

1 **High developmental temperature leads to low reproduction**
2 **despite adult temperature**

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28 **Abstract**

29 Phenotypic plasticity can help organisms cope with changing thermal conditions and it
30 may depend on which life-stage the thermal stress is imposed: for instance, exposure to
31 stressful temperatures during development can trigger a positive plastic response in
32 adults. Here, we analyze the thermal plastic response of laboratory populations of
33 *Drosophila subobscura*, derived from two contrasting latitudes of the European cline. We
34 measured reproductive performance through fecundity characters, after the experimental
35 populations were exposed to five thermal treatments, with different combinations of
36 developmental and adult temperatures (14°C, 18°C, or 26°C). Our questions were
37 whether (1) adult performance is changed with exposure to higher (or lower) temperatures
38 during development; (2) flies raised at lower temperatures outperform those developed at
39 higher ones, supporting the “colder is better” hypothesis; (3) there is a cumulative effect
40 on adult performance of exposing both juveniles and adults to higher (or lower)
41 temperatures; (4) there is evidence for biogeographical effects on adult performance. Our
42 main findings were that (1) higher developmental temperatures led to low reproductive
43 performance regardless of adult temperature, while at lower temperatures reduced
44 performance only occurred when colder conditions were persistent across juvenile and
45 adult stages; (2) flies raised at lower temperatures did not always outperform those
46 developed at other temperatures; (3) there were no harmful cumulative effects after
47 exposing both juveniles and adults to higher temperatures; (4) both latitudinal populations
48 showed similar thermal plasticity patterns. The negative effect of high developmental
49 temperature on reproductive performance, regardless of adult temperature, highlights the
50 developmental stage as very critical and most vulnerable to climate change and associated
51 heat waves.

52 Keywords: phenotypic plasticity; temperature; *Drosophila*; fecundity; history;
53 development

54

55 **1. Introduction**

56 Phenotypic plasticity can help organisms cope with climate change by allowing
57 for a rapid response to changing thermal conditions. In particular, developmental thermal
58 plasticity may enable beneficial responses through developmental acclimation – *i.e.*
59 higher resistance in adults as a consequence of exposure to stressful temperatures during
60 development (Beaman et al., 2016; Sgrò et al., 2016; Sørensen et al., 2016). Plastic
61 responses have received much attention in recent years, especially those associated with
62 physiological tolerance to either cold or heat extremes (e.g. in insects (Kellermann, 2019;
63 Kellermann and Sgrò, 2018; MacLean et al., 2019; Schou et al., 2017)).

64 An increasing number of experiments are addressing the developmental thermal
65 plasticity associated with adult life-history traits, mainly in ectotherms (Angilletta et al.,
66 2019; Austin and Moehring, 2019; Cao et al., 2018; Iossa et al., 2019; Klepsatel et al.,
67 2019; Klockmann et al., 2017; Manenti et al., 2017; Porcelli et al., 2017; Zamorano et al.,
68 2017 see Kelly, 2019; Mirth et al., 2020 for reviews). This line of research is extremely
69 relevant as traits closely related to fitness, such as fecundity and longevity, are crucial for
70 population persistence and very likely to be affected by climate change (Walsh et al.,
71 2019). In general, evidence indicates a negative impact of high developmental
72 temperature on adult fitness (e.g. Cao et al., 2018; Klepsatel et al., 2019; Klockmann et
73 al., 2017; Porcelli et al., 2017). These results contradict the “hotter is better” hypothesis,
74 which states that higher developmental temperatures lead to enhanced adult performance
75 across different temperatures (Huey et al., 1999). Such detrimental effects will, certainly,
76 depend on the magnitude of the temperature rise. Some studies addressing fecundity
77 support an alternative pattern of developmental acclimation, the “optimal acclimation
78 temperature” hypothesis, where individuals developed at intermediate, “optimal”
79 temperatures show general better adult performance across environments relative to

80 individuals developed at more extreme temperatures (Klepsatel et al., 2019; Kristensen
81 et al., 2012). Yet, another development acclimation hypothesis – “colder is better” –
82 predicts a better adult performance of individuals raised at lower temperatures (Huey et
83 al., 1999). Evidence for the impact of colder developmental temperatures on fecundity is
84 less conclusive, with positive effects observed in some studies (e.g. (Nunney and Cheung,
85 1997; Simões et al., 2020; Zamorano et al., 2017), but not in others (Angilletta et al.,
86 2019; Huey et al., 1995; Klepsatel et al., 2019; Kristensen et al., 2012).

