

## ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# Genetic correlation between the pre-adult developmental period and locomotor activity rhythm in *Drosophila melanogaster*

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Biological clocks regulate various behavioural and physiological traits; slower circadian clocks are expected to slow down the development, suggesting a potential genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm. However, a correlation between natural genetic variations in the developmental period and circadian rhythm has only been found in *Bactrocera cucurbitae*. The number of genetic factors that contribute to this genetic correlation is largely unclear. In this study, to examine whether natural genetic variations in the developmental period and circadian rhythm are correlated in *Drosophila melanogaster*, we performed an artificial disruptive selection on the developmental periods using wild-type strains and evaluated the circadian rhythms of the selected lines. To investigate whether multiple genetic factors mediate the genetic correlation, we reanalyzed previously published genome-wide deficiency screening data based on DrosDel isogenic deficiency strains and evaluated the effect of 438 genomic deficiencies on the developmental periods. We then randomly selected 32 genomic deficiencies with significant effects on the developmental periods and tested their effects on circadian rhythms. As a result, we found a significant response to selection for longer developmental periods and their correlated effects on circadian rhythms of the selected lines. We also found that 18 genomic regions had significant effects on the developmental periods and circadian rhythms, indicating their potential for mediating the genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm. The novel findings of our study might lead to a better understanding of how this correlation is regulated genetically in broader taxonomic groups.

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## INTRODUCTION

Biological clocks regulate various behavioural and physiological traits and allow organisms to accommodate to daily and seasonal environmental cycles (Panda *et al.*, 2002; Paranjpe *et al.*, 2004; Mazzoni *et al.*, 2005). The core molecular mechanisms of these clocks are highly conserved across taxa, and the generation of molecular oscillation has been well studied in flies and mammals (Panda *et al.*, 2002; Grima *et al.*, 2004; Chiu *et al.*, 2011; Goda *et al.*, 2011). In general, faster circadian clocks are expected to speed up development and shorten the pre-adult developmental period, whereas slower clocks prolong this period (Paranjpe *et al.*, 2005), suggesting a potential genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm.

A genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm has been demonstrated in two fly species, *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Bactrocera cucurbitae*. In *D. melanogaster*, *period* (*per*) mutants have a wide range of circadian rhythm variations represented by largely different free-running periods ( $\tau$ ) (wild type:  $\tau = 24$  h, *per<sup>S</sup>*:  $\tau = 19$  h, *per<sup>L</sup>*:  $\tau = 28$  h) that are positively correlated with the developmental periods (*per<sup>S</sup>* develops faster than *per<sup>L</sup>* regardless of the light conditions; Kyriacou *et al.*, 1990). The positive genetic correlation between the free-running and developmental periods might be mediated by the pleiotropic effects of *per* mutations. Another example in *D. melanogaster* is the genetic correlation between

the timing of adult emergence and circadian clocks found by Kumar *et al.*, 2007. Flies selected to emerge in the morning showed shorter circadian rhythm than the ones selected to emerge at evening, indicating the regulation of pre-adult period by a circadian clock (Kumar *et al.*, 2007). In *B. cucurbitae*, Miyatake (1995) performed a disruptive selection on the developmental period and established selected lines with shorter and longer developmental periods. Under constant darkness, Shimizu *et al.* (1997) then observed that the selected lines with shorter developmental periods had shorter free-running periods, whereas the lines with longer developmental periods had longer free-running periods, indicating a positive genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm in this species. In addition, the developmental and free-running periods of *B. cucurbitae* were also genetically correlated with the timing of mating (Miyatake *et al.*, 2002). This genetic correlation between life-history and behavioural traits might have an important role in ecological diversifications (Miyatake, 2002). However, in a broader range of organisms it is still unknown whether natural genetic variations in the developmental period and circadian rhythm are correlated with each other. In addition, the number of quantitative trait loci other than *per* that contribute to genetic correlation are largely unclear.

To examine whether the correlation between natural genetic variations in the developmental period and circadian rhythm in

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*B. cucurbitae* also exists in *D. melanogaster*, we performed an artificial disruptive selection on the developmental periods of strains that originated from wild populations. We then evaluated the circadian rhythms represented as the free-running periods of these lines. To map the genomic regions that had effects on the developmental periods, we reanalyzed the genome-wide deficiency mapping data of Takahashi *et al.* (2011a) and evaluated the effect of 438 isogenic deficient strains covering about 65% of the *D. melanogaster* genome. We then randomly selected 32 genomic deficiencies with significant effects on the developmental periods, and tested their effects on the free-running periods. As a result, we found a significant response to the selection for longer developmental periods, and their correlated effects to prolong free-running periods in the selected lines. We also found that 253 genomic deficiencies had significant effects on the developmental periods. Of the 32 deficiencies randomly selected from the deficiencies that had effects on the developmental periods, we found 18 deficiencies that had significant effects on the free-running periods. These results clearly show that there was an ample natural genetic variation in developmental period in *D. melanogaster*, and it had significant correlation with the natural genetic variation in circadian rhythm. The deficiency mapping identified a number of genomic regions that affected the developmental periods and circadian rhythms, suggesting that genetic correlation between them might be mediated by multiple genetic factors.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Selection experiments

