Behavior evolves as a correlated response to selection on cuticle color in *Drosophila melanogaster* and *D. simulans*

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Keywords: experimental evolution, color, behavior, pleiotropy

Abstract:

Understanding whether traits evolve independently or as integrated units is central to predicting adaptive evolution. Correlated trait evolution can reflect genetic covariation, such that selection on one trait can constrain or redirect evolutionary responses in others. Here, we used artificial selection on cuticle color in *Drosophila melanogaster* and *D. simulans* to investigate whether color and behavior evolve in tandem. We selected for light and dark thoracic colors across 16 generations in two populations per species and measured correlated responses in a suite of behavioral traits, including aggression, basal activity, total activity, sleep, and geotaxis. Dark selected individuals generally showed higher aggression and basal activity than light selected or control flies across both species and sexes, pointing to a modest but repeatable correlated response that must be interpreted in light of low and variable aggression in our assay. In contrast, patterns for geotaxis, sleep, and total activity evolved unpredictably, often varying across species and populations, and showed no clear or uniform association with color. Taken together, our results suggest that some behaviors may share a predictable relationship with color, whereas others behave largely independently under the conditions we examined. The persistence of correlated responses in aggression and basal activity in response to selection on color is consistent with a conserved genetic basis, such as pleiotropy or tight linkage, although our data do not, by themselves, distinguish among these mechanisms. Future work that identifies the loci underlying variation in both color and behavior and tests their effects experimentally will be important for clarifying how multivariate genetic covariance shapes the direction and pace of adaptive evolution.

Introduction

A key goal of modern evolutionary biology is to predict if and how populations will evolve adaptively in response to environmental change. Predicting adaptive evolution requires identifying constraints that might limit a population's ability to respond to selection. Definitions of adaptive constraints vary, but they all emphasize the same core concept: that populations are not always able to respond to selection in predictable ways (Blows and Walsh 2009; Walsh and Blows 2009; Connallon and Hall 2018; Hansen and Pélabon 2021). One important source of long-term adaptive constraint is genetic correlation (or genetic covariance), which can prevent traits from evolving independently or slow adaptation to a new environment (Houle 1991; Connallon and Hall 2018; Hansen and Pélabon 2021).

Numerous empirical studies in both natural and experimental populations have tested whether these genetic correlations constrain adaptation. In natural populations, selection on one trait can cause constrained changes in another trait, such as the linked evolution of beak morphology and song in Darwin's finches (Podos 2001) or the covariation of body shape and armor in threespine sticklebacks (Leinonen et al. 2011). Experimental evolution and artificial selection studies in model organisms, like *Drosophila melanogaster*, allow researchers to identify the nature of underlying genomic differences associated with genetic correlations. For example, laboratory selection for decreased development time in *D. melanogaster* led to correlated changes in body size and lifespan, along with divergence across dozens of loci (Burke et al. 2010). Collectively, these studies demonstrate that correlated trait responses are likely ubiquitous and have a high potential to constrain the predictability of evolutionary outcomes. A continued emphasis on testing for correlations among a diversity of phenotypic traits across a breadth of organismal systems is essential if we are to fully understand how phenotypic and genetic correlations predictably constrain adaptive evolution, especially as molecular tools become more readily available for a wider range of taxa.

Color and behavior are two ecologically important traits that are often key targets of selection and have been previously demonstrated to be correlated at the phenotypic level (Ducrest et al. 2008; Roulin and Ducrest 2011; San-Jose and Roulin 2018; Ruckman et al. 2024). One hypothesis for this trait correlation is the melanin-pleiotropy hypothesis; this hypothesis proposes that correlations between color and behavior arise because the biochemical pathways underlying coloration (e.g., melanin synthesis) influence neurophysiology and behavior (Ducrest

et al. 2008; San-Jose and Roulin 2018). In invertebrates, for example, melanin coloration arises from dopamine metabolism, and changes in gene expression within the pathway are linked to variation in color intensity (Wittkopp and Beldade 2009; Takahashi 2013). Consequently, mutations in key pigmentation genes, such as *ebony* and *yellow*, not only alter color but also cause predictable behavioral defects, including abnormalities in circadian rhythms (Suh and Jackson 2007) and mating behavior (Suh and Jackson 2007; reviewed in Takahashi 2013). However, a recent meta-analysis across all of Animalia (Ruckman et al. 2024) revealed a consistent positive correlation between color and behavior, which was not restricted to only melanin-based colors, challenging the exclusivity of the melanin-pleiotropy hypothesis. Instead, the results pointed to the 'badge of status' hypothesis as the most parsimonious explanation, where conspicuous colors act as honest signals of an individual's aggressive potential (Rohwer 1975; McGraw et al. 2003; Tibbetts and Dale 2004). Further, Ruckman et al. (2024) found no evidence for condition dependence, suggesting that the correlation between color and aggression is best explained by genetic covariance. While pleiotropy associated with the same genes across disparate color pathways (e.g., melanin and carotenoids) is unlikely, genetic covariance can also arise from linkage disequilibrium, in which genes for coloration and aggression are inherited together because of their close physical proximity. The conclusion from this meta-analysis, however, was inferred from broad-scale correlational patterns, leaving the underlying genetic mechanism, pleiotropy or linkage disequilibrium, unresolved.

Distinguishing between pleiotropy or linkage disequilibrium can be a challenge when testing for a correlated response to selection in only one species. Instead, experimental evolution studies comparing responses among two or more related species subjected to the same selection regime can be a powerful tool. Because linkage disequilibrium is generally not expected to be conserved over longer evolutionary timescales (Falconer and Mackay 1996; Gaut and Long 2003; Slatkin 2008), a consistent pattern of correlated trait evolution observed repeatedly in two distinct, but closely related species would provide strong evidence for pleiotropy (Lande 1979; Cheverud 1988, 1996; Wagner and Zhang 2011). Here, we focused on two species of fruit flies, *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. These recently diverged species (about 2-8 million years ago; Capy and Gibert 2004; Obbard et al. 2012) are classic models for experimental evolution (e.g., Burke et al. 2010; Turner et al. 2011, 2013; Remolina et al. 2012; Barghi et al. 2017; Kelly and Hughes 2019; Bastide et al. 2022; Girardeau et al. 2025) due to their tractability and conserved

genetic mechanisms between species (Hoffmann 1987; Kravitz and Huber 2003; Kravitz and Fernandez 2015; Massey and Wittkopp 2016). However, they are rarely used together within a single experiment to directly compare correlated responses to selection, especially in the context of color and behavior. Furthermore, in *Drosophila*, both cuticle pigmentation (Wittkopp et al. 2011; Rajpurohit et al. 2016; Bastide et al. 2022) and behavior (Sokolowski 2001; Martin 2003; Anholt and Mackay 2015; Kravitz and Fernandez 2015) are ecologically relevant traits that influence fitness. By leveraging this two-species system, we used an experimental evolution approach to test whether consistent patterns of behavioral change emerge following selection on pigmentation and explored how those responses vary across species and sexes.

