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Bénédicte Lefèvre, Stecy Mienanzambi, Michael Lang. Developmental timing of Drosophila pachea pupae is robust to temperature changes. Journal of Thermal Biology, 2022, 106, pp.103232. 10.1016/j.jtherbio.2022.103232 . hal-03626427

HAL Id: hal-03626427 https://hal.science/hal-03626427

Submitted on 31 Mar 2022

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1 2	Developmental timing of <i>Drosophila pachea</i> pupae is robust to temperature changes
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4	running title: Temperature and development in D. pachea
5	
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19

20 Conflict of interest

21 The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

22 Abstract

23 Rearing temperature is correlated with the timing and speed of development in a 24 wide range of poikiloterm animals that do not regulate their body temperature. However, 25 exceptions exist, especially in species that live in environments with high temperature 26 extremes or oscillations. Drosophila pachea is endemic to the Sonoran desert in Mexico, in 27 which temperatures and temperature variations are extreme. We wondered if the 28 developmental timing in *D. pachea* may be sensitive to differing rearing temperatures or if it 29 remains constant. We determined the overall timing of the Drosophila pachea life-cycle at 30 different temperatures. The duration of pupal development was similar at 25°C, 29°C and 31 32°C, although the relative progress differed at particular stages. Thus, D. pachea may have 32 evolved mechanisms to buffer temperature effects on developmental speed, potentially to 33 ensure proper development and individual's fitness in desert climate conditions.

34

35 Keywords

36 Drosophila pachea, pupal development, temperature, heterochrony

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Poikilotherms animals do not regulate their body temperature contrary to homeotherms (Precht et al., 1973) and are sensitive to environmental temperature. 39 40 Environmental temperature in turn affects their metabolism (Hazel and Prosser, 1974). In 41 particular, it seems widespread that developmental speed increases with rearing 42 temperature in poikilothermic species (Abril et al., 2010; Asano and Cassill, 2012; Hrs-43 Brenko et al., 1977; Ikemoto, 2005; Manoj Nair and Appukuttan, 2003; Nishizaki et al., 2015; 44 Pechenik et al., 1990; Porter, 1988; Sharpe and DeMichele, 1977; Vélez and Epifanio, 45 1981), including various Drosophila species (David and Clavel, 1966; James and Partridge, 46 1995; Kuntz and Eisen, 2014; Powsner, 1935). This phenomenon is proposed to be due to 47 of enzymes responsible for thermodynamics biochemical reactions underlying 48 developmental processes (Crapse et al., 2021; Ikemoto, 2005; Schoolfield et al., 1981; 49 Sharpe and DeMichele, 1977). Thermal-stress can accelerate development and has been 50 shown to result in an increase of developmental instability (Kristensen et al., 2003; Nishizaki 51 et al., 2015; Polak and Tomkins, 2013), measured as deviations of an individual's character 52 from the average phenotype in the population under the same conditions (Palmer, 1994; 53 Zakharov, 1992). This may result in a decreased individual's survival and reproductive 54 fitness. In contrast, a slow development may potentially lead to an increased risk of 55 predation at vulnerable stages, such as immobile pupae in holometabolous insects (Ballman 56 et al., 2017; Borne et al., 2021; Hennessey, 1997; Thomas, 1993; Urbaneja et al., 2006). 57 Furthermore, a variable timing of development among individuals of a same species might 58 induce intraspecific competition (Amarasekare and Coutinho, 2014; Frogner, 1980) as 59 individuals developing faster may reproduce sooner and for a longer period compared to 60 those developing more slowly. Different mechanisms have been found to regulate 61 developmental timing. The so-called heterochronic miRNAs, such as let-7 and miR-125, 62 were originally discovered in Caenorhabditis elegans (Rhabditida: Rhabditidae)(Ambros, 63 2011; Ambros and Horvitz, 1984). These miRNAs are conserved in a wide range of species, 64 such as Drosophila melanogaster (Diptera : Drosophilidae)(Caygill and Johnston, 2008) or 65 Danio rerio (Cypriniformes: Cyprinidae)(Ouchi et al., 2014), as well as in mammals and 66 plants (Ambros, 2011). They act at post-transcriptional level to regulate cellular mRNA 67 levels, and have been found to control the developmental timing, cell fate and cell 68 differentiation. Hormones are also known to be important regulators of developmental timing. 69 In D. melanogaster, each of the developmental transitions are regulated by ecdysone 70 pulses, and premature transition from larva to pupa with respect to food conditions or 71 starvation is prevented by juvenile hormone (Riddiford, 1994; Riddiford and Ashburner, 72 1991). Thus, developmental timing might be regulated to reach an optimal duration with

73 respect to outer environmental factors.

74 More than 1500 described species of the genus Drosophila (Bächli et al., 2021; 75 O'Grady and DeSalle, 2018) occupy a wide range of habitats with various climatic conditions 76 (Markow and O'Grady, 2008). A dozen of species have been reported to be cosmopolitan 77 species (Markow and O'Grady, 2008, 2005), such as Drosophila melanogaster (David and 78 Capy, 1988; Li and Stephan, 2006) that potentially dispersed with humans from Africa 79 around the globe (Mansourian et al., 2018). These species may be generalists but were also 80 found to be locally adapted to diverse environments (Kapun et al., 2020; Markow and 81 O'Grady, 2008). In contrast, the vast majority of species are restricted to certain continental 82 ranges or are endemic to a specific geographic region that encompasses a unique habitat 83 with specific food and climate conditions (Markow and O'Grady, 2008, 2005). Because of 84 their inability to disperse outside their habitat, these endemic species may have evolved 85 temperature-buffering mechanisms to ensure a constant developmental timing under 86 variable temperature conditions.

