

1 **Temperature-dependent differences in male and female life history responses**
2 **to a period of food limitation during development**

3 Diego Moura-Campos¹, Meng-Han Joseph Chung¹, Edward Lawrence¹, Michael D.
4 Jennions¹, Megan L. Head¹

5 ¹Australian National University, Research School of Biology, Division of Ecology and
6 Evolution, Acton, 2601, ACT, Australia

7 Corresponding author: diego.moura.campos@gmail.com

8 **Abstract**

9 With climate change, animals face both rising temperatures and more variable food
10 availability. Many species have evolved an adaptative response to historic variation in food
11 availability: they grow faster after a period of diet restriction (“compensatory growth”).
12 However, higher temperatures may reduce the capacity for compensatory growth in
13 ectotherms because individuals require more resources to support their increased
14 metabolism. We experimentally tested how higher temperature affects compensatory growth
15 by raising guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) at a high or control temperature, and on a normal or
16 temporarily restricted diet during early development. At the control temperature guppies on
17 the restricted diet grew faster once their diet returned to normal. Both sexes showed
18 compensatory growth. At the high temperature, both sexes also increased their growth rates
19 after dietary restriction ended, but the life history outcomes differed. Males at the high
20 temperature matured earlier and were smaller than males reared at the control temperature.
21 In contrast, females at the high temperature matured later and were bigger than females at
22 the control temperature. Our study highlights that rising temperatures could reduce the ability
23 of fish to compensate for periods of low food availability, and that males and females can
24 have different responses to the same environmental stressors.

25 **Introduction**

26
27 Early environmental conditions play an important role in shaping animal development (1,2).
28 During development animals need to balance food acquisition between allocation to body
29 maintenance and growth (3). However, natural variation in prey availability, population
30 density and predation risk can all affect the ability of animals to acquire food during early
31 development (4–6). Reduced food intake can lower the allocation of resources towards
32 growth resulting in smaller adults that tend to have a higher rate of mortality and lower
33 reproductive success (7,8). To minimise the impact of reduced food intake during
34 development, many species have evolved an adaptive physiological response whereby they
35 grow faster after a period of low food acquisition (so-called ‘compensatory growth’).
36

37 Compensatory growth occurs in many taxa that have a wide range of life-history
38 strategies (9). Compensatory growth can be achieved through an increased feeding rate or
39 physiological changes that improve the efficiency of food conversion (10). By accelerating
40 growth after a period of diet restriction, individuals can reach a similar size to age-matched
41 conspecifics that have not experienced a restricted diet (i.e. full compensatory growth). Full
42 compensatory growth is particularly beneficial when time constraints (e.g., growth ceases at
43 maturity) or intense sexual competition favour larger size at maturation (9,11,12). However,
44 compensatory growth can have costs for some components of fitness. For instance, faster
45 growth can impose short-term ecological and physiological costs (e.g., greater exposure to
46 predators and more oxidative damage during development (13–15), as well as long-term
47 ‘hidden’ costs, such as reduced adult mobility, cognition, reproduction and lifespan

48 (1,11,14,16,17). Compensatory growth has been well documented (9,10), but it remains
49 unclear how it is affected by environmental factors that influence bioenergetic trade-offs,
50 most notably temperature (1).

51

52 Temperature is a key factor affecting developmental growth in ectotherms (18).
53 Higher temperatures generally increase metabolic rates, which tends to accelerate
54 development (19,20). Ectotherms developing at warmer temperatures usually mature faster
55 and tend to be smaller (20–22) (the ‘temperature-size rule’ (23)). In addition, higher
56 temperatures can increase the costs of somatic maintenance due to faster accumulation of
57 oxidative damage (24). Consequently, organisms that experience both high temperatures
58 and limited access to food during development likely face an increased challenge to allocate
59 resources to allow for compensatory growth while still ensuring effective somatic
60 maintenance (1). High temperatures are therefore expected to exacerbate the costs of
61 compensatory growth (25–27).

62

63 Growth patterns have been extensively studied in aquatic organisms, including fish,
64 because of the economic implications (28–30). Several studies show that fish exhibit full or
65 partial compensatory growth after a period of diet restriction (reviewed in 30). Partial
66 compensatory growth refers to cases where there is faster growth after dietary restriction
67 ends, but animals mature at a smaller size than those on an unrestricted diet. To date, only a
68 few studies have investigated how higher temperatures affect compensatory growth. These
69 studies have mostly focused on temperate species (31–36), which makes their relevance to
70 tropical species uncertain.

71

72 Tropical fish live at temperatures near their upper thermal limit and are expected to
73 be more sensitive to increased temperatures than temperate species that usually have a
74 wider thermal tolerance range (37,38). Guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*; Family: Poeciliidae) are a
75 tropical fish species that have become a model system for studies in ecology and evolution
76 (39). In guppies, low food availability during development can have long-term effects on
77 somatic and reproductive traits (40–43). Guppies also show compensatory growth after diet
78 restriction during early development, leading to a later decline in fecundity (44). Guppies are
79 therefore an ideal species to test if higher than normal temperatures lower the ability of
80 tropical fish to exhibit compensatory growth after a poor start in life.

81

82 Here we test if a higher temperature affects the response to diet restriction by
83 guppies (*P. reticulata*). In a 2x2 experiment we reared fish to maturation at either 26° or
84 30°C (air temperature; for water see *Methods*) and we manipulated juvenile food availability
85 (control or restricted diet for two weeks). We measured initial and overall juvenile growth,
86 time to maturation and size at maturation. We discriminate between initial growth shortly
87 after a period of food restricted ends, and longer-term growth to maturity. Faster initial
88 growth is used to determine whether compensatory growth occurred. Based on studies of
89 other poecilids (44–48), we predicted that:

90

- 91 (1) At the control temperature (26°C), fish will show compensatory growth after two
92 weeks of diet restriction. At the high temperature (30°C), however, fish will not show
93 compensatory growth after two weeks of diet restriction.
- 94 (2) For fish on the control diet, those at the higher temperature will mature earlier and
95 will be smaller than those at the control temperature.
- 96 (3) For fish on the restricted diet for two weeks, those at the higher temperatures will
97 mature later but will be smaller than fish on the restricted diet at the control
98 temperature because increased metabolic costs at a higher temperature reduce the
99 energy/resources available for growth.
- 100 (4) The size difference at maturity between fish on the control and restricted diet will be
101 greater at the higher temperature than at the control temperature.

102 **Methods**

103 **Origin and maintenance of fish**

104 Guppy stocks are from two independent collections from an invasive population in Alligator
105 creek near Townsville, Australia (49,50). Since 2019 these stocks have been kept in mixed-
106 sex tanks (~50 fish per 60L aquaria) in controlled temperature rooms at 26 ± 1 °C with a
107 14:10 light/dark cycle and fed twice daily with live brine shrimp nauplii (*Artemia sp.*) and fish
108 flakes (Aqua one). To start our experiment, we collected newborn fry and transferred them
109 into 7L plastic tanks (up to 10 fry/tank). Juveniles were then inspected weekly to determine
110 their sex. Immature males and females were transferred to single-sex aquaria to ensure their
111 virginity as adults.

112 **Experimental protocol**

113 To generate test fish, we randomly paired a virgin male and virgin female in an individual 7L
114 tank ($n = 28$ pairs), under the same conditions as stock fish. After two weeks, we removed
115 the males and then inspected tanks daily for newborn fry. On the day of birth (Day 0), we
116 transferred each offspring to its own 1L tank. Newborn fry within each brood were alternately
117 assigned to our four experimental treatments: control temperature/control diet; control
118 temperature/restricted diet; high temperature/control diet; high temperature/restricted diet.

119 We manipulated temperature by placing tanks in temperature-controlled rooms at either $26 \pm$
120 1 °C (control) or 30 ± 1 °C (high) on Day 0. This equated to water temperatures of 24.4 ± 0.6
121 °C (control) and 27.8 ± 0.4 °C (high). Water temperature in guppies' native habitat ranges
122 from 20-28°C (51), but the upper value is predicted to increase as global temperatures rise
123 (52,53). Fish remained in their temperature treatment throughout the experiment. Newborn
124 fry were fed *ad libitum* with brine shrimp nauplii for three days (Days 0-2) and then began
125 their diet treatment on Day 3. Fry on the control diet were fed brine shrimp nauplii *ad libitum*
126 (approximately 6 mg) twice daily, whereas fry on the restricted diet were fed 3 mg of brine
127 shrimp once a day every second day for 14 days (i.e., 12.5% of control diet until day 17).
128 This feeding regime led to near zero growth without elevated mortality in another poeciliid
129 fish (48). On Day 17, all fish were returned to the control diet. In total, we used offspring from
130 28 pairs to set up 110 fish per treatment (total $N = 440$).