We hypothesized that selection for darker color would drive a correlated suite of behavioral changes (aggression, basal activity, geotaxis, total activity, and sleep) in comparison to light selected individuals for both *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans*. We predicted dark selected individuals would be more aggressive and have increased locomotor activity (Jordan et al. 2006, 2007; Ducrest et al. 2008; Wittkopp and Beldade 2009; Takahashi 2013). Given previous evidence of a negative correlation between locomotor activity and sleep in *D. melanogaster* (Keene et al. 2010; Harbison et al. 2013), we predicted dark selected flies (i.e., more active flies) would sleep less. Finally, because activity level and geotaxis have been shown to be genetically correlated in *D. melanogaster* (Murphey and Hall 1969; Toma et al. 2002; Zhong et al. 2022), we predicted that dark selected flies would have a faster geotactic response. The evolution of one or more of these behaviors in tandem with color would support our hypothesis, providing direct experimental evidence that genetic covariance influences the evolution of this suite of traits.

Methods

Fly maintenance

We housed each species in a separate incubator (Percival Model # 136VLC8Q9) on a 12-hour light and 12-hour dark cycle. We maintained *D. melanogaster* populations (*D. mel*-1 and *D. mel*-2) at a constant temperature of 25 °C, while *D. simulans* (*D. sim*-1 and *D. sim*-2) were housed at a constant temperature of 24 °C (Krstevska and Hoffmann 1994; Ashburner and Roote 2007; Austin and Moehring 2013). We housed each treatment in a separate plexiglass population cage (26.67 cm x 15.25 cm x 20.32 cm) and randomly assorted the cages into the incubator every

week. Bottles containing a standard Drosophila media composition (Ashburner and Roote 2007) were added to each cage every week, and were removed after three weeks.

Artificial Selection

To limit the effects of bottlenecks early in the experiment, we used a gradual selection regime (Kofler and Schlötterer 2014; Vlachos and Kofler 2019). Each generation, we collected 750 virgin females and 750 males for each population (Supplemental Material for origin). We randomly assigned them to three equal-sexed groups to serve as the parents for the three treatments (Figure 1). In each population, we established two selection treatments (dark "D" and light "L" selected) and one control "C" treatment. We performed selection on the cuticle coloration of the dorsal thorax. This region of the cuticle is not sexually dimorphic (Wittkopp et al. 2003; Massey and Wittkopp 2016). To perform selection, flies were anesthetized with CO_2. We scored the color of the dorsal thorax by eye into four color categories, using the prominent macrochaeta as landmarks (David et al. 1985; see Supplemental Material for details). Color selection was conducted by a single individual and validated (n=100) for agreement with objective color quantification measurements and repeatability (see Supplemental Material). Visual bins differed from one another in the expected directions ($F_{3, 96}$= 138.19, P<0.001; Figure S1) and were highly repeatable (ICC = 0.933; $F_{99,99.1}$ = 29.2, p < 0.001; Figure S2).

For D and L selection treatments, we gradually increased the coefficient of selection from 80% of 250 virgin females and 80% of 250 males to 8.4% of 250 virgin females and 8.4% of 250 males, over 16 generations. For example, for L, we selected the lightest 80% of 250 virgin females and 80% of 250 males in the first generation of selection. By the 16th generation, we selected only the lightest 8.4% of 250 virgin females and 8.4% of 250 males. C treatments flies were randomly chosen with respect to thorax color in each generation, while still mimicking the changes in population size experienced by the D and L treatments. Figure 1 illustrates this selection scheme in detail and indicates the generations in which phenotypes other than thorax color were assayed. No individuals used in the selection experiment were used in behavioral tests.

Behavioral Assays

All behavioral tests were conducted on individuals 3-5 days old that were not used to establish the next generation of flies. For all behavioral assays, flies were isolated for 24 hours before testing. All tests were scored by observers who were blind to the hypothesis. However,

the observer was not blind to the color or sex of the individual as these features were readily apparent.

Aggressive Behavior: Due to its previously reported association with color (Ducrest et al. 2008; San-Jose and Roulin 2018; Ruckman et al. 2024), we were particularly interested in aggression, and therefore, measured aggression at multiple generations (generations 5, 10, and 15; Figure 1) using a standard protocol (Girardeau et al. 2025). To assay aggression, we paired a focal individual with a marked opponent of the same sex, similar age, color, and size. Controlling for sex, age, and size accounts for known behavioral covariates in *Drosophila* (Hoffmann 1991; Chen et al. 2002; Baxter and Dukas 2017; Bath et al. 2021; Fernandez et al. 2023) Furthermore, we paired individuals of similar color because interactions can be modulated by an opponent's coloration, a principle established in other species (e.g., Lank et al. 1995; Sinervo and Lively 1996; Kraft et al. 2018; Sacchi et al. 2021; Scali et al. 2021).

The focal individual was assigned randomly. The opponent's left wing was marked to distinguish it from the focal individual. Females were first aspirated into new vials without media or water for two hours before conducting the trial to increase the likelihood of aggressive behaviors (Ueda and Kidokoro 2002). After two hours, both females were aspirated into the arena. For the male assays, flies were aspirated together into the arena 30 minutes after lights on that day.

We used a standard aggression arena with a central food resource (see Supplemental Material for details; Hutchins et al. 2024; Girardeau et al. 2025). Following a five-minute acclimation period, we recorded the occurrence of fencing, lunging, boxing, and tussling (Chen et al. 2002; see Supplemental Material for behavioral descriptions) every five minutes for one hour (Altmann 1974).

Basal Activity Level: To measure basal activity level, we aspirated each individual into an open field arena 3 hours after lights on that day (see Supplemental Material for details). After a 10-minute acclimation period, the focal individuals were video-recorded for one minute, and we counted the number of grid lines crossed as a measure of activity (Burnet et al. 1988; Anderson et al. 2016).

