

SOCIAL ATTRACTION MEDIATED BY BACTERIAL VOLATILES

MSc Thesis – I. Venu; McMaster – Psychology, Neuroscience & Behaviour

SOCIAL ATTRACTION MEDIATED BY BACTERIAL VOLATILES IN
FRUIT FLIES

By
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TITLE: Social Attraction Mediated by Bacterial Volatiles in Fruit Flies

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Abstract

Recent observations illustrate fruit fly larval attraction to the distinct odour emanating from food occupied by other larvae. Growing evidence of bacteria as influential microorganisms of hosts suggested the closer examination of host-microbial interactions. We investigated the origin of the volatiles that are attractive to flies. Focal larvae showed no difference in attraction to axenic used food with axenic larvae and axenic fresh food. Additionally, mated females showed no difference in attraction to axenic used food with axenic larvae and axenic fresh food. When we supplemented the axenic disks with *L. brevis*, larvae showed a significant preference for the axenic used food with axenic larvae and *L. brevis* over axenic fresh food. Also, the supplementation of *L. plantarum* to axenic disks also resulted in larvae showing a significant preference for the axenic used food with axenic larvae and *L. plantarum* over axenic fresh food. Focal larvae showed a significant preference for *L. brevis* on scratched MRS agar and axenic used food with axenic larvae, but did not show a significant preference for *L. brevis* on scratched axenic food. In a learning experiment, focal larvae showed no preference for novel odours previously paired with standard used food over novel odours previously paired with axenic used food. In order to test whether *L. brevis* improves food quality, the three fitness parameters observed, larval development rate, egg-to-adult survival, and adult body mass, revealed inexplicable findings. These results provide evidence for the role of bacterial volatiles in mediating the social attraction observed in fruit flies.

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1 **INTRODUCTION**

2

3 **Fruit flies: a model system for social behaviour**

4 Fruit flies are a prime model system widely used to study evolution and
5 neurogenetic mechanisms. Their simple nervous system, learning abilities, and
6 ease of culturing and reproduction make them an ideal candidate for studying
7 social behaviour. While many socially influenced behaviours have been primarily
8 associated with vertebrates and social hymenoptera, the phenomenon has only
9 recently been examined in insects (von Frisch 1967; Heyes & Galef 1996;
10 Leadbeater & Chittka 2007; Kendal et al. 2009). Inherent conditions such as
11 parental care and overlapping generations have been identified to enhance the
12 utility of social learning behaviour (Dukas, 2010). Reducing the risk of incurring
13 costs in time, energy, and predation has also greatly contributed to the evolution
14 of this beneficial behaviour (Galef & Laland, 2005). Engaging in social
15 behaviours ultimately promotes the passage of information from experienced to
16 inexperienced individuals. We have established novel protocols examining fruit
17 fly social behaviour in an attempt to understand the evolution and neurogenetics
18 underlying social behaviour.

19

20 **Social information use in larvae**

21 The use of social information by *Drosophila melanogaster* larvae in
22 foraging decisions has been documented in our lab. In an experiment testing
23 simple social information use, fruit fly larvae exhibit social attraction to other
24 larvae and to a substrate frequented by others (Durisko & Dukas, in press). To
25 eliminate the possibility that focal larvae were simply attracted to other larvae out
26 of familiarity, since they were reared in groups, another experiment reared focal
27 larvae in isolation prior to testing with no experience of other larvae. Despite
28 being reared in isolation or in groups, larvae significantly preferred the food

29 occupied and consumed by other larvae over the unoccupied food. This work was
30 then extended to a wild-caught population of flies. Consistent with larvae from the
31 previous two experiments, focal larvae preferred the banana slice occupied and
32 consumed by other larvae over the unoccupied banana slice. Food consumed by
33 fruit fly larvae has a distinctive odour and Durisko & Dukas (in press) tested
34 which component of the used food was attractive to larvae, whether it was the
35 used food or the presence of larvae. Work by Durisko & Dukas (in press) suggests
36 that larvae are attracted to the smell of used food as larvae showed significant
37 attraction to used food from which larvae are removed but not to fresh food
38 supplemented with larvae.

39 Following the observation of robust attraction by focal larvae to other
40 larvae, another experiment tested whether larvae were capable of learning novel
41 cues associated with other larvae (Durisko & Dukas, in press). Work by Durisko
42 & Dukas (in press) demonstrated the ability of focal larvae to prefer cues
43 previously paired with food occupied by other larvae over cues previously paired
44 with unoccupied food. In a learning experiment, focal larvae exhibited a
45 preference for novel odours previously paired with food occupied by other larvae
46 over novel odours previously paired with unoccupied food.

47

48 **Social information use in adults**

49 Social information use in adults fruit flies have been reported in several
50 studies. One study examining the preference of females to lay eggs, found a
51 greater number of females laying eggs on novel food present with mated models
52 than on novel food alone (Sarin & Dukas, 2009). Fruit fly social learning has also
53 been observed in Mery et al's (2009) study of mate choice. Females exhibited a
54 preference to males of a certain colour following exposure to those males
55 copulating, over males of colour who were not seen copulating. Durisko et al.'s
56 (submitted) study of egg laying preference, found a preference of focal females to

57 lay eggs on novel food present with larvae over novel food unoccupied by larvae.
58 Recent work by Durisko et al. (submitted) extended their larval work and
59 examined social attraction and social learning in adult male and female fruit flies.
60 Adult male and female fruit flies showed a significant attraction to odours
61 emanating from foraging larvae, as they preferred vials containing larvae and used
62 food over vials containing unused food (Durisko et al., submitted). Additionally,
63 adults learned to prefer odours from food substrates occupied by larvae over
64 odours from unoccupied substrates of similar quality (Durisko et al., submitted.)
65 in a similar learning experiment.

66

67 **Host-microbial interactions**

68 In an attempt to determine the origin of the volatiles that are attractive to
69 the flies, Durisko & Dukas (in prep) hypothesized that the prominent compound
70 of larval fecal matter, ammonia (Borash et al. 1998), served as the attractant.
71 However, odour preference tests with varying concentrations of ammonia
72 solutions ruled out ammonia as the attractant (Durisko & Dukas, in prep).
73 Growing evidence of bacteria as influential microorganisms of hosts suggested
74 the closer examination of host-microbial interactions. Interactions between
75 bacteria and their animal hosts are plentiful in nature and occur in many different
76 hosts. *Buchnera aphidicola*, a bacterial endosymbiont of the pea aphid
77 (*Acyrtosiphon pisum*) confers resistance to *Aphidius ervi*, a natural enemy of to
78 the aphid host (Oliver et al., 2003). While infection of the aphids by the
79 ovipositing parasitoid is equal in aphids with or without *B. aphidicola*, infected
80 aphids reduced parasitoid larval development resulting in their mortality (Oliver
81 et al., 2003). Work by Bouskra et al. (2008) revealed developmental defects in
82 germ-free mice. Development and maturation of isolated lymphoid follicles were
83 compromised in germ-free mice (Bouskra et al., 2008). Infection of the germ-free
84 mice with their gut bacteria resulted in the normal development of these structures

85 (Bouskra et al., 2008). The gut bacteria of rats have also proven to be an
86 important factor in stimulating and maintaining the mucosal barrier (Szentkuti et
87 al., 1990). The mucus layer overlaying the GI-tract epithelium of conventional
88 rats was twice as thick as that of germ-free rats (Szentkuti et al., 1990).

89 While host-microbial interactions can encompass various relationships
90 such as colonization, defined as “a state in which the microbe may be present in
91 the host for a variable duration of time” (Casadevall & Pirofski, 2000) and
92 infection, described as the “acquisition of a microbe by a host” (Casadevall &
93 Pirofski, 2000), our focus will remain on the commensal relationship between
94 hosts and microbes. Commensalism comes from a latin term meaning “eating at
95 the same table” and refers to “a host-microbial interaction that does not result in
96 perceptible, ongoing, and/or persistent host damage” (Casadevall and Pirofski,
97 2000). “Commensal bacteria colonize their host generally at birth, through
98 vertical transfer, and are acquired constantly during the host life from the
99 environment through ingestion” (Storelli et al., 2000).

100

101 **Fruit fly-microbial interactions**

102 Fruit flies are excellent model system to study host-microbial interactions
103 owing to their simple nature with less diverse microbiota than mammals. Storelli
104 et al. (2011) studied the contribution of *Drosophila* microbiota by comparing the
105 timing of adult emergence in germ free and conventionally reared siblings. A
106 significant delay in growth was observed between fruit flies experimentally
107 deprived of bacteria compared to conventional flies when larvae were reared on
108 poor-nutrient conditions but not when raised on rich-nutrient conditions (Storelli
109 et al., 2011). Poor-nutrient conditions refer to a diet containing only 10% of the
110 regular yeast extract and resulted in a 2.5 day delay in adult emergence for
111 conventionally reared individuals and an additional 2.9 day delay for germ free
112 adults (Storelli et al., 2011). Ridley et al. (2012) also assessed the impact of

113 eliminating the microbiota by examining indices such as survival to adulthood,
114 adult weight, fecundity, nutritional status, and metabolic rate. While indices such
115 as survival to adulthood, adult weight, fecundity did not differ between the
116 conventional and axenic treatments, development time to adulthood differed
117 significantly (Ridley et al. (2012)). Slower development of larvae was noted for
118 adults of the axenic treatment as a median value of 1-day delay was observed the
119 axenic treatment (Ridley et al. (2012)). Work by Sharon et al. (2010) revealed a
120 role of the commensal bacteria of *D. melanogaster* in mating preferences.
121 Antibiotic supplementation to fly media abolished positive assortative mating
122 preference to random. An infection experiment with the supplementation of
123 *Lactobacillus plantarum* revealed a similar mating preference to flies prior to
124 antibiotic treatment and suggested a role of the symbiotic bacteria in mating
125 preference. The impact of the elimination of microbiota in the above studies
126 collectively makes bacterial odour a strong candidate as the attractant. Although
127 we suspected microbes, we limited our analysis to bacteria as we supplemented
128 the lab diet with antifungals. Larvae may be less attracted to food consumed by
129 conspecifics if it is experimentally deprived of microbiota.

