

1 Spatially clustered resources increase male aggregation  
2 and mating duration in *Drosophila melanogaster*

3

4 ABSTRACT

5 In environments where females mate multiply, males should adjust their behaviour and  
6 physiology in response to the perceived level of sperm competition in order to  
7 maximise their fitness. Evidence of such plasticity has been found in a number of  
8 laboratory and field studies, but little is yet known about the cues stimulating these  
9 responses in natural populations. One way in which males appear to assess sperm  
10 competition risk is through encounter rates with conspecific males. Such encounter  
11 rates may be driven by the spatial distribution of resources required by males (i.e. food  
12 patches or potential mates), which in turn affects local density. However, explicit links  
13 between resource distribution, male encounter rate, and shifts in behaviour related to  
14 sperm competition have not been demonstrated. We show that when group size of *D.*  
15 *melanogaster* males is held constant, a small decrease in the distance between  
16 patches of food resources: (a) approximately halves the mean distance between  
17 males; and (b) leads to an increase in subsequent copulation duration – previously  
18 shown to be a reliable indicator of male perception of sperm competition risk – by more  
19 than two minutes. Aggregation of resources, operating via increased encounter rate,  
20 can stimulate plastic male sperm competition responses. Because spatial distribution  
21 of resources, including those exploited by *Drosophila*, is variable in nature, this may  
22 explain one way in which sperm competition-related plasticity is influenced in wild-  
23 living males.

24 Keywords

25 Copulation duration, evolution, mating behaviour, plasticity, resource distribution,  
26 sexual conflict, sexual selection, sperm competition

27 Introduction

28 Variation in population density affects the rate at which individuals encounter  
29 conspecific competitors and potential mates, with knock on consequences for the  
30 strength of sexual selection. One source of variation in local population density is the  
31 spatial structure of critical resources – clumped resources lead to increased encounter  
32 rates with competitors and mates as they gather to access those resources (Emlen &  
33 Oring, 1977). One adaptive response to encounter rate that has received considerable  
34 attention is the effect on investment in pre- and post-copulatory processes: with  
35 increasing encounter rate, these should be upregulated to maximise reproductive  
36 success in the new social environment (Kokko & Rankin, 2006). Several empirical  
37 studies have supported this prediction, including in crickets (Gage & Barnard, 1996),  
38 beetles (McCullough, Buzatto, & Simmons, 2018), bugs (García-González &  
39 Gomendio, 2004), platyhelminths (Giannakara, Schärer, & Ramm, 2016), fish  
40 (Candolin & Reynolds, 2002), and rodents (Firman, Garcia-Gonzalez, Simmons, &  
41 André, 2018; Ramm & Stockley, 2009).

42 Demonstrations that male encounter rate can stimulate plasticity in sexual traits has  
43 generally been achieved by housing males at varying densities in the laboratory, with  
44 the most common treatment comparing a singly-housed male with a male housed with  
45 one or more conspecifics (Candolin & Reynolds, 2002; Firman et al., 2018; Gage &  
46 Barnard, 1996; Lizé et al., 2012; Moatt, Dytham, & Thom, 2013). This extreme  
47 manipulation of the total number of potential rivals is not intended to mimic the effects  
48 males experience in nature, but rather to demonstrate that such adaptive responses  
49 exist. Evidence for how such responses link to more ecologically-realistic stimuli is  
50 lacking, although effects of sperm competition have been observed in natural  
51 populations – for example in lizards (Kustra, Kahrl, Reedy, Warner, & Cox, 2019) and

52 frogs (Buzatto, Roberts, & Simmons, 2015). Given that patchiness in food resources  
53 is common in nature, and that resource distribution affects the degree of male-male  
54 competition (Emlen & Oring, 1977), small-scale variation in resource distribution that  
55 leads to local variation in encounter rate could drive the plastic effects in allocation of  
56 resources to sexual behaviour described above.

57 Laboratory studies have repeatedly demonstrated that *Drosophila melanogaster*  
58 (*Drosophilidae Diptera*) males are highly sensitive to the presence of other males, and  
59 that they increase their investment in sperm quality and ejaculate size (Garbaczewska,  
60 Billeter, & Levine, 2013; Hopkins et al., 2019; Moatt, Dytham, & Thom, 2014),  
61 investment in ejaculate composition (Fedorka, Winterhalter, & Ware, 2011; Hopkins et  
62 al., 2019; Wigby et al., 2009), and lengthen copulation durations (Bretman, Fricke, &  
63 Chapman, 2009) when they perceive an elevated risk of sperm competition. Because  
64 *D. melanogaster* feed and breed on fermenting fruit (Begon, 1982), they rely on an  
65 inherently patchy resource with individual fruits naturally varying in size and proximity.  
66 Sex ratio and local population density of natural populations can vary considerably as  
67 a result (Markow, 1988; Soto-Yéber, Soto-Ortiz, Godoy, & Godoy-Herrera, 2018). This  
68 patchiness in natural food resources seems an ideal candidate for the type of  
69 ecological variability that might stimulate adjustment in post-copulatory processes in  
70 the wild.

