

1 Acute bacterial challenge in *Drosophila* reveals age- and
2 sex-dependent feeding and macronutrient choice without
3 generalised anorexia

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13
14 **Abstract**

15 Sickness behaviours are often interpreted as adaptive host responses that reallocate
16 resources from performance to defence. Anorexia - a reduction in food intake - is one of the
17 most frequently cited examples, yet evidence across insects is variable and rarely separates
18 the effects of wounding, immune stimulation, and live infection. Here we use a factorial design
19 in *Drosophila melanogaster* to disentangle these components and quantify both feeding
20 amount and macronutrient choice during the first four hours following acute bacterial
21 challenge. Using the FlyPAD system, we recorded cumulative sips from protein- and
22 carbohydrate-rich diets in young (2-4 days old) and older (22-24 days old) male and female
23 flies. We compared naïve flies to those injured, immune stimulated with heat-killed
24 *Pseudomonas entomophila*, or infected with live *P. entomophila*. Across sexes and ages,
25 neither live infection nor sterile immune stimulation reduced total food intake during the first
26 4 h; notably, in old females and young males, live infection increased feeding. In contrast,
27 immune stimulation alone elicited sex- and age-dependent shifts in macronutrient choice: in
28 old females, injury and immune stimulation reduced protein preference relative to naive,
29 whereas in old males they increased it. Thus, 'sickness feeding' in *Drosophila* manifests
30 primarily as an increase in feeding rate or a host-driven macronutrient rebalancing rather than
31 anorexia.

32
33 **Keywords:** sickness behaviour; anorexia; protein; carbohydrate; infection; feeding; FlyPAD

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35 **Data availability:** The raw data and full analysis script accompanying the dataset is available
36 in supplementary material.

38 Introduction

39 Animals confronted with infection frequently exhibit a coordinated suite of behavioural and
40 physiological changes, termed “sickness behaviours”, that include lethargy, reduced social
41 interaction and exploration, altered thermoregulation, and changes in feeding (Hart 1988;
42 Dantzer and Kelley 2007). Although this phenotype was first formalised in vertebrates
43 (Dantzer and Kelley 2007; Lopes et al. 2021), analogous responses occur in invertebrates,
44 including insects, indicating deep conservation of neuro-immune crosstalk linking peripheral
45 immune activation to central motivational states (Ayres and Schneider 2009; Kazlauskas et
46 al. 2016; Sullivan et al. 2016; Vale et al. 2018). These behavioural changes are often
47 interpreted as adaptive because they can promote recovery, reduce risk, and conserve
48 resources for defence and repair (Dantzer and Kelley 2007; Lopes 2014; Lopes et al. 2021) .

49

50 Anorexia (reduced food intake) is among the most widely cited sickness behaviours (Murray
51 and Murray 1979; Exton 1997; Ayres and Schneider 2009; Jindal et al. 2024). Evolutionary
52 interpretations of sickness behaviours posit that anorexia limits foraging and therefore
53 reduces exposure to predators and injury during a vulnerable period and may also deprive
54 pathogens of key nutrients (e.g. iron), thereby constraining growth (Hart 1988; Exton 1997;
55 Lopes 2014; van Niekerk et al. 2016). Empirical observations of reduction in food intake in
56 response to actual or perceived infection are common: for example, reduced intake after
57 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) has been reported in mammals and birds, and in insects such as
58 *Manduca sexta* and honey bees (Owen-Ashley et al. 2006; Kazlauskas et al. 2016; Wilson et al.
59 2018). However, anorexia is far from universal. In orthopterans, immune challenge does not
60 reliably reduce activity or feeding (Sullivan et al. 2016; Kelly and Mc Cabe Leroux 2020), and
61 in social insects immune stimulation can even increase food consumption (Tyler et al. 2006).
62 This heterogeneity suggests that the expression and value of anorexia are conditional on
63 context, pathogen, dose, host state, and time since challenge.