87 *Drosophila subobscura* is an excellent model organism to study thermal
88 responses. This species shows latitudinal clinal variation for chromosomal inversion
89 frequencies in three distinct continents, likely due to thermal adaptation (Prevosti et al.,
90 1988; Rezende et al., 2010). It, also, clearly responds to thermal challenges both in nature
91 (Balanyá et al., 2006; Rodríguez-Trelles et al., 2013) and in the lab (Fragata et al., 2016;
92 Simões et al., 2020). This species has a range of development temperatures spanning from
93 6°C to 26°C, with extremely low juvenile viability from 27°C onwards (David et al., 2005;
94 Moreteau et al., 1997; Schou et al., 2017). Optimal viability occurs in the range of 16 °C
95 to 20°C (Schou et al., 2017), which overlaps with the temperature optimum estimates of
96 16-17°C based on thermal preference assays (Rego et al., 2010).

97 Developmental thermal plasticity in life-history traits of *D. subobscura* has been
98 associated with lower egg-to-adult viability, fertility, and sperm motility due to high
99 developmental temperatures, thus refuting the “hotter is better” hypothesis (Porcelli et al.,
100 2017; see below). This association is also corroborated by data (in this species) for a
101 decline in the critical thermal maximum (CT_{max}) with increasing developmental
102 temperatures (Schou et al., 2017). In addition, positive effects of developmental plasticity
103 (*i.e.* beneficial acclimation) were found near the lower physiological limits (CT_{min}), but
104 not near the higher limits (CT_{max}) (MacLean et al., 2019; Schou et al., 2017). Still, further

105 evidence is needed on the possible (detrimental or beneficial) effects of either lower or
106 higher temperatures on adult reproductive performance of development, namely testing
107 the “hotter is better” and “colder is better” developmental acclimation hypotheses in
108 fecundity traits.

109 We previously addressed the developmental thermal plasticity patterns in two sets
110 of historically differentiated populations of *Drosophila subobscura* founded from
111 extreme locations of the European cline (Portugal and The Netherlands, see details in
112 (Simões et al., 2017)) after 67 generations of evolution at 18°C. This was done by
113 subjecting juvenile and adult flies to different temperature combinations of 15 °C, 18°C,
114 and 25°C (Simões et al., 2020). First, we observed that increased temperatures (25°C)
115 during both juvenile and adult stages led to a poor adult reproductive performance, but
116 higher temperatures in the adult stage only increased it. However, our setup did not allow
117 to distinguish the effect on fecundity of high developmental temperature from high adult
118 temperature, thus not directly testing the “hotter is better” hypothesis, nor the reversibility
119 of the effects of developmental temperature. Second, we found that flies that developed
120 at colder temperature (15°C) had increased reproductive performance at 15°C, when
121 compared to those developed at 18°C (control conditions), indicating cold acclimation.
122 Additional testing is needed to determine if this pattern can be the result of a general
123 better performance of individuals raised at lower temperatures, the “colder is better”
124 hypothesis. Finally, we found some historical effects in thermal plasticity for fecundity,
125 with a higher cold acclimation of the southern populations (Simões et al., 2020).

126 To answer the issues raised by the Simões et al. (2020) study, we report an
127 additional developmental plasticity experiment in the same populations, where we test
128 the adult reproductive performance of individuals exposed to three different temperatures
129 (14°C, 18°C, and 26°C). First, we checked for the enhancement or reduction in

130 performance of adult flies exposed to higher or lower temperatures during development,
131 testing the hypotheses “colder is better” and “hotter is better” against the “optimal
132 acclimation temperature” (Huey et al., 1999). If “colder is better” is true, then flies raised
133 at lower temperatures will show higher performance than flies raised at higher ones; and
134 the same rationale can be used for the “hotter is better” scenario. Furthermore, a higher
135 performance for flies developed at the intermediate temperature (18°C) will support the
136 “optimal acclimation temperature” hypothesis. Second, we looked for the existence of a
137 cumulative detrimental effect of life-long exposure to lower or higher temperatures on
138 fecundity, testing the reversibility of its effect. Should that be the case, the performance
139 of flies will be higher when switched to control conditions after development at colder or
140 warmer environments. Finally, we tested for the occurrence of biogeographical effects of
141 temperature on reproduction, by comparing the populations from Portugal and The
142 Netherlands when exposed to distinct thermal conditions. Differences in reproductive
143 performance, if found, will reveal the signature of evolutionary history on the
144 populations’ response to these new environments.