71 We test whether sperm competition-linked responses respond to resource patchiness  
72 by exposing male *D. melanogaster* to three different food distributions (clustered,  
73 dispersed and a uniform coverage control). In this way we can manipulate local density  
74 in an ecologically-realistic way, but without manipulating the number of rivals as  
75 previous laboratory studies have done (Bretman et al., 2009; Fedorka et al., 2011;  
76 Garbaczewska et al., 2013; Hopkins et al., 2019; Moatt et al., 2014; Wigby et al.,

77 2009). We use the duration of copulation as a proxy for males' perception of sperm  
78 competition risk, an association that has been demonstrated repeatedly in the  
79 laboratory (Bretman et al., 2009; Bretman, Fricke, Hetherington, Stone, & Chapman,  
80 2010; Bretman, Westmancoat James, Gage Matthew, & Chapman, 2012; Bretman,  
81 Westmancoat, & Chapman, 2013; Mazzi, Kesäniemi, Hoikkala, & Klappert, 2009;  
82 Moatt et al., 2013). We predict that: (a) by experimentally manipulating the distribution  
83 of food resources, males on clustered resources have a higher mean proximity to rivals  
84 (i.e. higher encounter rate), and (b) males on clustered resources will subsequently  
85 mate for longer indicating a perception of increased sperm competition risk.

86

## 87 Methods

88 All fly rearing and experiments were conducted in a 12 hour light:dark cycle (0800 –  
89 2000 GMT), at 25 °C. *Drosophila melanogaster* used were from a laboratory  
90 population (Canton-S), and populations were cultured on 7 ml of a standard agar-  
91 based medium of 40 g of yeast per litre, in 40 ml vials. Between 20 and 30 *Drosophila*  
92 were housed in each vial. To minimise any effects of inbreeding, drift, and selective  
93 sweeps, every seven days the adults from all vials were pooled and randomly  
94 redistributed among new vials to start the next generation.

95 Test flies (180 in total – 60 per treatment) were collected from parent vials, each  
96 established with six males and six females allowed to breed for 70-98 h. Test flies  
97 were removed from parent vials within six hours of eclosion to ensure virginity; prior to  
98 this individuals are not sexually mature (Strömnes & Kvelland, 1962). Flies were  
99 immediately aspirated under light ice anaesthesia into treatments. Virgin female flies  
100 for mating assays were collected from the same parental vials and aspirated into new  
101 vials in groups of four. Females were used in mating assays when they were seven  
102 days (+ 6-8 hours) old (Churchill, Dytham, & Thom, 2019).

## 103 Manipulating resource distributions and patchiness

104 Each replicate for each treatment consisted of four virgin males maintained in a 90  
105 mm Petri dish for three days. Food in each of these 45 dishes was arranged in one of  
106 three treatments ( $N = 15$ ): clustered, dispersed or uniform food resource distributions.  
107 Clustered and dispersed treatments both contained four plugs ( $420 \text{ mm}^3$  per patch) of  
108 standard food medium (as described above). The size of these patches is within the  
109 range of patch sizes where territorial behaviours have previously been observed  
110 (Hoffmann & Cacoyianni, 1990).

111 Dispersed food discs were placed at four equidistant points around the circumference  
112 of the Petri dish; these were 50 mm apart along the edge of the square, 70 mm apart  
113 on the diagonal (illustrated in Fig. 2). Clustered discs were placed in the centre of the  
114 Petri dish, in a square arrangement with each food disc in direct contact with adjacent  
115 discs. The uniform treatment was an even layer of 45 ml standard medium covering  
116 the bottom of the dish (to the same height as the four food patches in the previous two  
117 treatments): volume and surface area were both greater in the uniform than the two  
118 patchy treatments, but given the number of flies food was assumed to be available *ad*  
119 *libitum* in all. All treatments were maintained in 12L:12D at 25 °C, and the four male  
120 flies per treatment remained in these conditions for 70 hours (+/- 1 h) until aged to  
121 three days.

122

### 123 Quantifying male spacing behaviour

124 Treatment enclosures were placed in one of two identical incubators maintained at 25  
125 °C and on the same 12:12 L:D cycle as the stock flies. Each incubator was fitted with  
126 a Raspberry Pi ([www.raspberrypi.org](http://www.raspberrypi.org)) connected to an 8MP Raspberry Pi Camera  
127 module (v2; [www.thepihut.com](http://www.thepihut.com)). Two to three Petri dishes, placed in a balanced  
128 arrangement across all treatment combinations, were placed directly under each  
129 camera. We used frame capture software ('raspistill') to collect one image every 15  
130 minutes from 0800-2000 GMT (during the light part of the cycle). We captured the x-y  
131 coordinates of each male at each time point using ImageJ's multiple point selector tool  
132 (Schneider, Rasband, & Eliceiri, 2012), and then converted these into a set of six  
133 Euclidean pairwise distances between the four males (24670 measurements across  
134 the three treatments and all time points). For 325 out of the 4290 individual time-point  
135 photographs (7.6%) we were unable to accurately locate at least one male on the

136 image. To minimize the effect of missing data on the number of time points included  
137 per replicate, the unit of analysis was the mean (rather than the raw data) of the  
138 distances between each pair for each time point.