**Flies.** We obtained 20 wild strains of *D. melanogaster* that had been collected from across the Japanese islands and maintained in EHIME-Fly, the laboratory for *Drosophila* resources at Ehime University. We used the same strains that were described in Tsujino and Takahashi (2012), and complete details of the strains can be found in that publication. We mixed four individuals (two females and two males) from each strain to produce a base population of 80 individuals. In this manner, we produced three independent base populations originated from the same set of flies that were reared for three generations at 23 °C under constant light in incubators (MIR-254 or MIR-154; SANYO, Osaka, Japan) in 250-ml plastic bottles containing 50 ml of fly medium containing dried yeast, soy flour, cornmeal, agar, malt extract and dextrose.

### Artificial selection on the developmental periods

The developmental period in our study was characterized by days from oviposition of the eggs to their eclosion. We established three 'short' lines that were selected for shorter developmental periods and three 'long' lines that were selected for a longer developmental periods by mixing 30 females and 30 males from each base population. During each selection round, we collected all the emerged flies and calculated their developmental periods. Collections were made every 12 h to ensure the virginity of females. We ranked all the emerged females and males on the basis of their developmental periods, and established the next generation using the top 30 females and 30 males for each short line, and the bottom 30 females and 30 males for each long line. The average number of emerged adults was 283.44 throughout the selection, indicating that our current selection procedure selected on an average 21% of individuals from the top or the bottom of the trait score distribution in each generation. We mixed the selected females and males, and maintained them together for a few days to allow them to mate freely. We then transferred the flies to experimental 250-ml plastic bottles and allowed the flies to oviposit for 12 h to maintain the larval density in the plastic bottles at a sufficiently low level to avoid intense intra-specific competition. We incubated the bottles until the flies of the next generation emerged. We reared the flies in the incubators at 23 °C under constant light conditions. Three control lines were also established from the three base populations and were maintained in the same way as the selection lines except for the selection process. We measured the developmental periods of the control lines every five generations.

### Locomotor activity rhythm assay of the artificially selected lines

To examine whether artificial selection on the developmental periods had an effect on the circadian rhythms, we measured the locomotor activity of the short, long and control strains at the 25th generation by evaluating the free-running periods. Flies aged 3–7 days after eclosion were entrained for 4 days in cycles of 12-h light and 12-h darkness at 25 °C in incubators. The locomotor activity of these flies was monitored using a DAM2 system (TriKinetics, Waltham, MA, USA) for 10 days in constant darkness. To characterize the rhythmicity of the locomotor activity of these flies, we performed a  $\chi^2$  periodogram analysis using Clocklab software (Actimetrics, Wilmette, IL, USA) that identified rhythmic flies and determined their free-running periods ( $\tau$ ).

### Statistical analysis

To evaluate the divergence in the developmental periods of the short and long lines, we performed a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) repeatedly for every generation using the developmental periods as a dependent variable, and the selection treatments (short or long) as an independent variable. We used the mean developmental period of each line in this analysis and regarded three lines of each treatment as biological replicates.

We also tested the effect of artificial selection on the free-running periods at the 25th generation using a one-way ANOVA. In this analysis, we compared the control lines with the long and short lines in a pairwise manner. We used  $\tau$  scores as the dependent variables and the treatments (control/long or control/short) as independent variables.