Geotaxis Level: To measure geotaxis, we aspirated each individual into the geotaxis arena (Taylor and Tuxworth 2019; Zhong et al. 2022; see Supplemental Material for details). After tapping a fly to the bottom, we timed how long it took to climb a 2 cm distance. Trials were

considered censored (score of 0) after one minute if the individual did not climb the 2 cm distance.

Total Activity Level and Sleep: We measured activity and sleep over 72 hours using the *Drosophila* Activity Monitoring (DAM) system (Trikinetics, Waltham, MA). Flies were individually housed in tubes with standard media and acclimated for 24 hours before data collection. Total activity is measured as total beam crossings per day. Total sleep is defined as the number of 5-minute bouts of inactivity per day (Pfeiffenberger et al. 2010a,b; see Supplemental Material for details).

Color Quantification of Individuals Used in Behavioral Assays

Following behavioral assays, all individuals were photographed using a standardized apparatus (WINGMACHINE; Houle et al. 2003). The mean grayscale value of the dorsal thorax was quantified from these images using ImageJ after calibration to a color standard (Schneider et al. 2012; see Supplemental Material for the imaging and analysis protocol).

Statistical Analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 4.5.0 (R Core Team 2025). To test for direct and correlated responses to selection, we used a consistent generalized linear model (GLM) framework for each trait. All models were analyzed separately for males and females because the residual distributions differed between the sexes. For each trait, we visually inspected residuals and fitted values to verify that model assumptions (e.g., normality, homoscedasticity, goodness of fit) were met.

For the color and behavioral analyses, the full model for each trait related the dependent variable (e.g., grayscale value, aggression counts) to the fixed effects of species, treatment, and population (nested within species), including all two-way interactions. To test our prediction that selection treatments would diverge linearly, we coded treatment as a continuous predictor with values -1, 0, and 1 corresponding to L, C, and D lines, respectively. This parameterization allowed us to estimate both the direction and magnitude of the evolutionary response to selection. Models were fit by maximum likelihood, and we used F-tests for Gaussian models and Wald χ^2 statistics for GLMs to assess the significance of main effects and interactions. Non-significant interaction terms ($p > 0.05$) were removed before testing main effects.

We selected error distributions appropriate to each trait: a normal distribution for thorax grayscale values and for total activity and sleep; a Poisson distribution with a log link for counts

of aggressive acts; and a negative binomial distribution for basal activity counts. For geotaxis, we analyzed time-to-event data using a Cox proportional hazards mixed-effects model (coxme package; Therneau 2024) with observer as a random effect and right-censoring of individuals that did not complete the task within one minute.

When we detected a significant main effect or interaction involving treatment, we conducted post-hoc comparisons using the emmeans package (Lenth 2025). For Gaussian and negative binomial models, we report least-squares means and pairwise t-tests; for Poisson models, we used asymptotic z-tests with effectively infinite degrees of freedom. When treatment-by-population interactions were significant, we further characterized among-population differences in response to selection using simple slopes analyses implemented with the emtrends function in emmeans, which estimates the treatment slope within each population and tests it using Wald X^2 statistics.

To examine the temporal dynamics of the response to selection and differences in evolutionary trajectories among treatments, we fit models similar to those above, but also including generation and generation^2 as predictors, along with their interactions with treatment. For thorax color, we used a Gaussian model, and for aggression, we used a Poisson GLM with a log link. Full model specifications, diagnostics, and trait-specific details (color, aggression, basal activity, total activity, sleep, and geotaxis) are provided in the Supplementary Methods.

Results

Evolution of Color in Selection Treatments

Selection on thorax color resulted in a significant change in color in the expected direction relative to the control line for both sexes across all populations (Table S1; Figure 2). There was also a significant effect of treatment by population nested in species interaction (males: $F_{2,345} = 12.43$, $p < 0.0001$; females: $F_{2,337} = 5.20$, $p = 0.006$), indicating that the magnitude of the response to selection varied among populations within a species. However, the simple slopes analysis showed that the response was in the same direction and was significantly negative in all cases (all slopes < -19.4, all $X^2_1 > 90.5$, all $p < 0.0001$; Table S2). Post-hoc tests further confirmed that for all populations and sexes, D treatment flies were significantly darker than L and C treatment flies (Table S3; Figure 2), and L treatment flies were significantly lighter than C treatment flies (Table S3; Figure 2).

Despite the consistent direction of the response, there were notable differences among groups that explain the significant interaction. For instance, *D. melanogaster* males were, on average, lighter than *D. simulans* males, a difference driven primarily by the L and C treatments (Table S1; Figure 2). The response in *D. mel*-1 males was particularly strong, with a selection slope twice as steep as any other population (-46.2 vs. -21.9; Table S2). Among females, there was a significant difference between the replicate *D. simulans* populations, with *D. sim*-1 females tending to be darker than *D. sim*-2 females across all treatments (Tables S1 and S4; Figure 2B).

Correlated Evolution of Aggression in Selection Treatments

At generation 15, there was a significant main effect of selection treatment on aggression for both sexes (males: $X^2_1 = 50.3$, $p < 0.0001$; females: $X^2_1 = 17.5$, $p < 0.0001$; Table S5). This response was consistent across all populations, as the treatment by population interaction was not significant in initial models (males: $X^2_2 = 0.23$, $p = 0.89$; females: $X^2_2 = 0.13$, $p = 0.94$) and was therefore dropped from the final model. As predicted, we observed a significant positive slope for both males (slope = 1.52, $X^2_1 = 31.5$, $p < 0.0001$; Table S6) and females (slope = 1.1, $X^2_1 = 13.3$, $p = 0.0003$; Table S6). Post-hoc tests revealed that D individuals were significantly more aggressive than L and C treatment individuals, which did not differ from each other (Table S7; Figure 3).

Correlated Evolution of Basal Activity Level

At generation 12, basal activity showed a significant correlated response to selection (Table S8; Figure 4). This response was consistent across all populations, as the treatment by population interaction in initial models was not significant (males: $X^2_2 = 1.35$, $p = 0.51$; females: $X^2_2 = 0.10$, $p = 0.95$) and was, therefore, dropped from the final models. As predicted, we observed a significant positive slope for both males (slope = 0.51, $X^2_1 = 34.0$, $p < 0.0001$; Table S9) and females (slope = 0.27; $X^2_1 = 11.7$, $p = 0.0006$; Table S9). Post-hoc tests showed that L individuals did not differ from C individuals (Table S10). In males, D individuals were significantly more active than both L and C individuals, which did not differ from each other (Figure 4A). In females, D individuals were significantly more active than L individuals, but not C individuals (Figure 4B).