87 Drosophila pachea (Diptera : Drosophilidae) is endemic to the Sonoran desert in 88 Mexico and is an obligate specialist on decayed parts, or rot-pockets, of its single host plant, 89 the Senita cactus (Lophocereus schottii) (Gibbs et al., 2003; Heed and Kircher, 1965; Lang 90 et al., 2012; Markow and O'Grady, 2005). The micro-climate of the rot-pockets encompasses 91 important changes of temperature all along the year, with a recorded maximum variation 92 from 5°C to 42°C within 24 h (Gibbs et al., 2003). Living in an environment with large daily 93 and annual temperature changes may require a certain temperature robustness with respect 94 to developmental processes in poikiloterm species. We wondered if the developmental 95 timing in *D. pachea* may be sensitive to differing rearing temperatures. To test this, we first 96 determined the overall timing of the Drosophila pachea life-cycle. Then, we focussed on 97 pupal development at four different rearing temperatures to investigate differences in the 98 pupal timing. Finally, we compared these durations across closely related sister species 99 Drosophila acanthoptera (Diptera : Drosophilidae) and Drosophila nannoptera (Diptera : 100 Drosophilidae) to investigate potential species-specific developmental timing differences.

101

102 **2. Materials and methods**

103 2.1. Drosophila stock maintenance

Drosophila stocks were retrieved from the San Diego Drosophila Species Stock Center (now The National Drosophila Species Stock Center, College of Agriculture and Life Science, Cornell University, USA). The *D. pachea* stock 15090-1698.01 was established in

107 1997 from individuals caught in Arizona, USA. The *D. nannoptera* stocks 15090-1692.00 and
108 15090-1693.12 were established in 1992 from individuals caught in Oaxaca, Mexico. The *D.*109 *acanthoptera* stock 15090-1693.00 was established in 1976 from individuals caught in
110 Oaxaca, Mexico (UCSC Drosophila species stock center San Diego, now The National
111 Drosophila Species stock center, Cornell University). These stocks have been kept in good
112 conditions at 25°C in our laboratory since 2012.

113 Flies were maintained in transparent plastic vials (25 x 95 mm, Dutscher) containing about 10 mL of standard Drosophila medium. This medium was composed of 66.6 g/L of 114 cornmeal, 60 g/L of brewer's yeast, 8.6 g/L of agar, 5 g/L of methyl-4-hydroxybenzoate and 115 116 2.5% v/v ethanol (standard food). We added 40 µL of 5 mg/mL of 7-dehydrocholesterol 117 (7DHC) (Sigma, reference 30800-5G-F) dissolved in ethanol into the food for D. pachea, as 118 this species need this sterol for proper development (Heed and Kircher, 1965; Lang et al., 2012; Warren et al., 2001) (standard *D. pachea* food). As a pupariation support, a piece of 119 120 paper sheet (1 cm x 4 cm, BenchGuard) was added to each vial. Stocks were kept at 25°C 121 or 29°C at a 12 h light:12 h dark photoperiodic cycle with a 30 min transition between light 122 (1080 lm) and dark (0 lm).

123

124 **2.2.** Cohort synchronisation of *D. pachea* embryos and time-lapse recording of 125 embryonic development

126 For collection of cohorts of synchronised embryos, about 250-500 adult flies were 127 transferred into a 9 x 6 cm plastic cylinder, closed by a net on the top and by a 5.5 cm 128 diameter petri-dish lid at the bottom. The petri-dish contained grape juice agar (24.0 g/L 129 agar, 26.4 g/L saccharose, 20% grape juice, 50% distilled water, 12% Tegosept [1.1 g/mL in 130 ethanol] (Dutscher), 4% 7-DHC (Sigma)) and 50-200 µL fresh baker's yeast as food source 131 and egg laying substrate on top. These plates are named hereinafter "food plates". Female 132 flies were let to lay eggs on the food plates for 1 h - 2 h (1 h to examine embryos and 2 h to 133 synchronise larvae). Then, eggs were retrieved from food plates by filtering the yeast paste 134 through a 100 µm nylon mesh (BS, Falcon 352360).

For time-lapse imaging the chorion of embryos was removed by a 90 sec incubation of the embryo-containing filter in 1.3% bleach (BEC Javel) under constant agitation until about half of the embryos were floating at the surface of the bleach bath. Embryos were extensively rinsed with tap water for at least 30 sec. Dechorionated embryos were then gently glued on a cover slip (ThermoFisher) coated with Tesa glue. For coating, 50 cm TESA 140 tape was transferred into 25 mL n-heptane (Merck) and glue was let to dissolve overnight at 141 room temperature. A total of 15 µL of dissolved glues was finally pipetted onto a cover slip to 142 form a 5 x 20 mm rectangular stripe and n-heptane was let to evaporate. Embryos were 143 covered with 40 µL of Voltalef 10S halocarbon oil (VWR) to avoid desiccation. Live-imaging 144 was immediately launched inside a temperature and humidity controlled chamber at 25°C ± 145 0.1°C and 80% ± 1% humidity (Lang and Orgogozo, 2012; Lefèvre et al., 2021; Rhebergen 146 et al., 2016). Time-lapse acquisition was performed at an acquisition rate of 1 picture every 7.5 sec using a digital camera (Conrad 9-Megapixel USB digital microscope camera) and 147 148 Cheese software, version 3.18.1, on a computer with an ubuntu 16.04 linux operating 149 system. Movies were assembled with avconv (libav-tools).