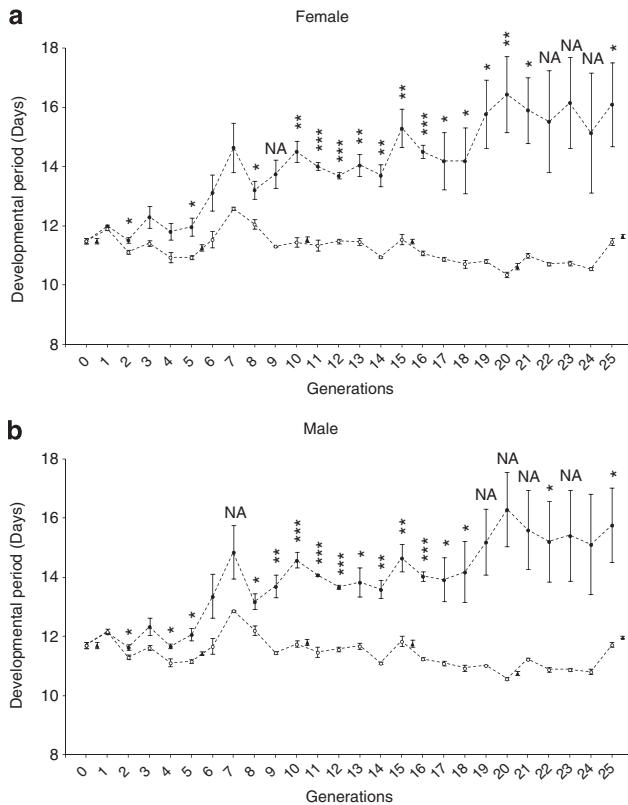
To confirm the normality and equality of variance of the data sets used for the above analyses, we performed the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test and *F* test. When the data sets did not fulfil the requirements of ANOVA, we did not apply ANOVA.

### Reanalysis of deficiency screening data to identify genomic regions with effects on the developmental periods

To map genomic regions with effects on the developmental periods, we reanalyzed the deficiency screening data of Takahashi *et al.* (2011a) in which they solely focused on temporal variation in the developmental periods and not on the mean developmental period. Takahashi *et al.* (2011a) used DrosDel isogenic deficiency strains and evaluated the developmental period defined as days from oviposition of the eggs to their eclosion. The breakpoints of the deletions were determined at a single base-pair resolution, allowing high-resolution mapping of the candidate genomic regions. The control strain (DSK001:  $w^{1118}_{iso}; 2_{iso}; 3_{iso}$ ) was isogenized for the X, second and third chromosomes, and all the deficiency strains shared the same genetic background as the control strain (Ryder *et al.*, 2004, 2007). In our study, we reanalyzed the developmental period data of 438 DrosDel deficiency strains that covered about 65% of the whole genome region (Appendix 1). Additional details of the deletion strains are available on the DrosDel web page (<http://www.drosdel.org.uk/>).

### Deficiency effects on the locomotor activity rhythms

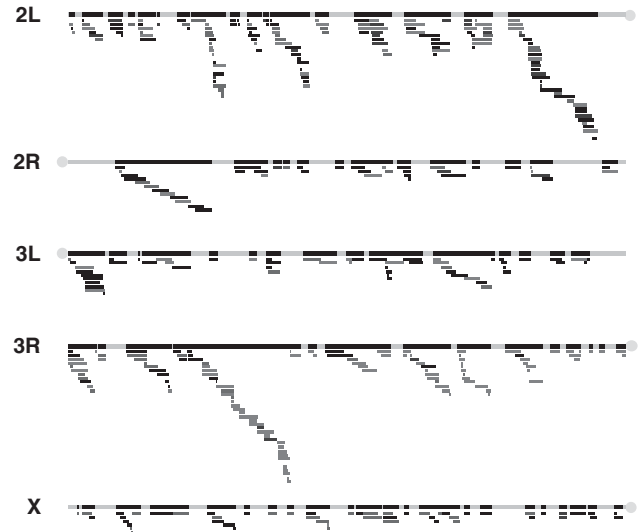
We randomly chose 32 deficiencies whose effects on the developmental periods were detected by deficiency screening and evaluated their effect on the locomotor activity rhythms. Because of the homozygous lethality of most deficiencies, we tested deficiency-control heterozygotes (*Df/+*) for the locomotor activity rhythms, as in Takahashi *et al.*, 2011a. We introduced 100 eggs from each of the crosses between the control strain and the deletion strains into a glass vial along with a standard cornmeal agar medium (details are described in Takahashi *et al.*, 2011b). We crossed females of the control strain with males of each deficiency strain to control the maternal effect. The eggs were reared at 23 °C under constant light in incubators. We genotyped emerging adults (target genotype, *Df/+*; nontarget genotype, balancer/+) and collected flies for locomotor activity measurements. To obtain control individuals (+/+), we collected 100 eggs from strain DSK001 and reared them as described above. We then monitored the locomotor activity of these control flies in the same way as we did for the selection experiment to determine their free-running periods ( $\tau$ ).



**Figure 1** Selection responses of the female flies (a) and the male flies (b). Short lines (○) were selected for a shorter developmental period, long lines (●) were selected for a longer developmental period, whereas control lines (▲) were not subjected to any selection. Error bars represent s.e.s. Asterisks represent statistically significant differences between short and long lines: \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.001$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ . NA indicates cases where the data sets violated the requirements of ANOVA and the test was not applied.