130

131 **Gut bacteria of the fruit fly**

132 The diversity of microbiota in animal guts reveals the presence of two
133 ecologically distinct forms: the resident (autochthonous) and non-resident
134 (allochthonous) taxa (Wong et al., 2011). “Autochthonous strains have a long-
135 term association with a particular host, and they form stable populations of a
136 characteristic size in a particular region of the gut” (Walter, 2008). Allochthonous
137 taxa on the other hand “are ingested with, and pass through, the gut with the food”
138 (Wong et al., 2011). Work by Wong et al. (2011) overcomes 3 major limitations
139 of previous studies attempting to characterize the bacteria of fruit flies. Wong et
140 al. (2011) attempted to identify low-abundance taxa that may have been missed in

141 previous studies, bacteria specific to the gut, and minimized the incidence of non-
142 resident allochthonous groups which may have inflated the microbial diversity
143 reported previously. Although the abundance of taxa varied as a function of
144 developmental age, the taxa most common among samples included *Acetobacter*
145 *pomorum*, *Acetobacter tropicalis*, *Lactobacillus brevis*, *Lactobacillus fructivorans*
146 and *Lactobacillus plantarum* (Wong et al., 2011). *A. pomorum*, *A. tropicalis*, *L.*
147 *brevis*, *L. fructivorans* and *L. plantarum* accounted for 1.75%, 3.56%, 22.42%,
148 4.3%, 60.9%, respectively, of the reads in third-instar larvae. *L. brevis* and *L.*
149 *plantarum* were strongly represented in third-instar larvae (Wong et al., 2011), the
150 focal individuals of most of our experiments.

151

152 **Lactic acid bacteria**

153 “Bacteria belonging to the genus *Lactobacillus* are members of the lactic
154 acid bacteria (LAB), a broadly defined group characterized by the formation of
155 lactic acid as the sole or main end product of carbohydrate metabolism” (Walter,
156 2008). Storelli et al. (2011) examined the ability of *Lactobacillus plantarum* to
157 accelerate larval growth upon nutrient scarcity and found that the addition of
158 *Lactobacillus plantarum* to poor medium conditions was sufficient to accelerate
159 larval growth and resulted in earlier emergence of adults (Storelli et al. 2011).
160 Sharon et al. (2010) conducted infection experiments to determine whether
161 *Lactobacillus plantarum* could restore the abolished mating preference of
162 *Drosophila melanogaster* following antibiotic treatment. *Lactobacillus plantarum*
163 isolated from the flies was partially responsible for the mating preference. Work
164 by Tannock (1992) in rodents, chickens and pigs describes an “adherence of
165 lactobacilli to the surface of the nonsecretory epithelium lining of these sites,
166 which enables the bacteria to form a biofilm-like structure that provides a
167 bacterial inoculum of the digesta”. More recent work by Storelli et al. (2011)
168 illustrates *Lactobacillus plantarum*’s ability to reside in the midgut and “resist the

169 passage through the digestive tract of its host” (Storelli et al., 2011). This suggests
170 the closer examination of bacteria residing in the gut of *Drosophila* larvae as the
171 attractant.

172

173 **GENERAL METHODS**

174 We conducted population maintenance of *Drosophila melanogaster* Canton S
175 in a population cage kept at 25°C, 60% relative humidity (RH), on a 12:12 hour
176 light/dark cycle with lights on at 1 am. The Canton S population cage is supplied
177 with 2 bottles of the standard lab diet and 1 bottle of the standard lab diet
178 sprinkled with live yeast for population maintenance egg collection. 1 L of the
179 standard lab diet contains 75 g cornmeal, 20 g agar, 60 g dextrose, 30 g sucrose,
180 32 g yeast and 2 g methyl paraben. We collected eggs for experiments using 100
181 mm Petri dishes of standard food media. We collected eggs for the axenic
182 conditions approximately 24 hours prior to egg laying for the standard conditions
183 to control for size disparities that occur between the standard and axenic larvae
184 when eggs are collected for both conditions at the same time.

185 We generated axenic cultures using the protocol used by Brummel et al
186 (2004). Under a laminar flow cabinet, we created axenic cultures by sterilizing 12
187 hour embryos with 2 minutes of immersion in 2.5% sodium hypochlorite,
188 followed by 2 washes each with 70% ethanol and sterile distilled water. We
189 transferred sterilized embryos to autoclaved axenic food dishes, which consisted
190 of autoclaved standard food supplemented with ampicillin (50 mg/l food) and
191 chloramphenicol (20 mg/l) and methyl paraben (2 g/l) and fluconazole (10 mg/l).
192 We verified the achievement of axenic cultures by plating homogenates on LB
193 agar plates. For standard flies, we washed 12-hour embryos 4 times with sterile
194 distilled water before transferring to standard food dishes supplemented only with
195 methyl paraben. We transferred Petri dishes containing standard or axenic
196 embryos to a Tupperware chamber maintained at 25°C, 90% RH and kept in total

197 darkness. For all experiments, an observer blind to the experimental treatments
198 recorded the data.

199

200 CHAPTER 1: ORIGIN OF VOLATILES ATTRACTIVE TO FLIES

201 **1a. Are larvae attracted to bacterial volatiles?**

202

203 **Rationale**

204 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether bacterial volatiles
205 serve as the attractant to larvae displaying attraction to a substrate frequented by
206 others. We predicted that focal larvae would show no difference in attraction to
207 axenic used food with axenic larvae versus axenic fresh food. As in previous
208 research, we expected that focal larvae would be more attracted to standard used
209 food with larvae than to standard fresh food.

210

211 **Protocol**

212 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the social
213 attraction protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press). We randomly
214 selected axenic mid third-instar larvae (approximately 120 hours after egg-laying)
215 as characterized by morphological traits such as large mouth parts and orange
216 ringed posterior spiracles and behavioural traits such as voracious foraging as
217 focal individuals. We stayed away from late third-instar larvae characterized by
218 wandering behaviour in which larvae cease to forage and search a site for
219 metamorphosis instead. Focal larvae are maintained on low-density dishes (~65
220 focals/ 100mm dish) prior to testing. We tested one focal individual at a time in a
221 trial alternating between 1 of 2 food type conditions (standard or axenic). We
222 randomly used 128 axenic third-instar larvae as focal individuals for this
223 experiment. One focal individual at a time was placed (head pointing up) in the
224 center of a 100 mm agar Petri dish through a 1 cm opening in the lid.

225 Depending on the trial (standard or axenic), focal larvae had a choice
226 between 1) standard used food occupied and consumed by 30 standard larvae for
227 24 hours and standard fresh food or 2) axenic used food occupied and consumed
228 by 30 axenic larvae for 24 hours and axenic fresh food. The 2.5 ml food disks
229 were located 0.5 cm equidistantly from the midline and alternated sides between
230 trials. We recycled pairs of used and fresh food disks for 6 trials but used a new
231 agar dish for each trial. We recorded the choice of focal larvae, as indicated by
232 physical contact with a food disk, within a maximum time window of 5 minutes.
233 We excluded from the analyses the focal larvae that did not make a choice within
234 5 mins. We analyzed larval choices using generalized linear models with a
235 binomial distribution, logit link function, and included side chosen as a factor. We
236 also compared the frequency of choices between treatments using generalized
237 linear models with a binomial distribution, logit link function, and side as a factor.

238

239 **Results**

240 While larvae showed significant preference for the standard used food
241 with standard larvae over standard fresh food (66.1%, N = 62, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 6.2$, p
242 = 0.01), they showed no preference between the axenic used food with axenic
243 larvae and axenic fresh food (47.5%, N = 59, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.138$, p = 0.8). Larval
244 preference for the used food was significantly higher when it was standard than
245 axenic (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 4.1$, p = 0.04), but they showed no significant side preference
246 (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.001$, p = 1.0).