150 In Drosophila melanogaster and closely related species, females were reported to 151 hold fertilized eggs inside the reproductive tract for >12 hours (Markow et al., 2009), which could explain the variation observed in our experiments with D. pachea. Therefore, we 152 153 monitored egg retention in this species by examining dechorionated eggs from a 1 h egg-154 laying period. We found that all observed embryos (n=52) were early embryos at the 155 syncytial blastoderm stage (Wieschaus and Nüsslein-Volhard, 1986) and egg retention was 156 not observed. Out of 28 embryos monitored, 12 (43%) pursued their development until 157 hatching while the others did not develop at all (Movie S1, Dataset S1). Such mortality has 158 been reported previously (Jefferson, 1977; Pitnick, 1993) but potentially also dependent on the above-mentioned bleach treatment. The embryos that died during the experiment were 159 160 excluded from analysis. Furthermore, the duration of hatching, which is the last stage of 161 embryonic development, has been shown to be more variable in comparison to the other 162 embryonic stages in various Drosophila species (Chong et al., 2018; Kuntz and Eisen, 2014). We thus measured both the total embryonic duration, from collection up to larva 163 164 hatching and the embryonic duration up to the trachea gas filling stage, which precedes the 165 hatching stage (Dataset S1).

166

167 **2.3.** Cohort synchronisation of larvae, dissection and imaging of larval mouth hooks

168 In order to collect cohorts of larvae at a synchronous developmental stage, we first 169 collected embryos from a 2 h egg laying interval (see above) that were placed on a food 170 plate together with fresh yeast. Freshly hatched larvae were retrieved from the yeast paste 171 with fine forceps (Dumont #5, Fine Science Tool) or by filtering the yeast through a nylon 172 mesh (see above). Larvae were transferred into vials containing standard *Drosophila* 173 *pachea* food and were examined once a day until all larvae had turned into pupae (Dataset 174 S2).

175 For imaging of the larval teeth, entire larvae were mounted in 20 µL dimethyl-176 hydantoin formaldehyde (DMHF) medium (Entomopraxis) beneath a cover slip (0.17 mm ± 177 0.01 mm thick, ThermoScientific), which was gently pressed against the microscope slide (ThermoScientific) to orient larval teeth in a flat, lateral orientation to the microscope 178 objective. Larval teeth were imaged at 100 or 400 fold magnification in bright field 179 180 illumination (Strasburger, 1935) using the microscope IX83 (Olympus). The instar stage of 181 each dissected individual was determined based on tooth morphology (Strasburger, 1935) 182 (Figure S1).

183

184 **2.4.** Measurement of the duration of puparium formation in *D. pachea*

185 The precise duration of puparium formation was characterized by monitoring nine D. 186 pachea pupariating larvae by time-lapse imaging. Larvae at the third instar stage and third 187 instar wandering stage were collected from the *D. pachea* stock and were transferred into 188 fresh D. pachea standard medium, inside a 5 cm diameter petri-dish and a piece of 1 cm x 4 189 cm paper sheet (BenchGuard). The dish was then placed into the temperature and humidity 190 controlled chamber at 25° C ± 0.1°C and 80% ± 1% humidity, as previously described. Time-191 lapse acquisition was performed for about 72 h as previously described for embryonic timing 192 characterization. The duration of the white puparium stage was measured from the moment 193 when the larva had everted the anterior spiracles and had stopped moving until the moment 194 when the pupal case had turned brown.

195

196 2.5. Characterization of developmental timing in pupae

197 The developmental duration of *D. pachea*, *D. nannoptera* and *D. acanthoptera* was 198 examined by observation of pupae at different time points after puparium formation (APF). 199 Synchronised pupae were obtained from each species by collecting so-called "white pupae" 200 that had just formed the puparium (Dataset S3). Specimens were collected with a wet brush 201 directly from stock vials. Individuals of the same cohort were placed onto moist Kimtech 202 tissue (Kimberly-Clark) inside a 5 cm diameter petri dish. Petri dishes with pupae were kept 203 at 22°C, 25°C, 29°C, or 32°C inside plastic boxes, which also contained wet tissue paper. 204 Specimens analyzed at 22°C and 32°C were taken from a stock at 25°C at the stage of 205 puparium formation and subsequently incubated at the desired temperature. A group of 206 pupae resulting from a single collection event was considered as a synchronised cohort. 207 Developmental progress of synchronised cohorts (Table 1, Figure S2) was examined at 208 various time points by visual examination of the pupae using a stereomicroscope VisiScope 209 SZB 200 (VWR) (Dataset S4). Developmental stages were assigned according to 210 morphological markers defined for *D. melanogaster* by Bainbridge and Bownes (1981) 211 (Table 2). The markers used to characterize stages 8 to 12 (eye, wing or body pigmentation, 212 Table 2) were not convenient for the characterization by direct observation of D. 213 acanthoptera pupae as these flies develop black eyes, as opposed to most other Drosophila 214 species that have red eyes. In addition, D. acanthoptera is generally less pigmented 215 compared to *D. pachea* and *D. nannoptera* (Pitnick and Heed, 1994) and pigmentation 216 changes were not easily detectable through the pupal case. Therefore, we additionally 217 carried out time-lapse imaging of one cohort with five *D. acanthoptera* pupae to investigate 218 the developmental durations of stages 8-12. The anterior part of the pupal case was 219 removed, letting the head and the anterior part of the thorax visible. Image acquisition was 220 done at 25°C ± 0.1°C and 80% ± 1% humidity, as previously described. Time-lapse 221 acquisition was performed as previously described and recorded with the VLC media player, 222 version 3.0 at an acquisition rate of 1 picture every 13:02 min. Two pupae died during 223 acquisition and were excluded from the analysis (Movie S2).

224

225 2.6. Data analysis

Data was manually entered into spreadsheets (Datasets S1, S2, S3 and S4) and analysis was performed in R version 3.6 (R Core Team, 2014). Ages expressed in hours after pupa formation were automatically calculated with respect to the time point of white pupa collection.