131 To measure growth, we photographed fish on Day 3 (prior to diet restriction), Day 17 (at the
132 end of diet restriction) and Day 31 (two weeks after a return to the control diet). We placed
133 each fry in a small container of shallow water containing a 1 cm ruler and then photographed
134 it from above using a digital camera (Canon PowerShot SX620 HS). Standard length (tip of
135 the snout to the end of the caudal peduncle) was later measured using *ImageJ* software
136 (54).

137 We inspected fish twice a week from Day 31 to determine the time to sexual maturity. We
138 considered females to be sexually mature when we observed a visible egg spot near their
139 rounded anal fin and males to be mature when we observed a fully-developed hood and
140 hooks at the tip of their gonopodium (47,55). On the day of maturity, we anaesthetised each
141 fish using AQUI-S (New Zealand; 20 mg/L) for 30 seconds, placed it on its side on a glass
142 slide, and photographed it next to a scaled ruler. Standard length was again measured using
143 *ImageJ*.

144 We calculated the instantaneous rate of growth for three periods: (1) Day 3 to 17 (diet
145 restriction); (2) Day 17 to 31; and (3) from the end of the diet restriction to sexual maturity
146 (from Day 3 for fish on the control diet; from Day 17 for fish on the restricted diet). We used
147 the formula:

148

$$G = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{Lt1}{Lt0}\right)}{t}$$

149 where $Lt0$ and $Lt1$ is length on the initial and final day of the focal period, respectively, and t
150 is the duration of the period (in days) (48). We used *initial* growth to determine whether there
151 is compensatory growth. *Initial growth* refers to the period immediately after the diet
152 restriction ended. This allows for a direct comparison across treatments for fish that were
153 initially the same size. In a previous study, Vega-Trejo et al (48) showed that the diet
154 restriction treatment we used resulted in minimal growth such that Day 3 fish on the control
155 diet and Day 17 fish on the restricted diet were almost identical in size. Indeed, in our study,
156 body size was similar for restricted diet (day 17) and control diet fish (day 3) at the control
157 temperature (control diet: mean (\pm SD): 11.40 \pm 0.85 mm; restricted diet: mean (\pm SD): 11.61
158 \pm 0.75 mm) and the high temperature (control diet: mean (\pm SD): 12.46 \pm 0.93 mm; restricted
159 diet: mean (\pm SD): 12.38 \pm 0.84 mm). To test for compensatory growth, we therefore tested
160 whether growth from day 17-31 for fish on the restricted diet differed from growth from day 3-
161 17 for fish on the control diet. In addition, we quantified *overall* growth, which was defined as
162 growth from the end of diet restriction (or its equivalent) until sexual maturity (i.e., starting at
163 day 3 for control fish and day 17 for diet restricted fish). The mean duration of the growth
164 period varied among the four treatments because the treatments affected the time to sexual
165 maturation (see Results). Because the duration over which growth was measured differs
166 among fish, it is more difficult to determine whether there is compensatory growth, because
167 growth rates change with size, hence age.

168 **Statistical analyses**

169 The effects of temperature and diet restriction on our five focal traits (body size on Day 17;
170 initial growth rate; overall growth rate; size at maturity; age at maturity) were analysed using
171 individual linear mixed models (LMM) in the 'lmer' function of the 'lme4' package in R version
172 4.2.2 (56). To test whether fish exhibited compensatory growth in response to a restricted
173 diet early in life, and whether compensatory growth was affected by temperature, we
174 included early life diet (control or restricted), temperature (control or high) and their
175 interaction as fixed effects in our models. Additionally, we included sex (male or female) and
176 all possible two- and three-way interactions involving sex in our models. Brood identity was
177 included as a random factor to account for measurement of several offspring from the same
178 family. We used histograms and Q-Q plots to confirm that model residuals met assumptions
179 of normality.

180 We removed any non-significant higher order interactions to interpret lower order
181 interactions and/or main effects (57). If our analysis revealed a significant three-way or two-
182 way interaction involving sex, we ran separate analyses for each sex. If there was a
183 significant interaction between diet and temperature, we conducted Tukey's post-hoc
184 pairwise comparisons ('emmeans' function of the 'emmeans' package) between the four
185 treatment groups.

186 We used the 'Anova' function of the 'car' package (type III Wald chi-square or F-tests) to
187 determine the p-value (alpha = 0.05; two-tailed). We pre-registered all statistical analyses
188 with the Open Science Framework, and any deviations from our analyses are detailed in the
189 supplementary material.

190 **Results**

191 The full and reduced models and all Tukey's post-hoc pairwise comparisons are available in
192 the supplementary materials (Supplementary Tables 1-16).

193 Body size after the period of diet restriction

194 There was no effect of sex on body size on Day 17 (sex: $\chi^2 = 0.959$, $p = 0.327$; sex*diet: $\chi^2 =$
195 0.416 , $p = 0.519$; sex*temp: $\chi^2 = 0.298$, $p = 0.585$). Diet and temperature interacted to affect
196 body size at the end of the diet treatment on Day 17 ($\chi^2 = 99.858$, $p < 0.001$). Control fish
197 were 3.6 mm larger than diet restricted fish at the control temperature (Tukey's test, $p <$
198 0.001), and 4.8 mm larger at the high temperature (Tukey's test, $p < 0.001$). Fish on the
199 control diet reached a significantly larger size on Day 17 when they were at the higher
200 temperature (Tukey's test, $p < 0.001$). Fish on a restricted did not differ in body size at the
201 high or control temperature (Tukey's test, $p = 0.342$).

202 Initial growth

203 Sex had no effect on initial growth (three-way interaction: $\chi^2 = 0.869$, $p = 0.351$; sex*diet: χ^2
204 $= 0.900$, $p = 0.340$; sex*temp: $\chi^2 = 1.840$, $p = 0.170$; sex: $\chi^2 = 0.715$, $p = 0.398$;
205 Supplementary Table 3). Diet and temperature did not interact to affect initial growth ($\chi^2 =$
206 0.900 , $p = 0.340$; Fig 1). However, both diet and temperature independently affected initial
207 growth. Immediately after the diet restriction period, fish on the restricted diet grew
208 significantly faster for the next two weeks than initially similar-sized fish on the control diet
209 ($\chi^2 = 87.452$, $p < 0.001$). There is therefore compensatory growth. Fish grew significantly
210 faster at the high than the control temperature ($\chi^2 = 119.213$, $p < 0.001$).

211 Overall growth

212 Diet, temperature, and sex interacted to affect overall growth ($\chi^2 = 5.919$, $p = 0.015$). We
213 therefore analysed each sex separately.

214 For females there was a strong effect of diet on overall growth ($\chi^2 = 75.125$, $p < 0.001$), with
215 a weak interaction between diet and temperature ($\chi^2 = 4.195$, $p = 0.041$). The strong effect of
216 diet on overall growth meant that females that were initially on the restricted diet had greater
217 overall growth than females that were on the control diet (Fig 2a). The weak interaction
218 occurred because the difference in growth between the diets was slightly smaller for the high
219 than control temperature. It should be noted, however, that the effect of temperature was not
220 significant for fish on either the control or restricted diet (Tukey's test, $p = 0.301$ and $p =$
221 0.659 , respectively), which is why we report the main effect of diet.

222 For males there was no interaction between diet and temperature ($\chi^2 = 2.1821$, $p = 0.140$).
223 Diet restriction ($\chi^2 = 72.0101$, $p < 0.001$) and high temperature ($\chi^2 = 79.9817$, $p < 0.001$) both
224 lead to a significant increase in the overall growth rate (Fig 2b).

225 Age at maturity

226 There was no significant three-way interaction between diet, temperature and sex ($\chi^2 =$
227 2.918 , $p = 0.088$), but there was an interaction between temperature and sex ($\chi^2 = 134.265$,
228 $p < 0.001$). We therefore analysed the sexes separately.

229 For females, diet and temperature interacted to affect age at maturity ($\chi^2 = 11.823$, $p <$
230 0.001 ; Fig 2c). Females on the restricted diet matured significantly later at both the high and
231 control temperatures (Tukey's test, $p = 0.005$ and $p < 0.001$ respectively), but the difference
232 was much greater at the high temperature (4.9 days vs 12.4 days; Fig 2c).

233 For males, diet and temperature weakly interacted to affect age at maturity ($\chi^2 = 29.595$, $p <$
234 0.033). At both the control and high temperature, males on the restricted diet matured
235 significantly later than control fish, but the effect was slightly stronger at the high temperature
236 (Tukey's tests, both $p < 0.001$; Fig 2d). Males also matured significantly sooner at the high
237 temperature (Tukey's test, $p < 0.001$). The combined effect meant that the time to reach
238 maturity for males on a restricted diet at the high temperature did not differ from males on
239 the control diet at the control temperature (Tukey's test: $p = 0.108$; Fig 2d).