139

#### 140 Reproductive behavioural assays

141 After 70 h in treatment, each male from each Petri dish was allowed one opportunity  
142 to mate with a virgin female and mating behaviours were observed ( $N = 15$ ; 60  
143 individuals). The male and female were aspirated into a standard food vial  
144 supplemented with  $\sim 0.03$  g active yeast granules. The space in the vial was limited to  
145  $7\text{cm}^3$  by pushing the vial bung down into the vial to reduce encounter latency.

146 Courtship latency was defined as the time from which the pair were first introduced  
147 until the male initiated his first wing extension. Latency to copulate (courtship duration)  
148 started at the time of the first wing extension, and ended with a male's successful  
149 mounting attempt. Copulation duration was recorded from successful mounting until  
150 the pair were fully separated.

151 Not every male courted (uniform: 81.8%; clustered: 86.4%; dispersed: 95.6%), and not  
152 all courting males mated (uniform: 75.0%; clustered: 86.8%; dispersed: 83.3%). We  
153 observed each pair for a maximum of 90 minutes after the pair had been introduced,  
154 and recorded failure to court and/or failure to mate after this time.

155

#### 156 Statistical analysis

157 Sample sizes were 15 replicates ( $N = 60$  *Drosophila*) for each of the three treatments,  
158 of which 11 from each treatment (33 in total) were photographed to collect spacing  
159 data. The effect of treatment on total inter-male distance was analysed using linear



160 mixed effects models, with plate included as a random effect in all models to account  
161 for the non-independence of the four males in a single treatment replicate. Time point  
162 (numbered sequentially from first to last measurement and treated as continuous) was  
163 modelled as a fixed effect.

164 Treatment effects on mating related traits were analysed using linear mixed effects  
165 models, with replicate plate entered as a random effect to account for the fact that  
166 mating data were available for (up to) four males per plate. Time point) and treatment  
167 were initially entered as interacting predictor variables; if the interaction was non-  
168 significant we re-ran the model with both variables entered as main effects. We used  
169 the R package lmerTest (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017) to generate p  
170 values using the Satterthwaite approximation for degrees of freedom. To assess the  
171 effect of treatment on binomial variables (courtship success, copulation success) we  
172 used generalised linear mixed models with a binomial error distribution, and replicate  
173 plate nested within treatment to account for possible plate effects.

174

175 Animal welfare note

176 Although *Drosophila* are not currently subject to any ethical restrictions in the United  
177 Kingdom, we took precautions to minimise injury and stress by controlling larval  
178 density during development, handling flies minimally and using only light ice  
179 anaesthesia, and by euthanizing flies at the end of the experiment while they were  
180 under anaesthesia.

181

182

183 Results

184 Effect of food distribution on inter-male spacing

185 The spatial distribution of food patches significantly influenced the mean pairwise  
186 distance between the four males in the treatment, and this interacted with the time  
187 course of exposure to treatment (treatment\*time:  $F_{2,4239} = 286$ ,  $P = 2.20e^{-11}$ ; Fig. 1;  
188 Table 1). On the final day of treatment the time effect had stabilized (treatment\*time  
189  $F_{2,525} = 1.134$ ,  $P = 0.3224$ ), leaving a significant main effect of treatment on pairwise  
190 distance between males ( $F_{2,30} = 32.268$ ,  $P = 3.33e^{-8}$ ; interaction removed; Table 1).  
191 Post-hoc testing confirmed that on this final day, pairwise distances among males in  
192 the dispersed treatment ( $44.02 \pm 0.66$  mm SE) and the uniform treatment ( $39.35 \pm$   
193  $0.93$  mm SE) were both significantly greater than among males in the clustered food  
194 treatment ( $22.79 \pm 0.86$  mm SE; dispersed vs clustered  $F_{1,20} = 57.8$ ,  $P = 2.53e^{-7}$ ;  
195 uniform vs clustered:  $F_{1,20} = 27.9$ ,  $P = 3.63e^{-5}$ ; time included as a main effect). There  
196 was no significant difference in mean pairwise distance between males in the uniform  
197 and dispersed treatments ( $F_{1,20} = 3.9$ ,  $P = 0.061$ ).