230

231 **3. Results**

3.1. *D. pachea* embryonic and larval development at 25°C last for about 33 h and 216 h, respectively

We roughly examined the duration of embryonic and larval development in *D.* pachea at 25°C. The average duration of the total embryonic development in *D. pachea* at 25°C, until hatching of the larva was 32 h 48 min \pm 1 h 13 min (mean \pm standard deviation ; n = 12) (Figure 1, Movie S1). Embryonic development up to the trachea gas filling stage (see Material and Methods for details) was estimated to be 26 h 48 min \pm 1 h 13 min (mean \pm

standard deviation ; n = 12) (Movie S1). These durations appeared to be longer in *D. pachea*compared to those reported for various other Drosophila species, such as *Drosophila melanogaster, Drosophila simulans, Drosophila sechellia, Drosophila yakuba, Drosophila pseudoobscura, Drosophila mojavensis* (Figure 2) (David and Clavel, 1966; Kuntz and
Eisen, 2014; Powsner, 1935).

The total duration of *D. pachea* larval development on standard *D. pachea* food at 25°C was approximately 9 days (~216 h). The duration of the first and second instar larva were about 2 days each and the third instar stage lasted for about 5 days (Figure 1). In *D. melanogaster,* the total duration of the larval stage was about 5 days for larvae reared on optimal food at 25°C, the first and second instars lasting for 1 day each, and the third instar for three days, according to Strasburger, (1935). The larval development of *D. pachea* appeared thus to be longer compared to those of *D. melanogaster* at 25°C.

251

252 3.2. Similar durations of pupal development in D. pachea at 25°C, 29°C and 32°C

253 The duration of larval development appears to be sensitive to various environmental 254 factors, such as diet (Matzkin et al., 2011), crowding, or access to food (Vijendravarma et al., 255 2013). Since pupal development is apparently less affected by such factors, we focussed on 256 the pupal stage to investigate the effect of the rearing temperature on timing of development 257 in *D. pachea*. We evaluated pupal developmental progress at four temperatures: 22°C, 25, 258 29°C, and 32°C. Preliminary tests revealed that rearing of *D. pachea* at temperatures lower 259 than 25°C is prolonged which favors the accumulation of bacterial infections in the food and 260 decreased survival of the flies. At 34°C, D. pachea individuals died within a few days and at 261 32°C flies survived but did not reproduce. Since we could not cultivate D. pachea at the 262 extreme temperatures of 22°C and 32°C, individuals were selected at the stage of puparium 263 formation in a stock at 25°C and incubated at either temperature.

264 At 25°C - 32°C, D. pachea pupae reached the pharate adult stage in less than 55 h 265 but timing was prolonged at 22°C (Figure 3A-E). However, pupal development was 266 accelerated at 29°C and 32°C between stages 8 and 13 (beginning of eye pigmentation until 267 the end of body and wing pigmentation) compared to development at 25°C (Figure 3A-E). In 268 addition, development was consistently slower at 22°C compared to 25°C. However, stages 269 14 and 15 required more time at 29°C and 32°C with respect to developmental progress at 270 25°C and resulted in a similar overall duration of about 100 - 145 h. Only at 22°C, 271 development was globally slower and adults emerged later, between 150 - 190 h. Thus, in

D. pachea the rearing temperature influences the relative progress of pupal development at
 particular stages. While pupal development is slowed-down at temperatures below 25°C, the
 overall duration appears to be similar at higher temperatures.

3.3. The timing of the pupal development is conserved up to the pharate adult stage between *D. pachea* and various Drosophila species at 25°C

The white pupa stage (see Material and Methods for details) in *D. pachea* was estimated to last for 102 min \pm 41 min (mean \pm standard deviation) (n=9) at 25°C. This duration has to be considered as the remaining variation of developmental progress between examined individual pupae in later timing analyses (see Materials and Methods). This duration was similar to previously reported durations for *D. melanogaster* white pupae of 80-120 min, at 25°C (Bainbridge and Bownes, 1981).

283 At 25°C, the pharate adult stage (stage 7, Table 2) was observed about 55 h after 284 puparium formation and emergence of adults between 115 - 145 h after puparium formation 285 (Figures 2A). This timing was similar to those of *D. acanthoptera* and *D. nannoptera* (Figure 286 3B). The developmental duration from puparium formation to pharate adult (stages 1 to 7, 287 from 0 h APF to about 55 h APF) was also similar to those reported for *D. melanogaster* and 288 D. guttifera (Figure 3B) (Bainbridge and Bownes, 1981; Fukutomi et al., 2017). However, at 289 later pupal development durations of stages were prolonged in D. pachea, D. nannoptera 290 and *D. acanthoptera* compared to *D. melanogaster* and *D. guttifera*.

The emergence of the adult fly from the pupal case (stage 15) is highly variable within *D. pachea, D. nannoptera* and *D. acanthoptera. D. pachea* adults emerge between 115 - 144 h APF, *D. nannoptera* adults between 112 - 140 h APF and *D. acanthoptera* adults between 102 h - 142 h APF. The variance of this stage was significantly different between the three species (Levene's test: F = 3.4414, Df = 2, p = 0.03847), the stage 15 being longer in *D. acanthoptera* compared to *D. pachea* and *D. nannoptera* (Figure 3B).