Inconsistent Correlated Responses in Other Behaviors

In contrast to aggression and basal activity, the correlated responses for geotaxis, total activity, and sleep were inconsistent and unpredictable, with responses varying across species, populations, and sexes. Since these traits did not evolve predictably with color, their detailed results have been moved to the Supplemental Material (see Supplemental Material; Tables S11-S19; Figures S4-S9).

Temporal Patterns of Direct Response to Selection

To examine the temporal dynamics of the direct response to selection, we analyzed the divergence in thorax color between D and L selected lines at generations 5, 10, and 15. Since the full statistical model revealed complex interactions (Table S20), we visualized the response by plotting the mean difference (contrast) in color between D and L treatments for each population over time (Figure 5). In both sexes, the divergence between D and L lines was significant by generation 5 and increased in a roughly linear fashion throughout the experiment (Table S21; Figure 5). In males, the pattern was broadly consistent, though the *D. sim*-2 population tended to exhibit less divergence than the other three populations in most generations (Figure 5A). The response in females was remarkably consistent across all four populations (Figure 5B).

Temporal Patterns of Correlated Response to Selection

Due to our *a priori* prediction about the correlated evolution of cuticle color and aggression, we assayed aggression across multiple generations during the selection experiment. To simplify interpretation (Table S22), we visualized the temporal response by plotting the divergence in the number of behaviors (contrast) between the D and L treatments over time (Figure 6). In males, this revealed a non-linear response that differed between the species (Figure 6A). The divergence in both species decreased slightly at generation 10 and was greatest at generation 15 (Figure 6). Despite divergence in color at generation 5, *D. simulans* populations did not diverge in aggressive behavior until generation 15 (Table S23; Figure 6A). However, *D. melanogaster* populations diverged in both color and behavior by generation 5 and consistently showed greater divergence than *D. simulans* populations (Table S23; Figure 6A). Females exhibited a similar non-linear trajectory, with the divergence between D and L lines also peaking at generation 15 after a minimum at generation 10 (Figure 6B). For females, however, the variation was most pronounced between populations rather than species (Figure 6B). The *D. mel*-1 population, in particular, exhibited a greater divergence between D and L treatments at each generation than the other three populations (Table S23; Figure 6B).

Discussion

Our experiment demonstrates that artificial selection on cuticle color in *D. melanogaster* and *D. simulans* is accompanied by consistent correlated changes in some, but not all, behaviors. Selection for darker coloration led to a consistent increase in aggression at generation 15 and basal activity in both sexes of both species. In contrast, other behaviors, including geotaxis, sleep, and total activity, evolved unpredictably, with responses varying among species, populations, and sexes. Some behaviors exhibit a predictable relationship with color under our conditions, whereas others appear largely independent of pigmentation and evolve stochastically between species, populations, and sexes.

The consistent evolution of heightened aggression by generation 15 in dark selected flies across both species suggests a genetic association between melanin-based color and aggressive behavior. However, the strength of this association is modest. Absolute aggression levels in our assay were low, and trajectories through time were noisy, which limits how strongly we can infer a tight or deterministic link between color and aggression. Nonetheless, the fact that dark lines consistently tended to be more aggressive than control and light lines in both species, despite low baseline aggression levels and demographic noise, is at least qualitatively consistent with a conserved color-aggression association. Within D lines, males were consistently more aggressive than females on average, suggesting that sex specific expression modulates the magnitude of the response while preserving the direction of the association between color and aggression. Similar context dependence and heterogeneous trajectories of male aggression have also been observed when aggression itself is the direct target of selection in our *D. mel*-2 base population (Girardeau et al. 2025), where manipulating positive, negative, or no evolutionary feedbacks led to markedly different rates and patterns of change in total aggression, indicating that noisy and treatment-specific responses are a general feature of this trait rather than unique to our selection experiment.

Our data revealing an association with cuticle color and aggression aligns with predictions from the melanin-pleiotropy hypothesis (Takahashi 2013; San-Jose and Roulin 2018), which posits a shared biochemical basis for the traits, and is also compatible with scenarios in which color could function as a status-related signal, with melanin-based coloration as the signal and aggressive propensity as the underlying quality (Rohwer 1975; Ruckman et al. 2024). However, given the low and variable aggression levels in our experiment, our data should

be viewed as suggestive rather than definitive evidence for these mechanisms. At present, they indicate that darker cuticle coloration is associated with a greater propensity to engage in aggressive acts under our assay conditions, but they do not by themselves establish that melanin-based traits are universally reliable “badges of status” or that pleiotropy is the sole cause of the observed covariance.

The correlated response in aggression was notably asymmetric in both species: D lines became more aggressive, whereas L lines did not become less aggressive than C lines. The lack of response in L lines is consistent with another experiment using the same assay in *D. mel*-2 (Girardeau et al. 2025). A likely explanation is that the base populations exhibited very low aggression under our assay conditions, such that further reductions in the underlying tendency to act aggressively would be difficult to resolve with our behavioral measure. In other words, we may be closer to a floor than a midpoint in aggression, which would naturally make upward responses easier to detect than downward ones.

In contrast to the linear divergence in color, the correlated response in aggression over time was non-linear, peaking at generation 15 after a dip at generation 10. Environmental artifacts (e.g., humidity or temperature fluctuations) are one possible explanation, but all lines were maintained and assayed under tightly controlled conditions. Instead, such trajectories are expected for correlated traits (Falconer and Mackay 1996), whose evolution is mediated by the interplay between indirect selection, genetic drift in finite populations (e.g., Yoo 1980; Weber 1996), and the potential for the underlying genetic covariance (the G-matrix) itself to change over time (Steppan et al. 2002; Arnold et al. 2008). One possible future direction is to continue selection for additional generations to reduce noise in the correlated responses. Even with this noisy background, the repeated tendency for D lines in both species to show higher aggression than light and control lines suggests a real, albeit weak, association between pigmentation and aggression rather than a purely transient effect.