145

146 **2. Material and Methods**

147 *2.1 Origin and maintenance of Laboratory Populations*

148 In late August/early September 2013, two natural populations of the palearctic
149 species *Drosophila subobscura* were sampled. The collections were done in Adraga,
150 Portugal (lat. 38°48’N) and Groningen, The Netherlands (lat. 53°13’N). These are two
151 contrasting latitudes of the European cline (which ranges from Scandinavia, ~60°N, to
152 Northern Africa, ~30°N – (Prevosti et al., 1988) that experience very different
153 environmental temperatures. Samples were used to establish two sets of laboratory
154 populations: PT, from Adraga, and NL, from Groningen – see details in (Simões et al.,

155 2017, 2020). Each latitudinal population was three-fold replicated in the lab, originating
156 the PT₁₋₃ and NL₁₋₃ populations. Population maintenance involved discrete generations
157 with a synchronous 28-day cycle; 12L:12D photoperiod; constant temperature of 18°C;
158 controlled densities in adults (50 adults per vial) and eggs (70 eggs per vial) in ~30mm³
159 glass vials; reproduction for the next generation was around peak fecundity (seven to ten
160 days old imagoes). Census size ranged between 500 and 1200 individuals per population
161 (see also Simões et al., 2017). The thermal plasticity assay was performed when PT and
162 NL populations were at their 71st generation of evolution in the laboratory environment.

163 Although the physiological responses to temperature in *D. subobscura* can be
164 shaped by environment-by-environment interactions, such as the combined effect of
165 temperature and photoperiod (e.g. Moghadam *et al.*, 2019), we have only focused on the
166 plastic response of fly populations in a 12h light:12h dark set up and acknowledge that
167 results under different daylength scenarios might be different.

168

169 *2.2 Thermal Plasticity assay*

170 To study the effect of different thermal environments on adult performance, we analyzed
171 fecundity in PT and NL populations subjected to five thermal treatments (see Figure 1).
172 In three of the treatments, we exposed the flies to the same developmental and adult
173 temperatures, 14°C, 18°C or 26°C (treatments 14-14, 18-18, and 26-26, respectively). The
174 other two treatments were applied to analyze the impact of (higher or lower)
175 developmental temperature on adult reproductive performance tested in control
176 conditions. This was done by assaying imagoes at 18°C following their development at
177 either 14°C or 26 °C (treatments 14-18 and 26-18, respectively). 20 recently emerged
178 mating pairs (virgin males and females) per population and treatment were formed, with
179 a total of 600 pairs (20 pairs*6 populations*5 temperature treatments). Flies were

180 transferred to fresh medium every other day, vials were daily checked for the presence of
181 eggs, and the eggs laid by each female were counted in days 7 and 8 since emergence.
182 This procedure allowed to estimate two adult parameters: age of first reproduction
183 (number of days since emergence until the first egg laying) and fecundity (measured as
184 the total number of eggs laid between days 7 and 8). The first parameter addresses the
185 rate of sexual maturity, while the second refers to a period that is close to the age of egg
186 collection for the following generation (seven to ten-day-old imagoes), where selective
187 pressures are likely higher. Previous studies showed that subjecting 18°C-adapted flies to
188 13-15°C highly reduces fecundity and to 23-25°C enhances it (Fragata et al., 2016; Simões
189 et al., 2020). Also, 27°C was found to cause ~90% of juvenile mortality (David et al.,
190 2005; Moreteau et al., 1997). These reasons account for the lower and higher temperature
191 choices (14°C and 26°C) as we were looking for stressful, but viable conditions.

