and flies

(Nassel and Wegener, 2011). While intracerebroventricular NPY injection causes CPR

(Geoghegan et al., 1993), injecting NPY antagonists suppress CPR in dogs (Lee et al., 1994),

suggesting that NPY is a regulator for CPR (Lee *et al*., 1994). Therefore, we first focused on

neuropeptide F (NPF) and small neuropeptide F (sNPF), which are the *Drosophila* homologue and

orthologue of mammalian NPY, respectively (Nassel and Wegener, 2011) and asked if they were

involved in CPR. We found in NPF or sNPF mutants that Tp of fed and starved flies were

significantly different, showing a normal starved response (Fig. 4A-D: white vs. gray bars, Table

S1), but they failed to show CPR upon 10 min sucralose refeeding (Fig. 4A and C, blue bars, Table

S1). Thus, NPF and sNPF are required for CPR upon sucralose refeeding.

What about the glucose refeeding? The control flies can fully recover Tp from the starved

state after refeeding with glucose (Fig. 1D). We asked whether NPF and sNPF are involved in

recovery upon glucose refeeding. Surprisingly, we found starved NPF or sNPF mutants

significantly increased Tp after 1 hr or 10 min of glucose refeeding, respectively (Fig. 4B and D,

green and dark green bars, Table S1). Furthermore, NPF and sNPF mutants also increased Tp after

10 min fly food refeeding (Fig. S3A and B, orange bars, Table S1). The data suggest that NPF and

sNPF are not critical for response after nutrient intake. It is noteworthy that NPF and sNPF mutants

could not completely recover from starved state after 10 min normal food intake or 1 hour glucose

intake, suggesting that these mutants' recovery rate may be slower than that of w^{1118} flies.

Factors involving hunger regulate CPR but not recovery upon nutrient intake.

Based on these results above, we hypothesized that hunger signals might influence CPR and nutrient responses differently. To test this hypothesis, we focused on several factors involved in hunger state. The important hunger signals (Lin et al., 2019), Diuretic hormone 44 (DH44) and Adipokinetic hormone (AKH), are homologs of the mammalian corticotropin-releasing hormone (Dus et al., 2015) and glucagon (Kim and Rulifson, 2004; Lee and Park, 2004), respectively. We found that control flies (*Dh44-Gal4/+, Akh-Gal4/+,* and *UAS-Kir/+*) showed normal CPR upon sucralose refeeding (Fig. 4E, I and S; blue bars, Table S1), response after glucose refeeding (Fig. 4F, J, and T, green bars, Table S1), and response after fly food refeeding (Fig. S3 C, E, and J, orange bars, Table S1). Although DH44 or AKH neurons-silenced flies failed to show CPR upon sucralose refeeding, they could increase Tp after 10 min glucose or fly food refeeding (Fig. 4H and L, green and S3D and F, orange, Table S1). The data suggest that DH44 or AKH neurons are required for CPR but not the response after nutrient refeeding.

Insulin-like peptide 6 (Ilp6) is a homologue of mammalian insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1), and *ilp6* mRNA expression increases in starved flies (Bai et al., 2012; Okamoto et al., 2009; Slaidina et al., 2009). Unpaired3 (Upd3) is a cytokine that increases dietary stress (Woodcock et al., 2015). We found that *Ilp6* and *Upd3* mutants failed to show CPR upon sucralose refeeding (Fig. 4M and O, blue bars, Table S1) but showed a normal response after nutrient intake (Fig. 4N and P, green bars and S3G and H, orange bars, Table S1). The data therefore suggest that *Ilp6* and *Upd3* are required for CPR but not for nutrient response.

We also investigated the role of the satiety factor, *Unpaired2* (*Upd2*), a functional leptin

homologue in mammals in CPR (Rajan and Perrimon, 2012). *Upd2* mutants failed to show recovery

after sucralose, glucose, or fly food refeeding (Fig. 4R, green bars and S3I, orange bars, Table S1).

Thus, our data suggest that some factors involved in hunger state processing are required for CPR

upon sucralose refeeding but not nutrient response. The data suggest that that CPR and nutrient

response are differently regulated.

Flies exhibit CPR at all times of the day.

