1 A me Temperature drives the evolutionary diversification of male harm in *Drosophila*

2 melanogaster flies

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27 ABSTRACT

Sexual selection often leads to sexual conflict via pre-copulatory (harassment) and/or 28 copulatory (traumatic insemination) male harm to females, impacting population growth, 29 30 adaptation and evolutionary rescue. Male harm mechanisms are diverse and taxonomically widespread, but we largely ignore what ecological factors modulate their diversification. 31 Here, we conducted experimental evolution under cold $(20\pm4^{\circ}C)$, moderate $(24\pm4^{\circ}C)$ and hot 32 33 (28±4°C) thermal regimes in Drosophila melanogaster, a species with male harm via harassment and seminal fluid proteins (SFPs), to show that temperature drives the divergent 34 evolution of sexual conflict. At the cold regime, evolution resulted in reduced and less plastic 35 36 harassment (i.e. pre-copulatory harm) while, at the hot regime, it was characterized by responses in the seminal proteome driven by differential expression of SFPs. Our results 37 suggest that temperature can be key to understand the past diversification and future (global 38 warming) evolution of sexual conflict, and the maintenance of genetic variation in male harm 39 traits. 40

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42 Introduction

Sexual selection can improve population viability and evolvability, making populations better 43 able to adapt to a changing environment (Cally et al., 2019; Lorch et al., 2003; Lumley et al., 44 2015; Martinez-Ruiz & Robert, 2017; Martinossi-Allibert et al., 2019). Driven by 45 competition for mates and their gametes, sexual selection is widespread and important in both 46 47 females and males (Fromonteil et al., 2023). Nevertheless, anisogamy commonly results in asymmetries in the strength and form of sexual selection across the sexes (Janicke et al., 48 2016). Typically, stronger sexual selection in males allows for the effective purging of 49 deleterious mutations and the capture of good genes (condition-dependent genic capture) at a 50 relatively cheap demographic cost, inasmuch females are spared the brunt of selection 51 (Agrawal, 2001; Whitlock & Agrawal, 2009). However, the same divergent selective 52 pressures that make sexual selection such an effective evolutionary sieve also set the scene 53 for sexual conflict, where female and male evolutionary interests misalign (Parker, 1979). 54 55 Alleles that confer a reproductive advantage to one sex may have opposing effects in the other, leading to reproductive strategies that evolve against each other (Pizzari & Snook, 56 2003). Such sexually antagonistic coevolution is particularly salient in polygamous species, 57 where it frequently leads to adaptations in males that make them better competitors in the 58 sexual selection arena, but at the expense of harming females (Arnqvist & Rowe, 2005). 59 60 Harmful male adaptations to females (male harm) are pervasive, diverse and sophisticated across the tree of life. On the one hand, male harassment of females during pre-61 copulatory competition for mating has been documented in many vertebrate and invertebrate 62 species (Gómez-Llano et al., 2024). On the other, post-copulatory competition has given rise 63 to a variety of male harm adaptations that are similarly widespread, ranging from potentially 64 harmful ejaculates (Wigby & Chapman, 2005) to adaptations for traumatic insemination 65

66 (Crudgington & Siva-Jothy, 2000). Male harm thus drives antagonistic female-male co-

evolution in a host of behavioural and morphological traits (Arnqvist & Rowe, 2005), and 67 may even act as an engine of speciation (Gavrilets, 2014; Rice et al., 2005). More 68 importantly, male harm can impact population demography by depressing net female 69 productivity (Gómez-Llano et al., 2024), even to the point of facilitating extinction (Le 70 Galliard et al., 2005). Recent theoretical models suggest that such negative effects may 71 compound when harmful traits are linked to condition (Flintham et al., 2023; Gómez-Llano et 72 73 al., 2024; Pitnick & García-González, 2002). In short, sexual selection acts as a double-edge sword for populations because stronger condition-dependent selection on males, which 74 75 allows for the demographically cheap purging of deleterious alleles, the genic capture of good genes, and ensuing fast adaptation, is also a recipe for intense sexual conflict. 76 Understanding what factors determine whether strong sexual selection and resulting conflict 77 leads to harm to females, and the nature and diversity of its underlying traits, is a central 78 question in evolutionary biology. 79

A growing body of research highlights ecology as a crucial factor for understanding 80 the evolution of male harm and its consequences for populations (Perry & Rowe, 2018). 81 Ecology has been shown to play a central role in shaping patterns of population divergence 82 via sexual conflict (Arbuthnott et al., 2014; Perry et al., 2017), as well as in determining the 83 intensity of male harm and to what degree it may offset the advantages of good-genes 84 selection (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023; Yun et al., 2017,2018). Recent studies show that 85 environmental factors such as spatial complexity (Berger & Liljestrand-Rönn, 2024; 86 MacPherson et al., 2018; Malek & Long, 2019), nutritional status (Fricke et al., 2010), or sex 87 ratio and population density (Chapman et al., 2003; Gomez-Llano et al., 2018), have the 88 89 potential to modulate male harm via both plastic and evolutionary responses. However, while such evidence suggests that male harm seems to be generally higher in environments to 90

91 which populations are adapted to, we largely ignore the degree to which ecological effects are92 predictable across species.

Temperature is a particularly interesting ecological factor to this respect. It modulates 93 a wide range of phenotypic traits, impacting individuals and populations at a global 94 taxonomic scale, and exhibits marked spatio-temporal variation such that, for most species in 95 the wild, competition for reproduction (and consequently male harm) will unfold in a 96 97 dynamic thermal environment. This is being taken to the extreme by global warming. Furthermore, thermodynamics dictate that temperature imposes similar adaptive challenges 98 99 across species, particularly in ectotherms. For example, protein stability and sperm production and function seem to be particularly sensitive to hot temperatures, while cold 100 temperatures pose general constraints on behaviour and activity (Berger et al. 2021; 101 102 Dougherty et al. 2024). Importantly, recent research in Drosophila melanogaster shows that the intensity of male harm, its impact on female fitness components, and its underling 103 mechanisms are very thermally plastic (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023). During male-male pre-104 copulatory competition, males harm females via intense harassment that causes substantial 105 costs in the form of physical injuries and energetic and opportunity costs (Bretman & Fricke, 106 2019; Partridge & Fowler, 1990; Teseo et al., 2016), but male harassment and its impact on 107 females is drastically reduced when exposed to cold temperatures (Londoño-Nieto et al. 108 2023). In the context of sperm competition, some male seminal fluid proteins (SFPs) affect 109 110 female re-mating and egg-laying rates to the male's advantage, but this can come at a cost to female fitness (Chapman, Bangham, et al., 2003; Hopkins & Perry, 2022; Wigby & 111 Chapman, 2005). SFPs are secreted by male accessory glands and are strategically allocated 112 by males in response to even subtle variations in the socio-sexual context (Hopkins et al., 113 2019a,b; Sirot et al., 2011), but hot temperatures seem to curtail their impact on female 114

reproduction (Londoño-Nieto et al. 2023). These findings suggest that temperature may be 115 key to understand the evolution and diversification of male harm (García-Roa et al., 2020). 116 Here, we test this idea by addressing whether adaptation to different temperatures 117 results in the evolution of higher male harm in adapted vs. maladapted temperatures and, 118 more importantly, whether pre-copulatory (behavioural, activity related) vs. copulatory 119 (seminal fluid proteins) mechanism respond differently to cold vs. hot thermal regimes. To 120 121 this aim, we collected *D. melanogaster* from a population that has been shown to be thermally plastic for male harm (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023) and set up 12 experimental 122 123 evolution populations under three different thermal regimes mimicking natural seasonal and circadian temperature variation. After 29-30 generations of experimental evolution, we set up 124 a series of fitness, behavioural and seminal proteome assays to measure experimental 125 evolution effects on: male harm intensity (i.e. how much male-male competition depresses 126 female fitness), the thermal plasticity of such effects, and underlying pre- (male aggression 127 and harassment levels) and copulatory (SFPs) traits. 128

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130 Methods

131 Experimental evolution design

We established 12 populations from our field-collected population "Vegalibre" (see 132 133 Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023), and subjected them to experimental evolution under one of three temperature regimes: average of 20, 24 or 28°C with daily pre-programmed fluctuations of 134 ±4°C mimicking circadian temperature variation (Fig. S1), at ~60% humidity, a 12:12hr 135 light:dark cycle, and in non-overlapping generations, controlling for population size and 136 density. Four populations (replicates) evolved at each temperature regime: populations A-D 137 at 20±4°C (cold); populations E-H at 24±4°C (moderate), and populations I-L at 28±4°C 138 (hot). Each generation began by releasing 100 males and 100 females (N=200), randomly 139

selected and of the same age, into a glass jar (16.5x19.5cm) containing two bottles with 140 standard food. We allowed 6 days of interaction, collecting eggs on the 6th day that we raised 141 at a standardized density (Clancy & Kennington, 2001) in bottles with standard food. We 142 isolated emerging virgins from these bottles in same-sex vials and used them to setup the next 143 generation when 3-4d old. This design selected for early reproduction, ignoring the 144 cumulative harm effects over time that are typical of male harm and thus minimising 145 146 selection for female resistance (Bonduriansky et al., 2008; Filice et al., 2020). Populations were assayed after 29-30 generations of experimental evolution and two generations of 147 148 common garden at 24±4°C to control for parental and grand-parental effects. Environmental conditions across all assays were controlled meticulously to ensure common garden 149 conditions (see SI for full details). 150

151 <u>Male harm and behavioural assays (experiment 1)</u>

To examine the effect of thermal evolution regimes on overall male harm levels and its 152 thermal plasticity, we compared reproductive success and survival of female flies from each 153 population under monogamy (low sexual conflict; one female and one male per vial) and 154 polygamy (high sexual conflict; one female and three males per vial). This is standard 155 procedure to gauge male harm in *Drosophila*, where these sex ratios represent biologically 156 relevant scenarios (Dukas, 2020; Yun et al., 2021). For each population within each 157 158 experimental evolution regime, we replicated these assays at 20, 24, and 28°C. We collected experimental flies as virgins, isolated them into same-sex vials of 15 individuals and then 159 randomly allocated them to either of the three temperature treatments 48h before starting the 160 161 experiment, at which temperature they remained until the end of assays. We began experiments by placing virgin focal females (4-5d old) in individual vials containing medium 162 with live yeast, after which we immediately added one (monogamy) or three (polygamy) 163 experimental males from the corresponding population. On day 1 of the experiment, we 164

observed flies (Table 1) for 8h combining scan sampling with an all-occurrences recording 165 rule (see SI) to score courtship intensity (courting males per female per hour), male-male 166 aggression rate (aggressions per hour) and female rejection rate (rejections per hour; Bastock 167 & Manning, 1955) to investigate whether pre-copulatory male harm mechanisms, and their 168 thermal plasticity, were affected by experimental evolution. To estimate female reproductive 169 success, we transferred flies to fresh vials twice a week and incubated vials containing eggs 170 171 at 24±4°C for 15-20d to allow F1 offspring emergence, and froze them for later counting. Differences in incubation time are due to differences in developmental temperature during 172 173 the first 1-4 days (depending on when individual eggs were laid in relation to when vials were flipped). We discarded and replaced males with young (2-4d old) virgin males (same 174 treatment as described above) three weeks after starting the experiment. We kept flies under 175 these conditions for six weeks, during which time we recorded survivorship of focal females 176 daily and replaced dead male flies with stock males maintained at each of the temperature 177 treatments. Samples sizes for female reproductive success and survivorship are in the Table 178 1. 179

To explore male harm, we modelled reproductive success (sum of offspring for a 180 female across the six weeks) as the response variable in a linear mixed model (LMM), and 181 courtship, male-male aggression and female rejection rates as the response variables in 182 generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) with experimental evolution regime, temperature 183 treatment, mating system and their interactions as fixed effects, and replicate population as a 184 random effect using *lme4* (Bates et al., 2015) and *glmmTMB* (Brooks et al., 2017) packages 185 in RStudio. We modelled survivorship as the response variable in a Cox proportional-hazard 186 model with the same fixed and random effects using *coxme* and *survminer* packages 187 (Kassambara & Kosinski, 2018; Therneau, 2022). Additionally, to further explore if overall 188 harm was higher at adaptive vs. maladaptive temperatures, we performed a complementary 189

analysis where we modelled experimental evolution regime, mating system and adaptive
temperature (yes/no, according to whether temperature was inside/outside of experimental
evolution regime) and the interaction between mating system and adaptive temperature as
fixed effects, and replicate population as random effect. In this analysis, we only used data
from populations evolved at the cold (for which 28°C is maladaptive) and hot (for which
20°C is a maladaptive) regimes; for flies evolved at the moderate regime all temperatures
were inside its experimental evolution regime.