198

199 Effect of food distribution on mating behaviour

200 Among those males that mated, copulation duration was significantly affected by food  
201 distribution previously experienced by males ( $F_{2,42.5} = 3.96$ ,  $P = 0.026$ ; Fig. 2).  
202 Analysing the effect of treatment on the mean mating duration across all males in a  
203 replicate – a more conservative measure – confirmed a significant difference in mating  
204 durations between treatments ( $F_{2,42} = 4.22$ ,  $P = 0.021$ ). Males from the clustered  
205 treatment mated for significantly longer ( $1170 \pm 28$  s SE) than those from the dispersed  
206 treatment ( $1029 \pm 28$  s SE), a difference of 2 minutes 20 seconds ( $F_{1,28} = 6.59$ ,  $P =$   
207  $0.016$ ). Copulation duration of males from the uniform treatment did not significantly

208 differ from either of the other treatments (uniform copulation duration  $1107 \pm 23$  s SE;  
209 vs. dispersed:  $F_{1,28.5} = 2.22$ ,  $P = 0.146$ ; vs. clustered  $F_{1,28.5} = 1.96$ ,  $P = 0.172$ ).  
210 However, despite these observed differences between clustered and dispersed  
211 treatments, the mean distance between males while in the treatment did not  
212 significantly affect copulation duration in any of the three treatments (all  $P > 0.101$ ).

213 In total, 159 of 180 males (88.3%) courted the female. There was no significant effect  
214 of treatment on the proportion of males that courted (generalized linear model with  
215 binomial errors and plate nested within treatment;  $\chi^2 = 118$ ,  $P = 0.376$ ). Similarly, 144  
216 (80%) of males mated, and this was not influenced by treatment ( $\chi^2 = 175$ ,  $P = 0.286$ ).  
217 Neither the latency to start courting ( $F_{2,39.3} = 0.201$ ,  $P = 0.818$ ) nor the latency to start  
218 copulation ( $F_{2,30.4} = 1.257$ ,  $P = 0.299$ ), differed significantly among the three  
219 treatments.

220

221 Discussion

222 The high degree of plasticity in mating-related traits shown by male *Drosophila* is now  
223 well established (Churchill et al., 2019; Davies, Schou, Kristensen, & Loeschcke,  
224 2019; Droney, 1998; Fricke, Bretman, & Chapman, 2008; Jensen, McClure, Priest, &  
225 Hunt, 2015; Lefranc, 2000; Lüpold, Manier, Ala-Honkola, Belote, & Pitnick, 2010;  
226 Morimoto & Wigby, 2016; Ormerod et al., 2017; Schultzhaus, Nixon, Duran, & Carney,  
227 2017). Variation in these traits is highly sensitive to conspecific male density in a  
228 manner which suggests that males adjust investment in anticipation of the intensity of  
229 sperm competition they are likely to encounter during mating (Bretman et al., 2009).  
230 However, how this level of plasticity relates to variation in density observed in natural  
231 populations remains unknown, and laboratory studies tend to manipulate density in  
232 ways that seem unlikely to occur frequently in nature (e.g. singly-housed males  
233 compared to a high density of males in a single vial).

234 We show that manipulating food patchiness while keeping group size constant has the  
235 same effect on a sperm competition-related trait – both in direction and magnitude –  
236 as manipulating local density directly, and that these effects can be observed even  
237 over very small spatial scales. Many other *D. melanogaster* studies have found  
238 approximately a two-minute increase in mating duration in high density males  
239 compared to low density males (Bretman et al., 2009; Bretman et al., 2010; Bretman  
240 et al., 2013). As wild *D. melanogaster* encounter a patchy resource that is likely to alter  
241 male encounter rates at a similar scale to that demonstrated here (Markow, 1988;  
242 Soto-Yéber et al., 2018), we suggest that these changing environmental cues might  
243 influence male allocation of resources to traits associated with sperm competition, and  
244 thus mating success, in wild-living *Drosophila*.

245 As in previous studies, male *Drosophila* responded to an increased perceived sperm  
246 competition with a lengthened copulation duration (by over two minutes) when  
247 introduced to a mating partner (Bretman et al., 2009; Bretman et al., 2012). While the  
248 effect on mating duration is a repeatable indicator of male perception of sperm  
249 competition risk, the benefits of this behaviour to males remains unresolved. In many  
250 species, increased mating duration has been linked to increased sperm transfer and  
251 offspring production (Edvardsson & Canal, 2006; Engqvist & Sauer, 2003; Sakaluk &  
252 Eggert, 1996). In *Drosophila* the consequences of longer copulation durations are less  
253 clear, with some studies reporting an association with increased fitness (Bretman et  
254 al., 2009; Garbaczewska et al., 2013; Price, Lizé, Marcello, & Bretman, 2012), while  
255 others have not found a link (Bretman et al., 2012; Dobler & Reinhardt, 2016). Whether  
256 males on the clustered food resource would have a higher fitness than those on  
257 dispersed resources remains to be tested, but will almost certainly depend on mating  
258 order effects and the competing male's history of exposure to rivals (Bretman et al.,  
259 2012). However, our objective here was not to examine fitness consequences, but  
260 rather to demonstrate that males apparently perceive effects on sperm competition  
261 risk that result directly from small-scale changes in the spatial distribution of resources.