Animals anticipate eating food at a specific time of the day, which is tightly controlled by the

circadian clock (Chaix *et al*., 2019). Flies show rhythmic feeding pattern; a peak in the morning

(Ro *et al*., 2014) or two peaks in the morning and evening (Xu et al., 2008). Because food cues

trigger CPR, we wondered if the induction of CPR depends on the timing of food consumption

and if the timing of CPR and feeding is coordinated. To determine this possibility, we examined

CPR at several time points during the daytime, Zeitgeber time (ZT) 1-3, 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12 in

light and dark (LD) conditions. Importantly, flies exhibit clock-dependent temperature preference

rhythms (TPR) (Kaneko et al., 2012), in which Tp gradually increases during daytime and peaks

in the evening. We found that both w^{1118} and *yellow white* ($y^{1}w^{1}$) flies showed significant starved

responses at all of the tested time points, with a higher Tp in the fed state and lower Tp in the

starved state (Fig. 5A and B: black vs. gray line Table S1).

We found that starved $y^{1}w^{1}$ flies showed CPR any time of the day (Fig. 5B1, gray vs. blue

line, Table S1). On the other hand, starved w^{1118} flies showed a significant CPR only at ZT 4-6 and

10-12 (Fig. 5A1, gray vs. blue line, Table S1). However, it is likely because starved w^{1118} flies

showed an advanced phase shift of TPR with a peak at ZT 7-9 (Fig. 5A, gray), the highest Tp

might simply mask the CPR at ZT 7-9. Thus, the results suggest that w^{1118} and $y^1 w^1$ flies can exhibit

CPR upon sucralose refeeding anytime of the day.

Next, we focused Tp recovery on the nutrient response. Starved w^{1118} and $y^1 w^1$ flies

successfully increased Tp after glucose refeeding during the 10 min (Fig. 5A2 and B2, green line,

Table S1). The 1 hr glucose refeeding led to similar Tp as fed w^{1118} flies (Fig. 5A3, green line). The

data show flies can exhibit CPR and nutrient response at any time of the day, and therefore, CPR

and feeding schedule do not occur in parallel.

Circadian clock genes are required for CPR but not nutrient response.

To determine whether the circadian clock is involved in CPR, we used null mutants of clock genes,

$period^{01}$ (per^{01}) and $timeless^{01}$ (tim^{01}). Although they showed significant starved responses (Fig. 5C

and D, black and gray lines, Table S1), neither starved per^{01} nor tim^{01} mutants could exhibit CPR

upon sucralose refeeding (Fig. 5C1 and D1, blue lines, Table S1). Nonetheless, they showed a full

recovery upon glucose refeeding in LD anytime of the day (Fig. 5C2 and D2, green lines, Table

S1). Therefore, our data suggest that clock genes are required for CPR but not nutrient response

under the LD condition.

That said, starved per^{01} and tim^{01} mutants might eat sucralose less frequently than glucose,

which could cause a failure to show CPR. Therefore, we examined how often starved per^{01} and

tim^{01} mutants touched glucose, sucralose, or water during the 30 min using FLIC assays (Ro *et al.*,

2014) (Fig. S4A-C). Interestingly, starved per^{01} or tim^{01} mutants touched water significantly more

often than glucose or sucralose (Fig. S5B and C, Table S1). Although starved tim^{01} flies touched

glucose slightly more than sucralose only during 10 min, this phenotype is not consistent with per^{01}

and w^{1118} flies. Thus, we concluded in per^{01} and w^{1118} flies that the different response between CPR

and response after glucose intake is not due to feeding speed or amount.

Because clock genes are critical for CPR upon sucralose refeeding, we wondered if internal

clock oscillation is required for CPR. To this end, we leveraged constant light (LL) conditions to

disrupt the circadian molecular clock oscillation (Allada and Chung, 2010; Krzeptowski et al.,

2018). However, even though we kept flies in LL for 2 days after eclosion, w^{1118} flies still sustained

CPR at CT 7-9, and $y^{1}w^{1}$ flies showed sustained CPR any time of the day in LL (Fig. 6A1 and B1,

gray vs. blue lines, Table S1). The data suggest that internal clock oscillations might not be

required for CPR upon sucralose refeeding.

Light is required for CPR upon sucralose refeeding but not nutrient response.

Furthermore, we tested flies in constant darkness (DD) and found that w^{1118} lost the ability for CPR

upon sucralose refeeding (Fig. 6C1, gray vs. blue line, Table S1), suggesting that light is required

for CPR. Thus, flies can exhibit CPR anytime during the day in the presence of light but not in the

dark. Notably, in both LL and DD conditions, starved w^{1118} and $y^{1}w^{1}$ flies showed recovery upon

nutrient intake (Fig. 6A2, B2 and, C2 gray vs. green lines, Table S1). Thus, light is required for

CPR upon sucralose refeeding but not nutrient response.