### Statistical analysis

To evaluate the effects of deletions on the mean developmental periods and free-running periods, we performed pairwise comparisons between  $+/+$  and each  $Df/+$  using one-way ANOVA. We used average vial-level scores for the developmental periods and individual-level scores for the free-running periods. We checked the normality of the distribution of the scores for each genotype separately using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, and equality of variance of the data sets using  $F$  test. To correct for multiple tests with different genotypes, we applied the Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) procedure to control the false discovery rate. Deviation from the normal distribution was considered significant if the adjusted false discovery rate  $P$ -value was  $< 0.05$ . As a result, no significant deviations from the normal distribution were detected in any of the cases in our study. For the ANOVA, we used the average vial-level developmental period or individual-level free-running period as the dependent variable, whereas the genotype ( $+/+$  or  $Df/+$ ) as the independent variable. Correction for multiple tests was performed using the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure, as in the normality test described above. In addition, we calculated the effect size (Cohen's  $d$ ) of each deficiency to draw a robust conclusion, regardless of the sample size variation and the existence of outliers, and to make the results of different tests comparable. For the developmental periods, we performed separate analyses of sexes and tested correlation of the effect sizes of the developmental periods between males and females to determine any sex-specific effect of the deletions. We also tested the correlation between the effect sizes of deletions on the developmental and free-running periods to determine any genetic correlation. All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software R 2.8.1 (R Development Core Team 2005).



**Figure 2** Distribution of deficiencies on the second, third and X chromosomes. Genomic regions covered by deficiencies are filled with black, while bars below each chromosome represent the location of each deficiency. Bars representing deficiencies with significant effects on the developmental periods are filled with different colours based on sex specificity, that is, a significant effect only in female flies is shown in red; a significant effect only in male flies is shown in blue; and a significant effect in both female and male flies is shown in purple. A full color version of this figure is available at the *Heredity* journal online.

## RESULTS

### Effects of artificial selection on the developmental periods

As a result of artificial selection, the developmental periods of long and short lines diverged significantly in both females and males where there were a few cases that violated the requirements for ANOVA and were not analysed (Figure 1). The mean developmental periods of the short lines remained at the same level as the control lines throughout selection, whereas the mean developmental periods of the long lines increased continuously until the 20th generation (Figure 1).

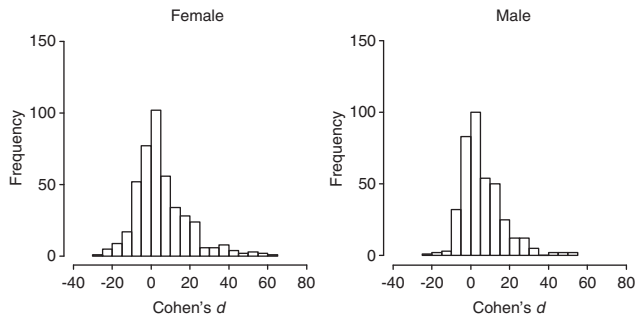
### Locomotor activity rhythms of the selected lines

The free-running periods of the long lines (average score  $\pm$  s.e.:  $24.25 \pm 0.09$ ) were significantly increased ( $P = 0.016$ ) compared with the control lines ( $23.82 \pm 0.06$ ), whereas those of the short lines ( $23.96 \pm 0.08$ ) were not significantly different from the control lines.

### Effects of deficiencies on the developmental periods

As a result of screening, we found 81 genomic regions with significant effects on the development periods in females only, 27 genomic regions with significant effects in males only and 145 genomic regions with significant effects in both females and males (Figure 2, Appendix 1).

Compared with the developmental period of  $+/+$  (13.51 days in female and 13.45 days in male on average), developmental period of  $Df/+$  deviated positively in both females and males (0.39 on average ranging from  $-1.35$  to  $4.89$  days in females and  $0.53$  on average ranging from  $-1.45$  to  $4.71$  days in males). The frequency distribution of the effect size of deficiencies on the developmental periods was assessed using Cohen's  $d$  for the term 'genotype' in the ANOVA model as shown in Figure 3. The effect sizes were centred around zero, indicating that most deficiencies had little effect on the developmental periods. Longer tails of the effect size distributions on the positive side



**Figure 3** Frequency distribution of the effect size (Cohen's  $d$ ) of deletions on the developmental periods in female and male flies.

indicated that deficiencies tended to prolong the developmental periods in females and males (Figure 3). We found a positive correlation between the effect sizes in females and males (correlation coefficient: 0.863,  $P < 0.0001$ ; Figure 4), suggesting that a large number of deficiencies had consistent effects on the developmental periods in females and males.