192 *2.3 Statistical Methods*

193 Thermal plasticity was analyzed by linear mixed models fitted with REML (restricted
194 maximum likelihood). P-values for differences between temperatures, populations (PT or
195 NL), and their interaction were obtained through analyses of variance (Type III Wald F
196 tests, Kenward-Roger degrees of freedom). The model applied was as follows:

$$197 \quad Y = \mu + \text{Pop} + \text{Rep}\{\text{Pop}\} + \text{Temp} + \text{Pop} \times \text{Temp} + \varepsilon,$$

198

199 Y is the trait in study (age of first reproduction or fecundity), Pop is the fixed factor
200 latitudinal population (with categories PT and NL), Rep{Pop} is the random factor
201 replicate population nested in the fixed factor latitudinal population, and Temp is the fixed
202 factor corresponding to the different temperature treatments. Raw data is the mean value
203 for each replicate population and temperature treatment, e.g. NL₁ for the 14-14 treatment.
204 Higher fecundity (more eggs) and lower age of first reproduction (faster sexual maturity)

205 indicate better adult performance. Replicates were derived from each population to
206 analyze how much the differences between the populations (PT and NL) were due to their
207 historical origin and not to random effects. Using the replicate as a random effect in the
208 statistical models is essential to test for consistent differences above the level of the
209 replicate (*i.e.* population level). This applies to both the factor Population and the
210 interaction Population*Temperature (which is the differential plasticity between PT and
211 NL). Given that defining replicates as a random effect means that the average value of
212 each replicate is the raw data used for testing both aforementioned terms, we used the
213 average instead of the individual data.

214 First, to analyze the effect of higher or lower developmental temperature on adult
215 performance (measured at control conditions, 18°C), two comparisons were performed:
216 14-18 *vs.* 18-18, for lower developmental temperature; and 26-18 *vs.* 18-18, for higher
217 developmental temperature. The first comparison allows to test the “colder is better”
218 hypothesis and the second comparison addresses the “hotter is better” hypothesis. Both
219 comparisons allow to address the “optimal acclimation temperature” hypothesis
220 (supported if 18-18 > 14-18 and 18-18 > 26-18). Second, to test the cumulative effect on
221 adult performance of exposing flies to both (lower or higher) development and adult
222 temperature, the following comparisons were done: 26-26 *vs.* 26-18, for higher
223 temperatures; and 14-14 *vs.* 14-18, for lower temperatures. If a negative cumulative effect
224 occurs, we expect that individuals exposed to 18°C as adults will have a better
225 performance when compared to those kept at the more extreme temperature, *i.e.*, 26-18
226 (or 14-18) flies will have higher fecundity and lower age of first reproduction than 26-26
227 (or 14-14) flies. Comparisons with control 18-18 conditions allow to assess the extent to
228 which temperature changes imposed by other thermal treatments are stressful or not, and
229 if these changes are cumulative. The normality and homoscedasticity assumptions for

230 analysis of variance were checked and were met in our dataset. All statistical analyses
231 were performed in R v3.5.3, with the lme4 (Bates et al., 2015), car (Fox and Weisberg,
232 2019) and lawstat (Hui et al., 2008) packages.

233

234 **3. Results**

235 Thermal plasticity was observed for both age of first reproduction and fecundity -
236 when considering all thermal treatments (Figure 2 and Table A1, significant factor Temp).
237 In general, adult performance was lower for individuals developed at the highest
238 temperature tested (26°C) – Figure 2.

239 Paired comparisons between developmental temperatures were performed to test
240 for the effects of higher or lower developmental temperature on adult performance (Table
241 1). On the one hand, there was a significantly lower adult performance (lower fecundity,
242 higher age of first reproduction) of flies developed at 26°C relative to those developed at
243 18°C, when tested in the control 18°C environment (see Figure 2 and Table 1, 26-18 *vs.*
244 18-18). On the other hand, individuals developed at 14°C and kept as adults at 18°C
245 reached sexual maturity significantly faster than those always kept at control, 18°C
246 conditions (see Figure 2b and Table 1, 14-18 *vs.* 18-18). No detrimental effect of lower
247 developmental temperature was found for fecundity (see Figure 2a and Table 1, 14-18 *vs.*
248 18-18).

249 The test for the cumulative effect of higher developmental temperature showed
250 that switching flies to 18°C (26-18) did not increase performance when compared to
251 keeping them at 26°C in both life stages (26-26); but even decreased in the case of age of
252 first reproduction (see Figure 2 and Table 2, 26-18 *vs.* 26-26), so no negative cumulative
253 effect was found. These results suggest that the negative effect of high developmental
254 temperatures could not be reverted.