64

65 Beyond “how much” is eaten, infection can also change “what” is eaten. A growing body of
66 work shows that sick individuals can shift macronutrient balance in ways that affect immunity,
67 tolerance, and survival, but the direction of change is not universal (Ponton et al. 2013). In
68 several lepidopterans, resistance to baculoviruses is higher on protein-rich diets, and infected
69 caterpillars self-select higher protein:carbohydrate (P:C) ratios compared to uninfected
70 controls (Lee et al. 2006; Povey et al. 2014). In *Drosophila*, by contrast, carbohydrate-biased
71 diets can enhance survival to bacterial infection, consistent with a strategy that fuels
72 energetically costly defences, and indicating that the optimal macronutrient balance for
73 defence need not be protein-rich (Graham et al. 2014; Ponton et al. 2020; Savola et al. 2021).
74 Taken together, these findings indicate that there is no single directional “sickness diet”.

75

76 A persistent challenge in interpreting changes in feeding is that many studies do not separate
77 effects of wounding, immune stimulation, and infection-specific pathology. Here we address
78 this explicitly. Using *Drosophila melanogaster* and the FlyPAD system (Itskov et al. 2014), we
79 quantify both total intake and macronutrient choice during the first four hours after challenge,
80 in males and females at two ages. We asked whether feeding changes after bacterial
81 challenge reflect a generalised “sickness behaviour” of the host, such as anorexia or a shift in

82 macronutrient intake, or whether they can instead be attributed to other components of the
83 challenge, including wounding, immune stimulation, or processes specific to live infection
84 (including pathology). To disentangle these possibilities, we compared flies pricked with live
85 *Pseudomonas entomophila* to three matched controls: naïve (no prick), PBS-injured
86 (wounding/handling), and heat-killed *P. entomophila* (sterile immune stimulation without
87 pathogen replication). Because feeding behaviour can depend on sex, age, and time since
88 challenge, we analysed males and females at two ages: 2-4 days old (young) and 22-24 days
89 old (old) and followed feeding over the first four hours following challenge.

90

91 **Methods**

92 **Fly stock maintenance**

93 We used *Drosophila melanogaster* from the Ashworth Advanced Outcrossed (AOx) population,
94 a large, laboratory-adapted outbred population derived from DGRP lines (Monteith et al. 2019;
95 Savola et al. 2021). Stocks were maintained at 25°C under a 12:12 h light:dark cycle on a
96 ~14-day generation cycle at a census size of 3,000–4,000 adults per generation. Flies were
97 assayed at two adult ages and both sexes: Young (2–4 days post-eclosion) and Old (22–24
98 days).

99

100 **Experimental treatments and injury procedure**

101 Four treatments were used to separate effects of handling/injury, sterile immune stimulation,
102 and active infection: Naïve (unhandled control), PBS-injured (septic injury with sterile PBS).
103 *Pseudomonas entomophila*, a Gram-negative entomopathogen of *Drosophila* (Dieppois et al.
104 2015), was used for immune stimulation and live infection. Overnight cultures were grown
105 with shaking under sterile conditions. For the live inoculum, the overnight culture was
106 standardized to an equivalent of OD = 0.001 (OD=1 diluted 1:1000). This inoculation dose was
107 chosen to induce acute sickness while permitting survival over the recording window (see
108 (Prakash et al. 2023, 2025). The heat-killed inoculum, an aliquot of the same culture was
109 heat-inactivated in a 60–70°C water bath for 1 h and returned to shaking overnight prior to
110 use. Sterile control: phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Immediately prior to treatment, flies
111 were lightly anesthetized with CO₂. Each Sex × Age × Treatment combination was replicated
112 16-27 times (median n = 21).

113

114 **Diets and FlyPAD assay**

115 We used the FlyPAD system - an automated, high throughput system to measure feeding
116 behaviour in *Drosophila* (Itskov et al. 2014) - to track and quantify feeding in real time as
117 described previously (Itskov et al. 2014; Monteith et al. 2024). Each FlyPAD arena contains
118 two independent capacitive sensors; each sensor comprises a pair of electrodes, one in
119 contact with the food and one adjacent to where the fly stands. When a fly touches the food
120 with its proboscis or legs, the resulting change in electric capacitance between the electrodes
121 is detected and recorded as a discrete “sip.” Choice diets followed (Itskov et al. 2014) and
122 were presented simultaneously in each arena in equal quantities: a carbohydrate-rich food
123 (2% agar, 5% sucrose, 1% yeast, w/v) and a protein-rich food (2% agar, 1% sucrose, 5% yeast,

124 w/v). 1 μ L of each substrate was pipetted onto the corresponding electrode in each arena.
125 Flies were wet-starved on water-soaked cotton for 3 h prior to treatment and loading into the
126 FlyPAD. Feeding was recorded for 4 h post-procedure, with cumulative readouts at 60, 120,
127 180, and 240 min from the FlyPAD software for each channel (carbohydrate and protein). The
128 sum of channel-specific counts yields total sips. The experiment was staggered across 28
129 days and grouped into seven day-blocks. Within each combination, flies were assayed
130 individually.