297

298 4. Discussion

299

300 4.1. A possible temperature-buffering mechanism during pupal development

The trend of a decrease of developmental duration when rearing temperature increases was not observed in *D. pachea* at high temperatures. Overall, pupal development duration were similar at 25°C and 32°C, while it was prolonged at 22°C. On the contrary, the duration of the overall pupal development decreases with increasing rearing temperature in 305 D. melanogaster (Ashburner and Thompson Jr, 1978; Powsner, 1935). In addition, 306 temperature fluctuations during pupal development of *D. melanogaster* are known to either 307 increase or decrease developmental speed (Ludwig and Cable, 1933; Petavy et al., 2001). 308 In this species, the first 24 h of pupal development are more sensitive to temperature 309 changes compared to the rest of the pupal stage (Ludwig and Cable, 1933; Petavy et al., 310 2001). While D. melanogaster is a cosmopolitan species that lives in a wide climate range 311 (David and Capy, 1988), D. pachea is a desert species endemic of the Sonora (Heed and 312 Kircher, 1965; Markow and O'Grady, 2005). The mean daily variations of temperature of this 313 habitat are 18°C - 42°C in spring/summer and 6°C - 32°C in fall/winter (Gibbs et al., 2003). 314 D. pachea is found in the wild throughout the year but undergoes a strong population decline 315 during August, when the seasonal temperatures are highest (Breitmeyer and Markow, 1998). 316 However, adult *D. pachea* are particularly resistant to high-temperatures and survive up to 317 44°C in the wild, while most other Drosophila species revealed a decreasing survival already 318 at 38°C (Stratman and Markow, 1998). Thus, this species may have developed some heat 319 resistance mechanisms, physiological and/or behavioral, that results in a certain tolerance to temperature variations and would buffer temperature changes on the developmental 320 321 progress. This buffering effect could potentially be important for proper development since 322 heat stress has been reported to increase developmental instability in various species 323 (Kristensen et al., 2003; Nishizaki et al., 2015; Polak and Tomkins, 2013). However, the 324 specific mechanism by which temperature affects developmental stability is not well 325 understood (Abrieux et al., 2020; Breuker and Brakefield, 2003; Carvalho et al., 2017; 326 Enriquez et al., 2018). Rearing at a lower temperature (< 25°C) revealed slower 327 developmental progress, indicating that a potential buffering for colder temperatures does 328 not exist in *D. pachea*.

329 Alternatively, the observed buffering phenotype may be temperature independent 330 and could perhaps ensure the emergence of the adult fly at a particular moment of the day, 331 such as dawn or dusk, when the environmental temperature might be most suitable for the 332 freshly emerged individual. In the last pupal stage that corresponds to the adult emergence, 333 we observed timing variation between individuals in *D. pachea* (up to 75 h between 334 individuals). This variation could potentially depend on individual differences or on 335 environmental factors that we could not control, such as the light/dark illumination cycle at 336 the moment of adult emergence. Such circadian regulation of adult emergence has been 337 observed in various Drosophila species (Ashburner et al., 2004; Mark et al., 2021; Powsner, 338 1935; Soto et al., 2018). However, the important variation in the last pupal stage is also 339 found among individuals of the same cohort (Dataset S3 and S4). Future monitoring of the 340 emergence of adults from various cohorts collected at different moments of the day will be 341 necessary to test this hypothesis. Future investigations will be needed to further characterize

342 the potential temperature buffering effect during *D. pachea* development and to test the 343 influence of the circadian rhythm in this species. In addition, we must further assess 344 temperature dependent pupal development in a wider range of species that live in distinct 345 climate habitats.

346

347 **4.2.** Conservation of the overall developmental progress during early pupal stages

348 The detailed analysis of the timing of pupal stages revealed that the first stages 1 to 349 7 appear to be rather synchronous among *D. melanogaster* (Bainbridge and Bownes, 1981), 350 D. guttifera (Fukutomi et al., 2017), and the three closely related species D. pachea, D. 351 acanthoptera and *D. nannoptera*. Later on, pupal development appears to be more variable 352 between species. This may indicate the existence of some developmental constraints, which 353 are limitations of phenotypic variability due to inherent properties of the developmental 354 system (Smith et al., 1985; Wagner, 2014). Such constraints probably act on outgrowth of 355 adult organs from primordial structures, so-called imaginal discs, that develop throughout 356 larval stages but undergo extensive tissue growth during pupal development up to the 357 pharate adult stage. Thereafter, the timing of development seems to be less constrained and 358 interspecific variations were observed. At least a part of the variation in the pupal 359 developmental timing could be attributed to the developmental marker used. As the 360 coloration markers are qualitative, it is hard to define precise limits of each stage (ie. eyes 361 turn progressively from yellow to red). A solution might be to identify a combination of 362 multiple markers for each stage or to establish gene expression markers that are known to 363 account for specific developmental processes, as it has been recently done for eye 364 development (Escobedo et al., 2021) or male genitalia development (Vincent et al., 2019).

365

366 4.3. *D. pachea* embryonic and larval developmental durations appear to be longer 367 compared to other Drosophila species

368 The embryonic developmental duration at 25°C has been investigated in 11 369 drosophila species other than D. pachea (Chong et al., 2018; Crapse et al., 2021; David and 370 Clavel, 1966; Kuntz and Eisen, 2014; Powsner, 1935) (Figure 2) and ranged from 16 h in D. 371 sechellia to 25 h in D. virilis (Chong et al., 2018; Kuntz and Eisen, 2014) (Figure 2), which 372 appear to be shorter compared to embryonic development of D. pachea at the same 373 temperature. Interspecific variation in the duration of embryonic development might rely on 374 genetic factors, as closely related species tend to have similar embryonic developmental 375 durations compared to those of distantly related ones (Figure 2). Overall, sample size was

376 rather low in our experiments and only present a rough approximation of the time range of
377 Drosohila larval and embryonic development at a single temperature. A detailed examination
378 would be necessary to adequately refine the duration of each developmental stage.