For behavioural data, previous studies in this species have shown that pre-copulatory 197 male harm is linked to courtship intensity, female rejection and male-male aggression (i.e. 198 male intrasexual competition; Carazo et al., 2014; Partridge & Fowler, 1990). Following the 199 approach used in previous studies (e.g. Carazo et al., 2014), Component 1 of a PCA 200 explained 67.7% of variation in behavioural data, whereby male-male aggression, courtship 201 intensity and female rejection all loaded in the same direction (Table S2a), so we took PC1 as 202 203 a combined measure of male-male competition and courtship/harassment to females. Note, however, that we also modelled these behaviours separately with very similar results (see SI). 204

In all cases, when we detected a significant interaction between main effects, we ran models separately for each evolutionary temperature regime or temperature treatment and run post hoc Tukey's test to explore the nature of such interactions. We assessed significance with F test for LMM and chisquare test for GLMM and Cox proportional-hazard models. For further analysis details see SI.

210 <u>Proteomics assays (experiment 2)</u>

To study whether and how the seminal proteome of males that are competing for females for the first and successive matings evolves in response to temperature, we set up a series of assays and conducted label-free quantitative proteome analysis of the accessory glands of

virgin (first mating) and mated (successive matings) males across experimentally evolved 214 regimes. We conducted assays at the common garden temperature of 24°C (shared 215 temperature across thermal regimes). Upon eclosion, we allocated virgin focal males into 216 vials of 8 individuals until 4-5d-old. On the day of sample collection, we isolated 45 217 experimental females per population in vials, after which we immediately introduced focal 218 males either into a female-containing (mated) or empty (virgin) vial. We flash-froze mated 219 220 males in liquid nitrogen 25min after the start of mating, freezing a virgin male from the same population at the same time (see Hopkins et al., 2019a,b; Sepil et al., 2019). We repeated this 221 222 procedure during two more consecutive days to obtain three independent biological replicates following a balanced design. We stored all frozen samples at -80°C until dissection, for 223 which we thawed flash frozen males and dissected their accessory glands on ice in 224 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer, under a Leica M80 binocular scope. Each biological 225 replicate (i.e. sample) consisted in a pool of 20 reproductive glands from males of the same 226 temperature regime, mating status and replicate, which we sent for label-free quantitative 227 proteomics sample preparation and quantification (protocol SWATH-MS; Gillet et al., 2012) 228 at the SCISIE (University of Valencia) proteomics service (see SI for details). We thus 229 analysed six samples per population (three virgin and three mated males), across four 230 replicate populations per experimental evolution regime (i.e. n = 72). All assayed males 231 across experimental evolution regimes were dissected at the same time (i.e. in balanced order 232 233 across the same days) and proteomic analyses conducted at the same time for all samples, to avoid block effects. 234

We conducted all proteomics analysis on normalized abundances (see SI), generating two different proteomics data sets (i.e. virgin and mated males). We used an elastic net regression model and tests of reduction of dimensionality PLS-DA to analyse our data sets, using *glmnet* (Friedman et al., 2010) and *mixOmics* (Rohart et al., 2017) packages in RStudio.

For our analysis and visualization of abundance patters we averaged across biological 239 replicates for each protein, population, experimental evolution regime and mating status. For 240 241 visualization, we used a Euclidean correlation distance metric and plotted the output as a heatmap using NMF package (Gaujoux & Seoighe, 2010). We identified seminal fluid 242 proteins (SFPs) based on a high-confidence SFPs reference list from Sepil et al., (2019) and 243 Wigby et al., (2020). We represented Venn diagrams on the number of proteins and 244 245 percentage of SFPs using ggvenn package (Gao et al., 2021). Finally, to study differential evolution of SFPs, we repeated the elastic net regressions including only the SFPs dataset. 246

247 <u>GxE assay (experiment 3)</u>

248 To test for GxE interactions in male fitness within the range of temperatures at which 249 reproduction is optimal for the ancestral wild population (20-28°C) of our focal flies, we conducted a series of fitness assays across 30 male genotypes (i.e. isogenic lines) derived 250 from wild-caught flies from this wild population. We established isolines through 10 251 generations of inbreeding, resulting in flies sharing at least 96% of their genome (Falconer, 252 1996). Before the start of the experiment, we isolated 40 females per isoline into embryo egg-253 laying cages with yeasted grape juice agar plates, from which we collected experimental 254 virgin wild-type (wt) male flies that we placed into same-sex vials of 15 individuals. We used 255 sparkling^{poliert} (spa^{pol}) backcrossed into the Vegalibre population (i.e. same genetic 256 257 background) as rival males and reproductive females, a recessive phenotypic marker that can be used for paternity assignment. To begin the experiment, we placed wt males from each 258 isoline in individual vials with medium, after which we added two spa^{pol} males and one 259 female (high-competition environment). We then placed four replicates (i.e. vials) per isoline 260 under three different treatment temperatures (20, 24, and 28° C, $\pm 4^{\circ}$ C). We did not have 261 enough flies to set up four replicates in 6 isolines (see Data), so we ended up with 114 262 replicates per temperature treatment. We replaced *spa^{pol}* females every two weeks and *spa^{pol}* 263

males every four weeks, so that focal males competed over access to different females against 264 different males during their lifespan, as happens in nature. We recorded survivorship and 265 offspring production as described for experiment 1. We calculated reproductive success of 266 focal males as the proportion of sired offspring vs. total offspring ($wt + spa^{pol}$), and modelled 267 it as the response variable in a GLMM using a Beta regression model (Smithson & 268 Verkuilen, 2006), with temperature as a fixed effect and isoline and their interaction as 269 270 random effects (Bolker et al., 2009) using glmmTMB (Brooks et al., 2017) package in RStudio. 271

272 **Results**

273 Harm is higher at evolved temperatures

274 Experimental evolution significantly modulated the degree to which high conflict hampered female reproductive success, with higher male harm in flies from the moderate regime 275 (experimental evolution regime x mating system interaction: $F_{2,2939,1} = 3.04$, P = 0.048; Figs. 276 1 and S2). This was driven mainly by the fact that male harm was more constant (less plastic) 277 in flies evolved in the moderate thermal regime, whereas it was lower at 28°C in flies evolved 278 in the cold thermal regime and at 20°C in flies evolved in the hot thermal regime (i.e. their 279 respective non-adapted temperatures; experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment 280 interaction: $F_{4,2939,5} = 2.89$, P = 0.021; Fig. 1, Table S3). Effects on female survival closely 281 282 mimicked effects on female reproductive success (experimental evolution regime x mating system interaction: $X_2^2 = 8.30$, P = 0.016; experimental evolution regime x temperature 283 treatment interaction: $X_4^2 = 55.92$, P < 0.001; Fig. S3, Table S4a,b). Finally, direct 284 comparison of male harm levels between adapted vs. non-adapted temperatures confirmed 285 that, as predicted, overall male harm was higher at temperatures within vs. outside the 286 thermal range at which flies had evolved (adaptive temperature x mating system interaction 287

288 for female reproductive success, $F_{1,1942,1} = 4.12$, P = 0.042, and survival, $X^2_1 = 10.89$, P < 289 0.001; see Figs. 1 and S3).

290 Male harassment decreases at colder temperatures

Experimental evolution regime had clear effects on both overall male harassment and its plasticity. Overall, harassment was lower ($F_{2,9} = 3.87$, P = 0.06) and less plastic (experimental evolution x temperature treatment: $F_{4,1039,1} = 2.95$, P = 0.019; Fig. 2, Table

294 S2b,c) in flies evolved in the cold thermal regime. Analysing these three behaviours

separately, as well as effects across mating systems, confirmed these results (see SI).

296 The male seminal proteome diversifies across thermal regimes, with SFPs characterising

297 *evolution at hot temperatures*

In experiment 2, we found a total of 1453 proteins, 149 priorly identified as SFPs. For virgin 298 males, 37 proteins were selected as predictor variables with a strong effect on proteome 299 quantification, 8 of which are known SFPs. Euclidean distance correlation identified three 300 different clusters for these 37 proteins, which coincide with the three experimental evolution 301 302 thermal regimes (Fig. 3a). A partial least-squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) supported these findings (Fig. 3b). We identified 5 and 16 proteins that were singularly over and under-303 expressed, respectively, by males that evolved in the hot regime, eight and two that were over 304 305 and under-expressed by males that evolved in the moderate regime, and four and two that were singularly over and under-expressed by males that evolved in the cold regime (Fig.3c). 306 While 80% of the proteins differentially over-expressed in flies from the hot regime have 307 308 been previously identified as SFPs, only one of the differentially overexpressed proteins at the moderate regime, and none at the cold regime, are known SFPs (Fig. 3c, Table S5). We 309 found over-expression of the SFP "Semp1" by males evolved in the hot regimen. This protein 310 has been described to be transferred to females during mating and is necessary to process the 311

ovulation hormone ovulin and the sperm storage protein Acp36DE in mated females
(LaFlamme et al., 2014; Ravi Ram et al., 2006).

Results from mated males closely resembled the above results. Elastic net regression 314 identified 129 proteins as predictor variables with a strong effect on proteome quantification 315 in mated males, 24 previously identified as SFPs. According to the abundance of those 316 proteins, we again identified three different clusters that coincide with the three experimental 317 evolution regimes (Fig. 4a), confirmed by the PLS-DA analysis (Fig. 4b). 16 and 46 proteins 318 were differentially over and under-expressed, respectively, by males evolved in the hot 319 regime. 14 and 13 were differentially over and under-expressed by males evolved in the 320 moderate regime, and 13 and 27 were differentially over and under-expressed by males 321 evolved in the cold regime. 44% of the proteins over-expressed by males evolved in the hot 322 regime are known SFPs, while 7,4% and 7,6% of the proteins differentially over-expressed at 323 moderate and cold thermal regimes, respectively, are known SFPs (Fig 4c, Table S5). We 324 found higher expression of the ovulation hormone (ovulin) by males evolved in the hot 325 regime and higher expression of Acp70A by males evolved in the cold regime. 326

Finally, focusing exclusively on the 149 proteins previously identified as SFPs, we found that, for both virgin and mated males, clusters consistently aligned with the thermal regimes. Elastic net regression identified 56 and 85 proteins as predictor variables with a strong effect on SFPs quantification in virgin and mated males, respectively. Importantly, SFPs responsible for inducing physiological and behavioural changes in mated females were predominantly over-expressed by males evolved in the hot regime, regardless of mating status (Fig. 5).

334 Strong thermal GxE in male reproductive success of the ancestral wild population

For experiment 3, we found clear thermal GxE interactions for male reproductive success $(X^2_{10} = 4.26, P < 0.001)$. The two most common patterns of response (reaction norms) showed male genotypes that either had higher reproductive success at moderate vs. hot and cold temperatures (negative quadratic pattern) or higher reproductive success at hot and cold vs. moderate temperatures (positive quadratic pattern; see Fig. S4).