DISCUSSION

When we are hungry, sensory detection of food (sight, smell, or chew food) initiates digestion even before the food goes to the stomach. This is CPR, which contributes to the physiological regulation of digestion, nutrient homeostasis, and daily energy homeostasis (Zafra *et al*., 2006). The failure to induce CPR causes slower digestion, a delay in nutrient absorption, and lower metabolism. However, the mechanisms by which animals exhibit CPR are largely unclear. To examine these questions, we established the fly model for CPR and found that sensory cues trigger CPR, which is profoundly controlled by the internal state. We showed that the excitation of the sweet, bitter, or temperature-sensing neurons triggers CPR. We found that hunger signals and circadian clock genes are required for CPR but do not regulate nutrient response. The data suggest that CPR and nutrient response are separately controlled and that CPR is driven by the internal need. Thus, we propose that CPR represents another layer of regulation of energy homeostasis.

How do flies set Tp for CPR?

The temperature-sensing neurons, ACs and the cold-sensing *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons, control temperature preference behavior (Hamada *et al*., 2008; Ni *et al*., 2016; Umezaki *et al*., 2018a). We previously showed that the starved flies chose a lower Tp, controlled by ACs but not cold-sensing *R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons (Umezaki *et al*., 2018b). ACs express Transient receptor potential A1 (TrpA1), which responds to a warm temperature >25 degrees (Hamada *et al*., 2008; Tang et al., 2013). The set point of ACs in fed flies, which is ~25 $^{\circ}$C, is lowered in the starved flies. Therefore, the lower ACs' setpoint is likely corresponding to the lower Tp in starved flies. On the other hand, we showed here that starved flies partially increase Tp upon a food cue without

nutrient (Fig. 1C and E), resulting in CPR. We wondered which ACs or cold-sensing neurons are

responsible for CPR. However, since the Tp of CPR is between those of fed and starved flies (Figs.

2, 3 and S2), the temperature differences between CPR flies and starved flies are very small. It is

challenging to detect the smaller temperature differences using the calcium imaging experiments.

Instead, our behavioral data show that both ACs and cold-sensing neurons are responsible for CPR,

suggesting that the temperature setpoints of these neurons are likely changed by food cue, which

could result in CPR.

Internal state drives CPR.

We show that sensory signals trigger CPR only when factors involving hunger (or clock genes) are

present. At a specific time of the day, animals are eager to eat food. Therefore, the "hungry"

internal state functions as a gatekeeper and opens the gate of circuits when the hungry flies detect

the food information, which leads to CPR (Fig. 7, blue arrow). On the other hand, neither hunger

signals nor time of day information are required for the nutrient response (Fig. 7, green arrow).

The data suggest that the internal state is more linked to CPR than nutrient response. It is

noteworthy that the sensory signals contribute to both CPR and response after 10 min glucose

intake (Figs. 7 blue and green arrows, S1 and S2). Therefore, the differences between CPR and

nutrient response are differentiated at the level of the internal state but not the sensory level. Thus,

our data suggest that CPR and nutrient response are separately controlled and that CPR is closely

linked to the internal state.

How do hunger signals or clock genes contribute to CPR?

Mammalian NPY and *Drosophila* homologue NPF modulate the outputs of gustatory signals

(Herness and Zhao, 2009; Inagaki et al., 2014; Wang *et al*., 2016). Hunger signal

hormones/peptides investigated here are important for taste modulation. For example, Akh

receptor is expressed in a subset of the gustatory neurons, which may modulate taste information

for carbohydrate metabolism (Bharucha et al., 2008). Therefore, the hunger signals likely modulate

the downstream of the sensory neurons, which contribute to CPR.

Circadian clock genes control and coordinate the expression of many genes in the body.

Therefore, we expect that the lack of clock genes disturbs the molecular and neural networks of

cellular homeostasis, including metabolism, which are essential for animal life. For example,

gustatory neurons express clock genes, and impaired clock function in gustatory neurons disrupts

daily rhythms in feeding behavior (Chatterjee et al., 2010). Temperature-sensing neurons transmit

warm or cold temperature information to central clock neurons (Alpert et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2021;

Marin et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2017; Yadlapalli et al., 2018). Therefore, the disrupted central clock

in the clock mutants may respond to the temperature signals imprecisely. There are many possible

reasons why the lack of clock gene expression to the central clock in the brain likely cause

abnormal CPR.

Furthermore, hunger signals may contribute to the output of the circadian regulations.