The consistent correlated evolutionary response in basal activity in D flies is consistent with a shared genetic basis between color and activity. This is in agreement with previous work that identified *Dopa decarboxylase (Ddc)*, a gene essential for both dopamine synthesis and melanin production, as a key locus associated with locomotor behavior in *D. melanogaster* (Jordan et al. 2006, 2007). The finding that many genes associated with locomotor behavior are also linked to aggression and neural development further suggests potential widespread genetic

integration among these traits (Jordan et al. 2007). Our finding that dark males were more active than dark females in both species, and that dark lines consistently showed elevated basal activity, indicates that these genetic connections between pigmentation and locomotor behavior are expressed in a sex specific but directionally conserved way across taxa.

In contrast, we did not observe a consistent correlated response in total activity, which was measured using the DAM system. This result is consistent with the findings of Dierick and Greenspan (2006), who selected directly for high aggression and used an older, but similar, DAM monitoring system to measure general activity. They also found no correlated increase in total activity. Therefore, the genetic covariance between color and activity is likely context-dependent, manifesting strongly in exploratory or basal activity but not in overall activity levels measured in a confined tube environment.

The stochastic evolution of geotaxis, sleep, and total activity provides evidence that these traits exhibit little to no conserved genetic covariance with cuticle color, although we cannot rule out the possibility that, with continued selection across more generations, a modest association could emerge. While our gradual selection design was intended to allow recombination to break down transient, non-functional linkages (Kofler and Schlötterer 2014; Vlachos and Kofler 2019), the low effective population size, particularly in the final five generations, amplifies the impact of stochastic forces. These forces include genetic drift, but also stochasticity in the decay of any initial linkage disequilibrium. Together, these processes are expected to cause random, population-specific divergence in phenotypes not under strong, consistent indirect selection. Geotaxis, sleep, and total activity in our experiment showed exactly this pattern of idiosyncratic, population specific divergence with no consistent differences among color treatments. Their trajectories likely reflect drift or transient linkage rather than a stable conserved genetic association with pigmentation. However, aggression and basal activity evolved predictably despite these same demographic pressures, which reinforces that their connection to color is robust.

A productive direction for future research would be to determine the specific genetic mechanisms underlying these divergent outcomes. A primary goal is to determine if the consistent association between color, aggression, and basal activity is indeed caused by pleiotropy. Evolve-and-resequence (E&R) studies could identify candidate genes, and subsequent functional analyses, such as RNAi knockdowns, could then confirm their effects on

both color and behavior, clarifying the extent to which such correlated responses constrain or facilitate evolution. Beyond pairwise relationships, it will be important to characterize multivariate pleiotropy, in which single loci influence suites of behavioral, morphological, and physiological traits, and to assess whether similar pleiotropic modules recur across taxa. Large-scale mapping and association studies in multiple species, combined with comparative analyses of genetic covariance matrices, could reveal whether the pigmentation-behavior-physiology integration we observe is part of a broader, conserved pleiotropic architecture.

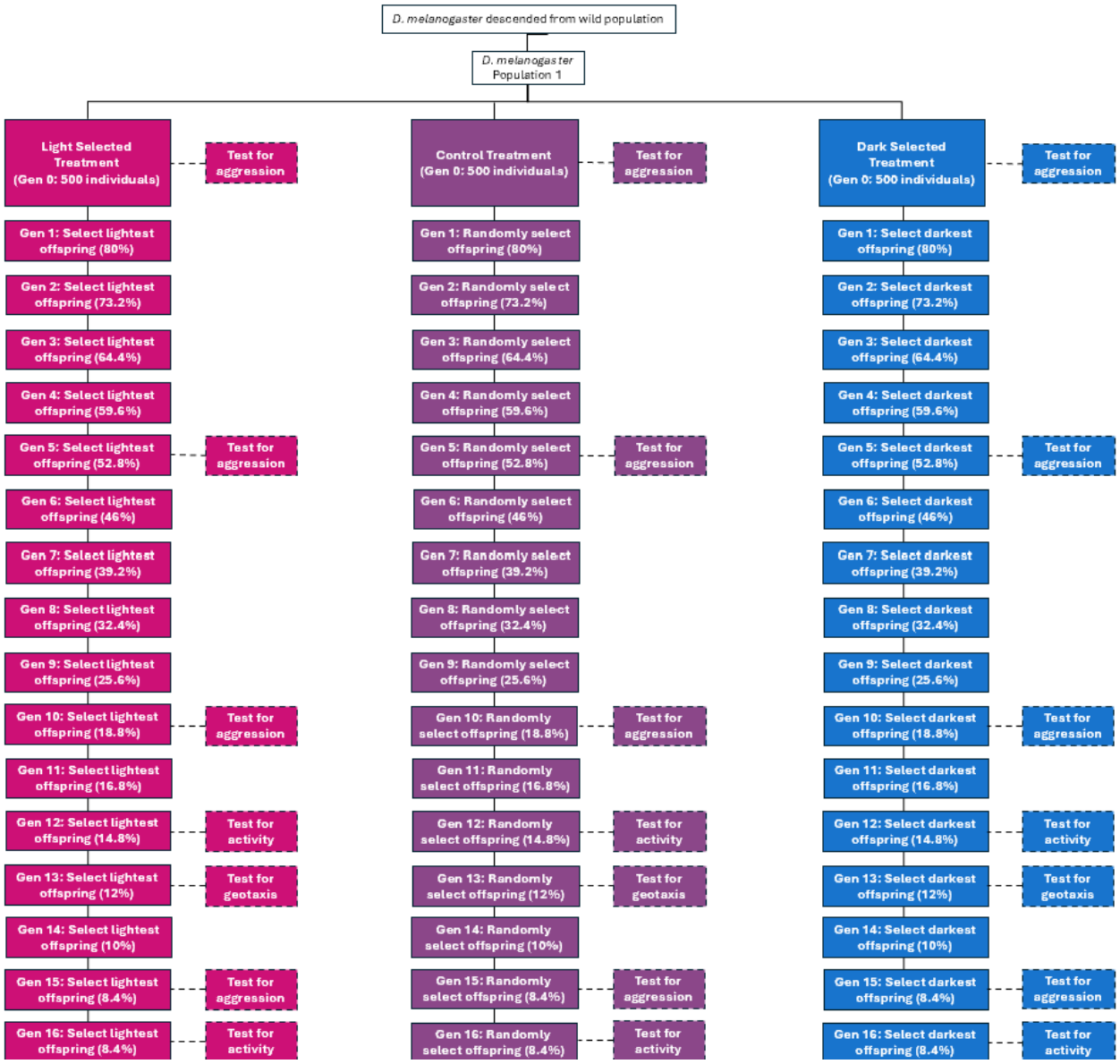

Figure 1: Selection and Behavioral Workflow. Flies were collected from wild populations to create each population. They were then tested for aggression and split into three treatments (light selected “L”, control “C”, and dark selected “D”). The L treatment is represented by pink. The C treatment is represented by purple. The D treatment is represented by blue. Solid lines indicate the selection and establishment of a new generation. Dashed lines and dashed boxes indicate behavioral assays. Selection gradually increased, so fewer individuals were kept every generation (decreasing percentage of individuals kept every generation). The L treatment had the lightest offspring selected, while the D treatment had the darkest offspring selected each generation. The C treatment was randomly chosen each generation. This workflow is designed for a single population of *D. melanogaster*. This same workflow was used for each population per species.