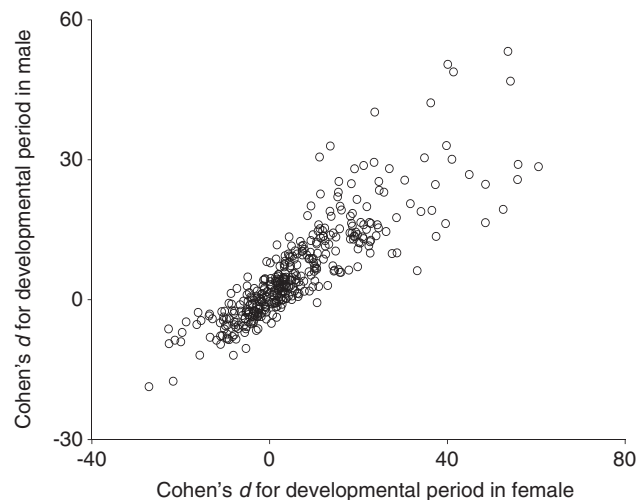
#### Effects of deficiencies on the locomotor activity rhythms

Of the 32 deficiencies with effects on developmental periods, 18 deficiencies had a significant effect on the free-running periods (Figure 5). The overall correlation between the effects of deficiencies on the developmental and free-running periods was not significant (correlation coefficient: 0.093,  $P > 0.05$ ; Figure 6).

#### DISCUSSION

In our study, we observed a significant response to artificial selection for longer developmental periods, and this selection resulted in increased free-running periods in the selected lines, indicating a genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm in *D. melanogaster*. We also found that 18 genomic deficiencies affected the developmental periods and circadian rhythms, suggesting that multiple genetic factors contribute to the genetic correlation between them.

A significant response to artificial selection for longer developmental periods and lack of response to selection for shorter developmental periods were observed in our study. This pattern of response to disruptive selection on the developmental period was similar to that observed by Zwaan *et al.* (1995) in *D. melanogaster* and by Miyatake (1995) in *B. cucurbitae*. The asymmetric response to disruptive selection might be attributable to a scarcity of natural genetic variations that shorten the developmental period. In *Drosophila* species, at least, natural selection seems to favour a shorter developmental period because most endoparasitic wasps attack the larval stage or feed externally on the pupae (Wertheim *et al.*, 2005), and a shorter developmental period might reduce the risk of such parasitism. In addition, most *Drosophila* species utilize patchy and ephemeral resources such as mushrooms or fallen fruits (Takahashi *et al.*, 2005; Mitsui *et al.*, 2006), so rapidly completing their pre-adult development before the degradation of resource patches might be advantageous. Furthermore, for a species such as *D. melanogaster* whose small overwintering population increases in the absence of population pressure every spring, reduction in developmental period leads to the higher intrinsic rate of increase of the population (Lewontin, 1965). This demographic fitness effects is stronger in developmental period than in other life-history traits such as