131

132 **Statistical analysis**

133 Total feeding was modelled using a negative binomial generalised linear mixed model
134 (GLMM) fitted with 'glmmTMB' (Brooks ME et al. 2017) to accommodate overdispersed
135 counts. Fixed effects were Sex, Age, Treatment, Hour (categorical: 1–4), and all interactions.
136 Random intercepts accounted for repeated measures within fly (fly ID) and for day-block
137 effects. Macronutrient preference was modelled using a binomial GLMM with a cbind(protein,
138 carbohydrate) response per interval, with the same fixed and random effects structure. Model
139 diagnostics included checks for overdispersion and zero inflation (glmmTMB), and
140 simulation-based residual diagnostics (DHARMA). For specific pairwise comparisons
141 between treatment levels, we obtained estimated marginal means (EMMs) from the fitted
142 models using 'emmeans' (Lenth et al. 2022). P-values for these contrasts were adjusted by
143 Holm's method within stratum. All analyses were performed in R (version 4.2). The raw data
144 and full analysis script accompanying the dataset is available in supplementary material.

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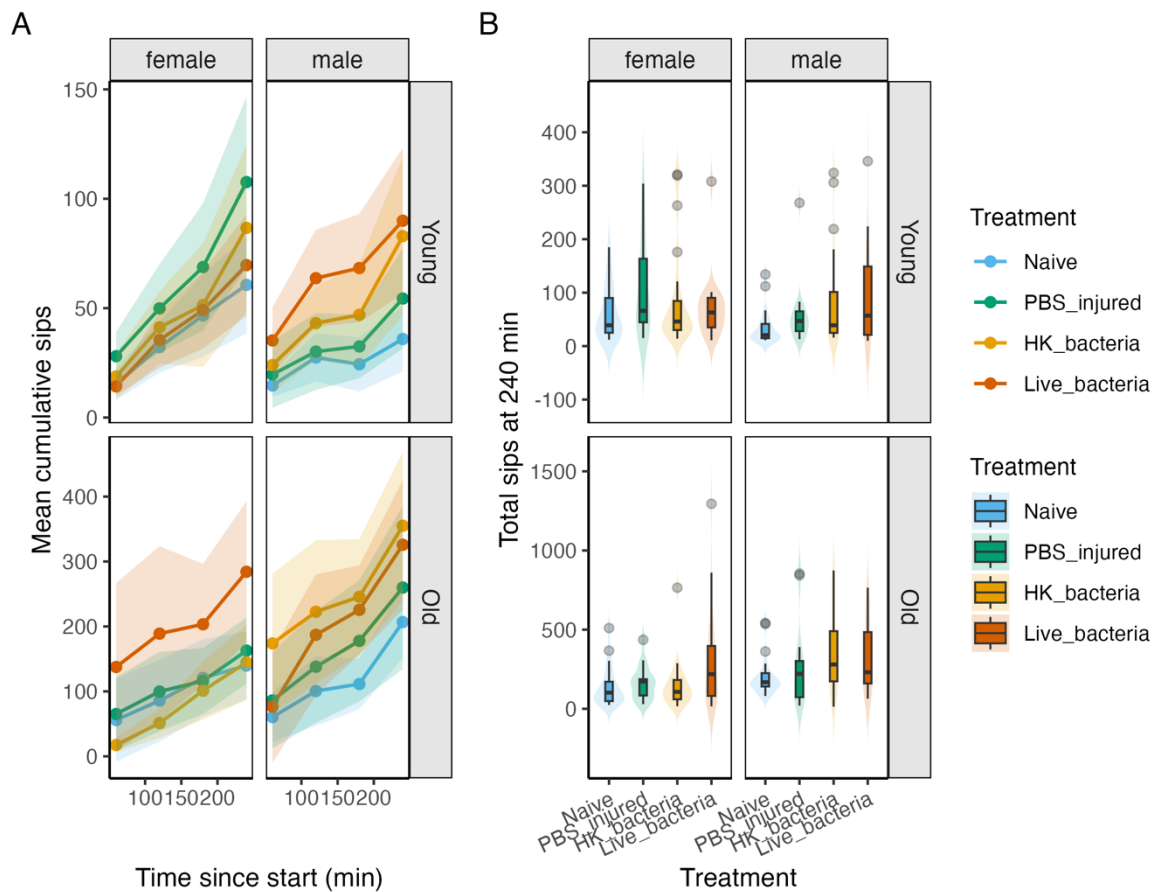
146 **Results**