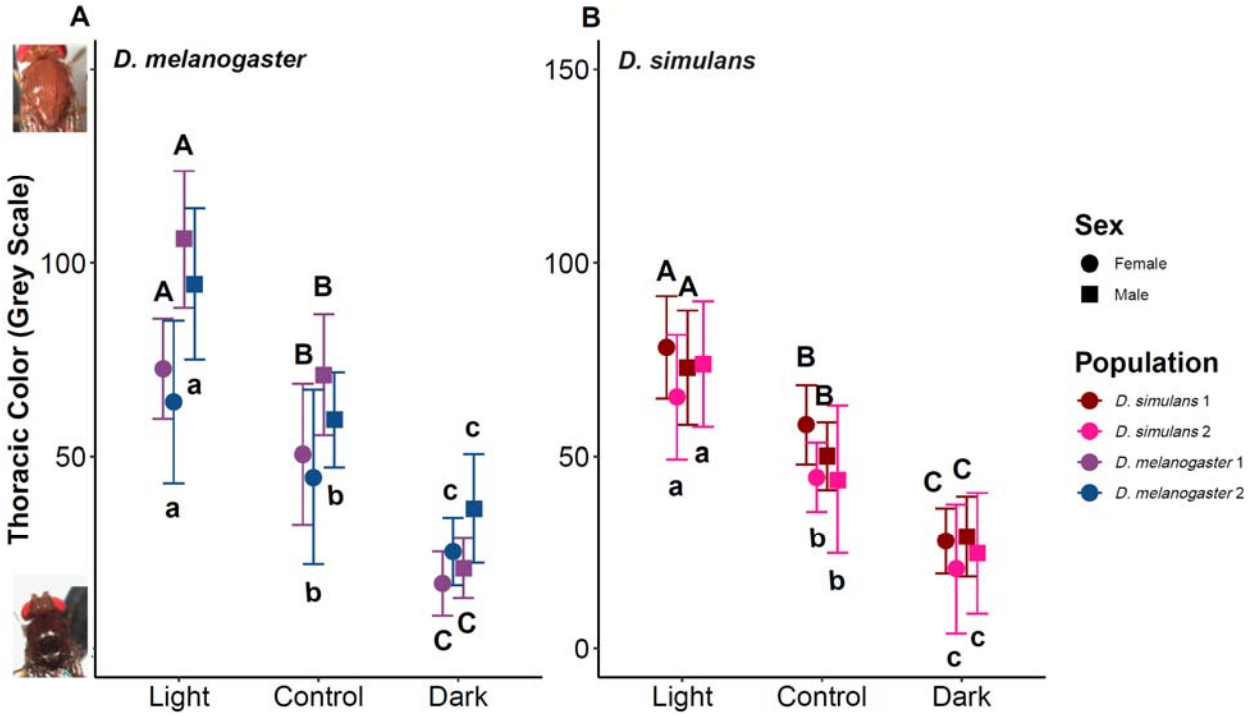

Figure 2: Thoracic color evolution at generation 15 for A) *D. melanogaster* and B) *D. simulans*. The x-axis indicates the different treatments (L, C, and D). The y-axis represents the average grey-scale value, with lighter values (higher on the scale) at the top and darker values (lower on the scale) at the bottom. Photos on the y-axis represent individuals before grey-scale conversion in ImageJ. The letters above and below the data indicate significance, where groups with different letters are significantly different from each other. Uppercase letters indicate the significance of *D. mel*-1 and *D. sim*-1, and lowercase letters indicate the significance of *D. mel*-2 and *D. sim*-2 populations.