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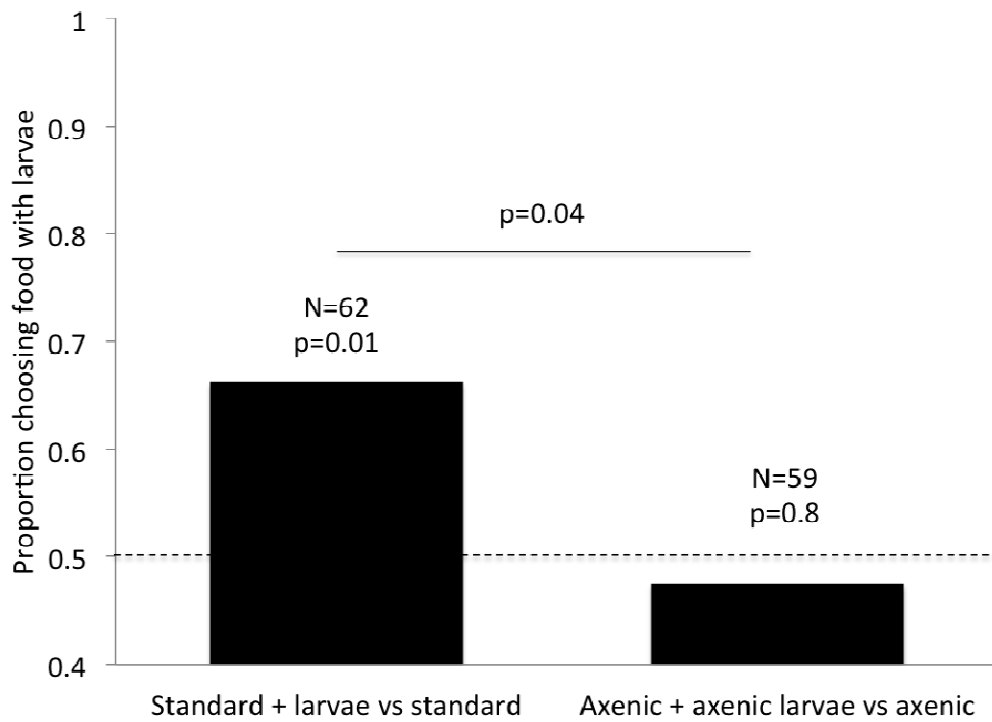
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Figure 1. Focal larvae were observed in a binary choice task. Focals were given either a choice between standard used food with standard larvae and standard fresh food (left) or a choice between axenic used food with axenic larvae and axenic fresh food (right).

268 **1b. Are adults attracted to bacterial volatiles?**

269

270 **Rationale**

271 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether bacterial volatiles also
272 serve as the attractant to mated females displaying social attraction to a substrate
273 frequented by others. We predicted that focals would show no difference in
274 attraction to axenic used food with axenic larvae versus axenic fresh food. As in
275 previous research, we expected that focals would be more attracted to standard
276 used food with larvae than to standard fresh food.

277

278 **Protocol**

279 The experimental setup and design will be a modified version of the adult
280 male attraction to larvae protocol described by Durisko et al. (submitted) Sexing
281 of adult flies took place post-clearing within eight hours of eclosion, three days
282 prior to testing. We randomly selected 180 3-day-old mated females as focal
283 individuals for this experiment. We tested one focal individual at a time in a trial
284 alternating between 1 of 2 food type conditions (standard or axenic). One focal
285 individual at a time was gently aspirated into a cage containing two vials located
286 in the posterior corners of each cage. Stimuli for the adult social attraction
287 experiment consisted of vials containing approximately 5 ml of food.

288 Depending on the trial (standard or axenic), focals had a choice between 1)
289 standard used food occupied and consumed by 30 standard larvae for 24 hours
290 and standard fresh food or 2) axenic used food occupied and consumed by 30
291 axenic larvae for 24 hours and axenic fresh food. Funnels were placed atop the
292 two vials to trap the focal adults after making a choice. Sixteen hours later, the
293 choice of focal adults, indicated by their presence inside vials, was recorded. We
294 conducted three replicates of this experiment during which 60 females were tested
295 per replicate. We excluded from the analyses the focals that did not enter a vial.

296 We analyzed adult female choices using generalized linear models with a
297 binomial distribution, logit link function, and included side chosen as a factor. We
298 also compared the frequency of choices between treatments using generalized
299 linear models with a binomial distribution, logit link function, and side as a factor.

300

301 **Results**

302 We replicated the social attraction results using mated females. While flies
303 showed significant preference for the standard used food with standard larvae
304 over standard fresh food (69.3%, N = 88, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 12.5$, $p = 0.000$), they
305 showed no preference between the axenic used food with axenic larvae and axenic
306 fresh food (53.4%, N = 88, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.455$, $p = 0.5$). Larval preference for the
307 used food was significantly higher when it was standard than axenic (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 =$
308 4.5, $p = 0.03$), but they showed no significant side preference (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.000$,
309 $p = 1.0$).

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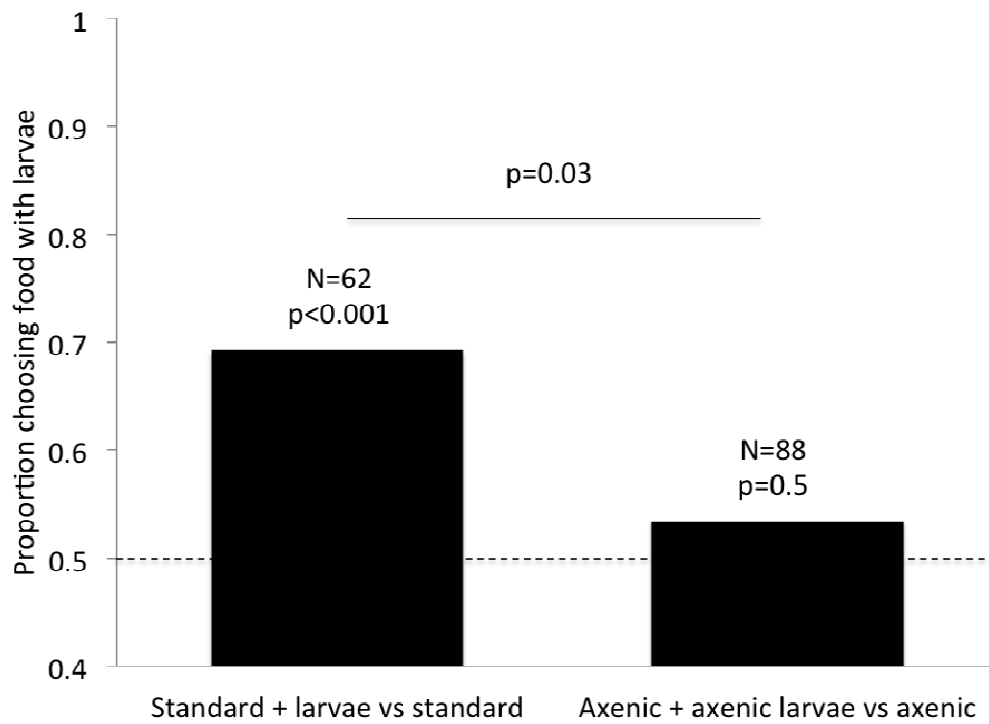
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Figure 2. Mated females were observed in a binary choice task. Depending on the treatment, focals were given a choice between standard used food with standard larvae and standard fresh food (left) or axenic used food with axenic larvae and axenic fresh food (right).

339 **1c. Are larvae attracted to volatiles of the internal bacterium we isolated**
340 **from larvae?**

341

342 **Rationale**

343 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether larvae are attracted to
344 volatiles of the internal bacterium we isolated from larvae. We predicted that focal
345 larvae would be more attracted to axenic used food with axenic larvae and the
346 internal bacterium isolated from larvae than to axenic fresh food. As in previous
347 research, we expected that focal larvae would be more attracted to standard used
348 food with larvae than to standard fresh food.

349

350 **Protocol**

351 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the social
352 attraction protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press). We maintained
353 focal individuals on low-density dishes (~65 focals/ 100mm dish) prior to testing.
354 We randomly used 120 axenic third-instar larvae as focal individuals and tested
355 one focal individual at a time in a trial alternating between 1 of 2 food type
356 conditions (standard or axenic + *L. brevis*). For the standard condition,
357 approximately 24 hours prior to testing, we transferred 30 standard larvae per 2.5
358 ml of new standard food disks for consumption. For the axenic + *L. brevis*
359 condition, approximately 24 hours prior to testing, we transferred 30 axenic larvae
360 and 50 µl of *L. brevis* per 2.5 ml of axenic food disks, which consisted of
361 autoclaved standard food supplemented with two antifungals (methyl paraben and
362 fluconazole) and no antibiotics. One focal individual at a time was placed (head
363 pointing up) in the center of a 100 mm agar Petri dish through a 1 cm opening in
364 the lid.

365 Depending on the trial (standard or axenic + *L. brevis*), focal larvae had a
366 choice between 1) standard used food occupied and consumed by 30 standard

367 larvae for 24 hours and standard fresh food or 2) axenic used food occupied and
368 consumed by 30 axenic larvae and *L. brevis* for 24 hours and axenic fresh food.
369 The 2.5 ml food disks were located 0.5 cm equidistantly from the midline and
370 alternated sides between trials. We recycled pairs of used and fresh food disks for
371 6 trials but used a new agar dish for each trial. We recorded the choice of focal
372 larvae, as indicated by physical contact with a food disk, within a maximum time
373 window of 5 minutes. We excluded from the analyses the focal larvae that did not
374 make a choice within 5 min. We analyzed larval choices using generalized linear
375 models with a binomial distribution, logit link function, and included side chosen
376 as a factor. We also compared the frequency of choices between treatments using
377 generalized linear models with a binomial distribution, logit link function, and
378 side as a factor.