147

148 **Age- and sex-specific feeding patterns**

149 We assayed 341 flies over the first 4 h after challenge (60, 120, 180, 240 min) (Figure 1A and
 150 B). Across all treatments, the food intake of older flies was substantially higher than young
 151 flies, and intake increased over time (age, $p < 0.001$; hour, $p < 0.001$; Table S1). In addition to
 152 a general age effect in feeding rate, we observed smaller, age-specific sex differences in
 153 feeding. In older flies, males ate more than females across treatments - at 240 min (Figure
 154 1B), the mean cumulative sips ranged between 139–305 in old females and 209–330 in old
 155 males; In young flies the sex difference was small and varied with treatment (sex \times age, $p <$
 156 0.001): 59–100 sips in young females and 34–85 sips in young males (see Table S2).

157



158

159 **Figure 1. Total number of sips.** A. Cumulative feeding over 4 h. Mean (lines) \pm 95% CI (shaded
 160 ribbons) of cumulative sip counts across time, by treatment. B. Endpoint feeding (240 min).
 161 Distribution of total sips at 240 min shown as violins with inset boxplots by treatment, faceted
 162 by Age (rows) and Sex (columns). Boxes show medians and interquartile ranges; whiskers
 163 extend to 1.5 x Inter Quartile Range. Colours: Naive (blue), PBS-injured (green), HK bacteria
 164 (orange), Live bacteria (vermillion). Sample sizes are the number of flies per Sex \times Age \times
 165 Treatment (median $n = 21$, range 16-27).

166

167 **Feeding increase rather than anorexia dominates age- and sex-specific responses to**
168 **bacterial challenge**

169 Changes in total food intake were not consistent with a single, generalised “sickness”
170 response (Figure 1). Instead, effects depended on age, sex, and the nature of the challenge
171 (Figure 1A and B). In young males, immune stimulation with heat-killed *P. entomophila* and
172 infection with live *P. entomophila* showed increases in 240-min intake relative to Naive (ratios
173 2.31 and 2.47; both $p < 0.001$), with injury alone trending higher (ratio 1.58, $p = 0.064$; Table
174 S3). This pattern is consistent with a host-driven increase in feeding after immune stimulation
175 and a further increase with live infection. In young females, by contrast, intake was similar
176 across injury, immune stimulation, and live infection (all vs Naive not significant; see Table S3
177 for pairwise contrasts), arguing against generalised anorexia over the first 4 h in this group.

178 In older flies, responses also differed by sex. Old males showed broadly similar cumulative
179 intake across challenges at 240 min (Figure 1B) (all vs Naive not significant; Table S3). Old
180 females, however, increased intake specifically with live infection relative to Naive (ratio 2.20,
181 $p = 0.001$), whereas injury and sterile immune stimulation did not alter intake (Table S3). This
182 selective increase points to pathology-linked changes during live infection rather than a
183 uniform response to injury or immune stimulation.