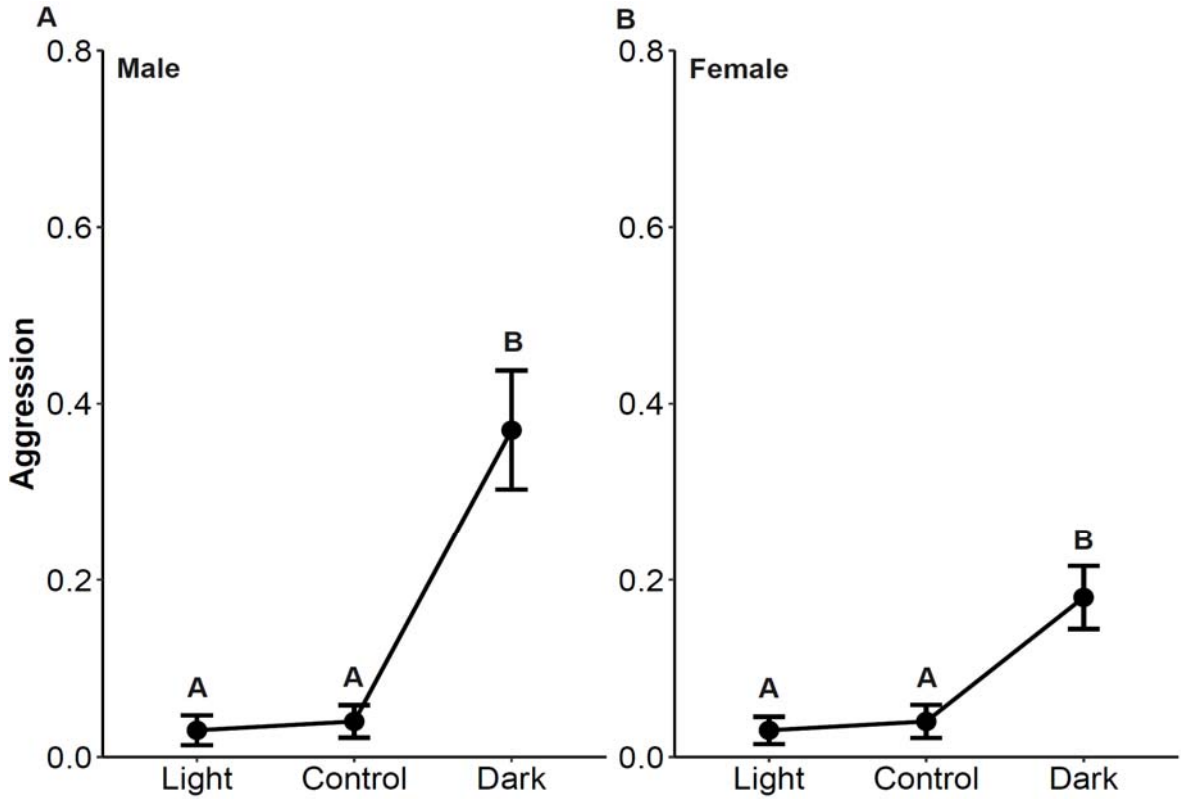

Figure 3: Aggression at generation 15 for A) Male analysis. B) Female analysis. The x-axis indicates the different treatments (L, C, and D). The y-axis represents the average aggression counts (number of aggressive acts). The letters above the data indicate significance, where groups with different letters are significantly different from each other.

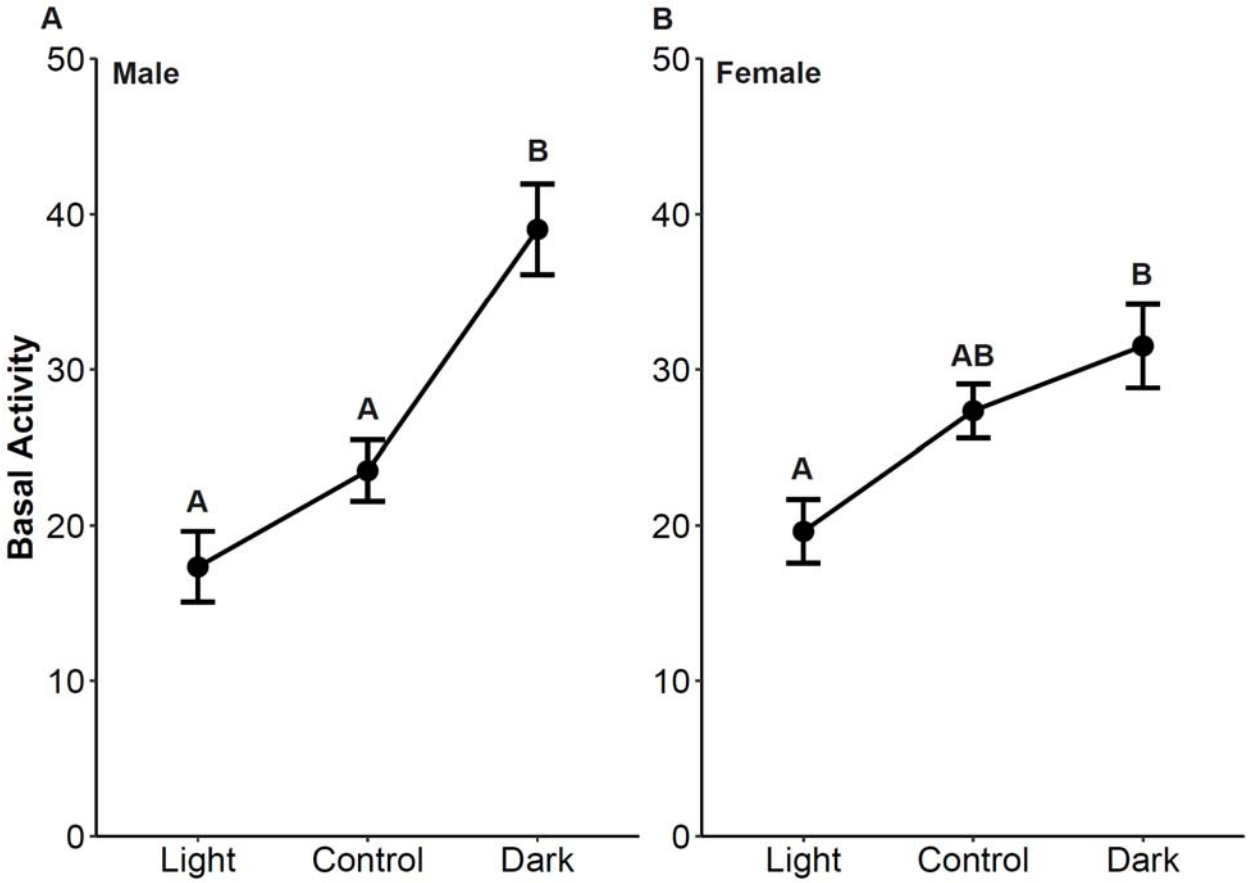

Figure 4: Basal activity level at generation 12 for A) Male analysis. B) Female analysis. The x-axis indicates the different treatments (L, C, and D). The y-axis represents the average basal activity level (number of lines crossed in one minute). The letters above the data indicate significance, where groups with different letters are significantly different from each other.