379 In order to isolate the internal bacteria from larvae, we transferred 25
380 third-instar larvae into a 12 ml two-staged centrifuge tube. We washed these
381 larvae twice with 70% ethanol and twice with sterile distilled water. Using a
382 sterilized loop, we crushed the larvae and streaked the liquid remains on a
383 Lactobacilli MRS plate, a special growth medium that fosters good growth of a
384 number of *Lactobacilli* strains (De Man et al., 1960).

385 We incubated the Lactobacilli MRS plate in a high humidity chamber at
386 25°C. Following growth of the bacteria, we streaked out cells from a single
387 colony onto a second plate of Lactobacilli MRS to achieve a pure culture. Using a
388 sterilized loop, we transferred cells from a single colony to an Erlenmeyer flask
389 containing 100 ml of Lactobacilli MRS Broth incubated at 31°C on a rotary
390 shaker. Prior to inoculation, to prevent carryover of medium components, we
391 centrifuged 12 ml of the bacterial culture in each of two two-stage capped test
392 tubes at 4000 rpm for 4 minutes.

393 We conducted DNA extractions with an alkaline lysis miniprep procedure
394 (Miller 1992). We added cells to a 1.5 ml microfuge tube containing 500 µl of

395 nuclease free water. We centrifuged the tube at 13000 rpm for 5 minutes. We then
396 discarded the supernatant and resuspended the pellet in 467 μ l of TE buffer. We
397 added 30 μ l of 20% SDS and 3 μ l of proteinase K before incubating for an hour at
398 37°C. We repeatedly added phenol-chloroform and followed-up with vortexing
399 and centrifugation. We precipitated the DNA by adding 100% ethanol and 50 μ l
400 sodium acetate. Following subsequent vortexing, centrifugation and washing with
401 70% ethanol, we dried the pellet by incubating the tube for 30 minutes at 37°C.
402 The primers we used for the 16S PCR are 5'-GTGCCAGGMGCCGCGGTAA and
403 5'-CCGTCAATTCMTTTRAGTTT. We used gel electrophoresis and UV light
404 exposure for PCR product visualization. The PCR products were sequenced by
405 fluorescence-based DNA sequencing (Mobix Laboratory, McMaster University,
406 Hamilton). The sequences were then used to search for homologs using the Blast
407 program at the National Center for Biotechnology Information. Identification of
408 the bacteria using 16S PCR yielded *L. brevis*.

409

410 **Results**

411 While larvae showed significant preference for the standard used food with
412 standard larvae over standard fresh food (67.6%, N = 37, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 7.7$, p =
413 0.005), they also showed a significant preference for the axenic used food with
414 axenic larvae and *L. brevis* over axenic fresh food (67.1%, N = 70, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 =$
415 5.3, p = 0.02). Larval preference for the used food was not significantly higher
416 when it was standard than axenic with *L. brevis* (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 1.5$, p = 0.2), and
417 they showed no significant side preference (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.08$, p = 0.8).

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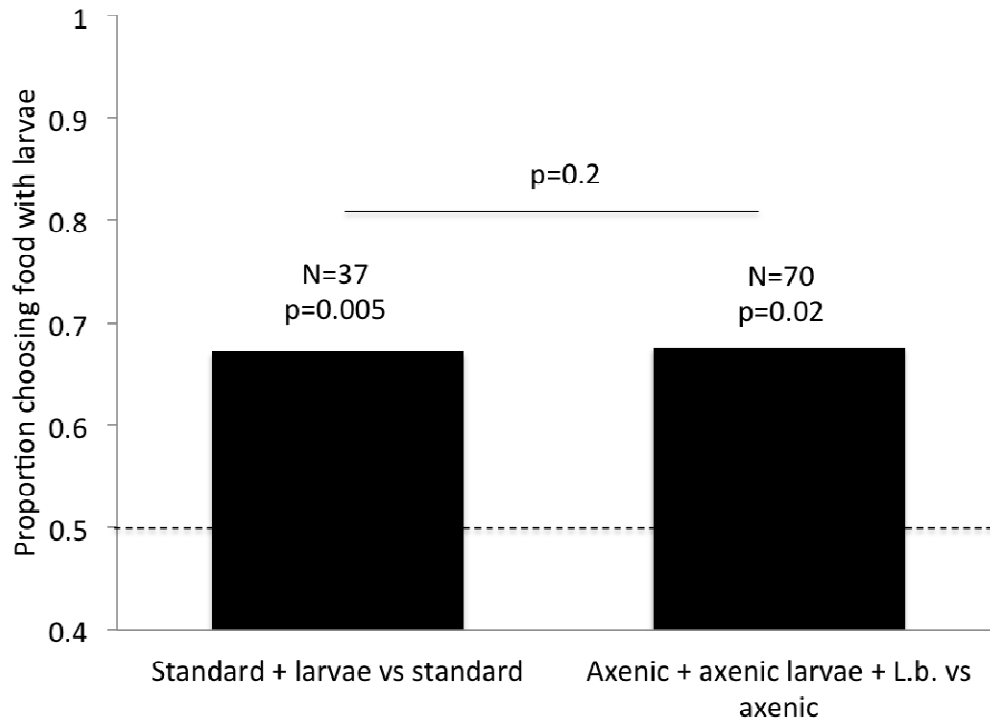
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Figure 3. Focal larvae were observed in a binary choice task. Depending on the treatment, focals were given a choice between standard used food with standard larvae and standard fresh food (left) or axenic used food with axenic larvae and *L. brevis* and axenic fresh food (right).

438 **1d. Are larvae attracted to volatiles of a common internal bacterium isolated**
439 **from larvae in other labs?**

440

441 **Rationale**

442 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether larvae are attracted to
443 volatiles of a common internal bacterium of larvae as indicated in other
444 laboratories. We predicted that focal larvae would be more attracted to axenic
445 used food with axenic larvae and the common internal bacterium isolated from
446 larvae in other labs than to axenic fresh food. As in previous research, we
447 expected that focal larvae would be more attracted to standard used food with
448 larvae than to standard fresh food.

449

450 **Protocol**

451 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the social
452 attraction protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press). We maintained
453 focal individuals on low-density dishes (~65 focals/ 100mm dish) prior to testing.
454 We randomly used 199 axenic third-instar larvae as focal individuals and tested
455 one focal individual at a time in a trial alternating between 1 of 2 food type
456 conditions (standard or axenic + *L. plantarum*). One focal individual at a time was
457 placed (head pointing up) in the center of a 100 mm agar Petri dish through a 1
458 cm opening in the lid.

459 Depending on the trial (standard or axenic + *L. plantarum*), focal larvae
460 had a choice between 1) standard used food occupied and consumed by 30
461 standard larvae for 26 hours and standard fresh food or 2) axenic used food
462 occupied and consumed by 30 axenic larvae for 26 hours and 50 µl of *L.*
463 *plantarum* for 2.5 hours and axenic fresh food. The 2.5 ml food disks were located
464 0.5 cm equidistantly from the midline and alternated sides between trials. We
465 recycled pairs of used and fresh food disks for 6 trials but used a new agar dish for

466 each trial. We recorded the choice of focal larvae, as indicated by physical contact
467 with a food disk, within a maximum time window of 5 minutes. We excluded
468 from the analyses the focal larvae that did not make a choice within 5 mins. We
469 analyzed larval choices using generalized linear models with a binomial
470 distribution, logit link function, and included side chosen as a factor. We also
471 compared the frequency of choices between treatments using generalized linear
472 models with a binomial distribution, logit link function, and side as a factor.

473 We cultured *L. plantarum*, obtained from the American Type Culture
474 Collection (ATCC strain 14917), in an Erlenmeyer flask containing 100 ml of
475 Lactobacilli MRS Broth incubated at 37°C on a rotary shaker. Prior to
476 inoculation, to prevent carryover of medium components, we centrifuged 10 ml of
477 the bacterial culture in each of two 12 ml two-stage capped test tubes at 4000 rpm
478 for 4 minutes.

479

480 **Results**

481 While larvae showed significant preference for the standard used food with
482 standard larvae over standard fresh food (73.1%, N = 93, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 18.4$, p =
483 0.000), they also showed a significant preference for the axenic used food with
484 axenic larvae and *L. plantarum* over axenic fresh food (62.5%, N = 80, GzLM: χ^2_1
485 = 4.6, p = 0.03). Larval preference for the used food was not significantly higher
486 when it was standard than axenic with *L. plantarum* (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 2.4$, p = 0.1),
487 and they showed no significant side preference (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.728$, p = 0.4).