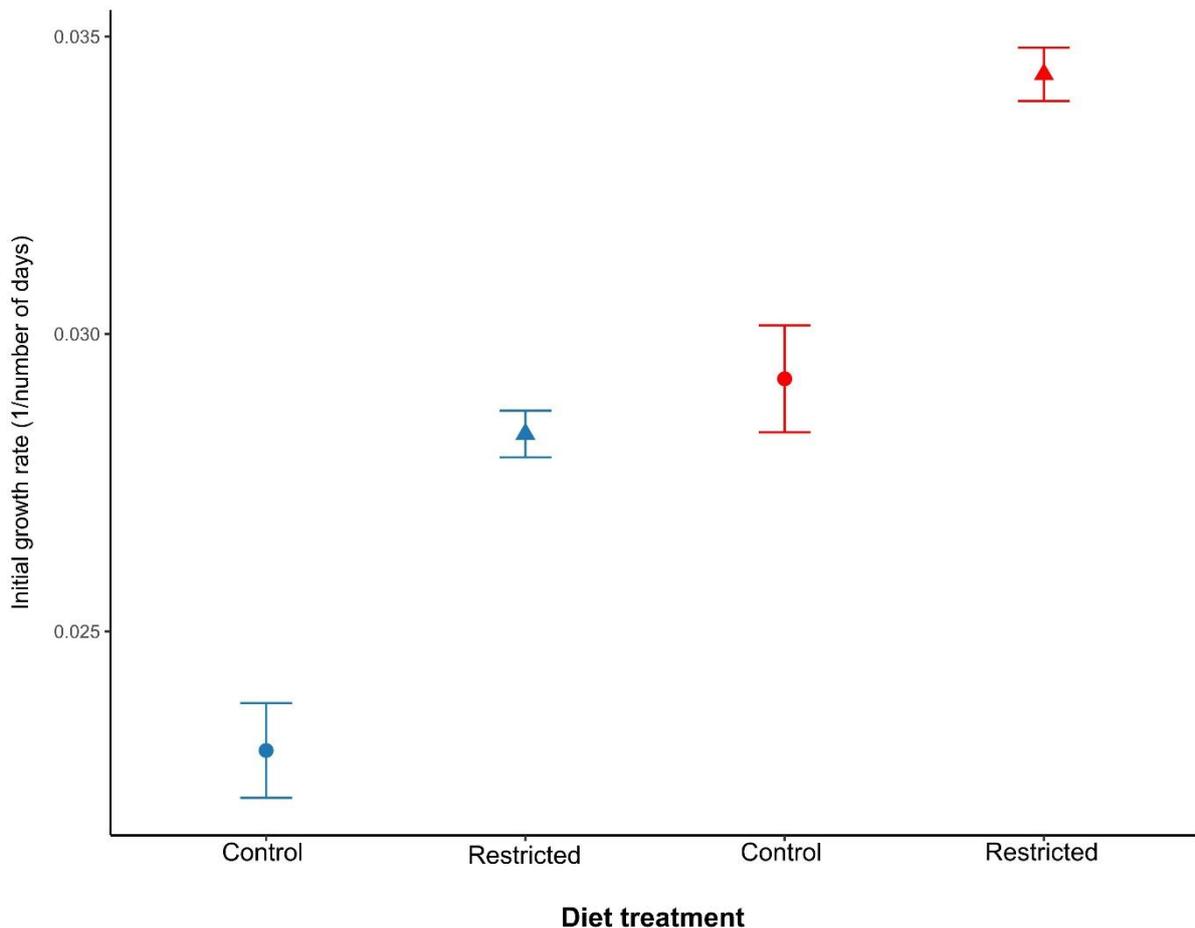
240 Size at maturity

241 Size at maturity was affected by a three-way interaction between diet, temperature, and sex
242 ($\chi^2 = 5.389$, $p = 0.020$). We therefore analysed the sexes separately.

243 For females there was a significant interaction between diet and temperature that affected
244 size at maturity ($\chi^2 = 9.108$, $p = 0.003$). At the control temperature, females on the restricted
245 diet matured at a smaller size than those on the control diet (Tukey's test, $p < 0.001$; Fig
246 2e). But at the high temperature, females on the restricted and control diet matured at the
247 same size (Tukey's test, $p = 0.989$; Fig 2e).

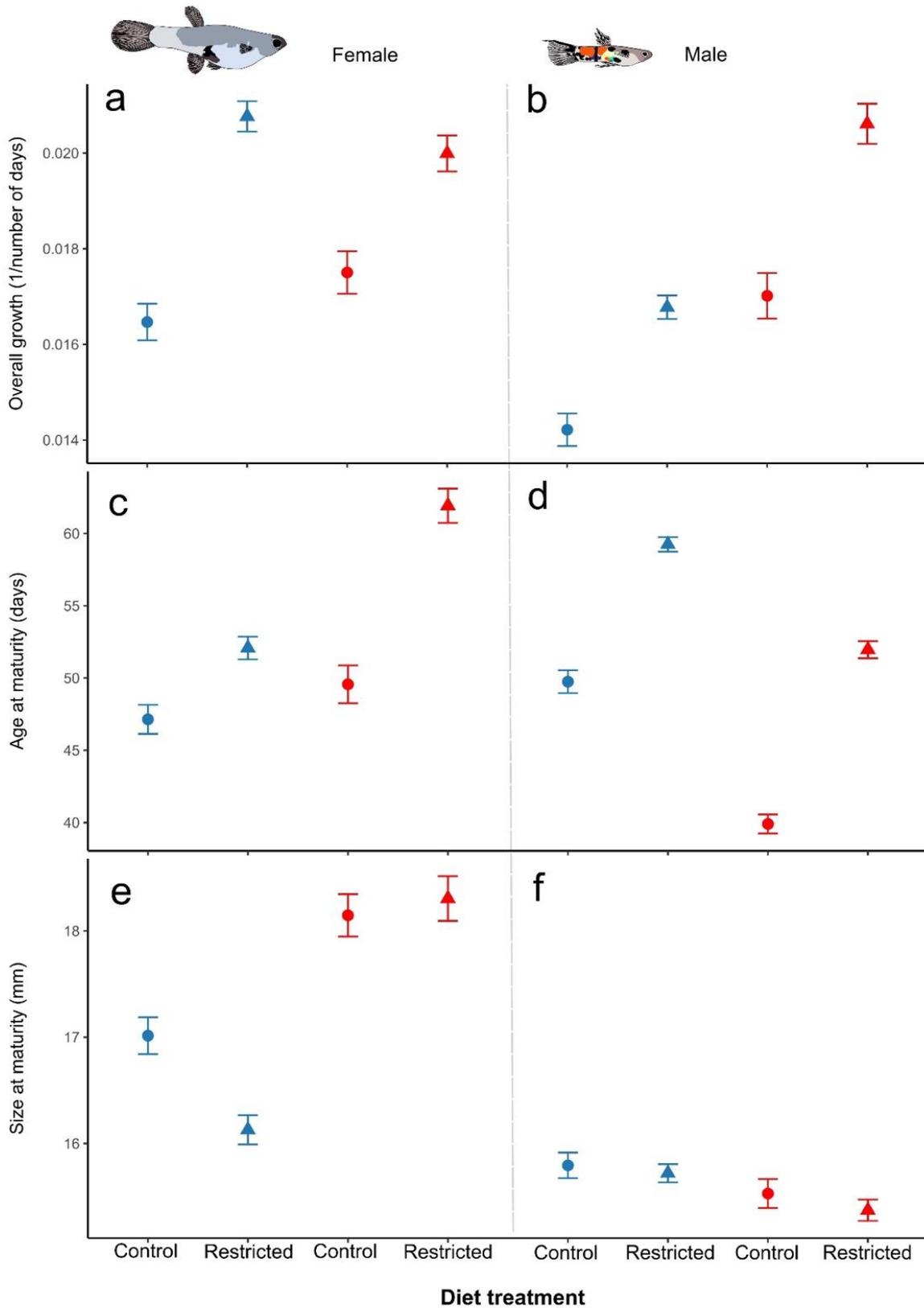
248 For males there was no interaction between diet and temperature affecting size at maturity
249 ($\chi^2 = 0.246$, $p = 0.620$). There was also no effect of diet ($\chi^2 = 2.915$, $p = 0.088$; Fig 2f).
250 However, males matured at a smaller size at the high than the control temperature ($\chi^2 =$
251 13.878 , $p < 0.001$; Fig 2f).

252



253

254 Fig 1. Mean initial growth rates ($G = (\ln(Lt1/Lt0))/t$) separated by treatment (diet *
 255 temperature). The control temperature is represented in blue and the high temperature in
 256 red. Circles represent the control diet and triangles the restricted diet during early life. Error
 257 bars are standard errors.



259 Fig 2. Mean overall growth rates ($G = (\ln(Lt1/Lt0))/t$; a,b), age at maturity (c,d) and size at
260 maturity (e,f) separated by sex (females: left; males: right) and treatment (diet *
261 temperature). The control temperature is represented in blue and the high temperature in
262 red. Circles represent the control diet and triangles represent the restricted diet during early
263 life. Error bars are standard errors.