255 Conversely, at lower temperatures, performance was reduced only in individuals
256 developed and maintained at such temperatures (see Figure 2, 14-14 vs. 18-18). This low
257 performance was reversed when individuals that developed at 14°C were exposed to 18°C
258 as adults: flies from the 14-18 thermal treatment showed significantly higher performance
259 than those from the 14-14 treatment (see Figure 2 and Table 2, 14-18 vs. 14-14), showing
260 that the combination of lower juvenile and adult temperatures have a negative effect on
261 adult performance.

262 No significant differences in thermal plasticity between latitudinal populations
263 were observed, either considering all thermal treatments or in the comparisons between
264 them (see Figure 2 and Tables 1 and 2, factor Pop*Temp).

265

266 **4. Discussion**

267 We report here that higher – but not lower – developmental temperatures led to lower
268 adult performance in *Drosophila subobscura* flies. These effects were permanent, as they
269 could not be reversed or mitigated by exposing the adult flies to a benign environment.
270 In a previous plasticity study with these *D. subobscura* populations, we observed a
271 negative effect of high developmental and adult temperatures on fecundity (Simões et al.,
272 2020). In that experiment, we could not rule out the combined effect of stress in both life
273 stages, as the tested individuals were kept in their whole life cycle at the same, higher
274 temperature. The present results indicate that there is no combined negative effect of high
275 developmental and adult temperature on reproductive performance. In fact, we observed
276 that flies experiencing higher temperatures across life stages had a higher rate of sexual
277 maturity (younger age of first reproduction) relative to those that only experienced high
278 temperatures during the developmental stage. This is likely due to a faster maturation of

279 females (and, eventually, males) in the imago's stage due to faster metabolism at higher
280 temperatures (Clarke and Fraser, 2004). This could, eventually, result in a faster mating
281 speed following emergence, leading to a higher impact on age of first reproduction rather
282 than on fecundity patterns.

283 We found reduced adult fitness in flies exposed to “non-optimal”, hotter
284 developmental environments, when compared to those developed at control conditions,
285 which does not support the “hotter is better” hypothesis. These “within-generation”,
286 negative carry-over effects have been thoroughly described in *Drosophila* (Kirk Green et
287 al., 2019; Klepsatel et al., 2019; Porcelli et al., 2017). Such effects were, also, found in
288 other ectothermic animals (*e.g.* insects, (Cao et al., 2018; Iossa et al., 2019; Klockmann
289 et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015), lizards (*Podarcis muralis*, Van Damme et al., 1992); and
290 starfish (*Parvulastra exigua*, Balogh and Byrne, 2020). Such detrimental effects might
291 result from the irreversible damage of physiological/metabolic pathways and processes,
292 like gametogenesis, brought upon by stressfully high developmental temperatures.
293 Spermatogenesis starts early during embryonic development and the ovary
294 morphogenesis only takes place at the larva-pupa transition (Ashburner and Wright,
295 1980). Spermatogenesis, in fact, has been reported to be particularly vulnerable to heat
296 stress, with male sterility occurring at around 25°C (David et al., 2005). Thus, the longer
297 maturity rate and reduced fecundity observed here might be (at least, partly) due to lower
298 sperm quality/output in males. Also, Porcelli et al. (2017) found that temperatures ~ 24°C
299 lead to reduced sperm motility in *D. subobscura*. Future analyses should address the
300 extent to which female and male reproductive performances are (differentially) affected
301 by heat stress and the underlying physiological and metabolic changes in these
302 populations.

303 Furthermore, fly development at lower temperatures did not reduce adult
304 reproductive performance and, in the case of age of first reproduction, it even led to a
305 better performance relative to individuals raised in control conditions; this may be due to
306 a higher ovariole number in individuals raised at lower temperatures (Moreteau et al.,
307 1997). Yet, this positive effect was not observed when flies were more sexually mature,
308 near their peak fecundity. Conversely, performance was reduced when individuals were
309 developed and kept as adults at a lower temperature. The fact that fecundity under control
310 conditions (18°C) was similar in flies developed at 18°C or 14 °C, suggests that the lower
311 adult performance at 14°C was a result of a reduction in metabolic rate in adults kept at
312 that temperature. This might reduce oogenesis and lead to lower fecundity even if ovariole
313 number increased.