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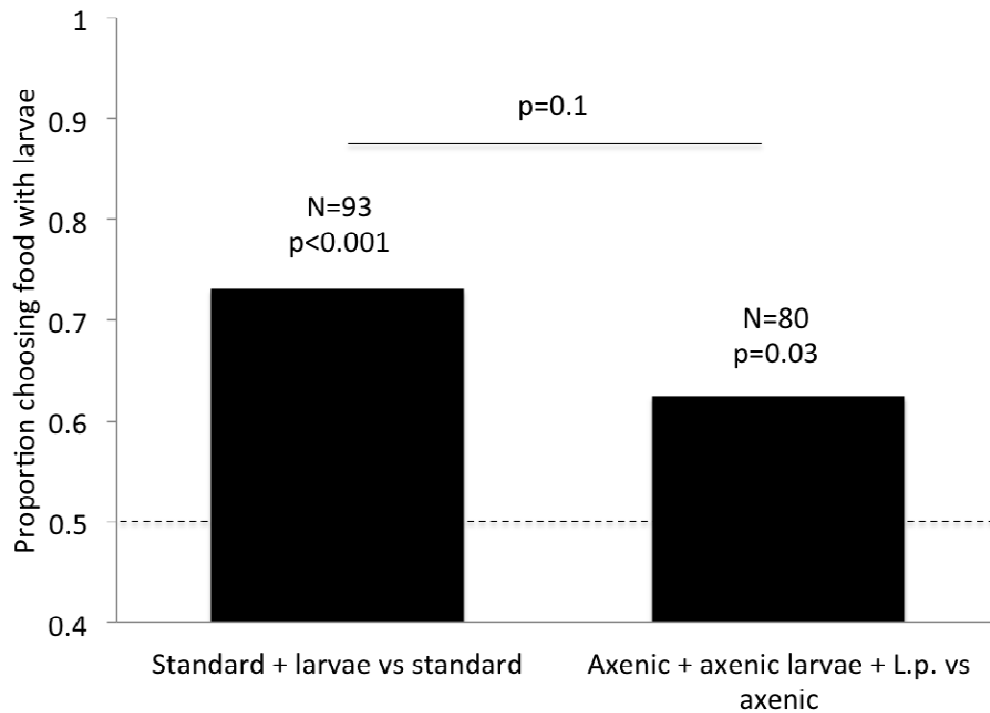
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Figure 4. Focal larvae were observed in a binary choice task. Depending on the treatment, focals were given a choice between standard used food with standard larvae and standard fresh food (left) or axenic used food with axenic larvae and *L. plantarum* and axenic fresh food (right).

509 CHAPTER 2: ATTRACTIVENESS OF *L. BREVIS* TO LARVAE

510 **2.1 Are *L. brevis* attractive on their own, or only in the presence of other**
511 **larvae?**

512

513 **Rationale**

514 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether *L. brevis* are attractive
515 to larvae on their own or only in the presence of larvae. We predicted that focal
516 larvae would be more attracted to a few types of media when supplemented with
517 *L. brevis* than when they are bacteria-free.

518

519 **Protocol**

520 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the social
521 attraction protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press). We maintained
522 focal individuals on low-density dishes (~65 focals/ 100mm dish) prior to testing.
523 We randomly used 200 axenic third-instar larvae as focal individuals and tested
524 one focal individual at a time in a trial alternating between 1 of 3 conditions
525 (*Lactobacilli* MRS, axenic food, and axenic food with axenic larvae). For the
526 scratched *Lactobacilli* MRS + *L. brevis* disks, approximately 24 hours prior to
527 testing, we transferred 50 µl of *L. brevis* per 2.5 ml of axenic *Lactobacilli* MRS
528 agar scratched on the surface and bottom with a sterilized needle to create
529 grooves. For the scratched *Lactobacilli* MRS disk, we only scratched the
530 *Lactobacilli* MRS agar with a sterilized needle. For the scratched axenic food +
531 *Lactobacilli brevis* disks, approximately 24 hours prior to testing, we transferred
532 50 µl of *L. brevis* per 2.5 ml of axenic food disks scratched with a sterilized
533 needle. The axenic food consisted of autoclaved standard food supplemented with
534 1 ml and 5 ml of fluconazole and methyl paraben, respectively. For the scratched
535 axenic food, we only scratched the axenic food disks, which consisted of
536 autoclaved standard food supplemented with 1 ml and 5 ml of fluconazole and

537 methyl paraben, respectively. For the axenic food with axenic larvae and
538 *Lactobacilli brevis* disks, approximately 24 hours prior to testing, we transferred
539 30 axenic larvae and 50 µl of *L. brevis* per 2.5 ml of axenic food disks, which
540 consisted of autoclaved standard food supplemented with 1 ml and 5 ml of
541 fluconazole and methyl paraben, respectively. For the axenic food with axenic
542 larvae, we transferred only 30 axenic larvae per 2.5 ml of axenic food disks,
543 which consisted of autoclaved standard food supplemented with 1 ml and 5 ml of
544 fluconazole and methyl paraben, respectively. One focal individual at a time was
545 placed (head pointing up) in the center of a 100 mm agar Petri dish through a 1
546 cm opening in the lid.

547 Depending on the treatment, focal larvae had the choice between 1)
548 scratched axenic *Lactobacilli* MRS agar with *Lactobacilli brevis* and scratched
549 axenic *Lactobacilli* MRS agar 2) scratched axenic food with *L. brevis* and
550 scratched axenic fresh food 3) axenic food with axenic larvae and *L. brevis* and
551 axenic food with axenic larvae. The stimuli disks for treatments excluding larvae
552 were scratched in order to mimic an effect of foraging by the larvae. Perhaps the
553 foraging behaviour of the larvae increases the surface area and allows the volatiles
554 of the medium to dissipate better. The food disks were located 0.5 cm
555 equidistantly from the midline and alternated sides between trials. We recycled
556 pairs of used and fresh food disks for 6 trials but used a new agar dish for each
557 trial. We recorded the choice of focal larvae, as indicated by physical contact with
558 a food disk, within a maximum time window of 5 minutes. We excluded from the
559 analyses the focal larvae that did not make a choice within 5 mins. We analyzed
560 larval choices using generalized linear models with a binomial distribution, logit
561 link function, and included side chosen as a factor. We also compared the
562 frequency of choices between treatments using generalized linear models with a
563 binomial distribution, logit link function, and side as a factor. Post-hoc pairwise
564 comparisons were conducted using the sequential Bonferroni method adjusting for

565 multiple comparisons.

566

567 **Results**

568 Larvae showed a significant preference for *L. brevis* on scratched MRS
569 agar (66.0%, N = 50, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 4.9$, p = 0.03 and axenic used food with axenic
570 larvae (65.3%, N = 49, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 4.9$ p = 0.03). Larvae did not show a
571 significant preference for *L. brevis* on scratched axenic food (44.9%, N = 49,
572 GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.568$, p = 0.451) or a significant side preference (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.202$,
573 p = 0.653). Adjusting for multiple comparisons revealed no significant differences
574 between the three treatments (all p > 0.07). Using plate counting to estimate the
575 number of viable bacterial cells in both types of media revealed a statistically
576 significant difference (t = 33.98, p<0.001) in the number of colony-forming units
577 (cfu). With a mean \pm SE of 5065 cfu/50 ml \pm 43.98 of *L. brevis* on MRS agar and
578 a mean of 2275 cfu/50 ml \pm 69.36 of *L. brevis* on axenic food.

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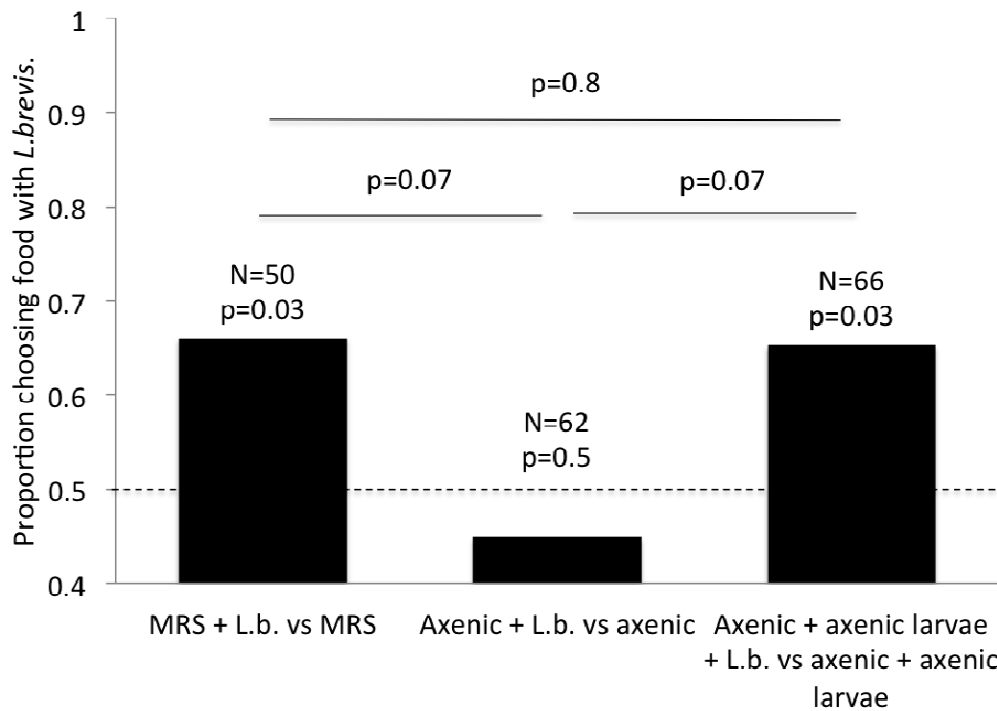
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Figure 5. Focal larvae were observed in a binary choice task. Depending on the treatment, focals were given a choice between scratched MRS food and scratched MRS food with *L. brevis* (left) or scratched axenic food and scratched axenic food with *L. brevis* (middle) or axenic food with axenic larvae and axenic food with axenic larvae and *L. brevis* (right).