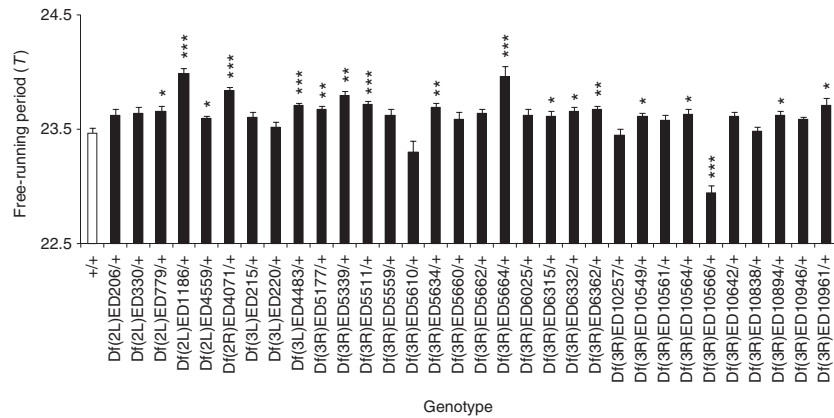


**Figure 4** Correlation between the effects of deficiencies on the developmental periods in female and male flies.

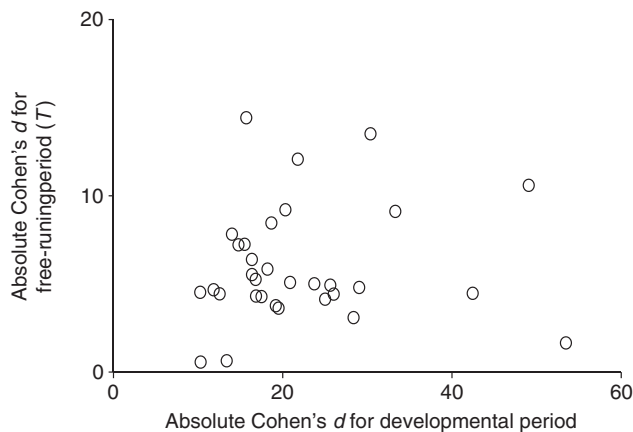
fecundity and longevity (Lewontin, 1965). If these selective advantages lead to a higher selection pressure that favours a shorter developmental period, natural genetic variations for a shorter developmental period will be more deficient than those for a longer developmental period. Selective advantage of shorter developmental period is not necessarily true for other organisms such as a comma butterfly *Polytonia c-album*, whose seasonal variation in developmental period is well known (Nylin, 1988, 1992). Under a variable environment, plasticity in a life-history trait such as developmental period can be adaptive (Nylin and Gotthard, 1998).

The pattern of genetic correlation between the developmental periods and circadian rhythms found in our selection experiments (a longer developmental period corresponded to a longer free-running period) was consistent with the pattern found in previous studies on *D. melanogaster* and *B. cucurbitae* (Kyriacou *et al.*, 1990; Shimizu *et al.*, 1997). Other than these fly species, a genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm has only been examined in a seed beetle *Callosobruchus chinensis*; however, no significant genetic correlation was observed (Harano and Miyatake, 2011). Although the genetic architecture underlying this genetic correlation remains unclear, and it might be different among species, the pattern of genetic correlation might be broadly conserved across Dipteran insects. Further studies are needed to evaluate whether this genetic correlation is a widespread phenomenon in broader taxonomic groups.

In the deficiency screening for genomic regions with effects on the developmental periods, we found a large number of genomic deficiencies that had effects on the developmental periods in females and males. As the genomic deficiencies examined in our study were experimentally generated, the significant effect of these genomic regions does not necessarily mean that they contribute to natural genetic variations in the developmental periods in *D. melanogaster*. However, it does suggest that a large number of quantitative trait loci in the *D. melanogaster* genome are potentially involved in the developmental period. The effect size distributions of the deficiencies deviated positively from zero in females and males, indicating that a larger number of deficiencies prolonged the developmental period. The positively biased effect of deficiencies might support the hypothesis that flies have evolved to develop faster, which partially



**Figure 5** Free-running periods of the control homozygotes (+/+) and deficiency heterozygotes (Df/+). Error bars represent s.e.s. Asterisks represent statistically significant differences between the +/+ and each Df/+ genotype: \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .



**Figure 6** The overall correlation between the effects of deficiencies on the developmental and free-running periods.

explains the asymmetric response to disruptive selection in the current and previous studies (Miyatake, 1995; Zwaan *et al.*, 1995).

Although the speed of circadian clocks is known to correlate with developmental period (Paranjpe *et al.*, 2005), how the deficiencies affected developmental period in this study is unclear. In fact, the deleterious effect of the deficiencies on pre-adult survival was shown in Takahashi *et al.* (2011b), and it might also impair normal developmental processes and slow down the pre-adult development. Such deleterious effect of deficiencies may obscure the general correlation of the deficiencies' effects on developmental period and circadian rhythm because the indirect fitness effect of the deficiencies on pre-adult period is not necessarily expected to affect circadian rhythm at adult stage. In our study, the correlation between deficiency effects on the developmental and free-running periods was not significant, indicating no general genetic correlation between them. However, we found 18 genomic deficiencies with significant effects on both the developmental and free-running periods that might mediate the genetic correlation between them. The general lack of correlation between developmental and free-running periods indicates that there are many genomic regions with little pleiotropic effects. On the contrary, only a limited number of the genomic regions showed such pleiotropic effects. This suggests that these genomic regions have the potential to mediate the genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm that was found in the selection experiment in our

study. As these deficiencies encompass 33.9 genes on an average, it remains unclear whether a single gene within these deficiencies had a pleiotropic effect that affected the developmental and free-running periods. MacDonald and Rosbash (2001) performed a microarray analysis to study global circadian gene expression in *D. melanogaster* and found 134 cycling genes under constant dark conditions. Ueda *et al.* (2002) also performed a microarray analysis using different strains of *D. melanogaster* from the ones used by MacDonald and Rosbash (2001) to profile gene expression patterns and found 455 periodically expressed genes under constant dark conditions. Among the 18 deficiencies that had effects on both the developmental and free-running periods, three of the deficiencies encompassed eight genes that were found to be expressed periodically by McDonald and Rosbash (2001), whereas 12 deficiencies encompassed 27 genes that were found to be expressed periodically by Ueda *et al.*, 2002 (Table 1). In our study, whether a change in the expression level of these genes affected the free-running periods of the Df/+ flies was not clear, but they are primary candidate genes with potential effects on the free-running period. Six of the 18 deficiencies encompassed no periodically expressed genes that were found in the two expression profiling studies (Table 1). As these deficiencies encompassed a relatively small number of genes (4.3 on average), a further detailed examination of individual candidate genes might lead to the discovery of novel clock genes. In addition, future examination of the individual candidate genes using RNAi or mutation approaches might elucidate how the genetic correlation between the developmental period and circadian rhythm was mediated in these deficiencies.