314 Recently, we have found evidence for cold but not heat acclimation in fecundity
315 patterns, with individuals developed at lower temperatures (15°C) having higher
316 fecundity at 15°C than those developed in control conditions – 18°C (Simões et al., 2020).
317 At that point, we could not exclude that such pattern resulted, at least in part, of a general
318 better performance across different environments of flies raised at lower temperatures.
319 The present study indicates that development at lower temperatures does not always lead
320 to improved adult performance, as adult temperature also plays an important role in this
321 case. These results are in contradiction with the “colder is better” hypothesis of
322 developmental plasticity, which posits that individuals developed at colder temperatures
323 always have higher adult performance than individuals raised at other temperatures, i.e.
324 regardless of the test temperature in the adult stage (Huey et al., 1999, see also Zamorano
325 et al., 2017). With this body of data, we can now rule out that hypothesis, at least in the
326 case of fecundity traits, as individuals developed at lower temperatures did not show
327 increased performance when compared to those developed in control conditions. Finally,

328 these results neither support the “optimal acclimation hypothesis”, since flies developed
329 at the intermediate temperature did not show a higher performance (14-18 vs. 18-18
330 comparison; Figure 2).

331 Adaptation to different thermal environments is expected to result in differential
332 thermal plasticity between populations (Angilletta, 2009; Mathur and Schmidt, 2017;
333 Porcelli et al., 2017, see Kelly, 2019 for a review). Porcelli et al. (2017) reported
334 geographical differentiation in the response to heat stress in *Drosophila subobscura*, with
335 northern populations presenting lower viability and fertility. Previously, we found
336 significant differences between the same latitudinal populations studied here, with a
337 higher reproductive performance of the southern (PT) populations when subjected to
338 lower temperatures in both the development and adult stages (Simões et al., 2020). Here,
339 we did not observe any evidence for historical differences in response to lower
340 temperatures. One explanation might be that in Simões et al. (2020), such differences
341 were detected in early fecundity, *i.e.* fecundity tested during the first week of life, while
342 in this study we focused solely on fecundity patterns near peak reproduction, *i.e.* between
343 days 7 and 8. It is possible that the initial differences in fecundity between populations
344 became diluted with time as exposure to colder conditions in adults might potentiate
345 population differences in the rate of sexual maturation, which will reflect more on the
346 initial amount of laid eggs (*i.e.* early fecundity).

347 Differences in reproductive performance between thermal treatments could be
348 mediated by body size, since higher developmental temperatures lead to lower body sizes
349 (Kingsolver and Huey, 2008). In a previous plasticity study, four generations earlier, we
350 analyzed whether variation in wing size accounted for the differences in fecundity across
351 populations and treatments. We concluded that wing size (used as a proxy for body size)

352 was unlikely to be an important factor generating such differences in our latitudinal
353 populations.

354 In summary, we here demonstrate that increasing the developmental temperature
355 of *D. subobscura* populations $\sim 8^{\circ}\text{C}$ above control conditions leads to an irreversible
356 negative effect on reproductive performance, regardless of which adult temperature these
357 organisms are subjected. As previously noted, these results pinpoint the developmental
358 stage as very critical and vulnerable to climate change and associated heat waves (e.g. see
359 (Kingsolver et al., 2011; Klockmann et al., 2017). The low resilience to increased
360 temperatures during this early stage has likely detrimental consequences to population
361 fitness and persistence. In contrast, we show that this species copes well with colder
362 developmental temperatures, with reduction in performance only occurring when lower
363 temperatures are persistent across life stages.

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515 **Tables**

516 Table 1 – Test statistics for the effect of lower (14°C) and higher (26°C) developmental
 517 temperature on the thermal response of fecundity characters between populations.

	Trait	Model parameters	F _(df1, df2)
Higher temperature (26-18 vs. 18-18)	Age of First Reproduction (A1R)	Pop	F _{1,4} = 1.792 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 331.78 ***
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 0.599 n.s.
	Fecundity	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.769 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 141.89 ***
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 1.737 n.s.
Lower temperature (14-18 vs. 18-18)	Age of First Reproduction (A1R)	Pop	F _{1,4} = 1.641 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 20.891 *
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 2.630 n.s.
	Fecundity	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.500 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 3.332 n.s.
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 2.791 n.s.