DH44 is located in the dorsomedial region in the fly brains, pars intercerebralis (PI), and the DH44-

expressing neurons play a role in the output pathway of the central clock (Barber et al., 2021; King

et al., 2017). Insulin-producing cells (IPCs) are also located beside DH44-expressing neurons

(Brogiolo et al., 2001; Cao and Brown, 2001; Ikeya et al., 2002; Rulifson et al., 2002). IPCs receive

various information, including circadian (Barber *et al*., 2021; Cavanaugh et al., 2014) and

metabolic signals (Bai *et al*., 2012; Okamoto *et al*., 2009; Rajan and Perrimon, 2012; Slaidina *et*

al., 2009) and subsequently transduce the signals downstream and release Ilps. Both Upd2 and

Ilp6 expressed in the fat body respond to metabolic states and remotely regulate Ilps expression

(Bai *et al*., 2012; Okamoto *et al*., 2009; Rajan and Perrimon, 2012; Slaidina *et al*., 2009).

Therefore, each hunger signal might have its specific function for CPR. Further studies will be

needed to describe the entire process.

The role of light for CPR in both flies and mammals.

Flies exhibit CPR in the presence of light but not in darkness (Figs. 5 and 6), suggesting that visual

inputs are required for CPR or that light may modulate sensory processing. This makes sense in

terms of body temperature regulation for diurnal ectotherms since they often move under the sun

and increase their body temperature by sun basking (Heinrich, 1993). Notably, in starved

mammals, the sight of food under the light is crucial in eliciting CPR (Fukuda and Morita, 2017).

In fact, visual cues are essential to evaluate how much food is consumed (Scheibehenne et al.,

2010). Thus, food signals could trigger CPR under light in both flies and mammals.

Both mammals and flies show CPR in body temperature regulation.

Starved flies choose a lower Tp. Because flies are small ectotherms, lower Tp means a lower

body temperature (Stevenson, 1985a; Stevenson, 1985b), which leads to a reduced metabolic rate

(Klepsatel et al., 2019). Therefore, both body temperature and metabolic states are lower in

starved flies than those of fed flies, resulting in energy savings for survival. Since flies move

slowly in the lower temperature than in the warm temperature and their metabolic state is low

(Giraldo et al., 2019), starved flies may need to exit from the starved state as soon as possible.

As soon as hungry animals taste food, the sensory signals trigger CPR. They can move to

a warmer place to prepare to warm up their body temperature (Fig. 7, blue arrows). This CPR is

an intermediate response in which flies generally prefer medium warmer Tp yet do not reach the

high Tp of fed flies. CPR may allow flies to choose a warmer place to enable higher metabolism,

which allows them to move to the next step, such as foraging and actively moving to find a mate

before competitors arrive. As such, CPR may be a strategy for the fly's survival. As soon as

nutrients enter the body, flies can choose a similar Tp as fed flies. (Fig. 7, green arrows).

Similarly, starvation or malnutrition in mammals causes lower body temperature (Cintron-

Colon *et al*., 2017; Piccione *et al*., 2002), and biting food triggers heat generation, which is CPR

(LeBlanc *et al*., 1984; Power and Schulkin, 2008). Thus, while starvation causes lower body

temperatures in both flies and mammals, feeding cues initiate CPR in heat generation and nutrient

intake, resulting in full recovery from the hungry state. Our data suggest that the *Drosophila* CPR

may be a functional and physiological response equivalent to the CPR observed in other animals.

Thus, *Drosophila* may shed new light on the regulation of CPR and provide a deeper understanding

of the relationship between CPR and metabolism.

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Contributions

F.N.H and Y.U designed the experiments. Y.U, E.N., T.N. and J.S. performed the temperature preference behavioral assays and data analysis. Y.U., S.H.S., S.S.U. and J.C. performed the feeding experiments and the data analysis. F.N.H and Y.U wrote the manuscript.

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests

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FIGURES

Figure 1. Sucralose refeeding triggers an intermediate recovery, which differs from the

response after glucose intake.

(A) A schematic diagram of the experimental conditions. Flies were reared under fly food.

Emerged flies were kept with fly food for one or two days (orange) and then starved with water-

absorbed paper for one or two overnights (gray). Starved flies were refed with either fly food

(orange), 2 mL of sucralose (blue), or glucose solution (green) absorbed paper, and then the

temperature preference (Tp) behavior assays were examined. Details are provided in the

experimental procedures.

(B-D) Comparison of Tp of *white^{1118}* (*w^{1118}*) control flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV;

gray bar), and refed state (orange, blue, or green bar). Starved flies were refed with fly food

(orange bar) for 5, 10, 30, or 60 min (1 hr) (B), 2.8 mM sucralose solution (blue bar) for 10 min

or 1 hr (C), or 2.8 mM (equivalent to 5%) glucose solution (green bar) for 5 min, 10 min, or 1 hr

(D). Behavioral experiments were performed at zeitgeber time (ZT) 4-7. ZT0 and ZT12 are light-

on and light-off, respectively. Dots on each bar show individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers

indicate the number of trials. Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way

ANOVA was performed to compare Tp among each refeeding condition. Tukey's post hoc test

was used to compare between experiments and starved condition (green stars). Data is show as

average Tp with SEM. *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001. ****p < 0.0001. NS indicates no

significance.