In our study, we performed disruptive selection on the developmental periods of *D. melanogaster* and found a genetic correlation between the developmental periods and circadian rhythms. We also identified 18 genomic deficiencies with effects on the developmental periods and circadian rhythms, and postulated that these genomic regions might potentially mediate the genetic correlation between them. The novel findings reported in our study might lead to a better understanding of how this correlation is regulated genetically in broader taxonomic groups.

#### DATA ARCHIVING

There were no data to deposit.

#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

**Table 1** Deficiencies with significant effects on both developmental period and circadian rhythm, and cycling genes found in expression profiling studies (McDonald and Rosbash, 2001; Ueda *et al.*, 2002) encompassed in each deficiency

Chromosome	Deficiency	No. of genes deleted	McDonald and Rosbash, 2001	Ueda <i>et al.</i> , 2002
2L	<i>Df(2L)ED779</i>	16		CG9934, CG16978
	<i>Df(2L)ED1186</i>	61		CG10283, CG10383
	<i>Df(2L)ED4559</i>	66		CG3523, CG3605
2R	<i>Df(2R)ED4071</i>	103		<i>Eps-15</i> , <i>Tina-1</i> , CG3511, CG3608
3L	<i>Df(3L)ED4483</i>	39	CG10616, CG10657	<i>sawah</i> , CG10418, CG10638
3R	<i>Df(3R)ED5177</i>	7		
	<i>Df(3R)ED5339</i>	22		CG8861
	<i>Df(3R)ED5511</i>	47	<i>Ugt35b</i> , <i>Ugt86Da</i>	<i>Tctp</i> , <i>Ugt35b</i>
	<i>Df(3R)ED5634</i>	40	CG9631, CG9649, CG31326, CG33109	<i>Cyp6d5</i> , CG9649
	<i>Df(3R)ED5664</i>	53		<i>Art3</i> , <i>smp-30</i> , <i>Spn88Eb</i> , CG12241
	<i>Df(3R)ED6315</i>	2		
	<i>Df(3R)ED6332</i>	4		
	<i>Df(3R)ED6362</i>	6		
	<i>Df(3R)ED10549</i>	2		
	<i>Df(3R)ED10564</i>	29		<i>Art3</i> , <i>Spn88Eb</i> , CG12241
	<i>Df(3R)ED10566</i>	29		<i>Art3</i> , <i>Spn88Eb</i> , CG12241
	<i>Df(3R)ED10894</i>	80		<i>Lsd-1</i> , <i>mbc</i> , <i>Rpn9</i> , CG10208, CG10214
	<i>Df(3R)ED10961</i>	5		

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## Appendix 1 (Continued)