518 Note: significance levels: p > 0.05 n.s.; 0.05 > p > 0.01*; 0.01 > p > 0.001**; p < 0.001 ***

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521 Table 2 – Test statistics for the reversion of lower (14°C) and higher (26°C)
 522 developmental temperatures effects on adult performance.

	Trait	Model parameters	F _(df1, df2)
Higher temperature (26-18 vs 26-26)	Age of First Reproduction (A1R)	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.017 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 15.010 *
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 1.574 n.s.
	Fecundity	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.004 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 2.507 n.s.
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 0.661 n.s.
Lower temperature (14-18 vs 14-14)	Age of First Reproduction (A1R)	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.563 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 398.41 ***
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 0.761 n.s.
	Fecundity	Pop	F _{1,4} = 0.346 n.s.
		Temp	F _{1,4} = 61.787 **
		Pop x Temp	F _{1,4} = 0.037 n.s.

523 Note: significance levels: p > 0.05 n.s.; 0.05 > p > 0.01*; 0.01 > p > 0.001**; p < 0.001 ***

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527 **Figure Legends**

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529 Figure 1 – Experimental design: combinations of three developmental and three
530 adulthood test temperatures.

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532 Figure 2 – Reproductive performance of flies exposed to the five different thermal
533 treatments (NL-left; PT-right): a) Age of first Reproduction; b) Fecundity (days 7 to 8).
534 Data shows the average value for each replicate x temperature combination and
535 replicates are identified by the respective number.

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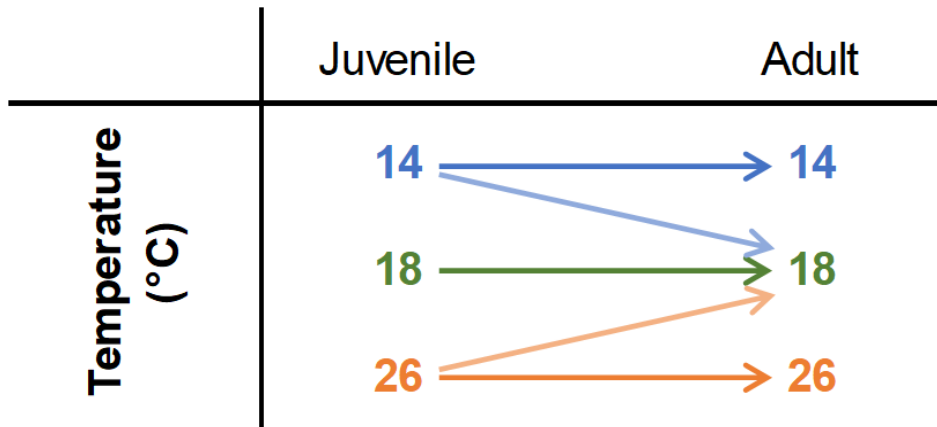
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549 Figure 1

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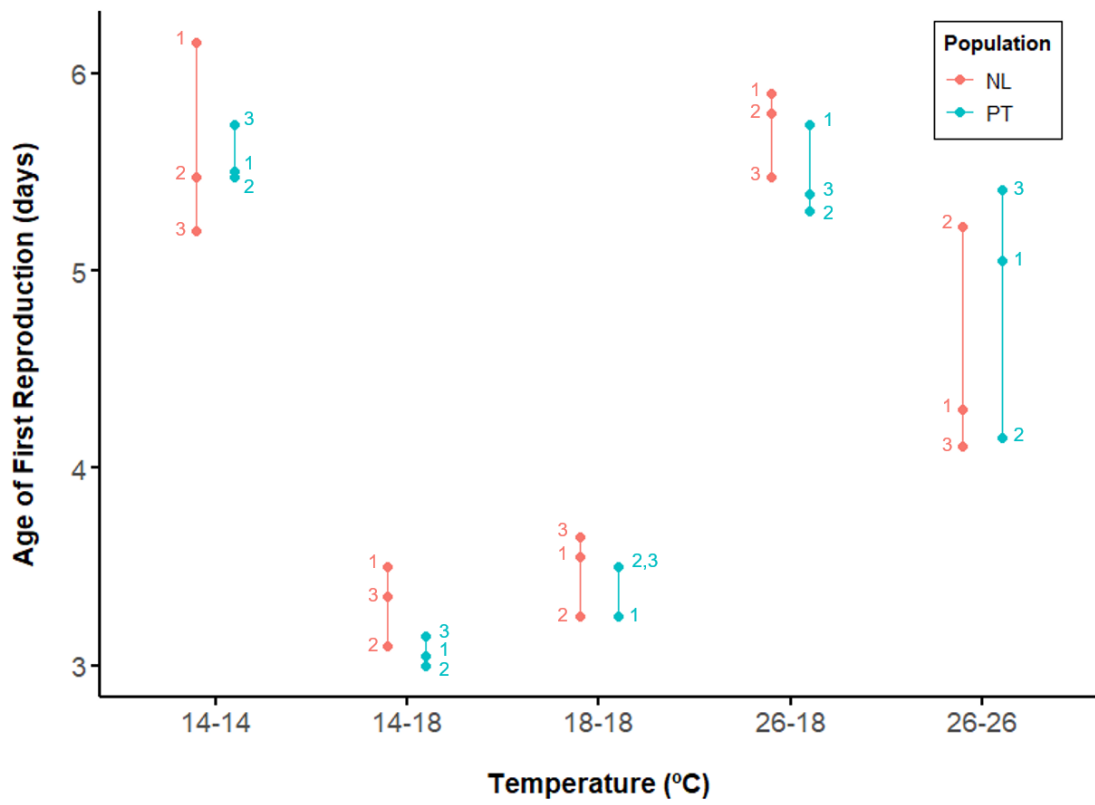
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567 Figure 2A