340 **Discussion**

Here, we combined experimental evolution with behavioural, fitness and proteomic assays in 341 342 Drosophila melanogaster originating from a wild population to show that thermal ecology can drive the evolution and diversification of male pre-copulatory and copulatory sexual 343 344 conflict traits and resulting male harm to females. Our results suggest that temperature might 345 be key to unravel the evolution of sexual conflict and its underlying mechanisms. We further discuss the consequences of this novel finding for: a) our understanding of how populations 346 under strong sexual conflict respond to global warming, b) how the effects of seasonal 347 temperature fluctuations on sexual selection may contribute to maintain standing genetic 348 variation of secondary sexual traits (i.e. lek paradox), and c) how adaptation of male sexually 349 selected traits in response to thermal ecology may foster diversification and reproductive 350 barriers between populations. 351

352

First, we show that there is quick evolution of male harm to temperature after 29 generations of experimental evolution under different thermal regimes. We found higher levels of male harm (net impact of male exposure on female fitness) at temperatures at which flies had evolved to; male harm was lowest at 28°C in flies evolved in the cold regime $(20\pm4^{\circ}C)$ and at 20°C in those evolved in the hot regime $(28\pm4^{\circ}C; Fig. 1)$. In addition, flies evolved in a moderate regime $(24\pm4^{\circ}C)$ exhibited similar levels of harm at 20, 24 and 28°C despite the fact that flies from the ancestral wild population exhibit substantially higher levels of harm at 24 than at 20 or 28°C (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023). In short, we found evidence
that males across replicates evolved in parallel to be more harmful to females at their evolved
thermal environment, as expected under adaptation given that strong sexual selection in
males has led to the evolution of male harm in this species (Holland & Rice, 1999; Kawecki
& Ebert, 2004; Rice, 1996). This findings contribute to the growing body of evidence
indicating that adaptation to novel environments can affect the level of sexual conflict
(Martinossi-Allibert et al., 2018).

Second, we report strong evidence of fast divergent evolution of behavioural vs. 367 368 sperm-related male traits involved in male harm at cold vs. hot regimes. Male harassment of females (pre-copulatory harm) evolved to be considerably less intense and thermally plastic 369 in populations adapted to the cold regime. In contrast, seminal fluid proteins (SFPs) 370 characterized the evolution of male seminal proteomes at hot vs. cold or moderate regimes 371 (Figs. 3-5). This included proteins such as Semp1 and ovulin, which can be harmful to 372 females (Wigby & Chapman, 2005). In fact, comparison of all SFPs across thermal regimes 373 revealed that several proteins from the sex peptide and ovulin networks characterize 374 evolutionary responses to the hot regime (Fig 5). This finding strongly suggests that 375 temperature is likely to be a determining factor in the diversification of traits involved in 376 male harm in Drosophila and, potentially, other ectotherms. The evolution of decreased male 377 harassment at cold regime could be explained, at least partly, by natural selection acting on 378 metabolic rates, with downstream sex-specific effects on sexual selection processes (Arnqvist 379 et al., 2022). Recent theoretical and empirical developments place metabolism as a causative 380 nexus in the evolutionary interplay between ecology, life history, and sexual selection 381 (Arnqvist et al., 2022; Burger et al., 2019). Metabolic rate is intimately bound to temperature 382 across the tree of life, particularly in ectotherms (Brown et al., 2004). Thus, cold 383 temperatures may place a general constraint and/or simply increase the costs of male activity, 384

consequently affecting harassment of females in ectotherms, such that both evolutionary and
plastic responses to cold may generally shift male-male competition towards the postcopulatory arena. In accordance with this idea, the evolution of substantially lower levels of
harassment to females in the cold experimental evolution regime parallels the plastic
reduction of harassment in response to cold temperature observed in the ancestral population
(Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023).

In contrast, there is ample evidence that hot temperatures have particularly strong 391 effects on proteins and sperm phenotype and function across animals (Dougherty et al., 2024; 392 Reinhardt et al., 2015; Sales et al., 2018). For example, high temperatures lead to a reduction 393 in sperm production, motility, viability and longevity (Wang & Gunderson, 2022). Moreover, 394 high temperatures increase entropy, affecting protein folding and reducing the fraction of 395 functional proteins (Berger et al., 2021), and recent findings suggest that hot temperature may 396 397 also impact seminal fluid proteins (Canal Domenech & Fricke, 2022; Martinet et al., 2023). 398 This seems to suggest that hot temperatures may be particularly constraining for postcopulatory sexual selection. Indeed, our results show that temperature does affect both plastic 399 and evolutionary responses of SFPs in Drosophila. We found that SFPs responded 400 401 differentially to evolution at hot regime and, in a recent study with flies from the same ancestral population, we show that hot temperature (28°C) compromises SFPs effects on 402 403 female receptivity (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023). This suggests that plastic SFP responses to hot temperature are maladaptive in the ancestral wild population, and that SFPs of flies 404 evolved at hot regime seem to evolve quickly to maximise male fitness, potentially affecting 405 male harm to females. Incidentally, our results add to the emerging idea that the net fitness 406 407 consequences of SFPs to females (i.e. whether they are beneficial, neutral or costly) largely depend on environmental conditions (Hopkins & Perry 2022). To conclude, our results show 408 that evolutionary responses to coarse-grained but natural temperature fluctuations can drive 409

the divergent evolution of male traits involved in male harm to females. We suggest that
these responses may be widespread across the tree of life, potentially explaining the diversity
of traits involved in male harm across taxa and fostering speciation by contributing to
establish reproductive barriers among populations.

Third, quick divergent evolution of pre- and copulatory mechanisms of harm would 414 415 only be possible via strong selection operating on high levels of standing genetic variation in the ancestral population (Anderson, 2012). One possibility is that such high levels of standing 416 genetic variation on male secondary sexual traits are maintained in the ancestral population 417 via adaptive phenotypic plasticity (West-Eberhard, 2003). This is consistent with the recent 418 finding, in *Drosophila* from this wild population, of high levels of thermal plasticity in both 419 pre- and copulatory harm traits within the same range of temperatures studied here (Londoño-420 Nieto et al., 2023). As stated above, male flies in the ancestral wild population respond to 421 422 cold temperature by decreasing harassment to females, and flies evolved under the cold 423 temperature regime evolved to harass females less and their harassment was less plastic in response to temperature variation. The clear loss of ancestral plasticity is suggestive of 424 processes maintaining adaptive phenotypic plasticity in the ancestral wild population. An 425 interesting possibility is that regular/predictable temperature fluctuations at a fine-grained 426 ecological scale (e.g. circadian variation) in nature may, via temperature effects on sexual 427 selection in males, contribute to maintain high levels of thermal adaptive phenotypic 428 plasticity in secondary sexual traits. Such plasticity could, in turn, allow for substantial levels 429 of cryptic genetic variation on which later directional selection could operate (e.g. via 430 selective sweeps and/or genetic assimilation), which could explain the evolutionary responses 431 in our experimental populations. However, as discussed above plastic SFPs responses to hot 432 temperatures in the ancestral population appeared maladaptive (Londoño-Nieto et al., 2023). 433 Furthermore, we report clear evidence of strong GxE interactions in thermal reaction norms 434

for the reproductive success of male genotypes derived from our ancestral wild population,
estimated under strong sexual selection, that were mostly characterized by clear quadratic
reaction norms of opposing sign (Fig. S4). This suggests the existence of fitness trade-offs
and, potentially, the operation of some sort of balancing selection in the ancestral population.

There is piling evidence for seasonal balancing selection in Drosophila in traits under 439 440 natural selection, mostly driven by adaptation to starvation, temperature stress and the seasonal boom-and-burst population dynamics typical of this and other invertebrate species 441 (Bergland et al., 2014; Hoffmann et al., 2005; Machado et al., 2021; Rudman et al., 2022). 442 Our results open the possibility of similar balancing selection via sexual selection processes, 443 which could contribute to explain the maintenance of high levels of additive genetic variation 444 on male secondary sexual traits, a classic conundrum in evolutionary biology (i.e. the "lek 445 paradox"; Kirkpatrick & Ryan, 1991). Thus, balancing selection in males may be at least 446 partly characterised by trade-offs that involve sexual selection processes, such as for example 447 investment in pre- vs. post-copulatory competition in cold vs. hot temperatures. An arising 448 prediction of this idea is that we would expect sexual differences in the type of trade-offs that 449 result from balancing selection in the wild. In accordance, temperature clines have led to a 450 negative association between resistance to starvation and cold resistance in female, but not 451 male, Drosophila melanogaster (Hoffmann et al., 2002,2005). We suggest future studies 452 should investigate the role that temperature effects on sexual selection may play in sex-453 specific balancing selection, and the resulting maintenance of additive genetic variation in 454 male secondary sexual traits. 455

456 Conclusions

457 Our results show that temperature may be an important abiotic ecological factor in the458 evolution of male harm, with implications for research on adaptation to global warming, the

maintenance of variability in secondary sexual traits and the diversification of male harm 459 mechanisms across populations. In addition, the finding that the male seminal proteome 460 evolves rapidly in response to temperature, and that this response is characterized by the 461 differential expression of SFPs in males evolved at the hot regime, may have implications for 462 the study of temperature effects on fertility (e.g. thermal fertility limits). We suggest future 463 research should further study plastic and evolutionary responses of SFPs to temperature, and 464 ensuing effects on female reproduction and fertility at large. Finally, here we used an 465 experimental evolution approach that largely arrests the evolution of female resistance to 466 467 male harm, but a priority for future research should be to understand whether and how temperature may affect the evolution of female resistance to harm. 468

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Table 1. Sample sizes (number of vials) for female reproductive success and survivorship experience	riments.
For behaviour assays, we observed a subset of 30 vials per replicate per each treatment com	bination
(120 total).	

9	Mating system		Regime of evolution													
atur		Cold				Moderate					Hot					
emperatur treatment		Replicate			Tatal	Replicate				Tetel	Replicate				T. 4.1	
Temperature treatment		A	В	С	D	Total	Е	F	G	Н	Total	Ι	J	K	L	Total
200	Monogamy	42	41	42	41	166	43	41	41	43	168	39	38	41	39	157
20°	Polyandry	42	43	43	43	171	43	43	38	43	167	44	43	41	39	167
24°	Monogamy	42	32	43	45	162	41	40	39	42	162	38	39	41	35	153
24*	Polyandry	44	38	36	45	163	42	43	39	41	165	36	35	40	41	152
28°	Monogamy	43	43	43	36	165	42	41	44	45	172	43	44	42	36	165
28°	Polyandry	43	41	44	35	163	44	44	40	45	173	45	44	44	36	169

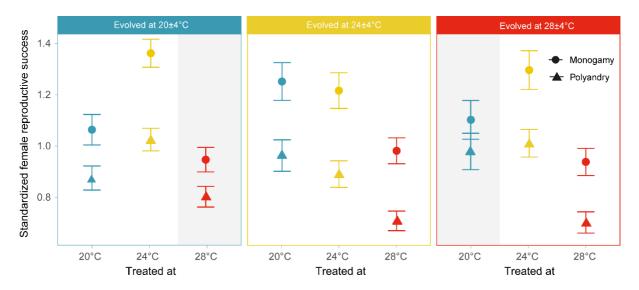


Figure 1 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on female fitness. Female reproductive success (mean \pm s.e. of four replicates) across mating systems (monogamy and polyandry), temperature treatments (20, 24 and 28°C) and experimental evolution thermal regimes (20 \pm 4, 24 \pm 4 and 28 \pm 4°C). Male harm, indicated by the comparison of female reproductive success between monogamy and polyandry, was higher when flies were treated at temperatures within the thermal regime of evolution, compared to those outside this range (shaded panels). Data for each experimental evolution regime was standardized by dividing each value by the mean of the regime.