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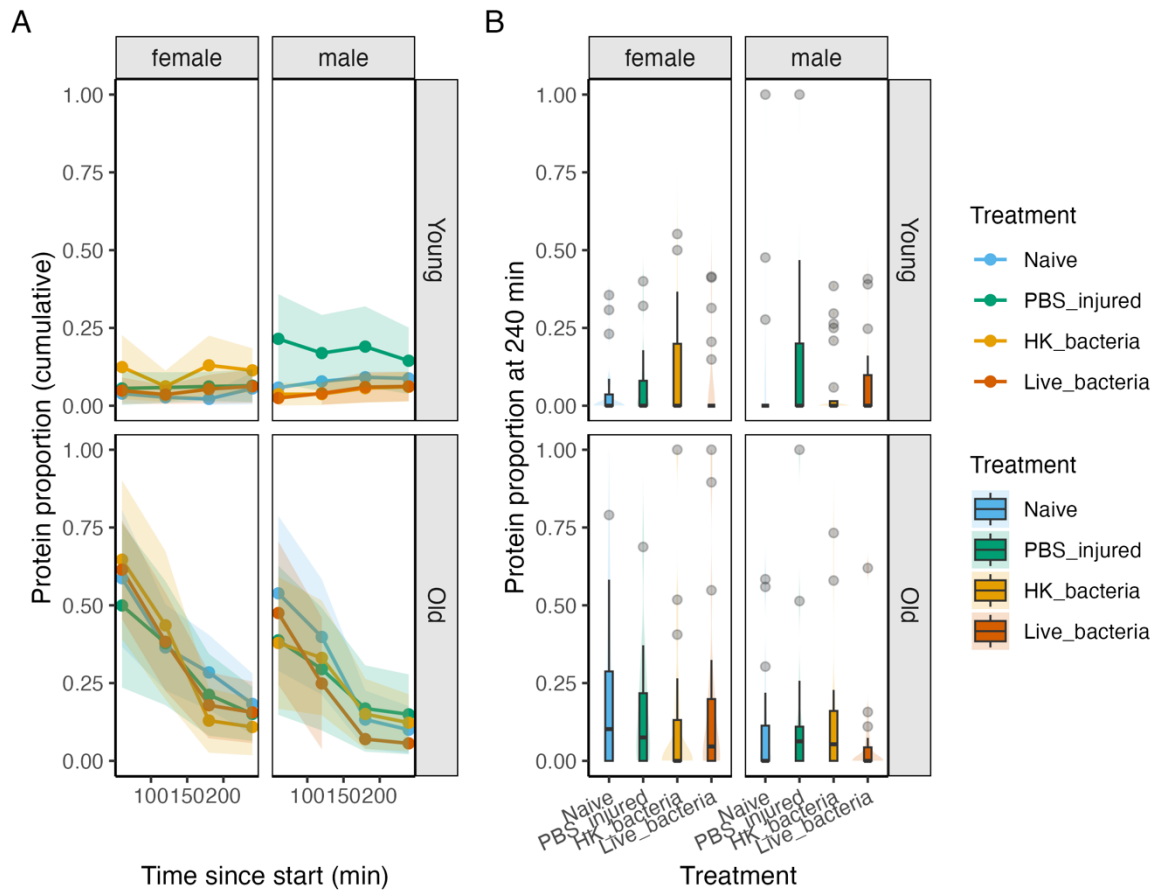
185 **Macronutrient choice shows selective age- and sex-specific shifts rather than a uniform**
186 **“sickness diet”**

187 Protein-carbohydrate choice changed over the 4-h assay, showing a general decrease in protein
188 preference (or rather, an increase in the preference for the carbohydrate-rich substrate)
189 (Figure 2A). The magnitude of this change in preference depended strongly on age and time
190 since challenge (age and hour, both $p < 0.001$; treatment \times hour, $p < 0.001$; Table S4). We
191 focus on the 240-min endpoint while noting these dynamics (Figure 2B).

192 In young flies, female protein intake remained low (5-8% of sips) and did not differ detectably
193 among challenges (Live vs Naive trended higher, $p = 0.068$; Table S5). In young males, injury
194 increased the protein fraction compared to Naive (PBS vs Naive OR = 1.81, $p = 0.002$), whereas
195 heat-killed and live bacteria were similar to Naive, suggesting injury-driven changes in
196 macronutrient preference rather than pathogen exposure in this short window (Figure 2B).