608 CHAPTER 3: PERCEPTION OF FOOD WITH *L. BREVIS*

609 **3.1 Do larvae perceive food with *L. brevis* as better than axenic food?**

610

611 **Rationale**

612 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether larvae perceive food
613 with *L. brevis* volatiles as better than axenic food. We predicted that focal larvae
614 would be more attracted to novel odours paired with standard used food over
615 novel odours paired with axenic used food.

616

617 **Protocol**

618 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the social
619 learning protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press). We randomly
620 selected 96 axenic mid third-instar larvae (approximately 120 hours after egg-
621 laying) as focal individuals and provided them droplets of blue food colouring 24
622 hours prior to testing. Each focal individual was provided with 6 3-minute
623 trainings. One focal individual at a time was trained by placing the larvae (head
624 pointing up) in the center of a 100 mm agar Petri dish containing food and 2
625 odour cups (polypropylene NMR tube caps, Sigma).

626 Depending on the trial (control or treatment), focal larvae were trained
627 with novel odours paired with either 1) standard used food occupied and
628 consumed by 30 standard larvae for 24 hours and standard fresh food (control) or
629 2) standard used food occupied and consumed by 30 standard larvae for 24 hours
630 and axenic used food occupied and consumed by 30 axenic larvae for 24 hours
631 (treatment). For both treatments, we removed larvae consuming the food prior to
632 testing. The novel odours used in this experiment were equally preferred by
633 inexperienced larvae and consisted of 10 μ l 1-butanol and 10 μ l of propyl acetate
634 diluted in paraffin oil (1:300). Between each training session, focal larvae were
635 rinsed with a fresh droplet of water. We recycled pairs of training food disks for 2

636 trials but used a new agar dish for each test. Following the 6 training sessions,
637 focal larvae were placed in the center of a 100 mm Petri dish and given the choice
638 between two odour cups containing 10 μ l of the respective odours placed atop 1
639 cm diameter axenic fresh food disks on opposite sides located 3 cm from the
640 midline. We randomized the sides of the odours by shuffling the odour cups and
641 perforated the lids of the test Petri dishes along the midline. We recorded the
642 choice of focal larvae, as indicated by physical contact with a food disk, within a
643 maximum time window of 10 minutes. We excluded from the analyses the focal
644 larvae that did not make a choice within 10 mins. We analyzed larval odour
645 choices using generalized linear models with a binomial distribution, logit link
646 function, and included the order of training, the odour, side chosen, and relevant
647 interactions as factors. We also compared the frequency of choices between
648 treatments using generalized linear models with a binomial distribution, logit link
649 function, and included the order of training, the odour, side chosen, and relevant
650 interactions as factors.

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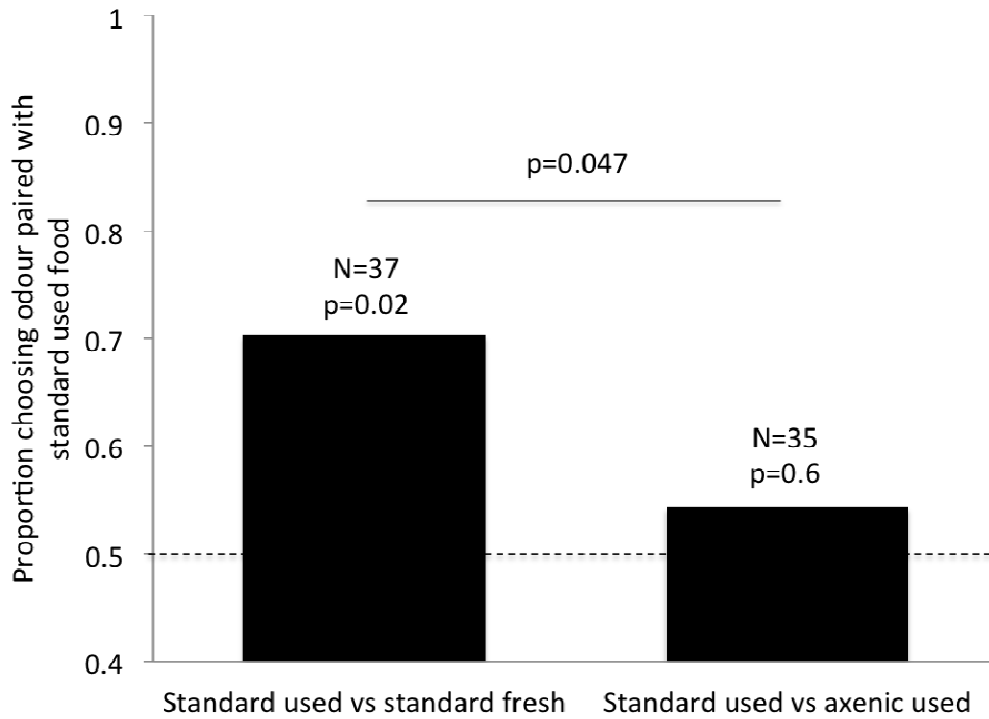
652 **Results**

653 While flies showed significant preference for novel odours previously
654 paired with standard used food over novel odours previously paired with standard
655 fresh food (70.3%, $N = 37$, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 5.2$, $p = 0.02$), they showed no preference
656 for novel odours previously paired with standard used food over novel odours
657 previously paired with axenic used food (54.3%, $N = 35$, GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 0.221$, $p =$
658 0.6). Larval preference for novel odours previously paired with standard used
659 food was significantly higher when it was paired against standard fresh food than
660 axenic used (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 3.9$ $p = 0.047$), but they showed no significant side
661 preference (GzLM: $\chi^2_1 = 1.7$, $p = 0.2$).

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Figure 6. Focal larvae were observed in a learning task. Depending on the treatment, focals were given a choice between novel odours paired with standard used food over novel odours paired with standard fresh food (left) or novel odours paired with standard used food over novel odours paired with axenic used food (right).

679 CHAPTER 4: POTENTIAL BENEFIT OF *L. BREVIS*

680 **4.1 Does *L. brevis* improve food quality?**

681

682 **Rationale**

683 The purpose of this experiment was to test whether *L. brevis* improves
684 food quality and to assess whether standard larvae placed on standard used food
685 (used by standard larvae) perform better than standard larvae placed on axenic
686 used food (used by axenic larvae). We predicted that the standard focal larvae
687 would perform the worst on standard fresh food because food wouldn't be pre-
688 dug as in other treatments, which may be beneficial to forage through. We
689 predicted that standard focal larvae would perform best on artificially used food
690 because the food would be pre-dug without an accumulation of toxic waste
691 products such as ammonia (Borash et al., 1998). We predicted that standard focal
692 larvae would perform equally on the standard used food and axenic used food
693 because a potential benefit of *L. brevis*, if any, for larvae might be counteracted by
694 an accumulation of toxic waste products such as ammonia.

695

696 **Protocol**

697 The experimental setup and design is a modified version of the protocol
698 described by Durisko and Dukas (in press) to assess the developmental effects of
699 foraging density. We adopted the three fitness parameters (larval development
700 rate, egg-to-adult survival, and adult body mass) used by Durisko and Dukas (in
701 press). We randomly used 720 standard eggs as focal individuals for this
702 experiment. The experiment consisted of 4 treatments each containing 15 2.5 ml
703 food disks of standard used, axenic used, artificially used, and standard fresh. We
704 began by collecting eggs for the standard and axenic conditions as described
705 above under General methods.

706 Following the development of axenic and standard eggs into mid third-instar
707 larvae, depending on the used treatment (standard used or axenic used) we
708 transferred 1) 30 standard larvae to 2.5 ml of standard food and 2) 30 axenic
709 larvae to 2.5 ml of autoclaved standard food supplemented with 1 ml and 5 ml of
710 fluconazole and methyl paraben, respectively. For the artificially used treatment,
711 we scratched 2.5 ml food disks with a sterilized needle as in the previous
712 experiment to imitate the texture of foraging larvae and increase the surface area
713 of the food. The standard fresh food disks were not manipulated and were
714 transferred with the other treatment disks to a high humidity Tupperware chamber
715 maintained at 25°C and in total darkness. We removed larvae from the two used
716 treatments 24 hours after transferring. We collected standard eggs as our focal
717 individuals 2 hours prior to the removal of larvae from the used treatments.
718 Following the removal of all larvae from the used treatments, we used sterilized
719 brushes to transfer 12 standard focal eggs to each food disk. Prior to the expected
720 beginning of pupation (at approximately 118 hours after egg laying), we recorded
721 larval developmental rate by noting the number of larvae developing into pupae
722 every 2 hours for 4 days. We also counted the number of adults eclosing in order
723 to calculate the survival rate from eggs to adults. Throughout the monitoring of
724 pupation and eclosion, we collected vials completely eclosed with adults and
725 stored them in the freezer. Following the collection of all adults, we sexed adult
726 flies, dried them in the oven at 70°C for 3 days and weighed 5 flies at a time on a
727 microbalance for our measure of adult body mass. Larval developmental rate was
728 analyzed using a generalized linear model with a gamma distribution and log link
729 function. Egg-to-adult survival was analyzed using a univariate ANOVA. Adult
730 body mass was analyzed using a generalized linear model with a gamma
731 distribution, log link function, and sex as an independent factor. Post-hoc pairwise
732 comparisons utilized the sequential Bonferroni method adjusting for multiple
733 comparisons.