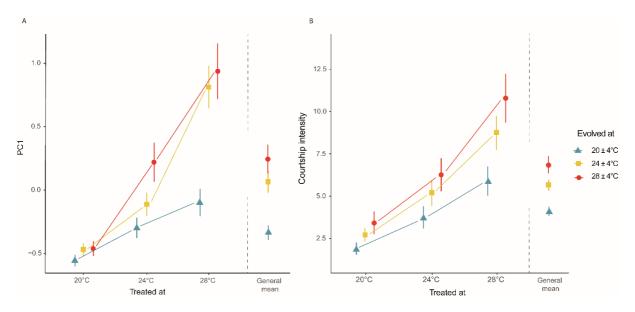


Figure 2 | Effect of temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on pre-copulatory male harm. A) Mean (\pm s.e.) for PC1 from a PCA including behaviours causally related with pre-copulatory harm (courtship intensity, female rejection and male-male aggression), for assays at increased sexual conflict (i.e. polyandry) across experimental evolution regimes. We took this PC1 as an overall index of male-male competition and harassment to females. B) Mean (\pm s.e.) for overall courtship intensity for assays at increased sexual conflict (i.e. polyandry) across experimental evolution regimes.

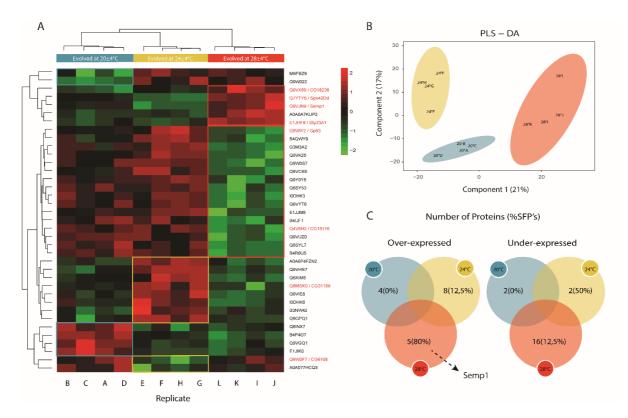


Figure 3 | **Effect of experimental evolution regime on virgin males' seminal proteome**. A) Heatmap showing the abundance of 37 proteins selected by the Elastic net regression. Each cell gives the acrossbiological replicate mean for that protein in each experimental evolution thermal regime and replicate. Boxes denote proteins singularly over and under-expressed at each experimental evolution thermal regime. B) PLS – DA plot of the proteins. Points represent all samples according to experimental evolution thermal regime and replicate. Ellipses denote variability among samples. C) Venn diagrams showing the number of proteins over and under-expressed (within the 37 proteins selected), and the corresponding percentage of SFPs, by males evolved in each experimental evolution thermal regime. Semp1 protein (Q9VJN9) was singularly over-expressed by males evolved in the hot regime. It is a seminal fluid metalloprotease which is transferred to females during mating and is required to process ovulin (Acp26Aa) and a protein which is essential for sperm storage (Acp36DE) in mated females.

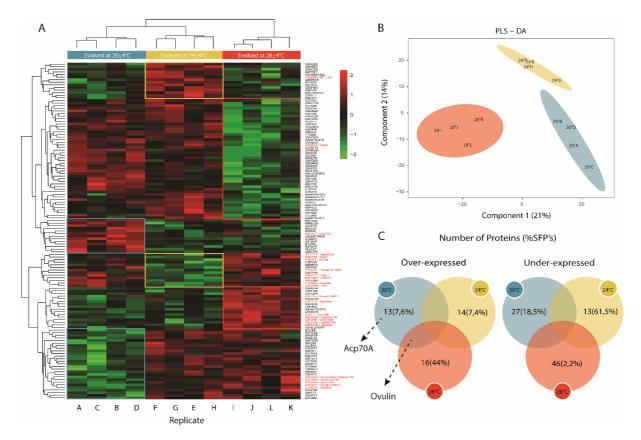


Figure 4 | **Effect of experimental evolution regime on mated males' seminal proteome**. A) Heatmap showing the abundance of 129 proteins selected by the Elastic net regression. Each cell gives the acrossbiological replicate mean for that protein in a given experimental evolution thermal regime and replicate. Boxes denote proteins singularly over and under-expressed at each experimental evolution thermal regime. B) PLS – DA plot of proteins. Points represent all samples according to experimental evolution thermal regime and replicate. Ellipses denote variability among samples. C) Venn diagrams showing the number of proteins over and under-expressed (inside the 129 proteins selected), and the corresponding percentage of SFPs, by males evolved in each experimental evolution thermal regime. Ovulin, a seminal fluid which enhances ovulation in female *Drosophila* by stimulating the release of oocytes by the ovary following mating, was over-expressed by males evolved in the hot regime. Acp70A, a seminal fluid which regulates female receptivity, was over-expressed by males evolved in cold regime.

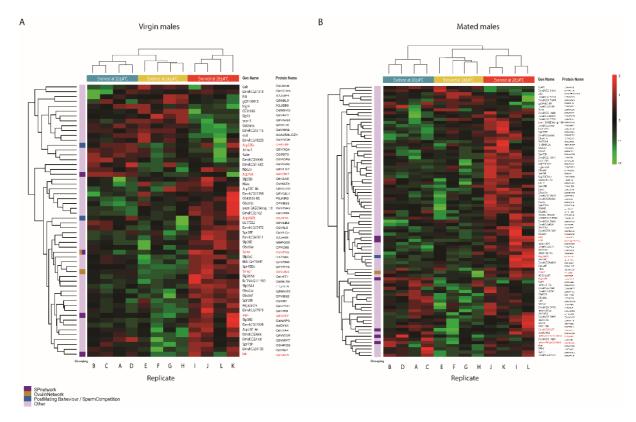


Figure 5 | **Effect of experimental evolution regime on SFPs of virgin and mated males**. A) Heatmap showing the abundance of 56 proteins selected by the Elastic net regression for virgin males. B) Heatmap showing the abundance of 85 proteins selected by the Elastic net regression for mated males. Each cell gives the across-biological replicate mean for that protein in a given experimental evolution thermal regime and replicate. Boxes denote proteins singularly over and under-expressed at each experimental evolution thermal regime. Row annotations provide functional information relating to protein functions as part of the sex peptide or ovulin networks or other known roles in sperm competition.

1 Supplementary Information

2 Materials and Methods

3 Experimental evolution design

Experimental evolution started in February 2020 for all populations, and finished in August 4 2021 for the hot regime, in October 2021 for the moderate regime and in April 2022 for the 5 6 cold regime. Specifically, four populations (replicates A, B, C and D) evolved at 20±4°C (cold regime fluctuating daily between 16 and 24°C); four populations (replicates E, F, G 7 and H) at 24 ± 4 °C (moderate regime fluctuating daily between 20 and 28°C), and four 8 populations (replicates I, J, K and L) at 28±4°C (hot regime fluctuating daily between 24 9 and 32° C) (Fig. S1). Sample size was N = 200 (100 males and 100 females) for all 10 11 populations. Providing specific estimates of Ne is difficult due to male and female promiscuity and male-male competition (patterns of sperm competition), which would 12 affect effective population size (Ne) depending on factors such as the number of mates per 13 14 female and the extent of sperm displacement. For example, while male-male competition 15 can increase Ne by creating more mating opportunities, it can also lead to increased 16 variance in reproductive success. This variance may reduce Ne if highly competitive males 17 dominate fertilizations across multiple females, especially given Drosophila 18 melanogaster's tendency for sperm displacement (strong last-male sperm precedence). 19 However, even with these dynamics, previous studies on this species indicate that a 20 population size of 100 males and 100 females (with females mating with multiple males) yields Ne~150 or higher and sufficiently large to mitigate genetic drift and inbreeding 21 22 (Reuter et al., 2008; Rice & Holland, 2005; Snook et al., 2009).

23 Each group was maintained in a dedicated pre-programmed incubator that controlled for its specific temperature regime throughout the experimental period. All incubators were 24 identical in brand and model (Memmert IPP110plus), programmed with the same protocol, 25 26 and housed in the same room with consistent external temperatures. Lighting conditions were exactly the same (12:12 photoperiod and same luminance profile) across incubators. 27 Each incubator had integrated sensors to monitor temperature and humidity continuously, 28 29 which we supplemented with additional redundant sensors (Sense Anywhere Temp+RH Module model 01-01-20) to ensure precise monitoring of environmental conditions. These 30 31 sensors recorded data in real-time, which we monitored online daily to verify that the 32 thermal regimens, treatments, and temperature fluctuations remained stable. Finally, experimental regimes were rotated across different incubators during the experimental 33 evolution period. Different developmental times at each thermal regime led to differences 34 in the duration of experimental evolution across treatments. Populations from the hot 35 regime were assayed between September and October 2021, from the moderate regime 36 between November and December 2021 and from the cold regime between June and July 37 2022. This prevented post-evolution assays from being conducted simultaneously across 38 39 experimental evolution regimes, but there are three main reasons why we don't expect 40 biases in our estimates across regimes. First and foremost, behavioural and fitness assays incorporate internal controls as we are always comparing the drop in behaviours/fitness 41 between monogamy and polyandry, across the three temperature treatments. For our aims, 42 it is these relative changes that matter (as well as their interactions), not overall changes in 43 44 behavioural rates and/or fitness across experimental evolution regimes. This also explains why we standardized our data within each experimental evolution regime and why we 45 never attempted to compare overall levels of harm or associated behaviours across 46

experimental evolution regimes. We standardized the data within each evolutionary thermal 47 regime by dividing each observation by the overall mean for that regime. By standardizing 48 within each regime, we ensure that we compare relative changes within experimental 49 50 evolution treatments. This approach emphasizes variability and patterns within each regime relative to its own baseline, facilitating clearer comparisons across regimes in terms of 51 52 relative (e.g. how much fitness drops between monogamy and polygamy and/or across the 53 three temperature treatments, and the interaction between these two) and not absolute effects. Importantly, this also controls for any potential residual block effects (i.e. 54 55 independent of mating system and treated temperature) on overall fitness or behavioural 56 rates across experimental regimes, which is not the focus of our analysis. Second, we were meticulous about standardizing lab conditions to ensure a common garden. All post-57 evolution assays followed identical protocols. The flies used in each assay were of the same 58 age, and temperature treatments were managed under strictly controlled conditions. As 59 previously explained, we used the same incubators (Memmert IPP110plus), equipped with 60 both integrated and supplementary sensors for redundant monitoring of temperature and 61 humidity in real-time, allowing for daily online verification to ensure temperature stability 62 throughout the treatments. Female offspring were similarly incubated under identical 63 64 temperature controls before being frozen for subsequent counting. Lighting conditions were exactly the same (12:12 photoperiod and luminance profile). All behaviorual and proteomic 65 assays were conducted in the same temperature controlled (TC) room, with the same 66 lighting, and constant temperature and humidity control with redundant sensors and a 67 68 portable high-sensitive probe to ensure consistent environmental conditions in the panels where vials were assayed, within the TC room. We also ensured that all assays were 69 conducted in days with good weather, to control for the potential influence of drops in 70

barometric pressure on mating behaviour (see Table S1 below). Third, for proteomic

72 quantification, all assayed males across experimental evolution regimes were dissected at

the same time (i.e. in balanced order across the same days) and proteomic analyses

real conducted at the same time for all samples, to avoid block effects.