197 Older flies consumed a higher protein fraction than young flies overall at the endpoint,
198 (spanning 20–29%) and much lower fractions with PBS or HK (7-12%). Consistent with this,
199 all challenges reduced protein preference versus Naive controls (Figure 2B), most strongly
200 after injury and sterile immune stimulation (PBS OR 0.32; HK OR 0.17; both $p < 0.001$), with
201 live infection also lower than Naive (OR 0.63, $p < 0.001$; Table S5). Old males showed a
202 complementary pattern: injury and sterile immune stimulation increased protein preference
203 relative to Naive (PBS OR 1.96; HK OR 2.32; both $p < 0.001$), whereas live infection was similar
204 to Naive (OR 0.97, $p = 0.68$). Together, these endpoint patterns indicate selective, age- and
205 sex-specific macronutrient shifts, rather than a uniform “sickness diet.”

206



207

208 **Figure 2. Changes in macronutrient preference.** **A.** Macronutrient preference over time. Mean
 209 (lines) \pm 95% CI (shaded ribbons) of the protein proportion (protein sips / total sips) across
 210 time by treatment, faceted by Age and Sex. The y-axis is bounded within [0, 1]. **B.** End-point
 211 macronutrient preference at 240-min shown as violins with inset boxplots by treatment,
 212 faceted by Age (rows) and Sex (columns). Boxes show medians and interquartile ranges;
 213 whiskers extend to 1.5 x Inter Quartile Range. Colours: Naive (blue), PBS-injured (green), HK
 214 bacteria (orange), Live bacteria (vermillion). Sample sizes are the number of flies per Sex \times
 215 Age \times Treatment (median n = 21, range 16-27).

216

217 **Discussion**

218 We set out to test whether infection-related shifts in food intake and macronutrient preference
219 were consistent with an adaptive, host-driven anorexia-like sickness behaviour, or if these
220 responses might be more parsimoniously ascribed to physiological responses to injury and/or
221 pathogen-induced pathology. Total food intake changed in an age- and sex-specific manner,
222 with a brief increase in young males early after challenge, and a sustained increase in old
223 females specifically under live infection. In this acute window, feeding in *Drosophila* did not
224 manifest as anorexia, as total intake was maintained or increased under both sterile immune
225 stimulation and live infection. We also did not find strong evidence for a uniform
226 macronutrient reallocation. The clearest shift was a higher protein preference after injury in
227 young males. In old females, all challenges reduced the protein preference despite the general
228 increase in feeding during live infection, indicating that total intake and macronutrient balance
229 can be regulated independently in the early hours after challenge.

230

231 Elevated intake under live infection (notably in old females) contrasts with classic reports of
232 “sickness anorexia” in vertebrates and some insects (e.g. *Manduca sexta* and honey bees
233 following immune challenge; (Adamo et al. 2007; Kazlauskas et al. 2016), but aligns with a
234 growing body of work showing that anorexia is not universal. In orthopterans, immune
235 challenge often leaves activity and feeding unchanged (Sullivan et al. 2016; Kelly and Mc Cabe
236 Leroux 2020), and in *Tenebrio molitor* repeated assays have revealed little consistent
237 suppression of activity or exploration after LPS (Bour and Kelly 2024). It is also echoed in
238 social insects, such as *Bombis terrestris* where immune stimulation has been associated with
239 higher food consumption (Tyler et al. 2006). Across insects, sickness feeding is therefore
240 variable in magnitude and in direction. One explanation for the increase in feeding we observe
241 here is compensatory feeding: live *P. entomophila* is known to damage the gut and to provoke
242 strong immune activation (Opota et al. 2011; Prakash et al. 2022, 2023), and even at low
243 inoculation doses these processes are energetically and biosynthetically demanding (Kutzer
244 et al. 2024). Elevated intake in old females may therefore reflect the combined needs of
245 defence and repair in a physiology that is concurrently navigating immunosenescence and
246 (potentially) reproductive investment.