(E) Comparison of Tp among the following condition in *w^{1118}* (control) flies; fed (white bar),

starved overnight (O/N) (Water or STV; gray bar), refed with fly food (orange bar), sucralose

(blue bars), or glucose (green bars). The same data are used in Fig. 1 B-D. Per normality test, the

Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA was performed to compare Tp among each

refeeding condition. Red (or green) stars show Tukey's post hoc test, which was compared

between experiments and fed (or starved) conditions, respectively. $*p < 0.05$. $**p < 0.01$. $***p <$

0.001. $****p < 0.0001$. NS indicates no significance.

(F) Feeding assay: number of touches to the water (gray), 2.8 mM (equivalent to 5%) glucose

(green), or 2.8 mM sucralose in each solution (blue) was examined using w^{1118} flies which

starved for 1 day. Cumulative number of touches for 0-30 min were plotted. Two-way ANOVA

was performed for the multiple comparison test. Blue and green stars show Fisher's LSD post

hoc test compared sucralose (blue stars) or glucose (green stars) solution feeding to water

drinking. All data shown are averages with SEM. $*p < 0.05$. $**p < 0.01$. $***p < 0.001$. $****p <$

0.0001.

Figure 2. Gustatory neurons are important for intermediate recovery.

(A-E and K) Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and

refed state (blue bar). The starved flies were refed with sucralose (blue bars) for 10 min.

(F-J) Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and starved

state with all-trans-retinal (ATR; yellow bars), which is the chromophore and required for the

CsChrimson activation. Gustatory neurons in starved flies were excited by red-light pulses

(flashing on and off at 10 Hz) for 10 min. Behavioral experiments were performed at ZT4-7.

Dots on each bar show individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers indicate the number of trials.

Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA was performed for

statistical analysis. Green stars show Tukey's post hoc test that was compared between each

experiment and starved condition. Compiled data were shown in Fig. S2. All data shown are

averages with SEM. *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001. ****p < 0.0001. NS indicates no

significance.

(L) Schematic diagram of the optogenetic activation assay.

Figure 3. Activation of temperature-sensing neurons triggers CPR.

(A-E) Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and refed state

(blue bar). Starved flies were refed with sucralose (blue bars) for 10 min. Behavioral experiments

were performed at ZT4-7. Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way

ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis. Green stars show Tukey's

post hoc test or Dunn's test that was compared between each experiment and starved condition.

Compiled data were shown in Fig. S2. All data shown are averages with SEM. *p < 0.05. **p <

0.01. ***p < 0.001. ****p < 0.0001. NS indicates no significance. The same data of *UAS-Kir/+*

in Fig. 2E are used in Fig. 3E.

(F and G) Comparison of Tp between starved (STV; gray bar) and starved flies with all-trans-

retinal (ATR; yellow bars). Warm neurons (F) or cold neurons (G) in starved flies were

expressed CsChrimson that was excited by red-light pulses for 10 min. Behavioral experiments

were performed at ZT4-7. Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. Student t-test

or Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used for statistical analysis. (G) *tubGal80^{ts}; R11F02-*

Gal4>uas-CsChrimson flies were reared at 18°C, and emerged adult flies were collected and

kept at 29°C. Details are in the materials and methods.

Figure 4. Hunger signals are necessary for CPR.

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and refed state (blue,

green or dark green). Starved flies were refed with sucralose (blue bars) or glucose (green) for 10

min. These behavioral experiments were performed at ZT4-7. Dots on each bar showed

individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers indicate the number of trials. Per normality test, the

Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA was performed for statistical analysis.

Green stars show Tukey's post hoc test that was compared between each experiment and starved

condition. Compiled data were shown in Fig. S3. All data shown are averages with SEM. *p <

0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001. ****p < 0.0001. NS indicates no significance.

Figure 5. Clock genes are necessary for CPR in LD.

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white circles), starved (STV; gray triangles), and refed

state (blue, green or dark green squares). Starved flies were refed with sucralose (blue squares)

or glucose for 10 min (green squares) or 1 hr (dark green squares). After refeeding for 10 min or

1 hr, the temperature preference behavior assays were immediately performed at ZT1-3, 4-6, 7-9,

and 10-12 in LD. Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA or

Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis. Green stars show Tukey's post hoc

test or Dunn's test that was compared between each experiment and starved condition at the

same time point. All data shown are averages with SEM. *p<0.05. **p<0.01. ***p<0.001. ****p

< 0.0001.