264

265 Discussion

266 Compensatory growth allows animals to reduce costs associated with small adult size and/or
267 delayed maturation that would otherwise result after periods of diet restriction during
268 development. While compensatory growth is commonplace in many taxa (9), little is known
269 about how environmental factors shape this diet-mediated growth response. We investigated
270 whether a higher temperature reduces an individual's ability to accelerate growth after a
271 period of diet restriction that slowed its development. We found that the initial growth of
272 guppies immediately after experiencing a restricted early-life diet was faster than that of fish
273 on a constant control diet. There was clear evidence for compensatory growth at both the
274 control and high temperature. This did not support our prediction that compensatory growth
275 would not occur at the higher temperature (see Prediction 1). A higher temperature did,
276 however, alter the age and size at which guppies reached maturity, but did so differently for
277 males and females. The response of males to the diet and temperature treatments
278 supported two of our three predictions about time to maturity and size at maturity
279 (Predictions 2-3; but not Prediction 4). In contrast, the response of females to diet and
280 temperature treatments did not support our predictions about time to maturity and size at
281 maturity (except for the time to maturity on the restricted diet). Our results highlight the need
282 to test for sex differences when evaluating how temperature affects key life history traits.

283 *Guppies show compensatory growth even at higher temperatures*

284 At the control temperature males and females showed a faster initial growth rate after a
285 period of diet restriction than those on the control diet (i.e. compensatory growth). Contrary
286 to our predictions, however, high temperature did not prevent guppies from increasing their
287 initial or overall growth after diet restriction. This highlights that guppies exhibit
288 compensatory growth immediately after diet restriction period and maintain higher growth
289 until sexual maturity. This faster growth occurred even at a higher temperature where
290 energetic demands are higher (18). Interestingly, absolute growth was greater at the higher
291 temperature. This highlights that even when there is compensatory growth at the control
292 temperature, guppies were not growing at their maximum rate. Under natural conditions
293 there may be selection against maximising growth either because of immediate ecological
294 costs, such as predation associated with foraging, or because of hidden fitness costs that
295 arise later in life (58). Our results suggest that selection on growth changes with temperature
296 since a higher temperature increased growth rates, which – all else being equal – should
297 increase ecological and/or physiological costs. Our experimental design allowed animals to
298 acclimate to high temperatures from birth, which might lower the short-term physiological
299 costs of generating reactive oxygen species during growth (18). This could explain how
300 guppies could sustain faster growth at high temperatures. Future research should explore
301 how fluctuating temperatures affect compensatory growth since continued acclimatization to
302 new temperatures is expected to impose high physiological costs on ectotherms (18),
303 potentially hindering growth.

304 *Sex differences in developmental patterns*

305 At both temperatures, males showed full compensatory growth because those initially on a
306 restricted diet reached maturity at the same size as their well-fed counterparts. However,
307 overall males reached maturity at a smaller size at the higher temperature compared to the
308 control temperature. In contrast, females showed full compensatory growth at the high
309 temperature, but only partial compensatory growth at the control temperature. Females that
310 were initially on a restricted diet reached maturity at the same size as their well-fed
311 counterparts at the high temperature, but at a significantly smaller size than their well-fed
312 counterparts at the control temperature. These results broadly corroborate previous research

313 on guppies showing full compensatory growth by males (47) and partial compensatory
314 growth by females (45).

315

316 Prey availability, population density and predation pressure all vary in freshwater
317 ecosystems (59–61) causing variation in food acquisition by guppies (62). It is likely that
318 compensatory growth under natural conditions allows guppies to compensate for slower
319 early growth and improve adult fitness (45). Compensatory growth is expected when there is
320 strong selection for larger adults, either because size increases survival (63) or reproductive
321 success (64,65). In guppies, both sexes prefer larger mates (66,67). Larger males also
322 obtain advantages during male-male contests (68,69); while larger females are more fecund
323 (65,66,70). Thus, both sexes appear to benefit from being larger. The sexes differ, however,
324 in that males barely grow after they reach sexual maturity (71), while females continue to
325 grow as adults. Consequently, there may be stronger selection on males against maturing at
326 a smaller size. Why then do females show compensatory growth if there are potential long-
327 term costs? One possibility is that once females start to reproduce, those that failed to show
328 compensatory growth after being on a restricted diet would never match the fecundity of their
329 well-fed counterparts. Alternatively, faster juvenile growth could be a byproduct of the
330 greater foraging effort that is commonly seen in fishes after dietary restriction ends (10,28).
331 Increased foraging after food deprivation may have evolved to avoid starvation in
332 environments with fluctuating food availability rather than for benefits associated with faster
333 growth.

334

335 *Developmental patterns will be modified as temperatures rise*

336 Although the high temperature did not prevent compensatory growth, it had opposing effects
337 on male and female development. Males matured at a smaller size at the high than control
338 temperature, regardless of their diet. In contrast, females matured at a *larger* size at the high
339 than control temperature, albeit with the effect being stronger for females on the restricted
340 diet (Fig 2e,f). Faster development at higher temperatures is widely attributed to temperature
341 elevating metabolic rates (21,72), which implies that both sexes will respond similarly to
342 rising temperatures. It is, however, plausible that the sexes respond differently because
343 males and females optimise their life-histories in different ways (73,74). Larger females
344 benefit by producing more eggs (65,66,70), while males might gain a net benefit by offsetting
345 costs of being smaller adults (67,75) against the benefit that maturing sooner prolongs
346 access to females (7,21). Controlling for other factors, time to and size at maturity are
347 usually negatively related in poeciliids (45,48,76). Intriguingly, the sexes differed in how
348 treatment differences in the size at maturity were mediated by the time taken to reach
349 maturity. Controlling for diet, at the higher temperature males grew faster and reached
350 maturity sooner. In contrast, at the higher temperature females on the restricted diet took far
351 longer to reach maturity than females on the control diet but still ended up at the same size
352 at maturity. This suggests that a restricted diet lowered the ability of females to grow after
353 the initial phase of high compensatory growth.

354 We have discussed the effect of temperature on development assuming the observed
355 responses are adaptive. It is, however, worth noting that temperature can set limits on
356 biological functions and impose physiological constraints. The observed temperature-
357 dependent changes in development might not be adaptive plastic responses (21). Our high
358 temperature treatment was such that fish were closer to their upper thermal limit for an
359 extended period, which is a situation outside the average historic conditions that guppies
360 have experienced (51,77). The observed growth and maturation patterns might therefore
361 reflect physiological constraints. For example, in fish high temperatures tend to increase
362 feeding rates (27,78,79), and growth hormone production (80,81). Both these changes
363 should accelerate growth and shorten the time to maturation. However, the sexes differed in

364 their response to a higher temperature so additional factors are required to invoke a non-
365 adaptive explanation. For example, there might be an interaction between higher growth
366 hormone production at higher temperatures and sex-specific steroids causing sex
367 differences in the time to, and size at, maturation (82–84).

368 Conclusions

369 A high temperature did not directly affect compensatory growth, but it changed development
370 in a sex-specific manner: after diet restriction males matured smaller and sooner, while
371 females matured later and larger than their counterparts on the control diet. Compensatory
372 growth is viewed as an adaptive response to a temporary reduction in food availability during
373 development (85), but studies have shown that faster growth can have long-term fitness
374 costs (e.g. 28,30,85). Given that we found that the higher temperature increased growth
375 rates and modified developmental patterns, rising temperatures could exacerbate existing
376 fitness costs of compensatory growth reported for guppies (44). Future studies should
377 investigate if early-life diet restriction at higher temperatures is associated with a greater
378 decline in fecundity, which could lower population growth or the likelihood of persistence.
379 Temperature is predicted to rise, and food availability to become more variable, making it
380 more important to understand their combined effects. This is especially the case for tropical
381 fishes, like guppies, that are sensitive to temperature changes due to their lower thermal
382 range and more complex trophic interactions (37,38).