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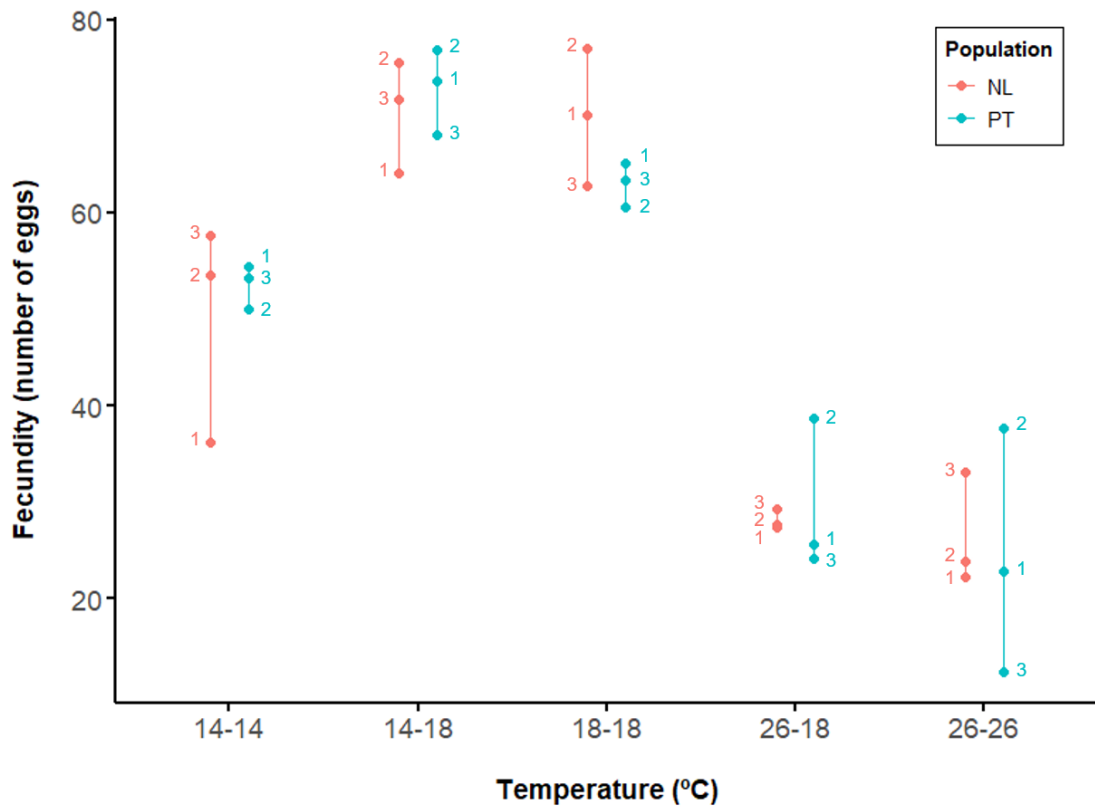
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583 Figure 2B



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