Figure 6. Light is crucial for CPR.

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white circles), starved (STV; gray triangles), and refed

state (blue or green squares). After flies were raised in LD condition, adult flies were under the

LL (A1, A2, B1, and B2) or DD (C1 and C2) conditions for two days. Starved flies were refed

with sucralose (blue squares) or glucose for 10 min (green squares). Right after, the temperature

preference behavioral assay was performed under the light (A1, A2, B1, and B2) or in the dark

(C1 and C2) at circadian time (CT)1-3, 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12. Per normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk

test was performed. One-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for statistical

analysis. Green stars show Tukey's post hoc or Dunn's test that was compared between each

experiment and starved condition at the same time point. As for Fig. 6C, fed flies kept in DD

showed rhythmic TPR in daytime ($p < 0.05$). All data shown are averages with SEM. *$p < 0.05$.

**$p < 0.01$. ***$p < 0.001$. ****$p < 0.0001$.

Figure 7. MODEL

A schematic diagram for the Tp recovery by CPR (blue arrows) and nutrient-dependent

regulation (green arrows).

Figure S1. Gustatory or temperature-sensing neurons are indispensable for the recovery

after glucose intake (Related to Figs. 2 and 3).

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and refed state (green

or dark green bar). The starved flies were refed with glucose for 10 min (green) and 1 hr (dark

green). These behavioral experiments were performed at ZT4-7. Dots on each bar showed

individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers indicate the number of trials. Per normality test,

Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis test was performed for

statistical analysis. Green stars show Tukey's post hoc test or Dunn's test that was compared

between each experiment and starved condition. All data shown are averages with sem. $*p <$

$0.05.$ $**p < 0.01.$ $***p < 0.001.$ $****p < 0.0001.$ NS indicates no significance.

Figure S2: Tp recovery upon sucralose, glucose, fly food refeeding using gustatory or

temperature-sensing neurons silenced flies. (Related to Figs. 2, 3 and S1)

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and refed state

(orange, blue, green or dark green bar). The starved flies were refed with normal fly food for 10

min (orange), sucralose for 10 min (blue), glucose for 10 min (green) or 1 hr (dark green). The

same data were used with Figs. 2, 3 and S1. These behavioral experiments were performed at

ZT4-7. Dots on each bar showed individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers indicate the number

of trials. Per normality test, Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA or Kruskal-

Wallis test was performed for statistical analysis. Green stars show Tukey's post hoc test or

Dunn's test that was compared between each experiment and starved condition. All data shown

are averages with SEM. $*p < 0.05.$ $**p < 0.01.$ $***p < 0.001.$ $****p < 0.0001.$ NS indicates no

significance.

Figure S3: Tp recovery upon sucralose, glucose, fly food refeeding using flies, which deleted

the hunger signals or suppressed the hunger-stress-responsive neurons. (Related to Fig. 4)

Comparison of Tp of flies among fed (white bar), starved (STV; gray bar), and refed state

(orange, blue, green or dark green bar). Starved flies were refed with normal fly food for 10 min

(orange), sucralose for 10 min (blue), glucose for 10 min (green) or 1 hr (dark green). The same

data were used in Fig. 4. These behavioral experiments were performed at ZT4-7. Dots on each

bar showed individual Tp in assays. Italicized numbers indicate the number of trials. Per

normality test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. One-way ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis test

was performed for statistical analysis. Green stars show the Tukey post hoc test or Dunn's test

that was compared between each experiment and starved condition. All data shown are averages

with SEM. $*p < 0.05$. $**p < 0.01$. $***p < 0.001$. $****p < 0.0001$. NS indicates no significance.

Figure S4. The number of touches on water, sucralose, and glucose using yw, per^{01}, and

tim^{01} flies. (Related to Figs. 1, 5 and 6)

Feeding assay: the number of touches to water (gray), 2.8 mM (equivalent to 5 %) glucose

(green), or 2.8 mM sucralose solution (blue) were examined using yw, per^{01}, or tim^{01} flies that

were starved for 1 day. The cumulative number of touches for 0-30 min was plotted. Two-way

ANOVA was performed for the multiple comparison test. Blue and green stars show Fisher's

LSD post hoc test that was compared between sucralose (blue stars) or glucose (green stars)

solution feeding to water drinking. Black stars show the statistical difference between sucralose

and glucose feeding. All data shown are averages with SEM. *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01. ***p <

0.001. ****p < 0.0001.