383 References

- 384 1. Eyck HJF, Buchanan KL, Crino OL, Jessop TS. Effects of developmental stress on
385 animal phenotype and performance: a quantitative review. *Biol Rev.* 2019;94(3):1143–
386 60.
- 387 2. Imsland AKD, Gunnarsson S, Thorarensen H. Impact of environmental factors on the
388 growth and maturation of farmed Arctic charr. *Rev Aquac.* 2020;12(3):1689–707.
- 389 3. Hou C, Zuo W, Moses ME, Woodruff WH, Brown JH, West GB. Energy uptake and
390 allocation during ontogeny. *Science.* 2008 Oct 31;322(5902):736–9.
- 391 4. Buskirk JV, Yurewicz KL. Effects of predators on prey growth rate: relative contributions
392 of thinning and reduced activity. *Oikos.* 1998 May;82(1):20.
- 393 5. Garcia AFS, Garcia AM, Vollrath SR, Schneck F, Silva CFM, Marchetti ÍJ, et al. Spatial
394 diet overlap and food resource in two congeneric mullet species revealed by stable
395 isotopes and stomach content analyses. *Community Ecol.* 2018 Aug 1;19(2):116–24.
- 396 6. Lima SL, Dill LM. Behavioral decisions made under the risk of predation: a review and
397 prospectus. *Can J Zool.* 1990 Apr 1;68(4):619–40.
- 398 7. Blanckenhorn WU. The evolution of body size: what keeps organisms small? *Q Rev Biol.*
399 2000 Dec;75(4):385–407.
- 400 8. Schindler S, Ruckstuhl KE, Neuhaus P. Male mating behaviour affects growth of
401 secondary sexual traits: a mechanism for rapid phenotypic change. *Anim Behav.* 2020
402 Nov 1;169:129–38.
- 403 9. Hector KL, Nakagawa S. Quantitative analysis of compensatory and catch-up growth in
404 diverse taxa. *J Anim Ecol.* 2012;81(3):583–93.

- 405 10. Hornick JL, Van Eenaeme C, Gérard O, Dufrasne I, Istasse L. Mechanisms of reduced
406 and compensatory growth. *Domest Anim Endocrinol*. 2000 Aug 1;19(2):121–32.
- 407 11. Dahl E, Orizaola G, Nicieza AG, Laurila A. Time constraints and flexibility of growth
408 strategies: geographic variation in catch-up growth responses in amphibian larvae. *J*
409 *Anim Ecol*. 2012;81(6):1233–43.
- 410 12. Orizaola G, Dahl E, Laurila A. Compensatory growth strategies are affected by the
411 strength of environmental time constraints in anuran larvae. *Oecologia*. 2014
412 Jan;174(1):131–7.
- 413 13. Janssens L, Stoks R. Oxidative stress mediates rapid compensatory growth and its
414 costs. *Funct Ecol*. 2020;34(10):2087–97.
- 415 14. Metcalfe NB, Monaghan P. Growth versus lifespan: perspectives from evolutionary
416 ecology. *Exp Gerontol*. 2003 Sep 1;38(9):935–40.
- 417 15. Stoks R, Block MD, McPeck MA. Physiological costs of compensatory Growth in a
418 damselfly. *Ecology*. 2006;87(6):1566–74.
- 419 16. Almeida LZ, Hovick SM, Ludsins SA, Marschall EA. Which factors determine the long-
420 term effect of poor early-life nutrition? A meta-analytic review. *Ecosphere*.
421 2021;12(8):e03694.
- 422 17. DeBlock M, Stoks R. Short-term larval food stress and associated compensatory growth
423 reduce adult immune function in a damselfly. *Ecol Entomol*. 2008;33(6):796–801.
- 424 18. Ritchie DJ, Friesen CR. Invited review: Thermal effects on oxidative stress in vertebrate
425 ectotherms. *Comp Biochem Physiol A Mol Integr Physiol*. 2022 Jan 1;263:111082.
- 426 19. Brown JH, Gillooly JF, Allen AP, Savage VM, West GB. Toward a metabolic theory of
427 ecology. *Ecology*. 2004;85(7):1771–89.
- 428 20. van der Have TM, de Jong G. Adult size in ectotherms: temperature effects on growth
429 and differentiation. *J Theor Biol*. 1996 Dec 7;183(3):329–40.
- 430 21. Angilletta MJ, Steury TD, Sears MW. Temperature, growth rate, and body size in
431 ectotherms: fitting pieces of a life-history puzzle. *Integr Comp Biol*. 2004 Dec
432 1;44(6):498–509.
- 433 22. Hoefnagel KN, Verberk WCEP. Is the temperature-size rule mediated by oxygen in
434 aquatic ectotherms? *J Therm Biol*. 2015 Dec 1;54:56–65.
- 435 23. Atkinson D. Ectotherm life-history responses to developmental temperature. In: Johnston
436 IA, Bennett AF, editors. *Animals and Temperature* [Internet]. 1st ed. Cambridge
437 University Press; 1996 [cited 2024 Jun 10]. p. 183–204. Available from:
438 [https://www.cambridge.org/core/product/identifier/CBO9780511721854A015/type/book_](https://www.cambridge.org/core/product/identifier/CBO9780511721854A015/type/book_part)
439 [part](https://www.cambridge.org/core/product/identifier/CBO9780511721854A015/type/book_part)
- 440 24. Zhang Q, Han XZ, Burraco P, Wang XF, Teng LW, Liu ZS, et al. Oxidative stress
441 mediates the impact of heatwaves on survival, growth and immune status in a lizard.
442 *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci*. 2023 Oct 25;290(2009):20231768.

- 443 25. Dinh KV, Janssens L, Stoks R. Exposure to a heat wave under food limitation makes an
444 agricultural insecticide lethal: a mechanistic laboratory experiment. *Glob Change Biol.*
445 2016;22(10):3361–72.
- 446 26. Grunst ML, Grunst AS, Grémillet D, Fort J. Combined threats of climate change and
447 contaminant exposure through the lens of bioenergetics. *Glob Change Biol.*
448 2023;29(18):5139–68.
- 449 27. Hardison EA, Eliason EJ. Diet effects on ectotherm thermal performance. *Biol Rev*
450 [Internet]. 2024 Apr 14 [cited 2024 Jun 11];n/a(n/a). Available from:
451 <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/brv.13081>
- 452 28. Ali M, Nicieza A, Wootton RJ. Compensatory growth in fishes: a response to growth
453 depression. *Fish Fish.* 2003;4(2):147–90.
- 454 29. Mommsen TP. Paradigms of growth in fish. *Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem Mol Biol.*
455 2001 Jun 1;129(2):207–19.
- 456 30. Py C, Elizondo-González R, Peña-Rodríguez A. Compensatory growth: Fitness cost in
457 farmed fish and crustaceans. *Rev Aquac.* 2022;14(3):1389–417.
- 458 31. Abdollahpour H, Falahatkar B, Van Der Kraak G. Effect of water temperature and food
459 availability on growth performance, sex ratio and gonadal development in juvenile
460 convict cichlid (*Amatitlania nigrofasciata*). *J Therm Biol.* 2022 Jul 1;107:103255.
- 461 32. Pennock CA, Budy P, Atkinson CL, Barrett N. Effects of increased temperature on arctic
462 slimy *Cottus cognatus* is mediated by food availability: Implications for climate change.
463 *Freshw Biol.* 2021;66(3):549–61.
- 464 33. Poletto JB, Martin B, Danner E, Baird SE, Cocherell DE, Hamda N, et al. Assessment of
465 multiple stressors on the growth of larval green sturgeon *Acipenser medirostris*:
466 implications for recruitment of early life-history stages. *J Fish Biol.* 2018;93(5):952–60.
- 467 34. Rodgers EM, Todgham AE, Connon RE, Fangué NA. Stressor interactions in freshwater
468 habitats: Effects of cold water exposure and food limitation on early-life growth and
469 upper thermal tolerance in white sturgeon, *Acipenser transmontanus*. *Freshw Biol.*
470 2019;64(2):348–58.
- 471 35. Van Dijk PLM, Hardewig I, Hölker F. Energy reserves during food deprivation and
472 compensatory growth in juvenile roach: the importance of season and temperature. *J*
473 *Fish Biol.* 2005;66(1):167–81.
- 474 36. Yoneda M, Wright PJ. Effects of varying temperature and food availability on growth and
475 reproduction in first-time spawning female Atlantic cod. *J Fish Biol.* 2005;67(5):1225–41.
- 476 37. Donelson JM, Munday PL, McCormick MI. Climate change may affect fish through an
477 interaction of parental and juvenile environments. *Coral Reefs.* 2012 Sep;31(3):753–62.
- 478 38. Tewksbury JJ, Huey RB, Deutsch CA. Putting the heat on tropical animals. *Science.*
479 2008 Jun 6;320(5881):1296–7.
- 480 39. Houde AE. Sex, color, and mate choice in guppies. Princeton University Press; 1997.
- 481 40. Kolluru GR, Grether GF. The effects of resource availability on alternative mating tactics
482 in guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). *Behav Ecol.* 2005 Jan 1;16(1):294–300.