379 Larval development appeared to be longer in *D. pachea* compared to those in *D.* 380 melanogaster (Bakker, 1959; Strasburger, 1935). However, the duration of this 381 developmental stage has been shown to be highly variable compared to the other life 382 stages. In particular it has been shown that larvae are very sensitive to food composition and 383 to crowding that affect food quality and food access (Matzkin et al., 2011; Vijendravarma et 384 al., 2013). Food quality and food access in turn prolong the larval developmental duration 385 (Matzkin et al., 2011). This effect of food on developmental duration might also probably 386 affect embryonic and pupal stages indirectly due to nutrient contribution from the adult and 387 larval stages. A slower development observed in *D. pachea* raised in the lab might also be 388 due to variations in the ecdysone metabolism. In insects, ecdysone is first provided to the 389 embryo as maternal contribution and then directly produced by the individual (Lafont et al., 390 2012). However, in D. pachea the first metabolic step of the ecdysone biosynthesis is 391 different compared to other insect species, the conversion of cholesterol into 7-392 dehydrocholesterol being abolished (Lang et al., 2012). Instead, D. pachea metabolizes 393 sterols produced by the Senita cactus on which they feed, such as lathosterol, and 394 potentially campestenol and schottenol (Heed and Kircher, 1965), into steroid hormones 395 differing in their side residues (Lang et al., 2012). Therefore, in the wild, D. pachea may 396 produce different variants of ecdysone that may also differently affect developmental timing 397 compared to the lab conditions that only provide the single ecdysone precursor 7-398 dehydrocholesterol. Thus, it would be interesting to compare developmental durations of D. 399 pachea fed with standard D. pachea food used in the lab or with their natural host plant, the 400 Senita cactus. In addition, further investigations would be needed to elucidate how 401 temperature modulates these mechanisms.

402

403 **4.5. Conclusion**

We investigated the effect of temperature on developmental speed in *D. pachea*, a desert species. We characterized the timing of the life-cycle in this species and observed prolonged developmental durations compared to other Drosophila species. The global developmental duration during metamorphosis is similar at rearing temperatures between 25°C and 32°C although stage specific timing differences were observed. These observations indicate that *D. pachea* might potentially have evolved mechanisms to buffer the effect of temperature on developmental speed. Such mechanisms might be of

411 importance to preserve the fitness of individuals exposed to extreme temperatures and412 important temperature variations during their development.

413

414 Acknowledgements

We thank all team members of the Evolution and Genetics team, including Jean David, for stimulating and constructive discussions. We thank Virginie Courtier for comments on the manuscript and for covering a part of the experimental costs.

418

419 Funding sources

BL was supported by a pre-doctoral fellowship Sorbonne Paris Cité of the Université Paris 7 Denis Diderot and by a fellowship from the Labex "Who am I?" ["Initiatives d'excellence", Idex ANR-18-IDEX-0001, ANR-11-LABX-0071]. This work was further supported by the CNRS, by a grant of the European Research Council under the European Community's Seventh Framework Program [FP7/2007-2013 Grant Agreement no. 337579] given to Virginie Courtier-Orgogozo and by a grant of the Agence Nationale pour la recherche [ANR-20-CE13-0006] given to ML.

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 natural populations. Acta Zool Fenn 191.

648

650 Tables

Table 1: Total numbers of pupae and synchronised cohorts used in for pupal timing

652 characterization

Species	Temperature (°C)	Total number of pupae	Total number of synchronised cohorts
D. pachea	22	134	21
	25	76	11
	29	42	5
	32	141	21
D. nannoptera	25	40	13
D. acanthoptera	25	61	7

653

Table 2: Summary of morphological markers used to stage pupae, according to
Bainbridges and Bownes (1981)

Pupal stage	Description
1	Pupariation: extremity of trachea are everted, pupa does not move anymore.
2	Clear, white pupa.
3	Light pigmentation, dorsal trachea still visible.
4	Bubbles appear, dorsal trachea is not visible anymore, light pigmentation of the body.
5	Cranial extremity is retracted, distal extremity of wings appeared.
6	Yellow body is visible.
7	Pharate adult, eyes are not yet pigmented.
8	Eye discs become a bit yellower compared to the rest of the body.
9	Orange eyes, transparent wings are visible.
10	Deep red eyes.
11	Bristles are visible on the thorax.
12	Wings are clear grey, clear pigmentation of the body.
13	Wings are completely black, grey pigmentation appears on the body.

14	Meconium appeared under the form of a dark spot visible through the abdomen.
15	Eclosion of the adult.

657 658 659	Figures
660	Figure 1: Timing of the embryonic and larval stages in <i>D. pachea</i> at 25°C.
661	Embryo duration represents the time from egg laying to the hatching of the larva, based on
662	time-lapse imaging (dotted line). Larval stages were determined based on mouth hook
663	morphology of dissected larvae from synchronized cohorts, according to Strasburger (1935).
664	Black dots indicate single observations (Dataset S2). Numbers correspond to the number of
665	individuals observed at each stage.
666	
667	Figure 2: Durations of the embryonic development in various Drosophila species at
668	25°C.
669	The duration of total embryonic development of <i>D. pachea</i> (grey) was established based on
670	time-lapse imaging. The data for the species other than <i>D. pachea</i> were extracted from:
671	blue: Kuntz and Eisen, 2014 (duration up to the trachea filling stage, at 25°C), yellow: David
672	and Clavel, 1966 (total embryonic development, at 25°C) and green: Powsner, 1935 (total
673	embryonic development, at 25°C). The data used to establish the cladogram was extracted
674	from Yassin (2013) and Lang et al. (2014).
675	
676	Figure 3: Progress of pupal development.
677	A-D: Durations of developmental stages in <i>D. pachea</i> pupae at 22°C (A), 25°C (B), 29°C (C)
678 670	and 32°C (D), observed at various time points. Temperatures are highlighted in blue colour
679 680	tones according to the legend. Black dots indicate single observations (Dataset S3). E: Overlay of durations from panels A - D. F: Comparison of pupal development at 25°C in <i>D</i> .
680 681	pachea (blue), <i>D. acanthoptera</i> (green) and <i>D. nannoptera</i> (yellow) based on observations
682	of synchronized cohorts. The stages 8 to 12 were determined in <i>D. acanthoptera</i> by time-
683	lapse imaging of developing pupae, after removal of the anterior part of the pupal case
684	(dotted lines). Data of <i>D. melanogaster</i> (pink) and <i>D. guttifera</i> (purple) were retrieved from
685	Bainbridge and Bownes (1981) and Fukutomi et al. (2017), respectively. These species were
686	indicated by stars in the legend.
687	
688	
689	