Materials and Methods

All flies were reared under 12 hr-light/12 hr-dark (LD) cycles at 25°C and 60-70% humidity in

an incubator (DRoS33SD, Powers Scientific Inc.) with an electric timer (light on: 8am; light off:

8pm). The light intensity is 1000-1400 lux. All flies were reared on custom fly food recipe, with

the following composition per 1 L of food: 6.0 g sucrose, 7.3 g agar, 44.6 g cornmeal, 22.3 g

yeast and 16.3 mL molasses as described previously (Umezaki *et al.*, 2018a). *white^{1118}* (*w^{1118}*)

and *yellow^1 white^1* (*y^{1}w^1*) flies were used as control flies. *EP5Δ; Gr64a^1* (*Gr5a$^{-/-}$; Gr64a$^{-/-}$*) was

kindly provided by Dr. Anupama Dahanukar (Dahanukar *et al.*, 2007). *R1; Gr5a-LexA; +;*

ΔGr61a, ΔGr64a-f (*Gr5a$^{-/-}$; Gr61a$^{-/-}$, Gr64a-f$^{/-}$*) were kindly provided by Dr. Hubert Amrein

(Fujii *et al.*, 2015; Yavuz *et al.*, 2014). *Dh44-Gal4* was kindly provided by Dr. Greg Suh (Dus *et*

al., 2011). *TrpA1^{SH}-gal4* was kindly provided by Dr. Paul A. Garrity (Hamada *et al.*, 2008).

Other fly lines were provided by Bloomington Drosophila stock center and Vienna Drosophila

Stock Center.

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Temperature preference behavioral assay

The temperature preference behavior assays were examined using a gradient of temperatures,

ranging from 16-34°C and were performed for 30 min in an environmental room maintained at

25°C /60%–70% humidity as described previously (Umezaki *et al.*, 2018b). We prepared a total

of 40-50 flies (male and female flies were mixed) for fed condition experiments and 90-100 flies

for overnight(s) starved and refed condition experiments for one trial. Flies were never reused in

subsequent trials. In starved and refed experiments, we prepared double the amount of flies

required for one trial, as almost half of them died by starvation stress. Others climbed on the wall

and ceiling (starved flies are usually hyperactive (Yang et al. 2015 PNAS)), even though we

applied slippery coating chemicals (PTFE; Cat# 665800, Sigma or byFormica PTFE Plus,

https://byformica.com/products/fluon-plus-ptfe-escape-prevention-coating) to the plexiglass

covers.

The behavioral assays were performed for 30 min at Zeitgeber time (ZT) 4-7 (Light on

and light off are defined as ZT0 and ZT12, respectively), and starvation was initiated at ZT9-10

(starved for 1, 2 or 3 O/N are 18-21 hrs, 42-45 hrs or 66-69 hrs, respectively). For the starvation

assays, the collected flies were maintained with our fly food for at least one day for their

maturation and subsequently moved into plastic vials with 3 mL of distilled water which is

absorbed by a Kimwipe paper. For the refeeding experiments, starved flies were transferred into

plastic vials with 2 mL of 2.8 mM sugar solution (Sucralose water/ Glucose water) for a certain

time period. Sugar solution is absorbed by the half size of a Kimwipe.

After the 30-min behavioral assay, the number of flies whose bodies were completely

located on the apparatus were counted. Flies whose bodies were partially or completely located

on the walls of the apparatus cover were not included in the data analysis. The percentage of flies

within each one-degree temperature interval on the apparatus was calculated by dividing the

number of flies within each one-degree interval by the total number of flies on the apparatus. The

location of each one-degree interval was determined by measuring the temperature at 6 different

points on the bottom of the apparatus. Data points were plotted as the percentage of flies within a

one-degree temperature interval. The weighted mean of Tp was calculated by totaling the

product of the percentage of flies within a one-degree temperature interval and the corresponding

temperature (e.g., fractional number of flies x 15.5°C + fractional number of flies x 16.5°C

+……… fractional number of flies x 34.5°C). If the SEM of the averaged Tp was not < 0.3 after

the five trials, we performed additional trials around 10 times until the SEM reached < 0.3.

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Temperature preference rhythm (TPR) assay

For the TPR assays, we performed temperature preference behavior assays in different time

windows during the day (zeitgeber time (ZT) or circadian time (CT) 1-3, 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12) as

described previously (Goda et al., 2014; Kaneko *et al.*, 2012). Because starvation duration

directly affects flies' Tp (Umezaki *et al.*, 2018b), starvation was initiated at each time window to

adjust the starvation duration at each time point, which means flies were starved for 24 hrs or 48

hrs but not 1 or 2 O/N. Each behavioral assay was not examined during these time periods (ZT or

CT0-1 and 11.5-13) because of large phenotype variation around light on and light off.