262 Interestingly, the effect of food distribution on male distribution behaviour was  
263 observed in the absence of females. Females often follow social cues, and their  
264 grouping behaviour is promoted by aggregation pheromones (Bartelt, Schaner, &  
265 Jackson, 1985; Duménil et al., 2016). By comparison, given their low feeding rate once  
266 adult (Wong, Piper, Wertheim, & Partridge, 2009), males are thought to aggregate  
267 near food resources primarily to seek mating opportunities. That these groups of males  
268 were responsive in individual positioning to the distribution of food even in the absence  
269 of females is intriguing, and the relative importance of female social cues and the direct

270 response to food resources themselves are yet to be determined. In general, studies  
271 manipulating male density have tended to exclude females from the treatment phase  
272 (e.g. Bretman et al. (2009); Bretman et al. (2010); Lizé et al. (2012); Moatt et al. (2013);  
273 Price et al. (2012); and Rouse and Bretman (2016)), and the effects of inter-sexual  
274 interactions on plastic responses to density remains a relatively unexplored area.

275 This study adds to a small number of studies demonstrating the effect that  
276 environmental heterogeneity can have on *Drosophila* behaviour. Yun, Chen, Singh,  
277 Agrawal, and Rundle (2017) demonstrated that female fitness was higher in more  
278 spatially complex laboratory environments as a result of a reduction in sexual  
279 interactions and consequent mitigation of male harm. Similar effects had previously  
280 been demonstrated when laboratory populations were presented with a refuge: female  
281 remating rates declined substantially (Byrne, Rice, & Rice, 2008). Such rapid shifts in  
282 behaviour, driven by ecological patchiness, have to date rarely been included in  
283 laboratory assays, but may have major effects on the demography and growth rate of  
284 populations exposed to spatial patchiness, through their effects on male reproductive  
285 skew and therefore effective population size. These effects may have important  
286 evolutionary and ecological consequences in relatively patchy parts of a species'  
287 distribution, for example by increasing sexual conflict over shared resources  
288 (Pilakouta, Richardson, & Smiseth, 2016), or reducing maximum sustainable rates of  
289 evolution (Bridle, Polechová, & Vines, 2009).

290 There are some intriguing dynamics operating in the inter-male distances in the early  
291 stages of the treatment period: in particular, males on the dispersed food patches  
292 initially experience lower inter-male distances than those on the clustered food (Figure  
293 1). This effect is does not match what we expected to see among males attempting to

294 defend individual patches, and is the opposite to the pattern observed on the final days  
295 of treatment. Inspection of photographs from this treatment suggests that males on  
296 the dispersed food patches initially cluster together away from food before sorting  
297 themselves into individual territories focussed around each patch. Territorial behaviour  
298 in *D. melanogaster* has previously been observed under laboratory conditions, and  
299 appears to be driven by boundaries of food sources (Lim, Eyjólfsdóttir, Shin, Perona,  
300 & Anderson, 2014) so it is possible that multiple distinct territories could be established  
301 under these conditions. However, as yet it is not clear what is driving the initial  
302 clustering behaviour.

303 Our results demonstrate a clear link between small-scale patchiness of resources and  
304 behaviours that suggest male sensitivity to sperm competition risk, mediated by  
305 changes in male-male encounter rate. While density effects on male mating duration  
306 have been demonstrated several times, we have placed this response in a biologically  
307 meaningful context by demonstrating a link to ecological factors that are very likely to  
308 be at play in wild-living populations.

