| 1 | Original Article |
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| 2 | Histological organization of tephritid fruit flies (Diptera, Tephriridae) |
| 3 | from Thailand |
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23 Abstract

The structural evidence of tephritids, notably Bactrocera albistrigata, B. 24 25 dorsalis, B. umbrosa, Zeugodacus cucurbitae, and Z. tau complex was explored using histology. These tephritids' male reproductive organs comprised two testes, ducts with 26 deferent ducts, seminal vesicles, and tubular exocrine glands. The testicular follicle was 27 28 investigated as a cyst during four stages of spermatogenesis (spermatogonium, spermatocyte, spermatid, and spermatozoa). Similarly, the female reproductive systems 29 30 of these fruit flies were morphologically identical, with a pair of ovaries containing seven meroistic ovariole types. There was also a spermatheca, two lateral oviducts, a 31 common oviduct, and a genital chamber identified. Tephritids have digestive systems 32 33 (foregut, midgut, and hindgut), excretory systems (malpighian tubules), neural systems, integumentary systems (cuticle and epidermis), and adipose tissue. These data are not 34 only significant and publicly available, but they can also be used in future studies such 35 as histopathology, ecotoxicological assays, and phylogenic characteristics. 36

37 Keywords: Diptera, systematic histology, tephritid fruit flies, Thailand

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39 **1. Introduction**

True fruit flies (Diptera, Tephritidae) have about 4,300 species categorized into 500 genera and are found all over the world. They are economically significant and are considered serious crop pests (El Harym & Belqat 2017; Rubabura Chihire, & Bisimwa, 2019). Tephritidae is divided into six subfamilies: Blepharoneurinae, Dacinae, Phytalmiinae, Tachiniscinae, Tephritinae, and Trypetinae. The Dacinae are divided into three major tribes: *Ceratitidini, Dacini*, and *Gastrozonini*, with the *Dacini* tribe infesting fruits the most. Pests of commercial fruits and vegetables account for around 47 10% of the 1,000 already identified species (Doorenweerd, Leblanc, Norrbom, Jose, &
48 Rubinoff, 2018; Kunprom & Pramual 2016).

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Histological data frequently give information on cell and tissue modifications 49 that explain organ physiology and system response to a certain environment or therapy. 50 It is widely employed in a variety of downstream applications, most notably aquatic 51 ecotoxicology (Bernet et al., 1999). There are various findings on brain, ocular 52 structure, trachea, blood vessel, and skeleton muscle (Poolprasert et al., 2020), and 53 54 gonadal tissue (Boonyoung et al., 2020). The reproductive system of insects is similar to that of other invertebrates in architecture and function. The testes are composed of 55 numerous testicular follicles or sperm tubes that produce sperms, whereas the ovaries 56 57 contain numerous follicles (usually cystic or tube-like) that contain developing eggs (Gullan & Cranston, 2014). 58

Investigating insect histological organization is essential for comprehending how insect biology has crucial implications such as biocontrol and insect pest outbreaks. *Bactrocera albistrigata, B. dorsalis, B. umbrosa, Zeugodacus cucurbitae*, and *Z. tau* complex were reared and thus selected for histological study from infested different fruits to provide important baseline data on these nuisance pest populations and to be employed as comparisons with other insect groups. It could be employed in the future in terms of systematic science or agricultural management.

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67 2. Materials and Methods

Infested fruits such as angled loofah (*Luffa acutangular* Roxb.), cempedak
(*Artocarpus integer* Spreng), chili (*Capsicum annuum* L.), guava (*Psidium guajava* L.),
and tropical almond (*Terminalia catappa* L.) were taken from the experimental field of

the Department of Pest Management, Faculty of Natural Resources, Prince of Songkla
University, Hat Yai district, Songkla province, Thailand. A smartphone was used to
picture a fruit fly from the field (Figure 1A).