Chromosome	Deletion ID	Region	Deletion size (bp)	Developmental period	
				Female	Male
	Df(3R)ED10642 89C7–89D5		171514	15.051 (0.000)	14.778 (0.002)
	Df(3R)ED10811 93A4–93B8		111808	15.364 (0.001)	14.993 (0.000)
	Df(3R)ED10820 93A4–93B12		162720	14.892 (0.001)	14.455 (0.043)
	Df(3R)ED10838 93C1–93D4		162185	15.819 (0.000)	15.639 (0.006)
	Df(3R)ED10893 95C8–95E1		217754	14.634 (0.000)	14.210 (0.049)
	Df(3R)ED10894 95A7–95E1		435407	15.191 (0.000)	15.194 (0.000)
	Df(3R)ED10946 96B20–96D1		221386	15.604 (0.000)	15.305 (0.000)
	Df(3R)ED10953 96C6–96D1		70912	16.225 (0.000)	16.207 (0.000)
	Df(3R)ED10961 97E11–97F1		19770	14.822 (0.000)	15.015 (0.001)
	Df(3R)ED10966 97E11–97F1		28417	14.737 (0.000)	14.581 (0.002)
	Df(3R)ED10970 97E11–98B5		652492	14.692 (0.008)	14.530 (0.001)
	Df(3R)ED10993 99B10–99C2		41267	15.588 (0.000)	15.175 (0.000)
	Df(3R)ED13102 99B1–99B10		279997	15.610 (0.000)	15.324 (0.000)
X	Df(1)ED404 1D2–1E3		200503	13.672 (0.321)	—
	Df(1)ED409 2C7–2F5		275404	13.634 (0.869)	—
	Df(1)ED411 3A3–3A8		172827	13.592 (0.894)	—
	Df(1)ED418 5C7–5E4		377712	13.837 (0.044)	—
	Df(1)ED429 9D3–9D3		38567	14.373 (0.001)	14.302 (0.005)
	Df(1)ED447 17C1–17F1		356796	14.914 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED6396 1B5–1B8		30101	14.692 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED6443 1B14–1E1		370684	14.746 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED6574 2E1–3A2		203136	13.271 (0.597)	—
	Df(1)ED6579 3A6–3A8		53476	15.794 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED6584 3A8–3B1		49222	12.961 (0.008)	—
	Df(1)ED6630 3B1–3C5		351370	14.868 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED6712 3D3–3F1		357080	14.100 (0.078)	—
	Df(1)ED6727 4B6–4D5		585887	14.266 (0.011)	—
	Df(1)ED6802 5A12–5D1		285900	13.346 (0.265)	—
	Df(1)ED6829 5C7–5F3		451119	13.048 (0.117)	—
	Df(1)ED6849 5F3–6D3		452200	13.862 (0.080)	—
	Df(1)ED6878 6C12–6D8		103655	13.514 (0.964)	—
	Df(1)ED6906 7A3–7B2		210722	13.191 (0.181)	—
	Df(1)ED6940 36A10–36B1		297221	12.454 (0.001)	—
	Df(1)ED6957 8B6–8C13		243242	13.179 (0.021)	—

## Appendix 1 (Continued)

Chromosome	Deletion ID	Region	Deletion size (bp)	Developmental period	
				Female	Male
	Df(1)ED6989 8F9–9B1		383820	13.428 (0.694)	—
	Df(1)ED6991 8F9–9B4		524871	12.155 (0.002)	—
	Df(1)ED7005 9B1–9D3		513509	15.667 (0.007)	—
	Df(1)ED7010 9D3–9D4		82437	14.383 (0.007)	—
	Df(1)ED7067 10B8–10C10		210959	13.265 (0.048)	—
	Df(1)ED7147 10D7–11A1		290417	13.373 (0.610)	—
	Df(1)ED7153 11A1–11B1		560373	13.976 (0.025)	—
	Df(1)ED7161 11A1–11B14		743779	14.781 (0.010)	—
	Df(1)ED7165 11B15–11E1		386346	14.032 (0.014)	—
	Df(1)ED7170 11B15–11E8		524724	13.839 (0.101)	—
	Df(1)ED7173 11B15–11F1		621133	14.467 (0.002)	—
	Df(1)ED7217 12A9–12C6		180238	13.205 (0.077)	—
	Df(1)ED7229 12E5–12F2		431710	12.961 (0.000)	—
	Df(1)ED7261 12F2–12F5		185603	13.074 (0.376)	—
	Df(1)ED7265 12F4–13A5		181838	13.986 (0.144)	—
	Df(1)ED7289 13A5–13A12		100973	13.941 (0.044)	—
	Df(1)ED7294 13B1–13C3		274883	13.860 (0.296)	—
	Df(1)ED7331 13C3–13F1		363268	12.469 (0.044)	—
	Df(1)ED7344 13E1–13F17		241694	14.022 (0.022)	—
	Df(1)ED7355 14A8–14B7		186930	13.662 (0.583)	13.600 (0.679)
	Df(1)ED7374 15A1–15E3		412445	12.860 (0.071)	—
	Df(1)ED7413 17D1–17F1		206484	13.793 (0.269)	—
	Df(1)ED7441 18A3–18C2		168474	13.211 (0.119)	—
	Df(1)ED7635 19A2–19C1		278714	13.568 (0.656)	14.125 (0.045)
	Df(1)ED7664 19F1–19F6		250376	13.396 (0.576)	—
	Df(1)ED11354 61B1–61C1		191859	12.944 (0.094)	—
	Df(1)ED11437 2F6–3A4		518880	13.137 (0.198)	—
	Df(1)ED12405 19C4–19E5		594760	13.802 (0.224)	—
	Df(1)ED12425 19E7–19F3		216238	13.645 (0.473)	—
	Df(1)ED12432 20C1–20C1		97858	13.842 (0.287)	13.716 (0.366)
	Df(1)ED13157 18F4–19C1		288549	13.747 (0.114)	14.750 (0.005)
	Df(1)ED13478 16F6–16F7		16605	13.712 (0.219)	—
	Df(1)ED14021 20C1–20E1		320915	13.465 (0.803)	—