- 483 41. Kolluru GR, Ruiz NC, Del Cid N, Dunlop E, Grether GF. The effects of carotenoid and
484 food intake on caudal fin regeneration in male guppies. *J Fish Biol.* 2006;68(4):1002–12.
- 485 42. Kolluru GR, Grether GF, Dunlop E, South SH. Food availability and parasite infection
486 influence mating tactics in guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). *Behav Ecol.* 2009 Jan
487 1;20(1):131–7.
- 488 43. Evans JP, Turnbull EJ, Lymbery RA. Testing for age-dependent effects of dietary
489 restriction on the strength of condition dependence in ejaculate traits in the guppy
490 (*Poecilia reticulata*). *R Soc Open Sci.* 2023 Aug 30;10(8):230805.
- 491 44. Auer SK, Arendt JD, Chandramouli R, Reznick DN. Juvenile compensatory growth has
492 negative consequences for reproduction in Trinidadian guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). *Ecol*
493 *Lett.* 2010;13(8):998–1007.
- 494 45. Auer SK. Phenotypic Plasticity in Adult Life-History Strategies Compensates for a Poor
495 Start in Life in Trinidadian Guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*). *Am Nat.* 2010 Dec;176(6):818–
496 29.
- 497 46. Livingston JD, Kahn AT, Jennions MD. Sex differences in compensatory and catch-up
498 growth in the mosquitofish *Gambusia holbrooki*. *Evol Ecol.* 2014 Jul 1;28(4):687–706.
- 499 47. Reznick, . Plasticity in age and size at maturity in male guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*): An
500 experimental evaluation of alternative models of development. *J Evol Biol.* 1990;3(3–
501 4):185–203.
- 502 48. Vega-Trejo R, Head ML, Jennions MD. Inbreeding depression does not increase after
503 exposure to a stressful environment: a test using compensatory growth. *BMC Evol Biol.*
504 2016 Apr 1;16(1):68.
- 505 49. Kranz AM, Forgan LG, Cole GL, Endler JA. Light environment change induces
506 differential expression of guppy opsins in a multi-generational evolution experiment.
507 *Evolution.* 2018 Aug 1;72(8):1656–76.
- 508 50. Lindholm AK, Head ML, Brooks RC, Rollins LA, Ingleby FC, Zajitschek SRK. Causes of
509 male sexual trait divergence in introduced populations of guppies. *J Evol Biol.*
510 2014;27(2):437–48.
- 511 51. Alkins-Koo M. Reproductive timing of fishes in a tropical intermittent stream. *Environ Biol*
512 *Fishes.* 2000 Jan 1;57(1):49–66.
- 513 52. Breckels RD, Neff BD. The effects of elevated temperature on the sexual traits,
514 immunology and survivorship of a tropical ectotherm. *J Exp Biol.* 2013 Jul
515 15;216(14):2658–64.
- 516 53. IPCC. Climate Change 2023: Synthesis Report [Internet]. Geneva, Switzerland:
517 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; 2023. Report No.: AR6 Synthesis Report.
518 Available from: <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/syr/>
- 519 54. Rasband, W.S. ImageJ, U.S. [Internet]. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda,
520 Maryland, USA; 1997. Available from: <https://imagej.net/ij/>
- 521 55. Auer SK, Dick CA, Metcalfe NB, Reznick DN. Metabolic rate evolves rapidly and in
522 parallel with the pace of life history. *Nat Commun.* 2018 Jan 2;9(1):14.

- 523 56. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing [Internet].
524 Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2022. Available from:
525 <https://www.R-project.org/>
- 526 57. Engqvist L. The mistreatment of covariate interaction terms in linear model analyses of
527 behavioural and evolutionary ecology studies. *Anim Behav.* 2005 Oct 1;70(4):967–71.
- 528 58. Dmitriew CM. The evolution of growth trajectories: what limits growth rate? *Biol Rev.*
529 2011;86(1):97–116.
- 530 59. Burns JG, Di Nardo P, Rodd FH. The role of predation in variation in body shape in
531 guppies *Poecilia reticulata*: a comparison of field and common garden phenotypes. *J*
532 *Fish Biol.* 2009;75(6):1144–57.
- 533 60. Endler JA. Multiple-trait coevolution and environmental gradients in guppies. *Trends*
534 *Ecol Evol.* 1995 Jan;10(1):22–9.
- 535 61. Reznick D, Butler IV MJ, Rodd H. Life-history evolution in guppies. VII. The comparative
536 ecology of high- and low-predation environments. *Am Nat.* 2001 Feb;157(2):126–40.
- 537 62. Arendt JD, Reznick DN. Evolution of juvenile growth rates in female guppies (*Poecilia*
538 *reticulata*): predator regime or resource level? *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci.* 2005 Feb
539 2;272(1560):333–7.
- 540 63. Rodd FH, Reznick DN. Variation in the demography of guppy populations: the
541 importance of predation and life histories. *Ecology.* 1997;78(2):405–18.
- 542 64. Ahti PA, Kuparinen A, Uusi-Heikkilä S. Size does matter — the eco-evolutionary effects
543 of changing body size in fish. *Environ Rev.* 2020 Sep;28(3):311–24.
- 544 65. Barneche DR, Robertson DR, White CR, Marshall DJ. Fish reproductive-energy output
545 increases disproportionately with body size. *Science.* 2018 May 11;360(6389):642–5.
- 546 66. Herdman EJE, Kelly CD, Godin JGJ. Male mate choice in the guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*):
547 do males prefer larger females as mates? *Ethology.* 2004;110(2):97–111.
- 548 67. Magellan K, Pettersson LB, Magurran AE. Quantifying male attractiveness and mating
549 behaviour through phenotypic size manipulation in the Trinidadian guppy, *Poecilia*
550 *reticulata*. *Behav Ecol Sociobiol.* 2005 Aug 1;58(4):366–74.
- 551 68. Guerrero AG, Daniel MJ, Hughes KA. Black and orange coloration predict success
552 during male–male competition in the guppy. *Behav Ecol.* 2022 Oct 7;arac093.
- 553 69. Órfão I, Barbosa M, Ojanguren AF, Vicente L, Varela SAM, Magurran AE. Me against
554 who? Male guppies adjust mating behaviour according to their rival's presence and
555 attractiveness. *Ethology.* 2019;125(6):399–408.
- 556 70. Holtby LB, Healey MC. Sex-specific life history tactics and risk-taking in coho salmon.
557 *Ecology.* 1990;71(2):678–90.
- 558 71. Jordan LA, Brooks RC. The lifetime costs of increased male reproductive effort:
559 courtship, copulation and the Coolidge effect. *J Evol Biol.* 2010;23(11):2403–9.
- 560 72. Gopal AC, Alujević K, Logan ML. Temperature and the pace of life. *Behav Ecol*
561 *Sociobiol.* 2023 May 25;77(5):59.

- 562 73. Immonen E, Hämäläinen A, Schuett W, Tarka M. Evolution of sex-specific pace-of-life
563 syndromes: genetic architecture and physiological mechanisms. *Behav Ecol Sociobiol.*
564 2018 Mar 16;72(3):60.
- 565 74. Parker GA. The evolution of sexual size dimorphism in fish. *J Fish Biol.* 1992;41(sB):1–
566 20.
- 567 75. Niu J, Huss M, Vasemägi A, Gårdmark A. Decades of warming alters maturation and
568 reproductive investment in fish. *Ecosphere.* 2023;14(1):e4381.
- 569 76. Boulton K, Rosenthal GG, Grimmer AJ, Walling CA, Wilson AJ. Sex-specific plasticity
570 and genotype × sex interactions for age and size of maturity in the sheepshead
571 swordtail, *Xiphophorus birchmanni*. *J Evol Biol.* 2016 Mar 1;29(3):645–56.
- 572 77. Grinder RM, Bassar RD, Auer SK. Upper thermal limits are repeatable in Trinidadian
573 guppies. *J Therm Biol.* 2020 May 1;90:102597.
- 574 78. Horppila J, Estlander S, Olin M, Pihlajamäki J, Vinni M, Nurminen L. Gender-dependent
575 effects of water quality and conspecific density on the feeding rate of fish – factors
576 behind sexual growth dimorphism. *Oikos.* 2011;120(6):855–61.
- 577 79. Volkoff H, Rønnestad I. Effects of temperature on feeding and digestive processes in
578 fish. *Temperature.* 2020 Oct 1;7(4):307–20.
- 579 80. Deane EE, Woo NYS. Modulation of fish growth hormone levels by salinity, temperature,
580 pollutants and aquaculture related stress: a review. *Rev Fish Biol Fish.* 2009 Mar
581 1;19(1):97–120.
- 582 81. Gabillard JC, Weil C, Rescan PY, Navarro I, Gutierrez J. Does the GH/IGF system
583 mediate the effect of water temperature on fish growth? A review. 2005;
- 584 82. Celino-Brady FT, Breves JP, Seale AP. Sex-specific responses to growth hormone and
585 luteinizing hormone in a model teleost, the Mozambique tilapia. *Gen Comp Endocrinol.*
586 2022 Dec 1;329:114119.
- 587 83. Mandiki SNM, Houbart M, Babiak I, Vandeloise E, Gardeur JN, Kestemont P. Are sex
588 steroids involved in the sexual growth dimorphism in Eurasian perch juveniles? *Physiol*
589 *Behav.* 2004 Feb 1;80(5):603–9.
- 590 84. Rennie MD, Purchase CF, Lester N, Collins NC, Shuter BJ, Abrams PA. Lazy males?
591 Bioenergetic differences in energy acquisition and metabolism help to explain sexual
592 size dimorphism in percids. *J Anim Ecol.* 2008;77(5):916–26.
- 593 85. Gagliano M, McCormick MI. Compensating in the wild: is flexible growth the key to early
594 juvenile survival? *Oikos.* 2007;116(1):111–20.
- 595 86. Álvarez D, Metcalfe NB. Catch-up growth and swimming performance in threespine
596 sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*): seasonal changes in the cost of compensation.
597 *Can J Fish Aquat Sci.* 2005 Sep;62(9):2169–76.