The larvae-infested fruits were housed in clear plastic boxes (20 centimeter x 25 74 centimeter x 15 centimeter) with air circulation openings on the top lid. As a pupation 75 76 substrate, one centimeter of sterile (autoclaved and dried) vermiculite was placed in the bottom of a clear plastic box. Pupae were sieved and placed in a tiny clear plastic box 77 78 (10 centimeter x 10 centimeter x 10 centimeter) for adult emergence after larvae pupation. Adult fruit flies were maintained in a gauze cage (30 centimeter x 30 79 centimeter x 30 centimeter) with cube sugar, yeast hydrolysate, and water ad libitum 80 81 after emergence. Adult flies were recognized after ten days based on the morphological criteria reported by Drew and Hancock (1994), Hardy (1973) and White and Elson-82 Harris (1994). The species identification of collected flies were Zeugodacus cucurbitae 83 (Coquillett) and Z. tau complex (Walker) from angled loofah; Bactrocera umbrosa 84 (Fabricius) from campedak, B. dorsalis (Hendek) from guava and B. albistrigata 85 86 (Meijere) from tropical almond, respectively (Figures 1B-1F). Each species was raised in its own gauze cage (30 centimeter \times 30 centimeter \times 30 centimeter) with cube sugar, 87 yeast hydrolysate, and water as needed. Adult fruit flies were reared in a laboratory 88 89 setting with a 12:12 h light: dark, 75-80% relative humidity (RH), and a temperature 27 ± 2 °C. In this study, 10 individuals of each species and 5 individuals of each sex of 90 each adult fly species were employed. Adult flies were euthanized by quick cooling 91 92 shock following emergence of each species, and fresh specimens were fixed with Davidson's fixative solution (~48 hr) for histological inspection (Wilson et al., 2009). 93

94 The abdominal segments of all samples were dissected and morphologically 95 evaluated in Ringer's solution using a stereomicroscope (Leica 750; Leica Camera AG, 96 Wetzler, Germany). The traditional histology method was then applied to all systems (Suvarna et al., 2013). Tissue was paraffin embedded, sectioned through a microtome 97 (OSK 97LF506) at 4 m thicknesses, and stained with Harris's haematoxylin and eosin 98 99 (H&E). A digital light microscope was employed after staining to analyze and photograph different histological features of these fruit files including the reproductive 100 101 system, digestive system, excretory system, integumentary system, nervous system, and 102 adipose tissue (Leica TE750-Ua, Boston Industries, Inc., USA). The details of those histological systems in both male and female fruit flies are discussed here. 103

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105 **3. Results**

106 Morphology and Histology of Male Reproductive System

107 The male reproductive system of recognized laboratory tephritid fruit flies 108 (*Bactrocera albistrigata, B. dorsalis, B. umbrosa,* Zeugodacus *cucurbitae*, and *Z. tau* 109 complex) was shared under the stereomicroscope. They shared a pair of testes that 110 linked to the deferent duct morphologically. Throughout the ejaculatory bulb, there 111 were two pairs of seminal vesicles and two pairs of auxiliary glands (Figure 2A).

The testicular capsule protected the many follicles seen in each testis (Figures 2B-2C). It was enclosed by a peritoneal membrane and had substantial cysts within the testicular follicle, with three zones (growth, maturation, and transformation). The spermatogenic stages of all fruit flies in the follicle were usually classified into four phases based on the morphology and histological organization of chromatin: spermatogonia, spermatocyte, spermatids, and spermatozoa (Figures 2C-2D).

The spermatogonium was found at the follicle's apex. It was the biggest cell, 119 measuring 10-12 m in diameter. This stage's nucleus was big and included eosiophilic 120 cytoplasm (Data not shown). Mitotic division transforms the spermatogonium into spermatocytes. It had an oval-spherical form (Figure 2C). The resultant nucleus of 121 primary spermatocytes originally compacted the chromatin at the growing zone. The 122 spermatocyte then formed, going through the second meiotic division. This process is 123 also known as "spermiogenesis." At the maturation zone, the spermatid's chromatin in 124 125 the nucleus was severely compressed, but its eosinophilic cytoplasm was rare (Figure 2D). Spermatozoa were the final stage of the spermatogenesis process. It could be 126 discovered in a transition zone. Spermatozoa with expanded heads and tails were 127 128 discovered in abundance (or flagellum). Spermatozoa from the testis were released into 129 the deferent duct.

The lumen of the seminal vesicle includes a significant number of free 130 spermatozoa (Figure 3A). A single layer columnar epithelium lined the auxiliary gland 131 wall, which was externally bordered by a thin muscle layer (Figure 3B). 132

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Morphology and Histology of Female Reproductive System 134

All tephritid fruit fly female reproductive systems are morphologically formed 135 136 of a paired ovary with ovarioles, lateral oviducts, a common oviduct, and spermatheca (Figure 4A). Each ovariole displayed three distinct regions: terminal filament, 137 germarium (trophic chamber), and vitellarium. Oocyte differentiation stages were also 138 139 discovered in the ovary (Figure 4B).