309

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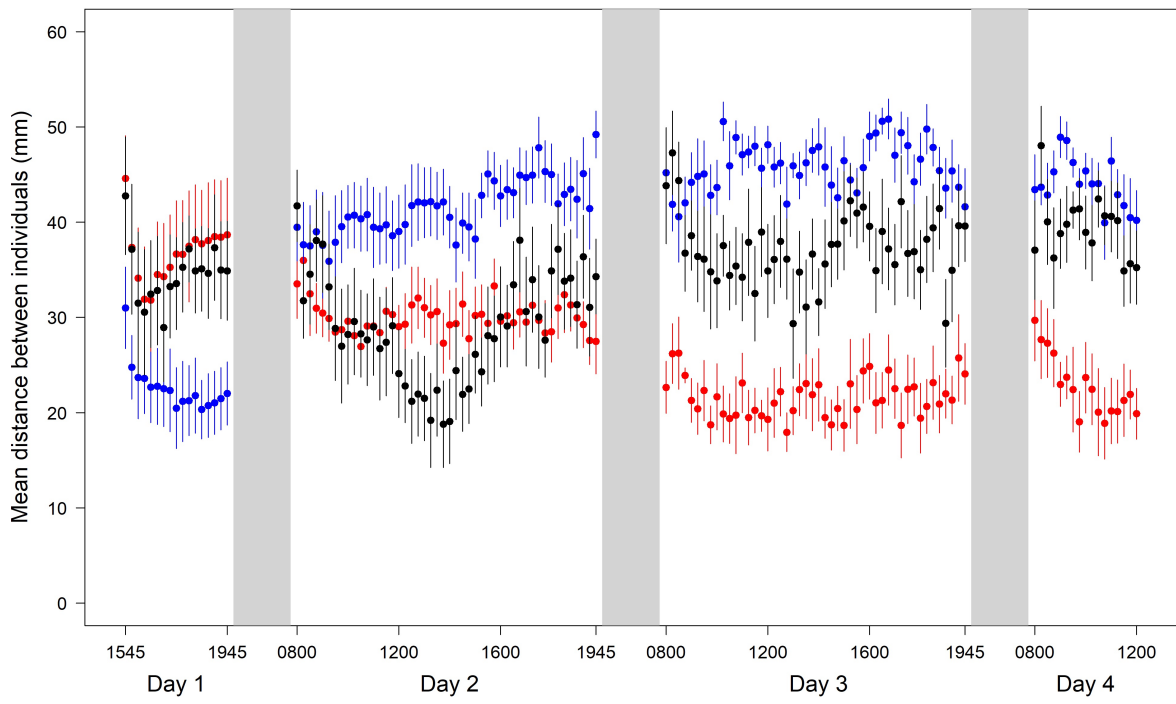
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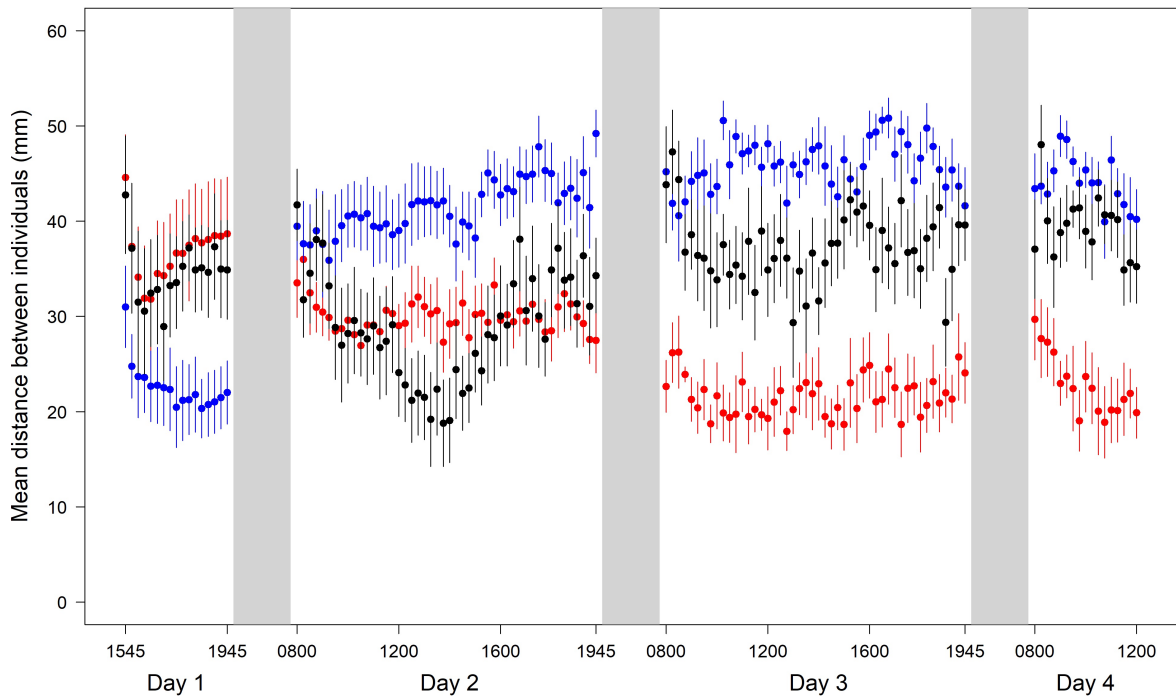
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481 Figure 1. Mean inter-fly distance (mean of 6 pairwise distances between 4 focal flies  
482 per plate, averaged across 11 replicate plates) over time. Black = uniform treatment  
483 (evenly distributed food); red = clustered food patches; blue = dispersed food patches.  
484 Bars show standard errors of the mean for each time point across all 11 treatment  
485 replicates. Grey blocks indicate period of dark (2000 - 0800 GMT), and are not to  
486 scale.