598

599 **Supplementary materials**

600 **Supplementary methods**

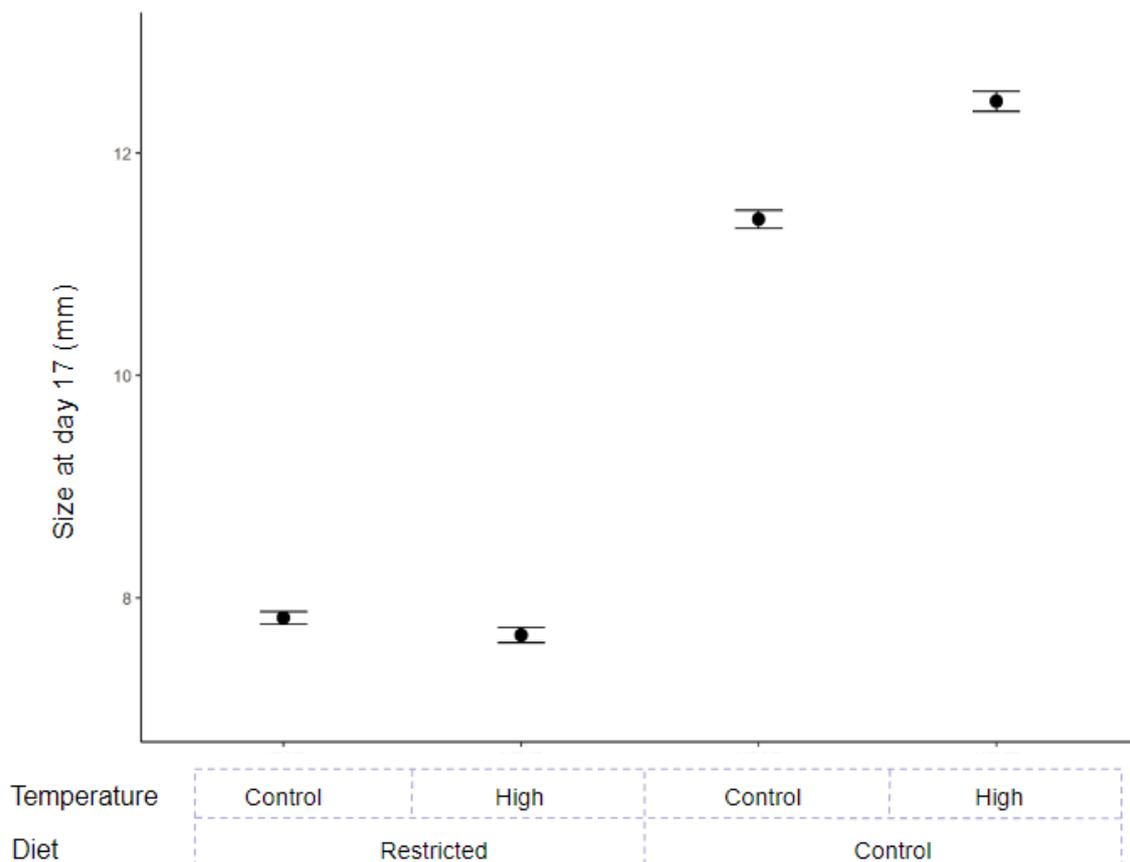
601 **Statistical analysis**

602 We have pre-registered our statistical analyses following the Open Science Framework. We
603 have included another growth rate variable that was not present in our original analyses. For
604 that, we calculated growth rate until sexual maturity for all treatments to better understand
605 overall compensatory growth, following (Vega-Trejo et al., 2016). Additionally, we originally
606 described performing model analysis including all three-way interactions (diet, temperature,
607 and sex). Since we obtained multiple two and three-way interactions for several of our
608 models and given the biological differences between male and female guppies, we extended
609 our original analyses by splitting our models for three variables (overall growth rate, age, and
610 size at maturity) by sex to better understand the sex specific effects.

611 **References**

612 Vega-Trejo, R., Head, M. L., & Jennions, M. D. (2016). Inbreeding depression does not
613 increase after exposure to a stressful environment: A test using compensatory growth.
614 *BMC Evolutionary Biology*, 16(1), 68. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12862-016-0640-1>

615 **Supplementary figures**



616

617 Supplementary Fig 1. Mean body size immediately after diet restriction period (day 17) separated by
618 treatment (diet * temperature). Error bars are standard errors.

619

620 Supplementary Table 1. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of body size at day 17 (after diet
 621 restriction period) with chi-square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet,
 622 temperature, and sex.

623

Full model		Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects						
Intercept (control, control, female)		11.425	0.120	82.368	9034.556	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)		-3.521	0.122	395.558	830.115	< 0.001
Temperature (high)		1.114	0.121	397.550	84.018	< 0.001
Sex (male)		-0.004	0.124	398.162	0.001	0.974
Diet * Temp		-1.226	0.175	397.173	49.208	< 0.001
Diet * Sex		-0.086	0.176	399.030	0.238	0.625
Temp * Sex		-0.074	0.179	401.508	0.168	0.682
Diet * Temp * Sex		0.010	0.253	400.973	0.001	0.970
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups			
Brood ID (intercept)	0.1889	0.4346	28			
Two-way model		Estimate	SE	Df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects						
Intercept (control, control, female)		11.426	0.117	74.130	9574.518	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)		-3.523	0.105	396.187	1109.192	< 0.001
Temperature (high)		1.111	0.104	396.928	112.039	< 0.001
Sex (male)		-0.006	0.107	399.779	3.6e-3	0.952
Temp * Sex		-0.688	0.125	400.912	0.298	0.585
Diet * Sex		-0.081	0.125	401.5	0.416	0.519
Diet * Temp		-1.221	0.122	394.401	99.858	< 0.001
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups			
Brood ID (intercept)	0.1889	0.4346	28			
Reduced model		Estimate	SE	Df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects						

Intercept (control, control, female)	11.76	0.11	55.17	11592.93	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	-4.16	0.07	399.75	3707.26	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.47	0.07	398.19	47.71	< 0.001
Sex (male)	-0.07	0.07	404.56	0.959	0.327

Random effect	Variance	<i>sd</i>	Number of groups
Brood ID (intercept)	0.186	0.4312	28

624

625

626 Supplementary Table 2. Results from estimated marginal means (EEMs) pairwise comparisons among
 627 four treatments for body size at day 17 (after diet restriction period) with t-ratio values for
 628 significance tests.

Contrast	t ratio	p value
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, control temp	41.589	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-12.493	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	42.542	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-53.937	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	1.667	0.342
Control diet, high temp - Restricted diet, high temp	54.724	< 0.001

629 Supplementary Table 3. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of initial growth rate with chi-
 630 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex.

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	0.022	0.001	89.199	425.125	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	0.006	0.001	387.933	32.197	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.008	0.001	389.022	43.627	< 0.001
Sex (male)	0.001	0.001	391.069	1.371	0.242
Diet * Temp	-0.001	0.002	388.874	0.493	0.482
Diet * Sex	-0.002	0.002	392.199	1.772	0.183
Temp * Sex	-0.003	0.002	394.563	2.607	0.106
Diet * Temp * Sex	0.002	0.002	393.892	0.869	0.351
Random effect					
Variance	sd	Number of groups			
Brood ID (intercept)	1.274e-05	0.003	28		
Two-way interaction model					
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	0.022	0.001	79.753	461.460	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	0.006	0.001	388.336	36.010	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.007	0.001	388.861	50.590	< 0.001
Sex (male)	0.001	0.001	392.566	0.670	0.410
Diet * Sex	-0.001	0.001	394.390	0.900	0.340

Temp * Sex	-0.002	0.001	394.466	1.840	0.170
Diet * Temp	-5.8e-05	0.001	385.971	0.000	0.960

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
Brood ID (intercept)	1.281e-05	0.003	28

Reduced model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	0.023	9.118e-04	51.251	615.658	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	0.005	5.713e-04	390.951	87.452	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.006	5.711e-04	389.373	119.213	< 0.001
Sex (male)	-4.942e-4	5.843e-04	396.244	0.715	0.398

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
Brood ID (intercept)	1.297e-05	3.601e-3	28

631

632 Supplementary Table 4. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of overall growth rate with chi-
633 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex. Given
634 a significant three-way interaction, we followed this up by running separate models for males and
635 females to look at sex specific effects (see Supplementary Tables 5 and 7).