75 <u>Behavioural assays (experiment 1)</u>

Immediately after the fitness experiment started, we conducted behavioural observations on 76 the first day of the experiment across all temperature treatments. We conducted behavioural 77 observations in the same TC room, so we had to conduct trials at 20°C, 24°C, and 28°C 78 79 over three consecutive days (with both monogamy and polyandry treatments and the 4 replicates evaluated at the same time for each temperature -240 vials-). Note that we 80 collected virgin flies over three consecutive days to ensure all flies were 4-5 days-old at the 81 82 start of the experiment. Observations started at lights-on (9 a.m.) and lasted for 8 hr, during which time we continuously recorded reproductive behaviours using scan sampling of vials 83 with an all-occurrences recording rule. Scans consisted of observing all vials in succession 84 for approximately 3 seconds each (i.e. one scan per vial every ~ 12 minutes), during which 85 we recorded all instances of the behaviours specified in the main text. Observers were blind 86 to the population replicate but not to the sociosexual context (i.e. monogamy vs. polygamy, 87 obvious from observing the vial) or the experimental evolution regime (i.e. due to trials 88 being conducted at different times; see above). 89

90 <u>Male harm and behavioural analysis (experiment 1)</u>

In all cases, we assessed fit and validated models by visual inspections of diagnostic plots
on raw and residual data (Zuur et al., 2010). For reproductive success, we used normal

distribution with an "*identity*" as link function. For courtship and aggression rates, a zero 93 94 inflated distribution was applied, while for female rejection rate, we used a negative binomial distribution with "log" as link function. Graphical inspection of the modelled 95 component 1 of the PCA, revealed that the normality assumption was apparently violated. 96 Natural logarithm transformation solved these problems and allowed us to run a LMM with 97 a Gaussian error distribution and an "identity" as link function. As our replicates are from 98 99 different populations, we also fitted random slopes models for correlated fixed effects of temperature evolution regime and temperature treatment (Arnqvist, 2020). However, in all 100 cases we found that fixed slopes models presented the minimum AICc value, supporting 101 102 them as the best models given the trade-off between fit to the data and model complexity (Konishi & Kitagawa, 2008); but we note results did not change qualitatively in either case. 103 104 We performed model selection by backward stepwise elimination; refitting models without the triple interaction where necessary to arrive at the minimal adequate model. Replicate 105 population was kept on all analyses to control for this variation. We also run post hoc 106 Tukey's test as an additional way to explore interactions while controlling for inflation of 107 experiment-wise type 1 error rate. 108

109 <u>Proteomics assays (experiment 2)</u>

110 Proteomics sample preparation

Protein extraction and preparation of the SWATH experiment (library and samples) were
carried out in the proteomics laboratory of the University of Valencia, Spain, according with
the procedure indicated below.

114 Total protein extracts were prepared by centrifugation of each sample at 13000 rpm 15 min. 115 Supernatants were discarded and pellets suspended in 50 μ L of Laemmli buffer 1.5 X. Vortex 116 5 min and sonicated 5 min. Total protein concentration was calculated using Machery Nagel 117 kit. To prepare library and each sample for SWATH experiment appropriate volume of 118 sample (7.5 μ g/sample to SWATH and 25 μ g of mixed samples to perform library) was 119 denatured at 95°C during 5 min.

120 Spectral Library Building

Aliquots with an equivalent amount of a selection of samples were mixed to make a pool for building the spectral library (25 μ g). The library electrophoresis was performed using a 12% precast gel (Bio-Rad) at 200V for 30 min. Gels were fixed with 40% ethanol/10% acetic acid for one hour and stained with colloidal Coomassie (Bio-Rad) for 15 min. Gels were destained with H₂O milliQ and cutted into six pieces for protein digestion.

126 In gel protein digestion

127 The career corresponding to the library was cutted into 6 pieces and then was digested with sequencing grade trypsin (Promega) as described by Shevchenko et al., 1996. 500 ng of 128 trypsin were used for each sample, and digestion was set to 37°C on. Trypsin digestion was 129 stopped with 10% TFA, the SN was removed, and the library gel slides were dehydrated with 130 pure ACN(Shevchenko et al., 1996). The new peptide solutions were combined with the 131 corresponding SN. The peptide mixtures were dried in a speed vacuum and re suspended in 132 2% ACN; 0.1% TFA (15 µL) before LC-MS/MS (Liquid chromatography and tandem mass 133 spectrometry/mass spectrometry) analysis. 134

135 *LC-MS/MS analysis*

Peptides were analysed using an Ekspert nanoLC 425 nanoflow system (Eksigent 136 137 Technologies, ABSCIEX) coupled to a mass spectrometer nanoESI qQTOF MS (6600 plus TripleTOF, ABSCIEX). 5 µl of peptide mixture sample was loaded onto a trap column (3µ 138 C18-CL, 350 um x 0.5 mm; Eksigent) and desalted with 0.1% TFA at 5 ul/min during 5 min. 139 Peptides were then loaded onto an analytical column (3 µ C18-CL 120 Å, 0.075 x 150 mm; 140 Eksigent) equilibrated in 5% acetonitrile 0.1% FA (formic acid). Elution was carried out with 141 142 a linear gradient of 7 to 40% B in A for 120 min. (A: 0.1% FA; B: ACN, 0.1% FA) at a flow rate of 300 nL/min. Samples were ionized in a Source Type: Optiflow < 1 µl Nano applying 143 3.0 kV to the spray emitter at 200 °C. Analysis was carried out in a data-dependent mode. 144 145 Survey MS1 scans were acquired from 350–1400 m/z for 250 ms. The quadrupole resolution was set to 'LOW' for MS2 experiments, which were acquired 100-1500 m/z for 25 ms in 146 'high sensitivity' mode. Following switch criteria were used: charge: 2+ to 4+; minimum 147 intensity; 250 counts per second (cps). Up to 100 ions were selected for fragmentation after 148 each survey scan. Dynamic exclusion was set to 15 s. The rolling collision energies equations 149 were set for all ions as for 2+ ions according to the following equations: 150 |CE|=(slope)x(m/z)+(intercept). The system sensitivity was controlled by analysing 500 ng 151 of K562 trypsin digestion (Sciex). The system sensitivity was controlled with 2 fmol 152 153 PepCalMix (LC Packings).

154 Protein Identification

ProteinPilot default parameters were used to generate peak list directly from 6600 TripleTof
wiff files. The Paragon algorithm (Shilov et al., 2007) of ProteinPilot v 5.0 search engine
(ABSciex) was used to search the Uniprot insecta and Uniprot Drosophila database with the

following parameters: Trypsin specificity, IAM cys-alkylation and the search effort set tothrough and FDR correction.

160 The protein grouping was done by Pro group algorithm: A protein group in a Pro Group 161 Report is a set of proteins that share some physical evidence. Unlike sequence alignment 162 analyses where full-length theoretical sequences are compared, the formation of protein 163 groups in Pro Group is guided entirely by observed peptides only. Since the observed 164 peptides are determined from experimentally acquired spectra, the grouping can be 165 considered to be guided by usage of spectra. Then, unobserved regions of protein sequence 166 play no role in explaining the data.

167 SWATH analysis of individual samples

For individual SWATH analysis 7.5 μ g of total protein extract was loaded in a 1D_SDS_PAGE gel to clean and concentrate samples. Gel fraction was cut and the sample was digested with sequencing grade trypsin (Promega) as described elsewhere (Shevchenko et al., 1996). 500 ng of trypsin in 100 μ l of ABC solution was used. The digestion was stopped with TFA (1% final concentration), a double extraction with ACN was done and all the peptide solutions and dried in a rotatory evaporator. Sample was re suspended with 15 μ L of 2% ACN; 0.1% TFA.

175 SWATH LC-MS/MS Analysis

5 μl of each sample were loaded onto a trap column (3μ C18-CL 120 Å, 350 μm x 0.5mm;
Eksigent) and desalted with 0.1% TFA at 5 μl/min during 5 min. Peptides were loaded onto
an analytical column (3μ C18-CL 120 Å, 0.075 x 150 mm; Eksigent) equilibrated in 5%
acetonitrile 0.1% FA (formic acid). Peptide elution was carried out with a linear gradient of

7 to 40% B in 120 min (A: 0.1% FA; B: ACN, 0.1% FA) for at a flow rate of 300 nl/min.
Peptides were analysed in a mass spectrometer nanoESI qQTOF (6600plus TripleTOF,
ABSCIEX).

183 Sample was ionized in a Source Type: Optiflow $< 1 \mu l$ Nano applying 3.0 kV to the spray

- 184 emitter at 200°C. The tripleTOF was operated in swath mode, in which 0.050-s TOF MS scan
- from 350–1250 m/z was performed, followed by 0.080-s product ion scans from 350–1250
- m/z. 100 variable windows from 400 to 1250 m/z were acquired throughout the experiment.
- 187 The total cycle time was 2.79 secs. The individual SWATH injections were randomized.

188 Protein quantification

The wiff files obtained from SWATH experiment were analysed by Peak View 2.2. The processing settings used for the peptide selection were: 20 peptides per protein, 6 transitions per peptide, 95% peptide confidence threshold, 1.0% false discovery rate threshold, peptides modified excluded, 5 min XIC extraction window and 25 ppm XIC width.

193 Retention times of the detected peptides were alienate using major proteins to calibrate 194 retention times. With the extraction parameters of the areas used, proteins (FDR <1%) were 195 quantified in the 72 samples.

196 *Data analysis*

We normalized the protein areas calculated by the total sum of the areas of all the quantified proteins. We used an elastic net penalized logistic regression model to analyse our data sets. The elastic net regression is a hybrid method that combines features of Lasso and Ridge regularization techniques. This method is particularly suited for situations where the number of predictors far exceeds the number of observations, as it performs both regularization and

202	variable selection. The elastic net is controlled by two key parameters: α , which balances the
203	contribution of Lasso (α =1) and Ridge (α =0) regularization, and λ , which determines the
204	overall strength of the penalization. The optimal value of α and λ is typically estimated using
205	cross-validation (Zou & Hastie, 2005). The optimal values for our analyses are in the Table
206	S10
207	<u>GxE assay (experiment 3)</u>
208	We used Nakagawa's R-squared (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013) to extract the variance
209	explained by each model, analysed random effects using ranef function from lme4 (Bates et
210	al., 2015), and tested via likelihood ratio tests for significance. For reproductive success of
211	focal males we used beta distribution with "logit" as link function.
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251 Results

252 <u>Behaviorual assays (experiment 1)</u>

253 Analysing behaviours involved in male harassment separately, as well as effects across mating system, yielded qualitatively very similar results to those reported in the main 254 manuscript (using PC1 of a PCA on all behaviours known to play a role in pre-copulatroy 255 harm). First, experimental evolution regime affected overall aggression ($X_2^2 = 10.18$, P = 256 0.006) and female rejection rate ($X_2^2 = 9.31$, P = 0.009), with lower levels of both variables 257 at colder regimes (Figs. S5-8). Courtship rate and rejection rate per courtship exhibited a 258 259 trend in the same direction, but the effect was not significant (Figs. S9-12), suggesting that 260 the increase in male avoidance behaviour could imply an increase in female probability to reject male courtships. However, the interpretation of the female rejections per courtship 261 262 requires caution, given that its calculation was only possible 30% of the observation time (when courtship rate differs from 0). Second, we found that flies evolved at the cold 263 thermal regime were less thermally plastic for aggression than flies from the other regimes 264 265 (i.e., flatter reaction norms: experimental evolution x temperature treatment interaction: X_{2}^{2} = 11.81, P = 0.018; Figs. S4-5 and Table S6). Courtship intensity exhibited a clear trend in 266 the same direction as aggression rate (Figs. S11-12) albeit this effect was not significant 267 (experimental evolution x treatment temperature interaction: $X^2_4 = 6.21$, P = 0.183). Female 268 rejection (experimental evolution x temperature treatment interaction: $X_{4}^{2} = 12.52$, P = 269 270 0.013) and female rejection per courtship (experimental evolution x temperature treatment interaction: $X_{4}^{2} = 11.76$, P = 0.019) exhibited less thermal plasticity in flies evolved at 271 moderate regime (Figs. S7-10 and Table S7). Finally, courtship rate varied greatly across 272 273 mating systems and the strength of this effect varied considerably across temperature

- treatments (mating system x treatment temperature interaction: $X^2 = 18.37$, P < 0.001),
- suggesting less harassment in flies treated at 20°C and more in flies treated at 28°C (Figs.
- 276 S11-12; Table S8).