734 **Results**

735 Development rate

736 Larvae developed significantly fastest in the axenic used and standard fresh
737 treatments, intermediate in the standard used treatment, and then slowest in the
738 artificially used treatment (Figure 7). The generalized linear model showed a
739 significant effect of treatment (Wald $\chi^2=259.5$, $p=0.000$). Post-hoc pairwise
740 comparisons showed that each treatment was significantly different from the other
741 three (all $p<0.012$) except the axenic used and standard fresh treatments
742 ($p=0.159$).

743

744 Egg-to-adult survival

745 Analysis of egg survival to adulthood revealed no overall significant effect
746 of treatment ($F=1.23$, $p=0.307$, Figure 8).

747

748 Adult body mass

749 The generalized linear model revealed a significant effect of treatment
750 (Wald $\chi^2=31.7$, $p=0.000$). As expected, analysis of adult body mass showed a
751 significant effect of sex since sex-specific differences in body mass exists in fruit
752 flies. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that flies in the axenic treatment
753 were significantly heavier than flies in all other treatments (all $p<0.02$). Post-hoc
754 pairwise comparisons showed that flies of the standard used treatment, standard
755 fresh treatment, and artificially used treatment were not significantly different
756 from one another (all $p>0.07$).

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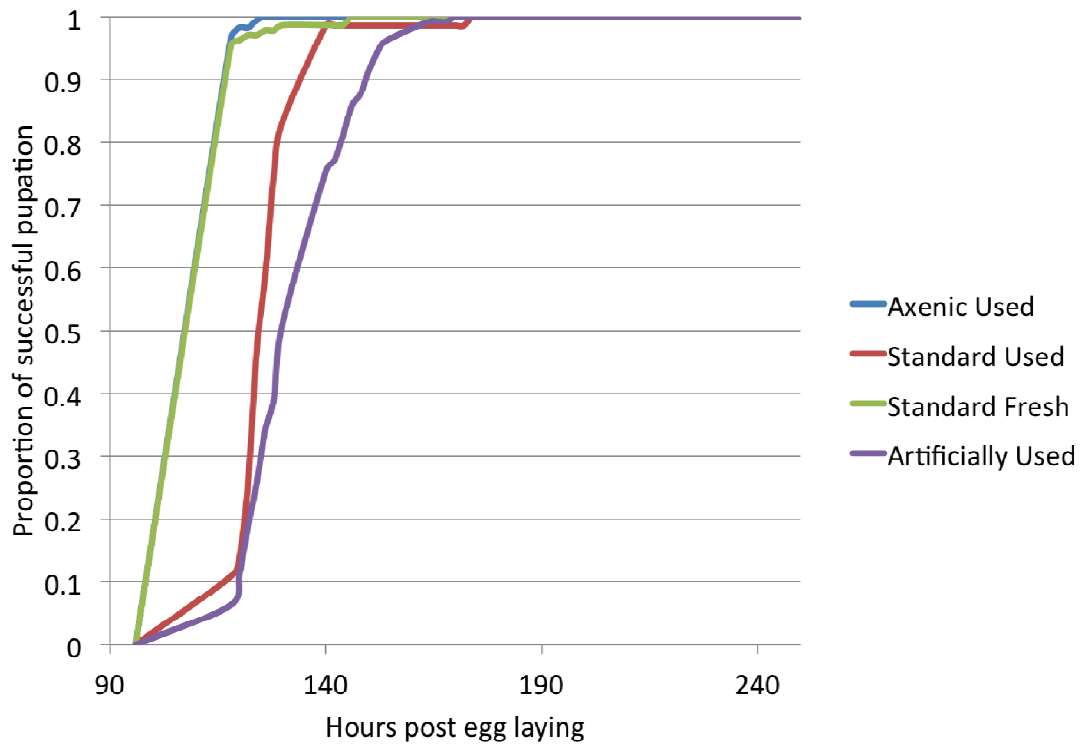
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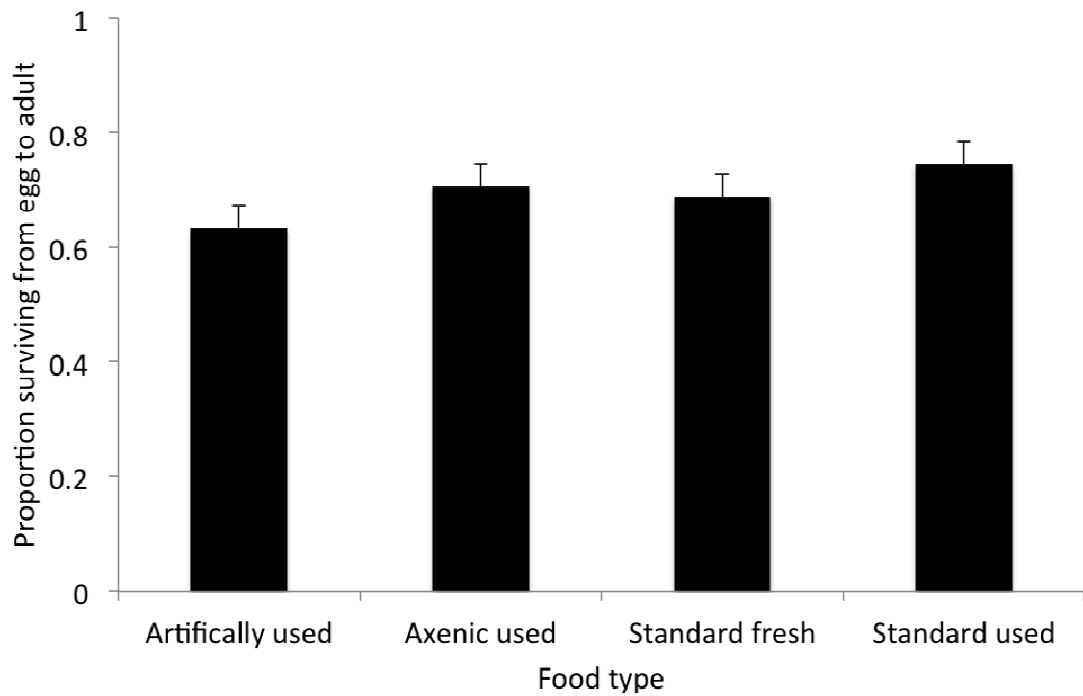
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Figure 7. Larval development was observed for focal larvae reared in axenic used, standard used, standard fresh, and artificially used food.

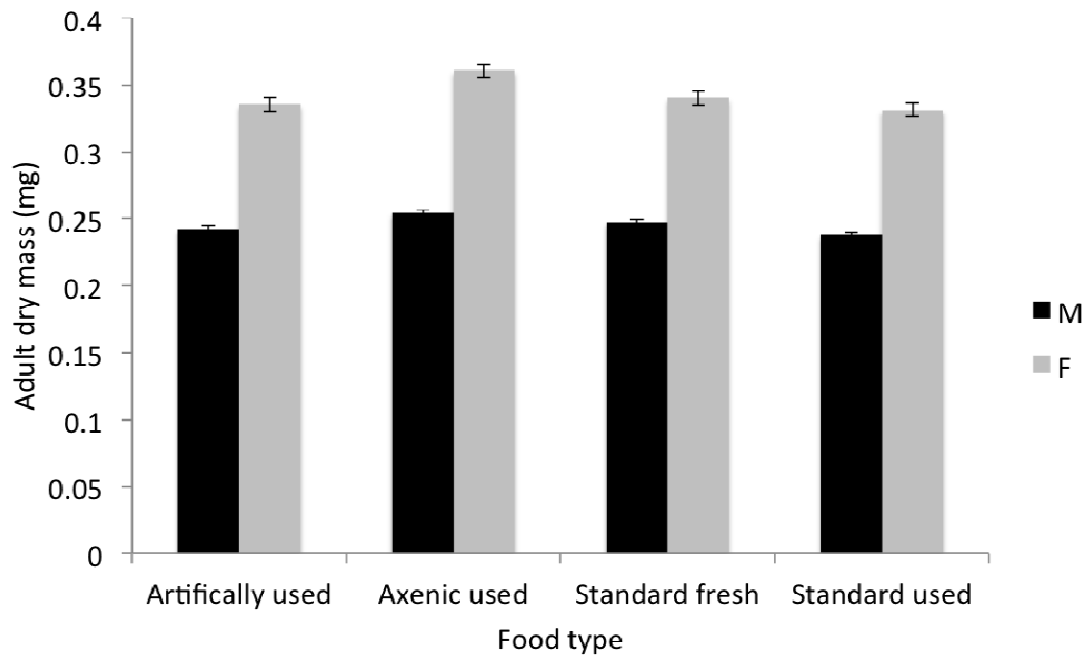
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Figure 8. The proportion of focal larvae surviving to adulthood was observed for focal larvae reared in axenic used, standard used, standard fresh, and artificially used food.

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Figure 9. The adult dry mass of focal larvae surviving to adulthood was observed for focal larvae reared in axenic used, standard used, standard fresh, and artificially used food.