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488

489 Table 1. Details of statistical parameters from linear mixed models analyses outlined  
 490 in the results. Model outputs are presented in the order they appear in the text.  
 491 Response variables and data subsetting are outlined in the subheadings, predictor  
 492 variables in the 'Parameter' column.  
 493

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>p</b>
<b><i>Pairwise distance between males: full duration of treatment</i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	35.14	1.85	18.978	<0.0001
Uniform	-6.305	2.618	-2.408	0.021
Dispersed	-3.930	2.617	-1.501	0.142
Time sequence	-0.127	0.008	-14.946	<0.0001
Uniform*time	0.207	0.012	17.225	<0.0001
Dispersed*time	0.276	0.012	23.025	<0.0001
<b><i>Pairwise distance between males: final day of treatment<sup>a</sup></i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	22.794	1.983	11.493	<0.0001
Uniform	16.560	2.777	5.963	<0.0001
Dispersed	21.224	2.777	7.643	<0.0001
<b><i>Copulation duration</i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	1170.9	35.28	33.19	<0.0001
Uniform	-64.7	51.12	-1.266	0.2124
Dispersed	-140.31	49.89	-2.813	0.0075
<b><i>Copulation duration; outliers removed<sup>b</sup></i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	1170.55	31.98	36.60	<0.0001
Uniform	-64.45	46.46	-1.387	0.173
Dispersed	-121.13	45.48	-2.66	0.0112
<b><i>Courtship latency</i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	925.5	176.37	5.247	<0.0001

Uniform	-157.78	249.9	-0.631	0.531
Dispersed	92.17	245.2	-0.376	0.709
<b><i>Copulation latency</i></b>				
Clustered (intercept)	954.33	183.00	5.215	<0.0001
Uniform	-254.07	262.09	-0.969	0.340
Dispersed	154.10	255.73	0.603	0.552