140 Typically, the germarium was split into three stages: oogonium, previtellogenic (Pv), and vitellogenic (Vg). However, in all samples, only the Pv phrase was detected in 141

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the ovary. It had an oval form. They were distinguished by a single layer of elongated
cuboidal follicle cells and a central nucleus with homogeneous basophilic cytoplasm
(Figures 4C-4D). There was a huge nurse cell with a well-developed nucleus, as
specified by the term "polytrophic meroistic type" (Figure 4C).

The common oviduct stood out, linking the spermatheca with a slender duct
(Figure 4A). The oviduct was commonly lined with simple columnar epithelium and
was rarely surrounded by a muscle layer (Figure 4E).

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0 Histology of Digestive System

The digestive tracts of the five fruit fly species examined were histologically 151 152 similar, with three fundamental sections: foregut, midgut, and hindgut (Figure 5A). The 153 foregut was a short tract that included the esophagus and the month (Data not shown). 154 The esophageal valve was situated between the foregut and the midgut (Figure 5B). A model of this valve was exhibited, including epithelial and muscular protrusion from the 155 foregut into the midgut. This valve contained two cell layers: inner and outer (Figure 156 157 5C). The outer cell layer was lined by epithelial cells with a high density of simple columnar cells and a predominant oval basophilic nucleus, whereas the inner cell layer 158 159 was lined by a simple cuboidal epithelium (Figure 5C). The midgut was the alimentary 160 canal's longest segment (Figure 5A). It was lined with several cell kinds (epithelial and basal cells). The epithelial cell had a big columnar cell with a microvilli-covered surface 161 (or brush border) surrounded by acidophilic cytoplasm. A tiny basal cell was found in 162 163 the epithelium's basal area (Figure 5D). It was spherical and had a prominent basophilic nucleus. The digestive tract's final portion was the hindgut (Figure 5A). A projecting 164 epithelial layer, surrounded by a thick layer of muscle tissue, was observed (Figure 5F). 165

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167 Histology of Excretory System

168 The malpighian tubules (MTs) were the most abundant organs in the excretory 169 system (Figure 6A). The MTS were situated between the midgut and the hindgut. A 170 single layer of pavement cells lined the epithelium, which was covered by a massive 171 nucleus projecting into the tubule lumen (Figure 6B).

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173 Histology of Nervous System

174 The brain and ventral nerve cord comprised the central nervous system (CNS) of the tephritids (subesophageal ganglion and thoracico-abdominal ganglion). The brain 175 176 was a bilobed structure positioned dorsally in the head, with a cortex part housing the 177 neural cell and a medullar region carrying the neural fiber (Figures 6C-6D). A 178 perineurium protective sheath with a connective tissue layer was created (Figure 6D). Histological slides revealed that the ganglia of the ventral nerve cord were similarly 179 organized. The ganglion contains neurons, neurosecretory cells, and supporting cells, 180 181 whereas the medullary area contains neural fibers (Figure 6E).

182 Histology of Adipose Tissue

Histological tests revealed that tephritids' adipose tissue was widely dispersed throughout the body (Figure 7A). It was mostly composed of oenocytes and trophocytes (Figures 7B-7C). Oenocytes possessed a distinct perinuclear basophilic cytoplasm, and peripheral chromatin has been identified in the nucleus (Figure 7B). Eosinophilic granules and vacuoles kept the round-trophocytes mostly contained (Figure 7C).

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189 Histology of Integument

The integument was shielded by two layers (cuticle and epidermis) (Figure 7B).
A light microscopic examination revealed two layers: endocuticle (thin layer) and
exocuticle (thick layer) (Figure 7D).

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Histology of Respiratory System

The respiratory structure of tephritids may be found all over the body (Figure
7E). This structure was observed among the adipose tissue (Figures 7E-7F) and was an
elongated tube (Figure 7F).