690 Supplementary data

691

692 Figure S1: Mouth hook morphology at the three different larval instar.

Larval mouth hook from A: first, B: second and C: third larval instar in *Drosophila pachea*.
The scale bar is 10 μm.

695

696 Figure S2: Pupal stages in *D. pachea*.

697 Pupal stages of *D. pachea*, based on the characterization of *D. melanogaster* by Bainbridge and Bones (1983) (Table 2). Pupae of each stage are presented in dorsal (D) and ventral (V) 698 699 view. The stage (Table 2) is indicated by a number. Arrows point to relevant morphological 700 markers: C: stage 3, dorsal trachea still visible; D: stage 4, bubbles appear and trachea not 701 visible; E: stage 5, distal margins of wings appear; F: stage 6, yellow body visible; G: stage 702 7, non-pigmented eyes visible; H: stage 8, yellow eyes appear; I: stage 9, orange eyes; J: 703 stage 10, red eyes; K: stage 11, thorax bristles visible; L: stage 12, grey wings; M: stage 13, black wings; N: stage 14, meconium visible. The scale is 100 μ m. 704

705

706 Movie S1: Time-lapse of embryonic development of *D. pachea* at 25 °C.

707 Out of the 28 embryos, 12 completed their development up to the larva hatching. The 16 708 embryos that did not complete their embryonic development were excluded from the 709 analysis.

710

Movie S2: Time-lapse of pupal development of *D. acanthoptera* from 52 h APF up to the emergence of the adult at 25°C

713 Out of 5 pupae, 3 completed their development up to adult emergence. The two that died 714 during the time-lapse were excluded from analysis.

715

716 Dataset S1: Observations of embryonic development in D. pachea at 25°C

- 717
- 718 Dataset S2: Observations of larval development in D. pachea at 25°C
- 719

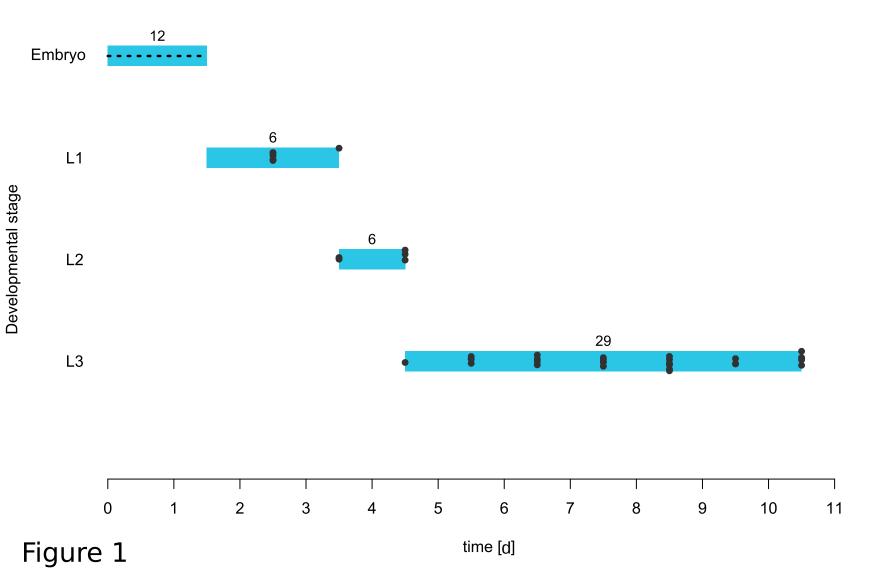
720 Dataset S3: Pupae cohorts for developmental timing characterization

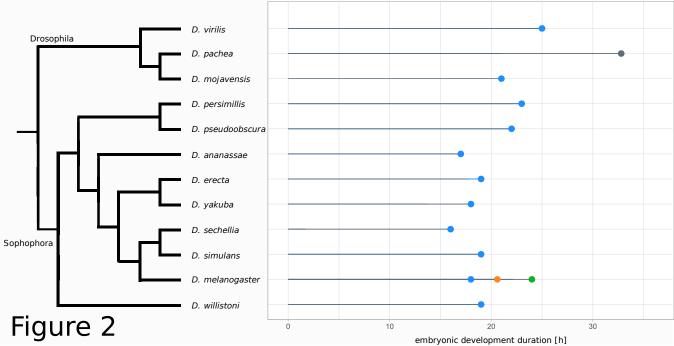
Dataset S4: Observations of pupal development in *D. pachea, D. acanthoptera* and *D. nannotpera*