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Optogenetic activation

For the optogenetic activation of the target neurons for behavioral assays, red-light-sensitive

channelrodopsin, *UAS-CsChrimson*, was crossed with each Gal4 drivers. Flies were reared on fly

food at 25°C and 60-70% humidity under LD cycles in an incubator (DRoS33SD, Powers

Scientific Inc.) with an electric timer. After flies emerged, we collected adult flies and kept them

with fly food for 1-2 days. Next day, flies were transferred into water with or without 0.8 mM

all-trans retinal (ATR; #R2500, Sigma) diluted in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; #472301, Sigma)

for 2 O/N. To activate flies expressing UAS-CsChrimson crossed with Gal4 drivers, we

employed 627 nm red-colored light-emitted diode (LED) equipped with pulse photoillumination

system (10 Hz, 0.08 mWmm^{-2}). Flies were irradiated with pulsed red light for 10 min, which is

equivalent to refeeding time period. This photoillumination system was used in an incubator

(Sanyo Scientific, MIR-154), and followed by temperature preference behavioral assays.

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Optogenetic assay for *tubGal80^{ts}; R11F02-Gal4>uas-CsChrimson*

Because *R11F02-Gal4>uas-CsChrimson* flies died during the pupal stage, Gal4/Gal80^{ts} system

was used to restrict *uas-CsChrimson* expression to the adult stage for optogenetc assays against

the cold-sensing neurons (*R11F02-Gal4*-expressing neurons). Gal80^{ts} is a temperature sensitive

allele of Gal80, which binds Gal4 and inhibits *CsChrimson* gene expression at 18°C. However,

Gal80 is degraded at 29°C; in turn, the Gal4 activates *CsChrimson* gene expression (Southall et

al. 2008 CSH protocol). *tubGal80^{ts}; R11F02-Gal4>uas-CsChrimson* flies were reared with fly

food at 18°C. Emerged adult flies were collected and kept with fly food at 29°C. Next day, flies

were transferred to water condition (starved condition) with or without 0.8 mM ATR for 2 O/N.

Starved flies with or without ATR application were exposed to pulsed red light for 10 min

(equivalent to refeeding period) and then immediately loaded in the behavior apparatus for

behavioral assays to measure their Tp.

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Feeding assay

To measure single fly feeding, we used *Drosophila* Fly Liquid Interaction Counter (FLIC)

system (Ro et al. 2013 Plos one; Sable systems International https://www.sablesys.com). Groups

of 1-2-day-old male and female flies were starved for 24 hrs, between ZT4-5 (12-1pm).

Individual flies were then loaded into FLIC monitors. Flies were acclimatized to the monitors for

30 min, with access to water provided in the food wells. To start the feeding assay, water was

replaced with 2.8 mM Sucralose or 2.8 mM Glucose solution (equivalent to 5% Glucose conc.)

and the number of licks (touches) were recorded for 30 min. Assays were performed at ZT4-7.

To account for potential confounding effect of startle response when changing the food, wells

where water was replaced with new water were used as a control. FLIC raw data was analyzed

using the FLIC R code master (Pletcher Lab, available

at https://github.com/PletcherLab/FLIC_R_Code). The numbers of licks were obtained and

summed into 5-min windows bin, while the cumulative licks were obtained by the consecutive

sum of the licks in these bins.

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Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Refed Sucralose (LD)

Refed Glucose (LD)

Refed Glucose for 1hr (LD)

A1: *w^1118*
A2: *w^1118*
A3: *w^1118*

B1: *y^1w^1*
B2: *y^1w^1*

C1: *per^01*
C2: *per^01*

D1: *tim^01*
D2: *tim^01*

Legend:
- Fed
- Starved
- Refed Sucralose for 10min
- Refed Glucose for 10min
- Refed Glucose for 1hr

Fig. 6

Refed Sucralose (LL) **Refed Glucose (LL)**

A1: w^{1118}
A2: w^{1118}

B1: y^1w^1
B2: y^1w^1

Refed Sucralose (DD) **Refed Glucose (DD)**

C1: w^{1118}
C2: w^{1118}

Preferred temp. (°C)

Circadian time (CT; hr)

— Fed
— Starved
— Refed Sucralose for 10min
— Refed Glucose for 10min

Fig. 7

Fig. S1

Fig. S2

Fig. S3

Fig. S4

A: *yw*, Cumulative # of touches

B: *per^{01}*, Cumulative # of touches

C: *tim^{01}*, Cumulative # of touches