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199 **4. Discussion**

200 The histological organization of tephirid fruit flies namely Bactrocera albistrigata, B. dorsalis, B. umbrosa, Z. cucurbitae and Zeugodacus tau complex 201 gathered from Thailand was explored in this time. They all had a pair of testes 202 implanted in a mass of fat bodies above the intestine of flies, followed by ducts 203 comparable to deferent ducts, seminal vesicles, and tubular exocrine glands, as proposed 204 205 by Shehata et al (2011) in *B. zonata*. Histologically, the testicular follicle appeared as a cyst with four distinct spermatogenesis phases (spermatogonium, spermatocyte, 206 207 spermatid, and spermatozoa). These histological traits were nearly similar found to 208 other insects such as predatory stinkbugs, Podisus nigrispinus (Lemos, Ramalho, Serrao, & Zanuncio, 2005), hairy shieldbugs, *Dolycoris baccarum* (Özyurt, Candan, & 209 Suludere, 2012), shieldbugs, Graphosoma lineatum (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae) (Özyurt, 210 211 Candan, Suludere, & Amutkan, 2013), tortoise beetles, Aspidimorpha sanctaecrucis 212 (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) (Boonyoung et al., 2020) and giant water bugs, Belostoma spp. (Hemiptera, Belostomatidae) (Munhoz Serrão, Dias, Lino-Neto, de Melo, & 213

214 Araújo, 2020). Similarly, the internal structural features of the female reproductive 215 system of these common fruit flies were equivalent, with a pair of ovaries constituted of 216 seven different ovariole types. A spermatheca, a lateral oviduct, and a genital chamber 217 were also found as Chou et al. (2012) hypothesized in B. dosalis. In the same manner, these features were relative similarly to that of insects for example Aedes aegypti 218 219 (Diptera: Culicidae), Perillus bioculatus (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae) and Trypophloeus klimeschi (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) (Adams, 2000, 2001; Gao, Wang, & Chen, 2021; 220 221 Zhang, Goh, Ng, Chen, & Cai, 2023). It had a well-developed nucleus, as designed "polytrophic meroistic type with the nurse cells contained with the follicle," as 222 previously described in other insect orders (Hymenoptera and higher Diptera) (Dong, 223 224 Ye, Guo, Yu, & Hu, 2010; Okada, Miyazaki, Miyakawa, Ishikawa, Tsuji, & Miura, 225 2010). Nurse cells are necessary for oocyte development because they produce RNA 226 and proteins that are transported to the follicular epithelium of the oocyte (De Loof, Geysen, Cardoen, & Verachtert, 1990). The oviduct was mostly covered by simple 227 columnar epithelium and was rarely bordered by muscle. Acromyrmex balzani, A. 228 229 landolti and A. landolti balzani (Hymeoptera: Formicidae) have these features (Cardoso, Fortes, Cristiano, Zanuncio, & Serro, 2008; Ortiz & Camargo-Mathias, 230 2007). Conversely, some insect ovaries, designated as panoistic ovaries, occurring in 231 232 Orthoptera and Dictyoptera, lack nurse cells (Gullan, & Cranston, 2014; Çakıcı, 2016). The digestive tract of tephritid fruit flies was investigated histologically and 233 revealed a basic tube-like structure divided into three major sections, namely the 234 235 stomodeum (foregut), mesenteron or ventriculus (midgut), and proctodeum (hindgut). In 236 the transition between the foregut and the midgut, an esophageal valve set showed the

extension of the epithelium and muscle from the foregut into the midgut. The longest

238 area was the midgut, which was lined with various cell types such as epithelial and 239 basal cells. The epithelial cell was characterized by a large columnar cell with a 240 microvilli-covered surface (or brush border) and acidophilic cytoplasm. Meanwhile, the 241 hindgut was the digestive tract's final portion. A projecting epithelial layer surrounded by a thick layer of muscular tissue was observed. These feathers relatively differed from 242 recent observation of Somala et al. (2020) who speculated that mucosal foregut of 243 arboreal bicoloured ant, Tetraponera rufonigra (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) was lined 244 245 by a simple squamous epithelium. The mucosal layer of its midgut was comprised two 246 sub-layers: epithelium and muscular sub-layers. Lastly, the hindgut two layers; epithelium and musculari were clearly observed. Additionally, the malpighian tubules (MTs), the 247 248 main osmoregulatory and excretory organs of insects, are thin fingerlike extensions connected to the intestinal tract between the midgut and the posterior gut or hindgut 249 250 (Gullan & Cranston, 2014). Histologically, the MTs were mainly lined with simple cuboidal epithelium. Similar structures have been discovered in stick insect, 251 252 Pylaemenes mitratus (Phasmida: Basillidae) (Harris, Azman, & Othman, 2019), firefly, 253 Pteroptyx tener (Coleoptera: Lampyridae) (Othman, Nur Hudawiyah, Roslim, Nur 254 Khairunnisa, & Sulaiman, 2018) and arboreal bicoloured ant, Tetraponera rufonigra (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) (Somala et al. 2020). 255