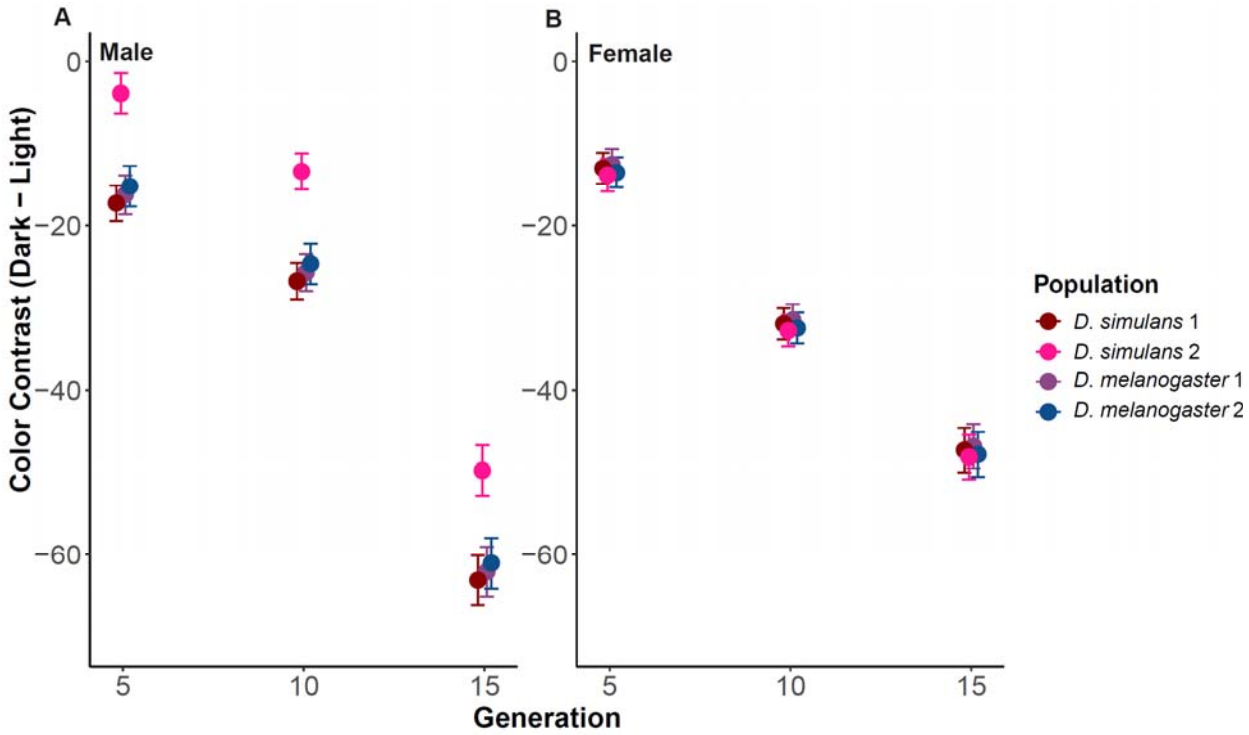

Figure 5: Difference (contrast) in mean thorax color between D and L flies within a population at a specific generation of selection. The colors represent the different populations. The x-axis represents the generation number in which traits were assayed, and the y-axis represents the D - L color contrast (mean ± SE). The mean is the difference between the raw data mean of the D and L treatments. The error bars represent the standard errors of raw data. However, as described in the Methods, the statistical analysis was conducted using the individual fly color measure as the dependent variable. A negative contrast indicates that D flies were darker than L flies. The left panel shows contrast values for males of both populations of both species, while the right panel shows the contrasts for females.

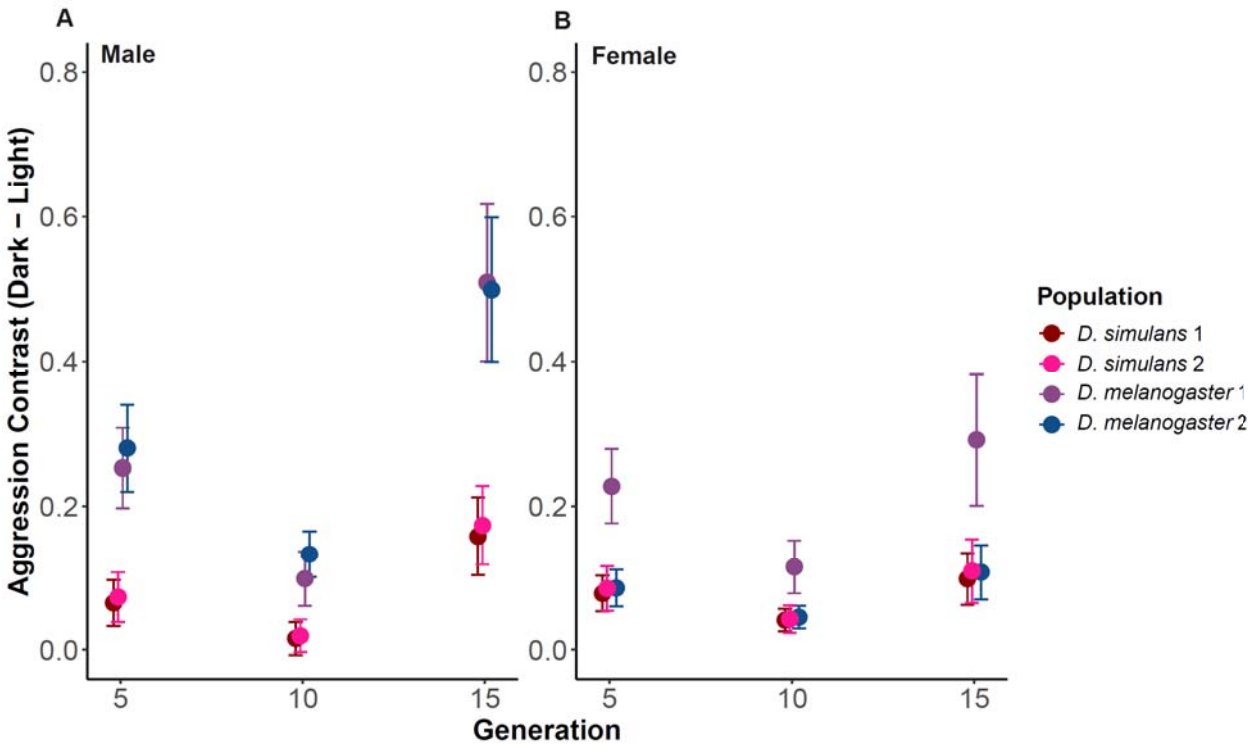

Figure 6: Difference (contrast) in mean aggression counts between D and L flies within a population at a specific generation of selection. The colors represent the different populations. The x-axis represents the generation number in which traits were assayed, and the y-axis represents the D - L color contrast (mean ± SE). The mean is the difference between the raw data mean of the D and L treatments. The error bars represent the standard errors of the raw data. However, as described in the Methods, the statistical analysis was conducted using the individual fly aggression counts as the dependent variable. A positive contrast indicates that D treatment flies were more aggressive than L flies. The left panel shows contrast values for males of both populations of both species, while the right panel shows the contrasts for females.

Acknowledgements: We thank Kimberly Hughes, Michelle Arbeitman, and Darin Roykta for their helpful comments throughout the data collection process and for valuable suggestions that improved the manuscript. We thank the editor and the two reviewers for their careful reading and constructive comments, which improved this manuscript. We thank our funding sources NSF DEB-1740466, DEB-2217558, and the Florida State University Council on Research and Creativity SEED and COFRS grants.

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