277 <u>Proteomics assays (experiment 2)</u>

- 278 The parameters used for the analysis of the whole proteome and the subset of seminal fluid
- 279 proteins for both virgin and mated males are specified in the Table S10.

Table S1. Range of atmospheric pressure (hPa) recorded during experimental periods for each
 experimental evolution regime. Behavioural observations and proteomics experiments were
 conducted over a shorter duration of 3 days, while the male harm experiment lasted six weeks.

	28±4°C		24±4°C		20±4°C	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Behavioural observations	1011,6	1018,7	1007	1016,7	1004,4	1012,5
Proteomics	1008,2	1020,5	1000,9	1017,5	1001,3	1007,6
Male Harm Experiment	996,7	1020,5	994,2	1023,9	1002,9	1016,1
			Mea	n ± SD		
Male Harm Experiment	1013,16	1008,88	1013,93	$1008{,}72\pm$	1011,13	1007,83
Wate Harm Experiment	\pm 4,01	$\pm 4,70$	$\pm 6,49$	7,30	$\pm 2,12$	$\pm 2,32$

Table S2. Summary statistics from a PCA conducted on reproductive behaviours for polyandry 286 mating system. a) variance, eigenvalue, and loadings associated with the three principal components 287 (PCs). b) summary statistics from fitting linear mixed models for each experimental evolution regime 288 289 due to its significant interaction with temperature treatment c) temperature treatment contrast table from Tukey's post hoc from the full model as an additional way to explore the interaction. 290

291

292 a)

		PC1	PC2	РС3
Variance explained (%	6)	67.72	22.86	9.42
Eigenvalue		2.03	0.68	0.28
	Courtship rate	0.63	0.28	0.73
Loadings	Aggression rate	0.48	-0.87	
	Rejection rate	0.61	0.40	-0.68

293

294 b)

Experimental	PC1					
evolution regime	Effect	F	Df	Df.res	P value	
20±4°C	Temperature treatment	11.71	2	347	<0.001	
24±4°C	Temperature treatment	32.88	2	345	<0.001	
28±4°C	Temperature treatment	27.21	2	347	<0.001	

295

296 c)

Experimental	PC1						
evolution regime	Contrast	Estimate	SE	df	t-value	P value	
	$20^\circ - 24^\circ$	-0.31	0.117	1039	-2.64	0.022	
20±4°C	$28^\circ - 24^\circ$	0.19	0.117	1039	1.62	0.237	
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	0.50	0.116	1039	4.30	<0.001	
	$20^\circ - 24^\circ$	-0.32	0.117	1039	-2.74	0.017	
24±4°C	28° – 24°	0.62	0.117	1039	5.29	<0.001	
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	0.94	0.117	1039	8.03	<0.001	
	$20^\circ - 24^\circ$	-0.47	0.117	1039	-4.00	<0.001	
28±4°C	$28^\circ - 24^\circ$	0.47	0.116	1039	4.09	<0.001	
	28° – 20°	0.94	0.117	1039	8.03	<0.001	

Table S3. a) Summary statistics from fitting linear mixed models for each experimental evolution regime due to significant interactions between experimental evolution regime and both temperature treatment and mating system. b) polyandry – monogamy and c) temperature treatment contrast table from Tukey's post hoc from the full model as an additional way to explore interactions. d) statistical test of non-significant results.

303 a)

Experimental	Female reproductive success						
evolution regime	Effect	F	Df	Df_2	P value		
20 + 490	Temperature treatment	28.37	2	983.24	<0.001		
20±4°C	Mating system	33.08	1	983.03	<0.001		
24±4°C*	Temperature treatment	0.96	2	1.99	0.510		
24±4 C.	Mating system	40.51	1	994.59	<0.001		
28+4°C	Temperature treatment	14.60	2	956.11	<0.001		
$28\pm4^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$	Mating system	18.56	1	956.01	<0.001		

304

*For this thermal regime random slopes model presented the minimum AICc value

305 b)

Experimental	Female reproductive success					
evolution regime	Estimate	SE	Df_2	t-value	P value	
20±4°C	21.4	5.45	2937	3.930	<0.001	
24±4°C	39.7	5.40	2937	7.339	<0.001	
28±4°C	26.2	5.53	2937	4.733	<0.001	

306

307

c)

308

Experimental	Female reproductive success						
evolution regime	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df_2	t-value	P value	
	20° – 24°	-21.72	6.67	2940	-3.265	0.003	
20±4°C	$20^\circ - 28^\circ$	12.32	6.65	2939	1.852	0.153	
	24° – 28°	34.04	6.72	2941	5.064	<0.001	
	20° – 24°	7.15	6.66	2939	1.073	0.530	
24±4°C	20° – 28°	34.61	6.58	2939	5.264	<0.001	
	24° – 28°	27.46	6.62	2939	4.150	<0.001	
	20° – 24°	-13.84	6.84	2939	-2.023	0.106	
28±4°C	20° – 28°	25.47	6.69	2939	3.808	< 0.001	
	24° – 28°	39.31	6.79	2940	5.785	<0.001	

309

310

311 312 d)

Female reproductive success						
Effect	F	Df	Df_2	P value		

Experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment x mating system	0.423	4	2933	0.791
Temperature treatment x mating system	1.792	2	2933	0.166

Table S4. a) Summary statistics from fitting Cox PH mixed models separately for each experimental 315 evolution regime due to significant interactions between experimental evolution regime and both 316 temperature treatment and mating system. b) contrast table from Tukey's post hoc from the full model 317 318 as an additional way to explore experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment and mating 319 system interaction. c) Summary statistics from fitting Cox PH mixed models separately for each temperature treatment due to significant interaction with mating system d) contrast table from 320 321 Tukey's post hoc from the full model as an additional way to explore mating system x temperature treatment interaction. e) statistical test of non-significant results. 322

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- 325

a)

Experimental	Lifespan						
evolution regime	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value			
20 + 49 C	Temperature treatment	134.37	2	<0.001			
20±4°C	Mating system	299.81	1	<0.001			
24 + 490	Temperature treatment	234.34	2	<0.001			
24±4°C	Mating system	311.66	1	<0.001			
29 + 49 C	Temperature treatment	310.42	2	<0.001			
28±4°C	Mating system	266.45	1	<0.001			

326 327

b)

Experimental		Lif	espan			
evolution regime	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df2	t-value	P value
	$20^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$	-0.48	0.08	Inf	-5.96	<0.001
20 1 49 0	$20^\circ - 28^\circ$	-0.87	0.08	Inf	-10.67	<0.001
20±4°C	24° – 28°	-0.38	0.08	Inf	-4.86	<0.001
	Polyandry - Monogamy	-1.11	0.07	Inf	-16.430	<0.001
	20° – 24°	-0.80	0.09	Inf	-9.31	<0.001
24±4°C*	$20^\circ - 28^\circ$	-1.52	0.09	Inf	-17.59	<0.001
24±4 C	$24^\circ - 28^\circ$	-0.72	0.08	Inf	-9.04	<0.001
	Polyandry - Monogamy	-1.37	0.07	Inf	-19.863	<0.001
	$20^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$	-0.89	0.08	Inf	-10.35	<0.001
28±4°C	$20^\circ - 28^\circ$	-1.67	0.08	Inf	-19.48	<0.001
	$24^\circ - 28^\circ$	-0.78	0.08	Inf	-9.68	<0.001
	Polyandry - Monogamy	-1.27	0.07	Inf	-18.268	<0.001

328

329

c)

Temperature	Lifespan									
treatment	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value						
20°C	Mating system	235.28	1	<0.001						
24°C	Mating system	369.63	1	<0.001						
28°C	Mating system	298.31	1	<0.001						

d)

Lifespan										
Temperature treatment	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df_2	t-value	P value				
20°C	Dolwonday	-1.22	0.07	Inf	-16.984	<0.001				
24°C	Polyandry -	-1.40	0.07	Inf	-20.054	<0.001				
28°C	Monogamy	-1.12	0.06	Inf	-17.225	<0.001				

333

e)

335

Lifespan			
Effect	Chisq	Df	P value
Experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment x mating system	8.006	4	0.091

337

340 Table S5. Seminal fluid proteins that were over (+) and under (-) expressed by experimentally

evolved virgin (V) and mated (M) males in different thermal regimens with their respective molecular
 function and biological process.

	20 ±	4°C	24 ±	4°C	$28 \pm 4^{\circ}C$			
	V	М	V	М	V	Μ	Molecular function	Biological process
A0A0B4LGZ1				+				Probable chaperone protein involved in dorsoventral axis patterning in early embryos. Probably acts by folding and targeting pipe into the Golgi.
C0PV13						+		Sexual reproduction
E1JHF8					+			Sexual reproduction
E2QCS7				-			Serine hydrolase activity, triglyceride lipase	Lipid metabolic process, sexual reproduction.
P10333				_			Identical protein binding	Mating, positive regulation of octopamine signalling pathway, positive regulation of ovulation, sexual reproduction, sperm competition
Q4V3K7		+					Hormone activity	Regulation of female receptivity, post-mating behaviour
Q4V566						+	Lipase activity	Lipid catabolic process
Q4V6H2					_		Peroxidase activity, thioredoxin-dependent peroxiredoxin activity	Response to oxidative stress, sexual reproduction
Q6IGA4						+		Sexual reproduction.
Q6GUS0						+		Sexual reproduction
Q7K088				-			Odorant binding	Sensory perception of smell, sensory perception of chemical stimulus, sexual reproduction
Q7KE33		_					Odorant binding	Sensory perception of smell, sensory perception of chemical stimulus, sexual reproduction
Q7YTY6				_	+			Serine protease inhibitor with activity toward trypsin. Involved in innate immunity to fungal infection by negatively regulating the Toll signalling pathway and suppressing the expression of the antifungal peptide drosomycin. Acts upstream of SPE and grass, and downstream of the fungal cell wall pattern recognition receptor GNBP3. May function specifically in the GNBP3- dependent beta-1,3-glucan branch of the Toll pathway.
Q8MSK0			+				Iron ion binding, L- ascorbic acid binding, rocollagen-proline 4- dioxygenase activity	Peptidyl-proline hydroxylation to 4- hydroxy-L-proline, sexual reproduction
Q8MVX6						+	Odorant binding	Sensory perception of chemical stimulus, sexual reproduction
Q8T4B0				-			Metalloaminopeptidase activity, peptide	Peptide catabolic process, proteolysis, sexual reproduction

						binding, zinc ion binding	
Q95S79			_			Wnt-preotein binding	Positive regulation of canonical Wnt signaling pathway, positive regulation of Wnt signaling pathway by establishment of Wnt protein localization to extracellular region, proteolysis
Q9VAY2				_	_	ATP hydrolysis activity, ATP bingind, ATP-dependent protein folding chaperone, unfolded protein binding	Cellular response to heat, endodermal digestive tract morphogenesis, midgut development, protein folding, ubiquitin-dependent ERAD pathway
Q9VII7					+	Serine-type endopeptidase inhibitor activity	Defence response to Gram-negative bacterium, negative regulation of peptidase activity, negative regulation of proteolysis, sexual reproduction
Q9VJN9				+			Seminal fluid metalloprotease which is transferred to females during mating and is required for processing of two other seminal fluid proteins Acp26Aa and Acp36DE in mated females.
Q9VPH9	_						Negative regulation of peptidase activity, sexual reproduction.
Q9VQA3	-						Proteolysis, sexual reproduction
Q9VTL4					+	Metalloaminopeptidase activity, peptide binding, zinc ion binding	Peptide catabolic process, proteolysis, sexual reproduction.
Q9VWT3			-			Glutathione hydrolase activity, peptidyltransferase activity	Glutathione catabolic process, glutathione metabolic process, response to light stimulus, sexual reproduction.
Q9VWV6			-			Iron ion binding	Iron ion transmembrane transport, iron ion transport, olfactory behaviour, response to fungus
Q9VX69	_			+		lipase activity, methyl indole-3-acetate esterase activity, serine hydrolase activity, triglyceride lipase activity	Lipid catabolic process, sexual reproduction
Q9W0F7		-					Sexual reproduction
Q9W227	_						PPIases accelerate the folding of proteins. It catalyzes the cis-trans isomerization of proline imidic peptide bonds in oligopeptides.