In general, the insect CNS is separated into three parts: central, visceral, and peripheral sensory nervous systems (Gullan & Cranston, 2014). The CNS of these tephritids was observed to include the brain and ventral nerve cord (subesophageal ganglion and thoracico-abdominal ganglion), with the ventral ganglion formed by the combination of suboesophageal, thoracic, and abdominal neuromeres, as seen in dipterans (Boleli & Paulino-Simes, 1999; Fritz, 2002). Histologically, the ganglion was 262 ovoid structure and had a large nerve fiber extending anteriorly to the thoracico-263 abdominal ganglion. In this regard, the ganglia in the ventral nerve cord were similarly 264 structured. The cortical region having neurons, neurosecretory cell and supporting cell 265 classified in the ganglion, whereas the neuronal fibers was seen in the medullary region, 266 as similar visualized in some insects like arboreal bicoloured ant T. rufonigra (Somala 267 et al, 2020) and striped blister beetle, *Epicauta waterhousei* (Langkawong et al., 2013). Interestingly, the fused thoracic + abdominal ganglia (thoracico-abdominal ganglion) of 268 269 these tephritid fruit flies could be explored. In terms of insect evolution, in this case, it was indicated that these flies are considered as advanced insect groups (Diptera), as 270 similar exhibited in the research of Fritz (2002) (see the arrangements of the ventral 271 272 ganglia in various insects).

The histological properties of these tephritidae were abundantly displayed 273 throughout the body in terms of adipose tissue. The oenocytes and trophocytes 274 (adipocytes) are important storage organ cells in this finding, and the term adipocyte is 275 sometimes used in the literature to refer to the principal fat body cell. The fat body in 276 277 insects is the principal storage location for lipid, glycogen, and protein, and is analogous to the adipose tissues and liver in vertebrates. In addition, it is also the site of 278 haematopoiesis and secretion of many immune compositions, antibacterial compounds 279 280 as well as blood clotting proteins (Azeez, Meintjes, & Chamunorwa, 2014; Vilmos & Kurucz, 1998). Recently, in one case of honeybee, oenocytes and trophocytes of Apis 281 mellifera workers presented aging phenotypes. On the other hand, those of A. mellifera 282 283 queens exhibited pro-longevity phenotypes (Lu, Weng, Tan, & Hsu, 2021).

An insect's exoskeleton, also known as the integument, is the outer layer of tissue that covers the surface of the insect. In this observation, the integument was obviously protected by two distinct layers (cuticle and epidermis). Epicuticle and cuticulin envelop, procuticle (exocuticle, mesocuticle, and endocuticle), epidemis, and basement membrane were the three epithelial layers seen in insects (basal lamina). Nonetheless, two layers of a thin endocuticle and a broader layer of exocuticle were visible at a light microscopic level, in contrast to previous observations (Gullan & Cranston, 2014). A transmission electron microscope (TEM) is required to analyze certain integument features.

293 The respiratory system of these insects could be seen all over the bogy. The trachea was identified histologically amidst the fat tissue. The tracheal system and 294 spiracles spread throughout the insect body and operate as the respiratory system. The 295 296 respiratory system is in charge of both delivering enough oxygen (O₂) to all cells in the body and eliminating carbon dioxide (CO₂) as a consequence of cellular respiration 297 (Gullan & Cranston, 2014). These findings were conformed to several previous 298 observations, for example, arboreal bicoloured ant Tetraponera rufonigra Somala et al, 299 2020, coffee berry borer, Hypothenemus hampei (Alba-Tercedor, Alba-Alejandre, & 300 301 Vega, 2019), milkweed bug, Oncopeltus fasciatu (Hanna & Popadić, 2020) and mosquitoes, Anopheles sinensis and Aedes togoi (Ha, Yeom, Ryu, & Lee, 2017) etc. 302

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4. Conclusions

All tephritid fruit flies shared a structurally similar systemic arrangement. The findings of this work add to our understanding of the structural systems of tephritid fruit flies that are linked to their histochemistry, physiology, and hormone control. This could, in particularly, be employed as a comparative control with histopathology to quantify apoptosis caused by the application of insecticides or medicinal pla nt extractsin commercial agricultural systems.