247

248 With respect to macronutrient choice, we did not observe a uniform “sickness diet.” Instead,
249 sterile cues alone were sufficient to shift protein preference in aged flies (down in old females;
250 up in old males) and in young males (up after injury), with live infection often counteracting
251 these sterile-induced shifts in a sex- and age-specific manner. There is abundant evidence
252 across host taxa that the dietary composition can have profound effects on an individuals’
253 response to infection (Ponton et al. 2013). Through experiments manipulating specific
254 macronutrient intake, P:C ratio has been identified as key in the infection response (reviewed
255 in Ponton et al. 2011, 2013). In several lepidopterans, infected caterpillars increase protein
256 intake and do better on protein-rich diets, consistent with the protein costs of resistance (Lee
257 et al. 2006; Povey et al. 2014). Together with evidence that carbohydrate-biased diets can
258 improve survival in *Drosophila* bacterial infections (Ponton et al. 2020) and that high protein
259 exacerbates mortality during septic *P. entomophila* (Savola et al. 2021), our early

260 post-challenge data points away from a universal protein-seeking 'immune' appetite and
261 toward context- and state-dependent macronutrient preferences.

262

263 Age modulated both how much flies ate and what they chose to eat in the first hours after
264 challenge. Most strikingly, old females (22-24 d) increased total intake under live *P.*
265 *entomophila* relative to other treatments, whereas young males (2-4 d) showed only a transient
266 increase in the amount eaten. For macronutrient choice, sterile cues alone were sufficient to
267 shift preference in aged flies but in opposite directions by sex. These age-by-sex-by-treatment
268 interactions are consistent with prior work from nutrition and ageing in flies. Classic work
269 shows that older *Drosophila* compensate for declining metabolic efficiency by eating more
270 and relying more on carbohydrate as an energy source (Driver and Lamb 1980), which aligns
271 with the elevated intake we observed in old females and their injury-induced shift away from
272 protein. Choice-fed flies tend to regulate toward a protein-rich intake target that prioritises
273 reproduction at the expense of lifespan, but this targeting disperses by Day 30 (Strilbytska et
274 al. 2024). Our aged flies similarly did not converge on a single 'sickness diet'; instead,
275 preferences were plastic and cue-dependent over the first 4 h.

276

277 A complementary immune-centric mechanism may contribute to such plastic dietary choices.
278 Ageing flies mount broader, less specific AMP repertoires across IMD and Toll pathways and
279 show signs of immunopathology (Shit et al. 2022). This deregulation likely raises near-term
280 energy needs (favouring carbohydrate to fuel immune activation and repair) and amino-acid
281 demand (for AMP synthesis and tissue maintenance), providing a mechanistic rationale for
282 both the increased total intake we detect in old females and the sex- and context-dependent
283 shifts in protein preference. Live infection's tendency to counteract injury-induced changes in
284 aged flies suggests that pathogen-specific processes (e.g., gut pathology, damage signalling)
285 can re-prioritise these age-dependent nutritional demands in the acute post-challenge
286 window. This predicts that experimentally amplifying late-life immune signalling (e.g., via
287 reduced IMD negative regulation) should bias early post-challenge intake upward and tilt P:C
288 toward carbohydrate, whereas constraining AMP synthesis capacity should dampen any
289 protein-seeking.

290

291 In sum, during the first hours after challenge, *Drosophila* did not exhibit anorexia; if anything,
292 live bacterial infection sometimes increased intake, most clearly in old females.
293 Macronutrient choice did not converge on a single 'sickness diet.' Instead, wounding and
294 immune stimulation alone shifted protein preference in age- and sex-specific ways, and live
295 infection often countered these shifts. These patterns align with ageing-related compensatory
296 feeding and with emerging evidence that late-life immune responses are broader and costlier,
297 together implying that early post-challenge feeding is shaped by the joint demands of damage
298 control and deregulated immunity rather than a single, host-driven anorexia response. Designs
299 that explicitly partition injury, immune stimulation, and live infection will be essential for
300 dissecting both host- and pathogen-driven behavioural responses to infection.

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413 **Supplementary material**

414

415 **Table S1. Anova output for Negative binomial GLMM of total number of sips**

model term	df	F.ratio	Chisq	p.value
sex	1	1.31	1.31	0.2518
age	1	187.10	187.10	0.0000
treatment	3	2.80	8.40	0.0385
hour	3	5.79	17.38	0.0006
sex:age	1	11.14	11.14	0.0008
sex:treatment	3	1.45	4.34	0.2270
sex:hour	3	0.15	0.45	0.9297
age:treatment	3	0.53	1.60	0.6606
age:hour	3	4.79	14.36	0.0025
treatment:hour	9	1.80	16.16	0.0635
sex:age:treatment	3	1.61	4.84	0.1843
sex:age:hour	3	0.33	0.98	0.8063
sex:treatment:hour	9	1.62	14.54	0.1043
age:treatment:hour	9	1.27	11.39	0.2500
sex:age:treatment:hour	9	1.44	12.92	0.1662