Table S6. a) Summary statistics from fitting generalized linear mixed models for each experimental
evolution regime due to significant interaction between experimental evolution regime and
temperature treatment for male-male aggression rate. b) temperature treatment contrast table from
Tukey's post hoc from the full model as an additional way to explore the interaction.

- 352
- 353 a)

Experimental	Aggression rate							
evolution regime	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value				
20±4°C	Temperature treatment	0.52	2	0.770				
24±4°C	Temperature treatment	24.60	2	<0.001				
28±4°C	Temperature treatment	9.89	2	0.007				

354

355 b)

Experimental	Aggression rate							
evolution regime	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df2	t-value	P value		
	$20^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$	0.16	0.33	1037	0.50	0.869		
20±4°C	28° – 24°	0.09	0.26	1037	0.37	0.924		
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	-0.07	0.30	1037	-0.21	0.974		
	$20^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$	-0.78	0.26	1037	-2.95	<0.001		
24±4°C	$28^\circ - 24^\circ$	0.36	0.17	1037	2.09	0.091		
	28° – 20°	1.14	0.23	1037	4.88	0.009		
	$20^{\circ} - 24^{\circ}$	-0.83	0.29	1037	-2.87	0.011		
28±4°C	28° – 24°	0.07	0.16	1037	0.49	0.878		
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	0.91	0.28	1037	3.30	0.002		

356

358 Table S7. a) Summary statistics from fitting generalized linear mixed models for each experimental evolution regime due to significant interaction between experimental evolution regime and 359 temperature treatment for rejection rate. b) temperature treatment contrast table from Tukey's post 360 361 hoc from the full model as an additional way to explore the interaction for rejection rate. c) summary statistics from fitting generalized linear mixed models for each experimental evolution regime due to 362 significant interaction between experimental evolution regime and temperature treatment for rejection 363 364 rate per courtship. d) temperature treatment contrast table from Tukey's post hoc from the full model 365 as an additional way to explore the interaction for rejection rate per courtship. e) statistical test of non-significant results for rejection rate. 366

367

368 a)

Experimental	Rejection rate							
evolution regime	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value				
20±4°C	Temperature treatment	10.88	2	0.004				
24±4°C	Temperature treatment	11.5	2	0.003				
28±4°C	Temperature treatment	43.73	2	<0.001				

369 370

370 b)

Experimental	Rejection rate							
evolution regime	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df2	t-value	P value		
	20° – 24°	-1.47	0.42	2116	-3.54	0.001		
20±4°C	28° – 24°	0.50	0.38	2116	1.34	0.374		
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	1.98	0.42	2116	4.77	<0.001		
	$20^\circ - 24^\circ$	-0.39	0.39	2116	-1.00	0.573		
24±4°C	$28^\circ - 24^\circ$	0.31	0.37	2116	0.83	0.680		
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	0.70	0.39	2116	1.82	0.164		
	$20^\circ - 24^\circ$	-2.15	0.40	2116	-5.32	<0.001		
28±4°C	$28^\circ - 24^\circ$	0.18	0.36	2116	0.52	0.862		
	$28^\circ - 20^\circ$	2.34	0.40	2116	5.81	<0.001		

371

372 c)

Experimental	Rejection rate per courtship							
evolution regime	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value				

20±4°C	Temperature treatment	4.66	2	0.097
24±4°C	Temperature treatment	4.30	2	0.116
28±4°C	Temperature treatment	22.11	2	<0.001

373 374 d)

Experimental evolution regime	Rejection rate per courtship					
	Contrast	Estimate	SE	Df_2	t-value	P value
20±4°C	20° – 24°	0.76	0.40	2117	1.91	0.134
	28° – 24°	0.11	0.26	2117	0.43	0.900
	28° – 20°	-0.65	0.39	2117	-1.69	0.207
24±4°C	20° – 24°	0.04	0.29	2117	0.16	0.986
	28° – 24°	-0.28	0.21	2117	-1.34	0.375
	28° – 20°	-0.33	0.27	2117	-1.24	0.427
28±4°C	20° – 24°	1.56	0.35	2117	4.48	<0.001
	28° – 24°	0.22	0.16	2117	1.36	0.361
	28° – 20°	-1.34	0.34	2117	-3.91	<0.001

375

376 e)

Rejection rate			
Effect	Chisq	Df	P value
Experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment x mating system	7.279	4	0.122
Experimental evolution regime x mating system	0.926	2	0.629
Temperature treatment x mating system	1.040	2	0.594

Table S8. a) Summary statistics from fitting generalized linear mixed models for each temperature
treatment due to significant interaction between temperature treatment and mating system for
courtship rate. b) polyandry – monogamy contrast table from Tukey's post hoc from the full model
as an additional way to explore the interaction. c) statistical test of non-significant results.

382 a)

Temperature	Courtship rate				
treatment	Effect	Chisq	Df	P value	
20°C	Mating system	2.34	1	0.125	
24°C	Mating system	9.35	1	0.002	
28°C	Mating system	54.40	1	<0.001	

383

384 b)

Temperature	Courtship rate				
treatment	Estimate	SE	Df_2	t-value	P value
20°C	-0.09	0.08	2110	-1.033	0.301
24°C	-0.20	0.08	2110	-2.520	0.012
28°C	-0.53	0.07	2110	-7.495	<0.001

385

386 c)

Courtship rate			
Effect	Chisq	Df	P value
Experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment x mating system	1.369	4	0.849
Experimental evolution regime x mating system	1.023	2	0.599
Experimental evolution regime x temperature treatment	6.190	4	0.185

387 388

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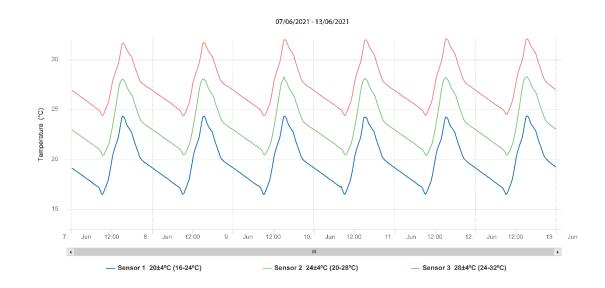
- **Table S9.** Estimates of the explained variance by the fixed effects only for all full models. For rejection and courtship rates, we ran zero-inflated models, and the explained variance was calculated
- accordingly. Similarly, for the rejection per courtship rate we ran a binomial model.

Variable modelled	Explained variance (R ² m)
PC1	0.1483
Female reproductive success	0.0849
Lifespan	0.0358*
Rejection rate	delta (0.6106) lognormal (0.8928) trigamma (0.0965)
Rejection per courtship rate	theoretical (0.8773) delta(0.7642)
Courtship rate	delta (0.1101) lognormal (0.1275) trigamma (0.0924)

*Using Pseudo-R²

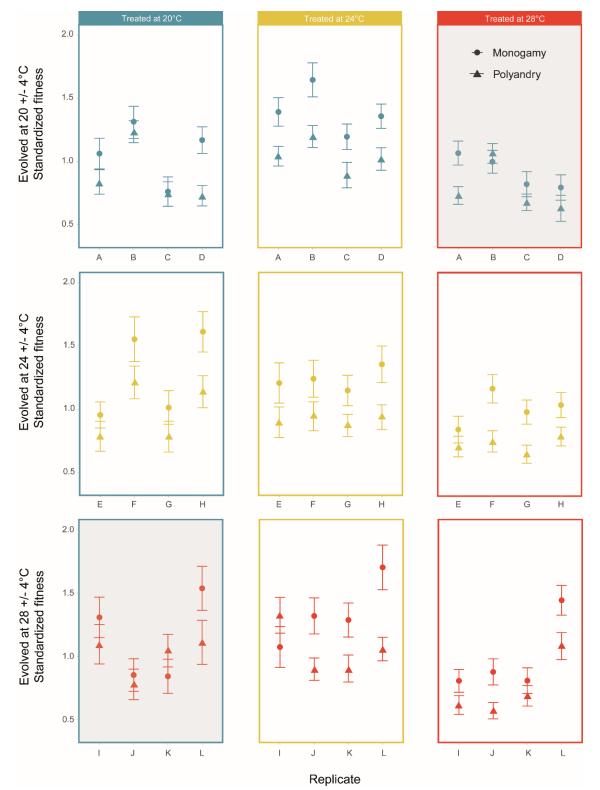
Table S10. Parameters used for Elastic net analysis.

Data set	α	λ
Virgin males (whole proteome)	0.5	0.68173
Mated males (whole proteome)	0.3	0.236615
Virgin males (SFPs)	0.2	0.681743
Mated males (SFPs)	0.1	0.700878





402	Figure S1 Daily temperature variation profile for the experimental evolution regimes. The
403	regimes were based on average temperatures of 20°C, 24°C, or 28°C, with daily pre-programmed
404	fluctuations of ±4°C to mimic natural circadian temperature variation. The blue line represents the
405	cold thermal regime, the green line represents the moderate regime, and the red line represents the
406	hot regime. Data correspond to temperature profiles recorded over a week in June 2021 as an example,
407	using the extra sensors implemented to monitor environmental conditions during the experiment.



408 409

Figure S2 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime 410 on female fitness by replicate. Female reproductive success (mean \pm s.e.) across treatments and 411 replicates. Data were standardized for each experimental evolution regime by dividing each value by 412 the mean of the regime. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective regime. 413

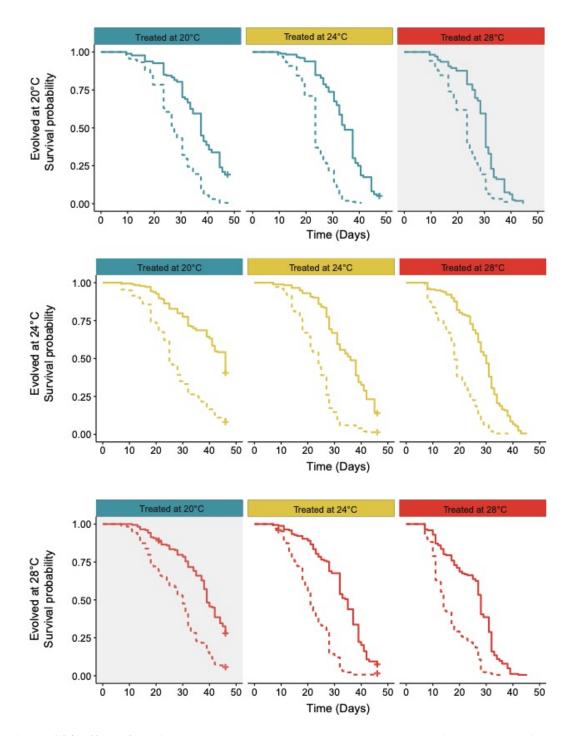




Figure S3 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on female survival. Female survival (four replicates) across mating systems, temperature treatments and experimental evolution thermal regimes. The difference between female survival kept in monogamy (solid lines) vs. polyandry (dashed lines), was higher when flies were treated at temperatures within the thermal regime of evolution, compared to those outside this range (shaded panels).