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461

462 **Figure legends**

- Figure 1. Field study shows (A) the tephritid fruit flies on the green leave. (B-F)
 Representative figures of the tephritid fruit flies present such as *Bactrocera albistrigata* (B), *Bactrocera umbrosa* (C), *Zeugodacus curcubitae* (D), *Batrocera dorsalis* (E), and *Zeugodacus tau* complex (F).
- Figure 2. Morphology and light microscope of male reproductive system of the tephritid
 fruit flies. (A) A Representative morphology shows the reproductive system of *Zeugodacus curcubitae* was observed. (B-C) Histological structure of the testis
 (Ts) containing the testicular follicle was identified from *Bactrocera albistrigata*

471and Zeugodacus tau complex. (D) Each follicle was separated into three zones472[growth zone (Gz), maturation zone (Mz) and transitional zone (Tz). Several473stages of male germ cell were classified including spermatocytes (Sc),474spermatids (St) and spermatozoa (Sz). Abbreviations: At = adipose tissue, Ea =475ejaculatory apodeme, Dd = deferent duct, He = head of spermatozoa, Lt = long476tubular, Mt = mulpigian tubule, Ta = tail of sperm, Tc = testicular capsule, Tt =477testes, Sag = short accessory gland.

- 478 Figure 3. Representative light microscope of (A) seminal vesicle and (B) contains the
 479 accessory gland of *Bactrocera umbrosa*. Abbreviations: Ep = epithelium, Ms =
 480 muscular layer, Sz = spermatozoa.
- Figure 4. Morphology and Light microscope of female reproductive system of the
 tephritid fruit flies. (A) Representative morphology exhibits the reproductive
 system of *Zeugodacus curcubitae*. (B-D) Reproductive histology from *Bactrocera albistrigata* displays the ovary and previtellogenic stage (Pv). E: The
 oviduct is also seen. Abbreviations: Bc = basophilic cytoplasm, Ep = epithelium,
 Co = common oviduct, Fc = follicle cell, Hg = hindgut, Nc = nurse cell, Ov =
 ovaries, Rp = rectal pad, Spe = spermatheca.
- Figure 5. Light microscope showing the digestive system of the tephritid fruit flies. (A)
 The digestive tract of *Zeugodacus curcubitae* is divided into two parts [midgut
 (Mg) and hindgut (Hg)]. (B) The esophageal valve (Ev) and the midgut (Mg) are
 longitudinally sectioned. (C) High magnification appears the esophageal valve,
 which is lined by the inner cell layer (Icl) and the outer cell layer (Ocl). (D-E)
 The feature of midgut (Mg) with lining of epithelium (Ep) and rare muscular
 layer. (F) The characterization of hindgut having the epithelium (Ep) and the

495 obvious muscular layer is noted. Abbreviations: Bc = basal cell, Mcs =
496 microvilli-covered surface.

- 497 Figure 6. Light microscope showing the excretory system and the nervous system of the 498 tephritid fruit flies. (A-B) Representative figures the Malpighian tubule (Mt) between Bactrocera albistrigata (A) and Bactrocera umbrosa (B) are found. (C-499 D) The histological description of brain is divided into cortex region (Cr) and 500 501 medullar region (Mr). E: These regions also similarly showed in the ganglion. 502 Abbreviations: Nec = neural cell group, Neu = neuron, Nf = neuronal fiber, Nsc = neurosecretory cell, Pn = perineurium, Pv = pavement cell, Sc = supporting 503 504 cell.
- 505 Figure 7. Light microscope shows the adipose tissue (A-C), integument [Ig] (B, D) and respiratory system (E-F) of the tephritid fruit flies. A: The composition of 506 adipose tissue (At) is in the abdominal body. B-C: High magnification reveals 507 the oenocytes (Oc) and trophocyte (Tp). B,D: High magnification demonstrates 508 that the cuticle (Cu) and epidermis (Epi) of Zeugodacus curcubitae (B) and 509 Zeugodacus tau complex (D) are located in integument layer. Endocuticle (Ed) 510 and exocuticle (Ex) are also seen. E-F: The respiratory structure (Rs) from 511 Zeugodacus curcubitae (E) and Zeugodacus tau complex (F) is identified. 512 Abbreviations: Nuc = nucleus. 513



Figure 1.



Figure 2.



Figure 3.



Figure 4.



Figure 5.



Figure 6.



Figure 7.