807 **DISCUSSION**

808

809 **Major findings**

810 In our first experiment investigating the origin of the volatiles that are
811 attractive to flies, we tested whether larvae are attracted to bacterial volatiles. As
812 in previous research, focal larvae were more attracted to standard used food with
813 larvae than to standard fresh food but showed no difference in attraction to axenic
814 used food with axenic larvae versus axenic fresh food (Figure 1). Consistent with
815 our prediction, removal of the bacteria via sterilizations had abolished the social
816 attraction observed in previous work (Durisko & Dukas, in press). This indicates
817 that focal larvae do not merely show an attraction to food that has been occupied
818 and consumed by conspecifics; rather the attractive odour responsible for the
819 social attraction is the bacterial volatiles. Storelli et al. (2011) observed a
820 significant delay in adult emergence between fruit flies experimentally deprived
821 of bacteria compared to conventional flies when larvae were reared on poor-
822 nutrient conditions. Furthermore, slower development of larvae was noted for
823 adults of the axenic treatment compared to their conventionally reared siblings
824 (Ridley et al. (2012). These results suggest that larvae are able to pay attention to
825 volatiles of the food consumed by others.

826 We replicated the social attraction results using 3-day-old mated females,
827 indicating that females as well show no preference between the axenic used food
828 with axenic larvae and axenic fresh food and confirm that the attractive odour
829 responsible for the social attraction is the bacterial volatiles (Figure 2).

830 Moreover, in our experiment testing whether larvae are attracted to
831 volatiles of the internal bacterium we isolated from larvae, we predicted that the
832 supplementation of the internal bacterium isolated from larvae to axenic used food
833 would restore the social attraction observed in our previous experiment.

834 Consistent with our prediction, *L. brevis* recapitulated the bacterial volatiles social
835 attraction effect (Figure 3).

836 In our other experiment, we tested a common internal bacterium isolated
837 from larvae in other labs, *L. plantarum*, as a potential attractant. Given the ability
838 of *L. plantarum* to accelerate larval development in germ free individuals upon
839 poor-nutrient conditions (Storelli et al., 2011) on its own, we predicted that the
840 supplementation of *L. plantarum* would also restore the social attraction observed
841 in our previous experiments. Consistent with our prediction, *L. plantarum* also
842 recapitulated the bacterial volatiles social attraction effect (Figure 4).

843 In sum, our results illustrate that *L. brevis* and *L. plantarum*, commensal
844 bacteria of *D. melanogaster*, are sufficient to elicit the social attraction observed
845 previously (Durisko & Dukas, in press). This suggests that a single bacterial
846 species, such as *L. brevis* and *L. plantarum*, can reestablish the social attraction
847 effect evident in previous work (Durisko & Dukas, in press).

848 In our second experiment investigating the attractiveness of *L. brevis*, we
849 tested whether *L. brevis* are attractive to larvae on their own, or only in the
850 presence of other larvae. We predicted that focal larvae would be more attracted
851 to a few types of media when supplemented with *L. brevis* than when they are
852 bacteria-free. Focal larvae showed a significant preference for *L. brevis* on
853 scratched MRS agar and axenic used food with axenic larvae, but did not show a
854 significant preference for *L. brevis* on scratched axenic food (Figure 5).

855 This indicates that focal larvae do not merely show an attraction to media
856 containing *L. brevis* only in the presence of larvae; rather *L. brevis* is also
857 attractive to larvae on its own. Plate counting revealed a statistically significant
858 difference in the number of colony-forming units between the axenic food with *L.*
859 *brevis* and MRS agar with *L. brevis*. A plausible explanation for the absence of
860 attraction to axenic food with *L. brevis* over bacteria-free axenic food is that *L.*
861 *brevis* did not grow well enough on the axenic food to elicit an attraction. Despite

862 a lack of attraction of larvae to the axenic food with *L. brevis*, our results still
863 suggest that *L. brevis* is sufficiently attractive on its own to larvae and that an
864 interaction of the larvae and bacteria is not necessary.

865 In our third experiment, investigating why larvae are attracted to *L. brevis*,
866 we tested whether larvae perceive food with *L. brevis* as better than axenic food.
867 We predicted that focal larvae would be more attracted to novel odours previously
868 paired with standard used food over novel odours previously paired with axenic
869 used food. As per previous research, larvae showed significant preference for
870 novel odours previously paired with standard used food over novel odours
871 previously paired with standard fresh. Interestingly, larvae showed no preference
872 for novel odours previously paired with standard used food over novel odours
873 previously paired with axenic used food, suggesting that experiencing the
874 presence of bacteria does not increase the apparent quality of food.

875 In our final experiment investigating whether *L. brevis* improves food
876 quality, we tested whether standard larvae placed on standard used food (used by
877 standard larvae) perform better than standard larvae placed on axenic used food
878 (used by axenic larvae). Contrary to our predictions, the three fitness parameters
879 observed, larval development rate, egg-to-adult survival, and adult body mass,
880 revealed inexplicable findings. The egg-to-adult survival was significantly lower
881 than observed in previous research (Durisko & Dukas, in press). The experimental
882 setup and design used a modified version of the protocol described by Durisko
883 and Dukas (in press). In the protocol described by Durisko and Dukas (in press),
884 focal eggs were placed in dishes of 2.5 ml of food. For easier adult collection, we
885 opted to place focal eggs into vials instead of dishes. It is possible that there was a
886 problem placing focal eggs into the narrow vials, which may have in turn reduced
887 their survival. While larval development rate partially mirrored previous work
888 (Golden & Dukas, unpublished) with larvae in the standard fresh treatment
889 developing significantly faster than larvae in the artificially used treatment, adult

890 body mass for males and females were much higher than previously observed
891 (Golden & Dukas, unpublished). Since our observations of the fitness parameters
892 revealed differences from previous research (Golden & Dukas, unpublished), we
893 will need to replicate our results before being able to interpret our data.

894

895 **Comparison to other species**

896 Bacteria as attractants have been documented in several studies examining
897 other species. Work by Verhulst (2009) et al., illustrates the role of skin
898 microbiota in the attraction of African malaria mosquitos, *Anopheles gambiae*, to
899 human hosts. Upon examining the attraction of *A. gambiae* to volatile organic
900 compounds produced by human skin microbiota, experimenters observed
901 significantly more *A. gambiae* caught on blood agar containing skin microbiota
902 than sterile blood agar. Hasselschwert and Rockett's (1988) investigation of the
903 attractiveness of bacteria to gravid mosquitos, *Aedes aegypti* revealed bacteria
904 such as *Bacillus cereus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as ovipositional attractants.
905 Bacterial filtrates from 11 strains of bacteria were significantly more attractive to
906 Mexican fruit flies, *Anastrepha ludens* than uninoculated media. Chemicals, such
907 as ammonia, aliphatic amines, pyrazines, imines and acetic acid, identified from
908 the investigated bacteria were observed as attractants (Robacker et al., 1998).
909 Work by Dillon et al. (2000) on desert locusts, *Schistocerca gregaria*, reveals the
910 role of *Pantoea agglomerans* in the production of guaiacol, a volatile compound
911 promoting locust aggregations. Analysis of the fecal pellets of axenic locusts
912 revealed the lack of guaiacol as a reason for the significant difference in smell
913 between locusts with and without their normal gut biota (Dillion et al., 2000).
914 Work by Leroy et al. (2011) illustrate the role of bacterial volatiles, which
915 function as semiochemicals between bacteria and insects, are plentiful in nature
916 (Leroy et al., 2011). It is important to remember that these semiochemicals
917 “encompass pheromones, allomones, kairomones, attractants and repellents”

918 (Leroy et al., 2011). Leroy et al.'s (2011) work on the pea aphid *Acyrtosiphon*
919 *pisum*, reveals the role of a host-associated bacterium, *Staphylococcus sciuri*, as
920 an effective attractant and ovipositional stimulants for the pea aphid's natural
921 enemy. While the above mentioned literature describes bacterial volatiles which
922 serve as pheromones, kairomones or attractants, work on *Drosophila*
923 *melanogaster* illustrates the role of a microbial odorant, geosmin, in functioning
924 as a repellent (Stensmyr et al., 2012). Work by Stensmyr et al. (2012) reveal
925 geosmin to be a potent repellent activating a single class of sensory neurons
926 sufficient to result in aversive behaviour. Our finding that social attraction is
927 mediated by bacterial volatiles in fruit flies conforms to literature in which
928 bacteria produce volatiles that can function as attractants.

929

930 **Conclusions and Prospects**

931 This thesis presents strong evidence that social attraction is mediated by
932 bacterial volatiles in fruit flies. Prospective research can attempt to unravel the
933 volatile chemicals produced by bacteria that are attractive to fruit flies. Work by
934 Pripis-Nicolau et al (2004) illustrates the role of lactic acid bacteria in forming
935 products of methionine metabolism with salient odours during malolactic
936 fermentation of wine. One can conduct odour preference tests using chemicals
937 such as 3-(methylsulphonyl) propionic acid as the attractant and can use a
938 modified version of the ammonia protocol described by Durisko and Dukas
939 (unpublished) to test the presence of any such preference. Another way to identify
940 the volatile compounds is to identify volatile components of bacteria-produced-
941 supernatants using a capillary gas chromatography and gas-chromatography-mass
942 spectrometry like Lee et al. (1995) in their investigation of volatiles of bacterial
943 fermentation, which are attractive to the Mexican fruit fly. Investigation of the
944 chemical odours and identification of the potential volatiles will result in a better

945 understanding of the cues involved in the social attraction exhibited by focal
946 larvae.

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