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- 422

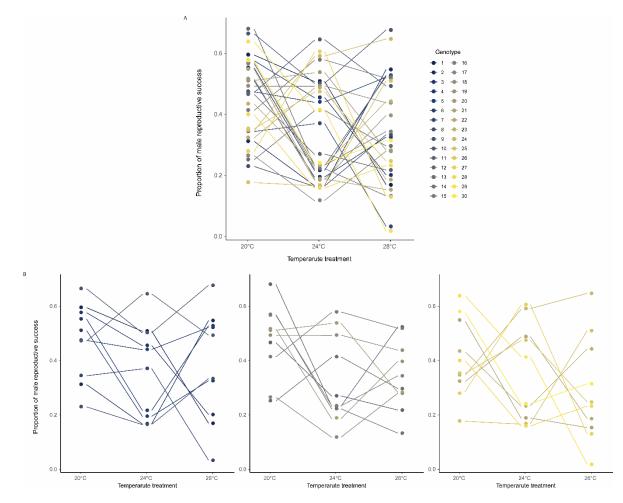
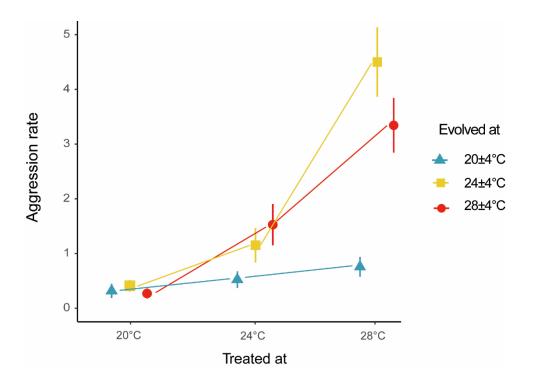


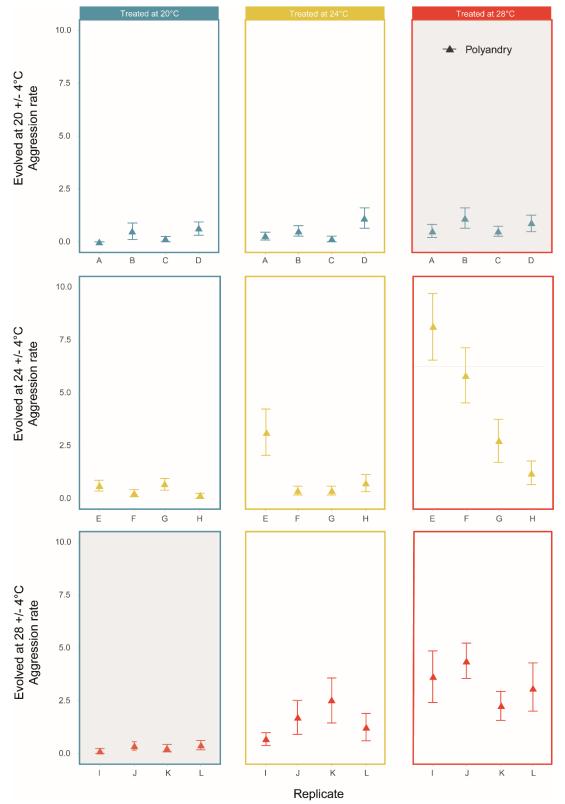


Figure S4 | Genotype-by-environment interactions for male reproductive success. A) Reaction
norms for male reproductive success in 30 genotypes analysed across three temperature treatments.
B) Reaction norms for male reproductive success split into 3 panels to clearly illustrate each line.



432 Figure S5 | Effect of temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on male-male

aggression rate. Aggressions male-male per hour (mean \pm s.e.; four replicates) across temperature 434 treatments and experimental evolution thermal regimes.



437 438 Figure S6 | Effect of temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on male-male

439 aggression rate by replicate. Aggressions male-male per hour (mean \pm s.e.) across treatments and replicates. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal 440 441 regime for the respective regime.

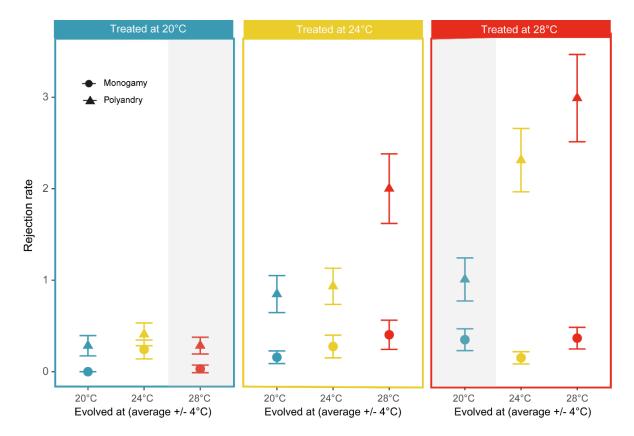


Figure S7 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime
on female rejection rate. Female rejections per hour (mean ± s.e.; four replicates) across
temperature, mating system treatments and experimental evolution thermal regimes. Shaded panels
denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective
regime.

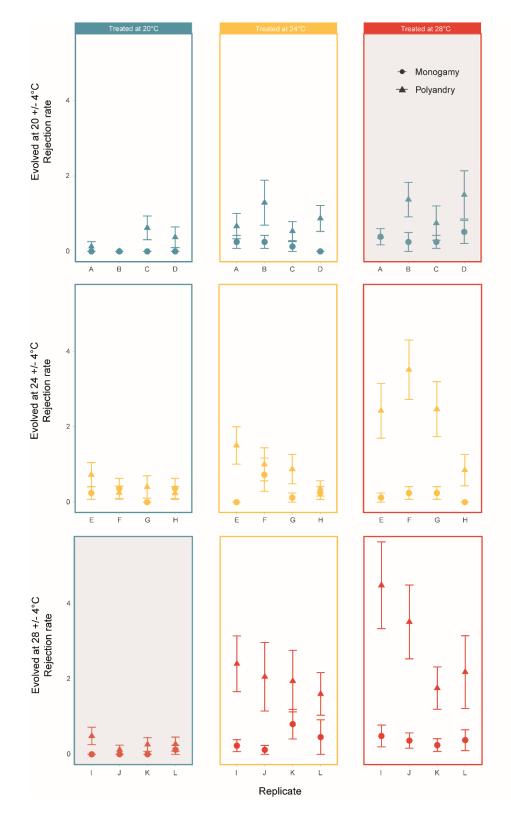


Figure S8 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on female rejection rate by replicate. Female rejections per hour (mean \pm s.e.) across treatments and replicates. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective regime.

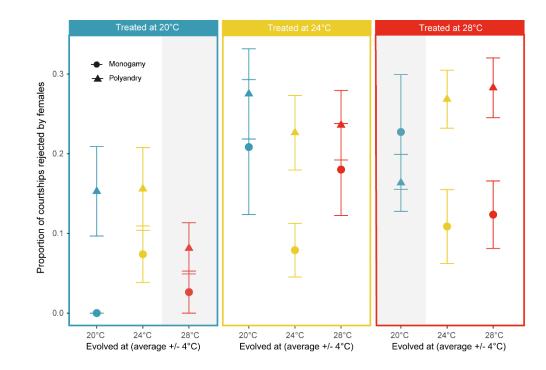
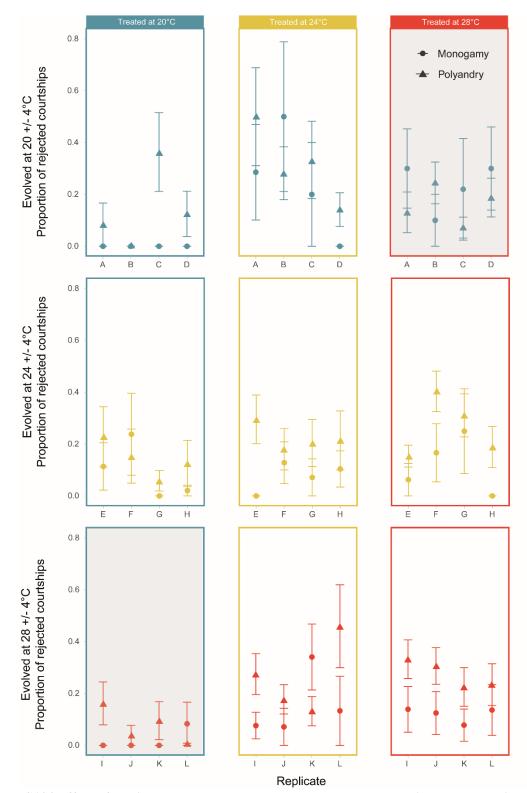




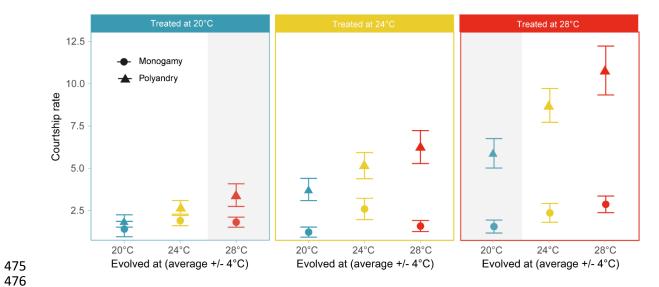
Figure S9 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime on female rejection rate per courtship. Proportion of courtships rejected by females (mean \pm s.e.; four replicates) across temperature, mating system treatments and experimental evolution thermal regimes. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective regime. Rejection rate per courtship was only calculated 30% of the observation time (when courtship rate was different from 0).



469

Figure S10 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime
 on female rejection rate per courtship by replicate. Proportion of courtships rejected by females
 (mean ± s.e.) across treatments and replicates. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside

the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective regime. Rejection rate per courtship wasonly calculated 30% of the observation time (when courtship rate was different from 0).





477 Figure S11 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime

478 on courtship rate. Courtship per female per hour (mean \pm s.e.; four replicates) across temperature, 479 mating system treatments and experimental evolution thermal regimes. Shaded panels denoted 480 temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal regime for the respective regime.

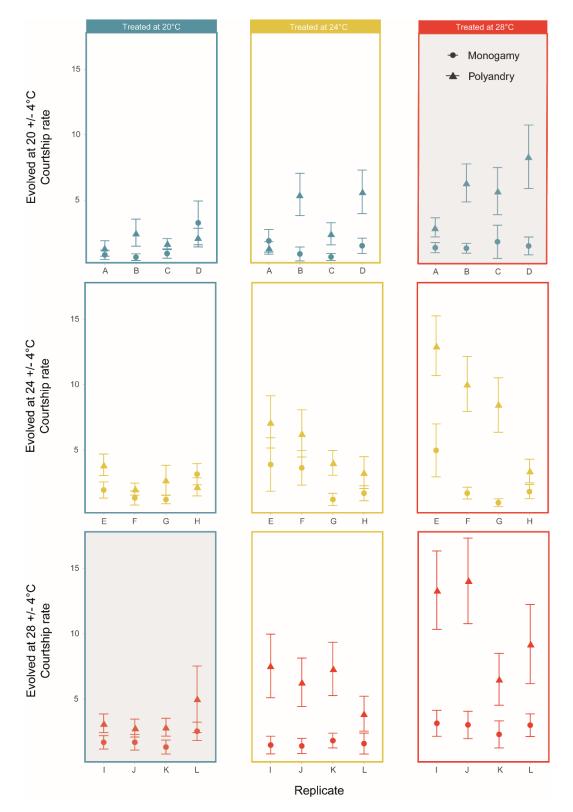


Figure S12 | Effect of mating system, temperature treatment and experimental evolution regime
 on courtship rate by replicate. Courtship per female per hour (mean ± s.e.) across treatments and
 replicates. Shaded panels denoted temperature treatments outside the experimental evolution thermal
 regime for the respective regime.