416

417 **Table S2. Mean \pm SE number of cumulative sips measured at 240 min for each age-, sex-,
418 and treatment combination. P-values for these contrasts were adjusted by Holm's method.**

treatment	sex	age	Number of sips	SE
Naive	female	Young	58.87	11.44
PBS_injured	female	Young	99.69	19.45
HK_bacteria	female	Young	77.69	14.06
Live_bacteria	female	Young	66.76	11.74
Naive	male	Young	34.48	6.61
PBS_injured	male	Young	54.62	10.20
HK_bacteria	male	Young	79.69	14.01
Live_bacteria	male	Young	85.01	14.68
Naive	female	Old	138.80	25.18
PBS_injured	female	Old	175.23	35.73
HK_bacteria	female	Old	149.61	25.89
Live_bacteria	female	Old	305.18	51.33
Naive	male	Old	208.63	38.36
PBS_injured	male	Old	257.08	53.45
HK_bacteria	male	Old	329.87	63.53
Live_bacteria	male	Old	315.57	60.90

419

420

421 **Table S3. Pairwise contrasts calculates using Estimated Marginal Means for the NB GLMM**
 422 **in Table S1.**

contrast	sex	age	ratio	SE	z.ratio	p.value
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.69	0.43	2.05	0.1197
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.32	0.32	1.14	0.5100
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.13	0.27	0.52	0.6012
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	male	Young	1.58	0.39	1.85	0.0639
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Young	2.31	0.55	3.52	0.0009
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Young	2.47	0.58	3.82	0.0004
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	female	Old	1.26	0.32	0.92	0.7138
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Old	1.08	0.25	0.33	0.7443
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Old	2.20	0.50	3.49	0.0014
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	male	Old	1.23	0.32	0.81	0.4181
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Old	1.58	0.39	1.86	0.1884
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Old	1.51	0.37	1.68	0.1884

423

424

425 **Table S4. Anova output for Binomial GLMM for Proportion of sips taken on protein vs**
 426 **carbohydrate rich substrates.**

model term	df1	F.ratio	Chisq	p.value
sex	1	0.94	0.94	0.33170
age	1	15.76	15.76	0.00007
treatment	3	2.21	6.64	0.08443
hour	3	85.04	255.12	0.00000
sex:age	1	0.28	0.28	0.59415
sex:treatment	3	0.49	1.48	0.68611
sex:hour	3	2.12	6.37	0.09482
age:treatment	3	0.52	1.55	0.67017
age:hour	3	139.25	417.75	0.00000
treatment:hour	9	9.77	87.93	0.00000
sex:age:treatment	3	1.55	4.64	0.20044
sex:age:hour	3	5.21	15.62	0.00135
sex:treatment:hour	9	5.19	46.70	0.00000
age:treatment:hour	9	13.77	123.90	0.00000
sex:age:treatment:hour	9	1.68	15.09	0.08830

427

428

429 **Table S5. Pairwise contrasts calculated using Estimated Marginal Means for the Binomial**
 430 **GLMM in Table S4. P-values for these contrasts were adjusted by Holm's method.**
 431

contrast	sex	age	odds.ratio	SE	z.ratio	p.value
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.32	0.20	1.82	0.1365
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.08	0.17	0.49	0.6267
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Young	1.43	0.23	2.28	0.0682
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	male	Young	1.81	0.32	3.37	0.0022
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Young	0.77	0.14	-1.41	0.3167
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Young	0.89	0.15	-0.71	0.4753
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	female	Old	0.32	0.02	-16.26	0.0000
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Old	0.17	0.01	-21.83	0.0000
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	female	Old	0.63	0.03	-9.04	0.0000
PBS_injured_vs_Naive	male	Old	1.96	0.14	9.44	0.0000
HK_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Old	2.32	0.15	12.92	0.0000
Live_bacteria_vs_Naive	male	Old	0.97	0.07	-0.41	0.6829

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