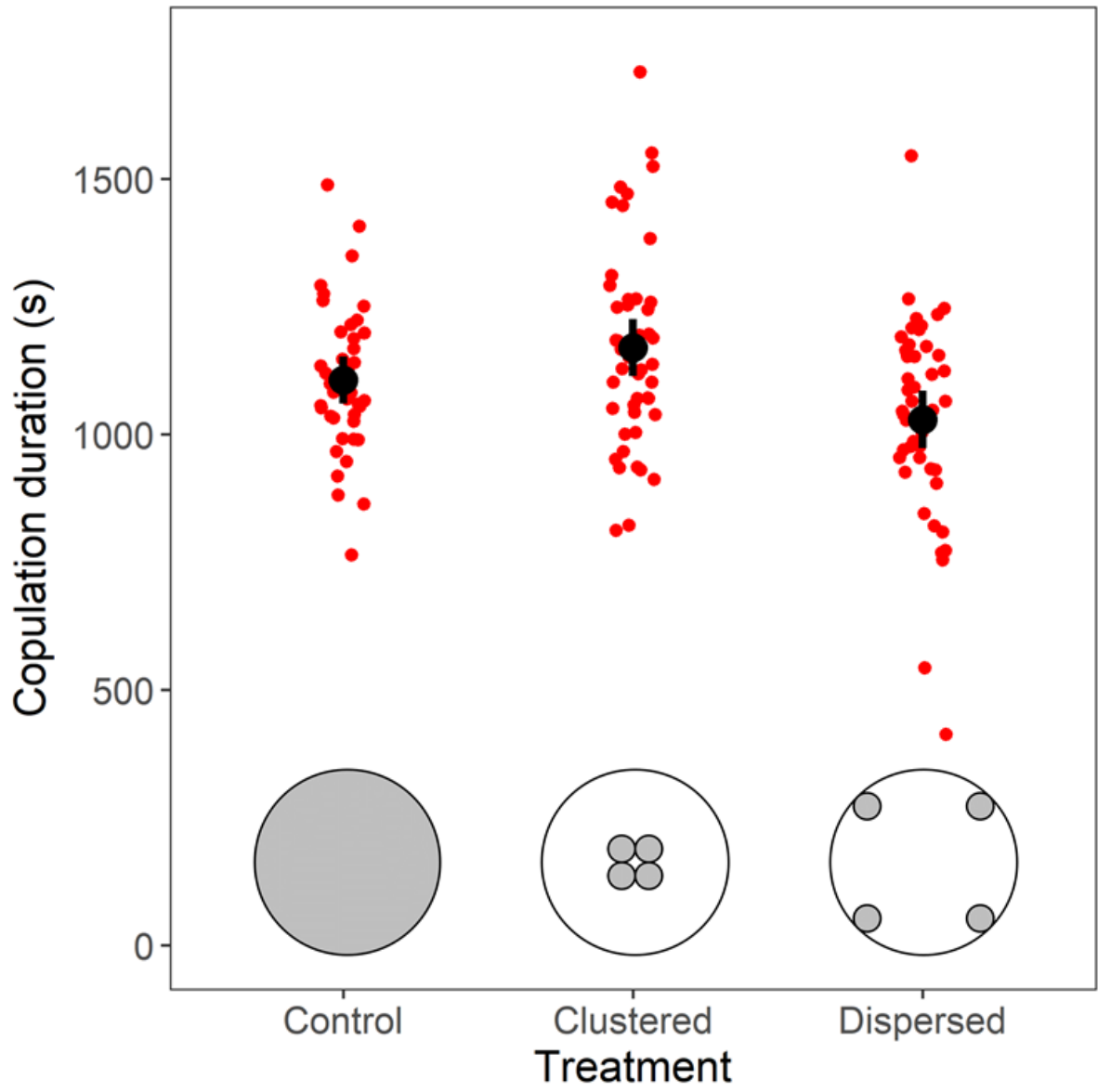
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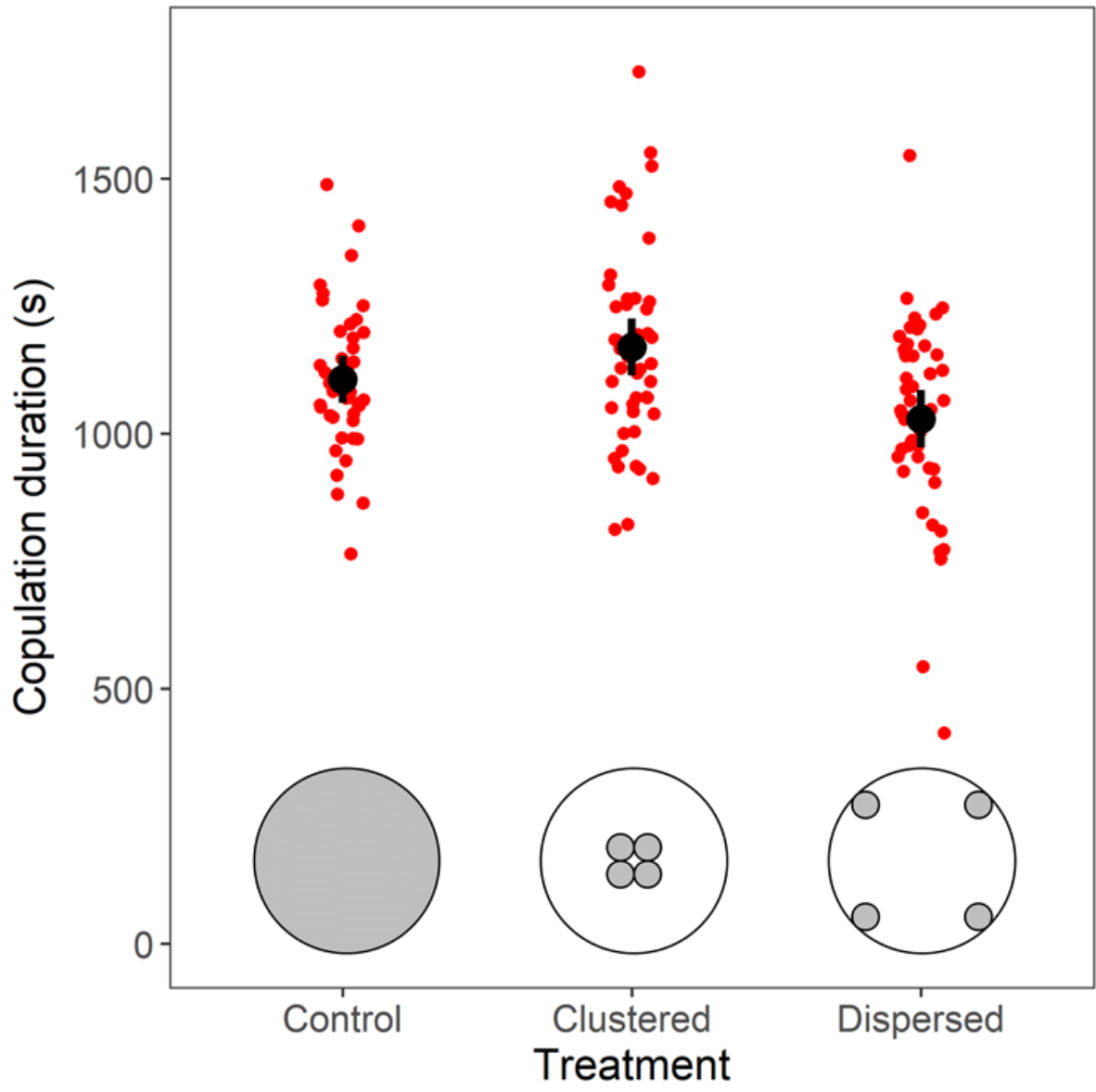
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496 Figure 2. The effect of food resource spatial distribution on the duration of subsequent  
497 copulation. Means (black dot) and 95% confidence intervals of copulation duration  
498 (seconds). Sample sizes: clustered 49 (11 males did not mate), uniform 44 (16),  
499 dispersed 51 (9). The treatment effect on mating duration remains significant when the  
500 two mating duration values below 600s in the dispersed treatment are excluded from  
501 the analysis ( $F_{2,40.9} = 3.55$ ,  $P = 0.038$ ).





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