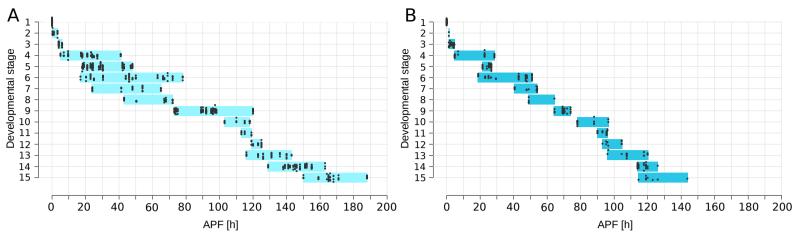
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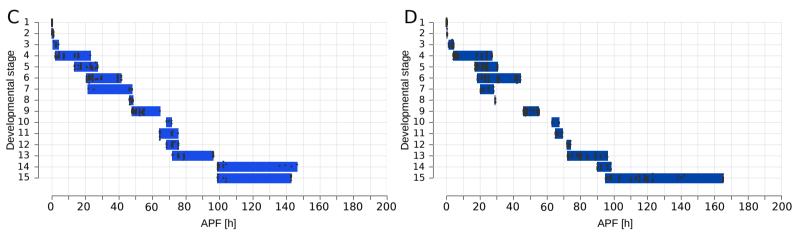
724 Availability of data and material

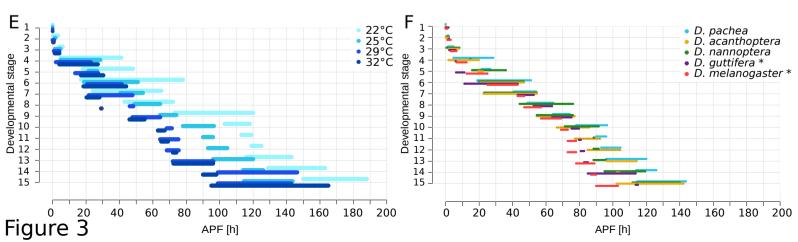
- 725 The movies S1 and S2 supporting the results of this article are available in the DRYAD
- 726 repository,
- $727 https://datadryad.org/stash/share/dfhCAtgopC4JY6qmkjK6Q_UEMmf2WSfc1gdETPPI7gk.$













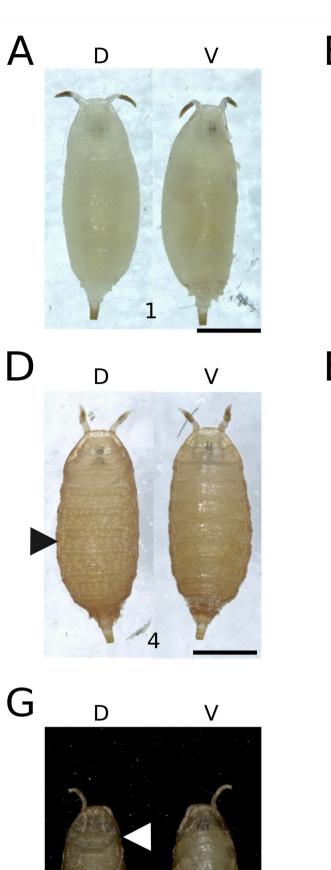
10 µm

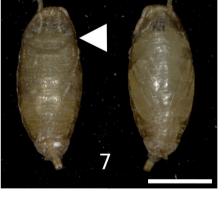
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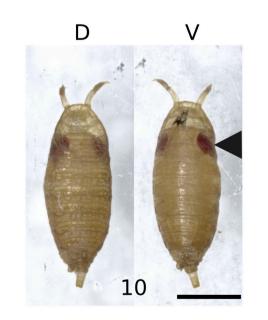




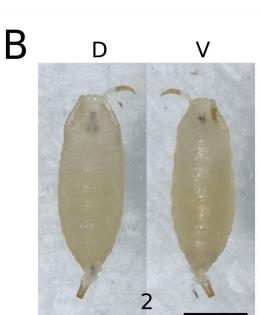
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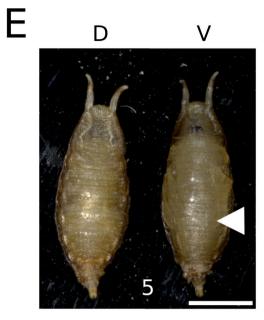


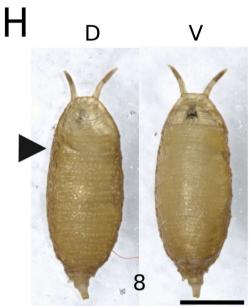


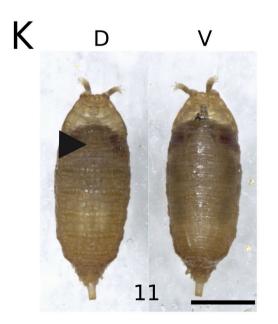


J







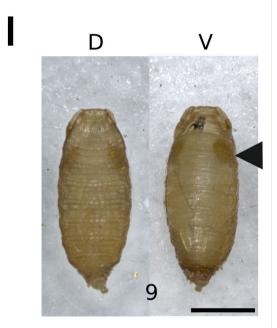


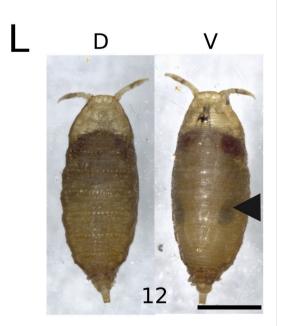


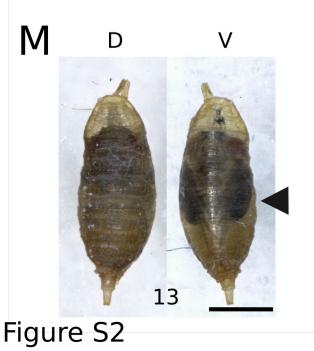












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