636

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	0.016	0.000	131.059	1689.546	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	0.004	0.000	389.137	76.487	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.001	0.000	391.428	4.317	0.038
Sex (male)	-0.002	0.000	393.368	25.195	< 0.001
Diet * Temp	-0.002	0.001	390.577	5.423	0.020
Diet * Sex	-0.001	0.001	394.761	4.619	0.032
Temp * Sex	0.002	0.001	398.156	6.761	0.009
Diet * Temp * Sex	0.002	0.001	396.665	5.919	0.015
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups		

Brood ID (intercept)	1.255e-06	0.001	28
-------------------------	-----------	-------	----

637

638 Supplementary Table 5. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of overall female growth rate with
639 chi-square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet and temperature.

640

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control)	0.017	4.213e-04	68.265	1536.714	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	0.004	4.666e-04	190.928	75.125	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	0.001	4.758e-04	192.370	3.080	0.079
Diet * Temp	-0.001	6.822e-04	191.542	4.195	0.041
Random eff	Variance	sd	Number of groups		
Brood ID (intercept)	1.766e-06	0.001	28		

641

642 Supplementary Table 6. Results from estimated marginal means (EEMs) pairwise comparisons among
643 four treatments (diet * temperature) for overall female growth rate with t-ratio values for significance
644 tests.

645

Pairwise comparison	t ratio	p value
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, control temp	-8.65	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-1.751	0.301
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-7.263	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	6.646	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	1.15	0.659
Control diet, high temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-5.345	< 0.001

646 Supplementary Table 7. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of overall male growth rate with
647 chi-square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet and temperature.

648

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
------------	----------	----	----	----------	---

Fixed effects						
Intercept (control, control)		0.014	4.142e-04	87.885	1158.130	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)		0.003	4.898e-04	186.770	26.462	< 0.001
Temperature (high)		0.003	5.137e-04	191.652	26.399	< 0.001
Diet * Temp		0.001	7.104e-04	188.155	2.182	0.140
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups			
Brood ID (intercept)	1.103e-06	0.001	28			
Reduced model						
		Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects						
Intercept (control, control)		0.014	3.719e-04	65.24	1382.316	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)		0.003	3.557e-04	189.9	72.010	< 0.001
Temperature (high)		0.003	3.565e-04	190.6	79.982	< 0.001
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups			
Brood ID (intercept)	1.086e-06	0.001	28			

649

650 Supplementary Table 8. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of age at maturity with chi-square
651 (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex. Given
652 multiple two-way interactions, we followed this up by running separate models for males and females
653 to look at sex specific effects (see Supplementary table 9 and 10).

654

Full model		Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects						
Intercept (control, control, female)		46.832	0.916	231.241	2611.571	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)		5.104	1.222	406.064	17.437	< 0.001
Temperature (high)		2.473	1.212	410.701	4.161	0.041
Sex (male)		2.922	1.237	410.853	5.580	0.018
Diet * Temp		7.215	1.748	409.379	17.034	< 0.001
Diet * Sex		4.107	1.751	412.383	5.500	0.019
Temp * Sex		-12.431	1.780	416.391	48.751	< 0.001

Diet * Temp * Sex -4.306 2.521 415.190 2.918 0.088

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
---------------	----------	----	------------------

Brood ID (intercept)	3.055	1.748	28
----------------------	-------	-------	----

Two-way model	Estimate	SE	Df	χ^2	P
---------------	----------	----	----	----------	---

Fixed effects

Intercept (control, control, female)	46.349	0.876	203.246	2799.764	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	6.140	1.064	405.370	33.312	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	3.497	1.055	407.369	10.982	0.001
Sex (male)	3.974	1.076	411.618	13.643	< 0.001
Diet * Temp	5.100	1.236	400.699	17.028	< 0.001
Diet * Sex	2.017	1.257	414.764	2.576	0.109
Temp * Sex	-14.587	1.259	415.115	134.265	< 0.001

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
---------------	----------	----	------------------

Brood ID (intercept)	3.156	1.777	28
----------------------	-------	-------	----

655 Supplementary Table 9. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of female age at maturity with chi-
 656 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex.

657

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
------------	----------	----	----	----------	---

Fixed effects

Intercept (control, control, female)	46.839	1.145	106.537	1673.010	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	4.970	1.472	204.291	11.406	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	2.352	1.464	207.911	2.580	0.108
Diet * Temp	7.258	2.111	206.868	11.823	< 0.001

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
---------------	----------	----	------------------

Brood ID (intercept)	6.457	2.541	28
----------------------	-------	-------	----

Reduced model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
---------------	----------	----	----	----------	---

Fixed effects

Intercept (control, control, female)	45.192	1.061	83.114	1812.597	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	8.524	1.075	206.317	62.852	< 0.001

Temperature (high) 5.860 1.077 207.670 29.595 < 0.001

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
Brood ID (intercept)	6.557	2.561	28

658
659

660 Supplementary Table 10. Results from estimated marginal means (EEMs) pairwise comparisons
661 among four treatments (diet * temperature) for female age at maturity with t-ratio values for
662 significance tests.

Contrast	t ratio	p value
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, control temp	-3.368	0.005
Control diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-1.599	0.382
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-9.813	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	1.754	0.299
Restricted diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-6.328	< 0.001
Control diet, high temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-8.096	< 0.001

663

664 Supplementary Table 11. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of male age at maturity with chi-
665 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex.

666

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	49.830	0.666	129.749	5597.141	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	9.335	0.881	197.898	112.145	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	-9.963	0.910	202.770	119.925	< 0.001
Diet * Temp	2.713	1.269	200.280	4.568	0.033
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups		
Brood ID (intercept)	0.764	0.874	28		

667 Supplementary Table 12. Results from estimated marginal means (EEMs) pairwise comparisons
668 among four treatments (diet * temperature) for male age at maturity with t-ratio values for
669 significance tests.

670

Contrast	t ratio	p value
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, control temp	-10.541	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	10.869	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-2.272	0.108
Restricted diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	21.772	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	8.153	< 0.001
Control diet, high temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-13.117	< 0.001

671 Supplementary Table 13. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of size at maturity with chi-
672 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex. Given
673 the three-way interaction, this model was divided for males and females (see Supplementary Table 14
674 and 16).

675

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	17.021	0.167	99.591	10338.480	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	-0.839	0.183	394.725	21.008	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	1.195	0.182	397.620	43.103	< 0.001
Sex (male)	-1.244	0.186	397.985	44.811	< 0.001
Diet * Temp	0.930	0.264	396.746	12.384	< 0.001
Diet * Sex	0.720	0.263	398.994	7.467	0.006
Temp * Sex	-1.517	0.269	402.115	31.797	< 0.001
Diet * Temp * Sex	-0.886	0.382	401.144	5.389	0.020
Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups		
Brood ID (intercept)	0.309	0.556	28		

676

677 Supplementary Table 14. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of female size at maturity with
678 chi-square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex.

679

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					

Intercept (control, control, female)	17.008	0.206	64.233	6798.934	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	-0.904	0.224	194.555	16.330	< 0.001
Temperature (high)	1.143	0.224	197.347	26.121	< 0.001
Diet * Temp	0.979	0.324	196.164	9.108	0.002

Random effect	Variance	sd	Number of groups
Brood ID (intercept)	0.451	0.671	28

680

681 Supplementary Table 12. Results from estimated marginal means (EEMs) pairwise comparisons
 682 among four treatments (diet * temperature) for female size at maturity with t-ratio values for
 683 significance tests.

Contrast	t ratio	p value
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, control temp	4.034	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-5.097	< 0.001
Control diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-5.296	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Control diet, high temp	-9.031	< 0.001
Restricted diet, control temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-9.047	< 0.001
Control diet, high temp - Restricted diet, high temp	-0.32	0.989

684 Supplementary Table 16. Results from linear mixed models (LMM) of male size at maturity with chi-
 685 square (χ^2) values for significance tests of estimated parameters for diet, temperature, and sex.

686

Full model	Estimate	SE	df	χ^2	P
Fixed effects					
Intercept (control, control, female)	15.875	0.137	58.028	1346 0.20 0	< 0.001
Diet (restricted)	-0.202	0.128	184.497	2.48 0	0.115
Temperature (high)	-0.392	0.134	187.031	8.62 3	0.003
Diet * Temp	0.092	0.185	185.002	0.24 6	0.620

Random effect	Variance	<i>sd</i>	Number of groups
---------------	----------	-----------	------------------

Brood ID (intercept)	0.264	0.513	28
----------------------	-------	-------	----

Reduced model	Estimate	<i>SE</i>	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>P</i>
---------------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------	----------

Fixed effects

Intercept (control, control, female)	15.851	0.128	46.280	1543 1.04 0	< 0.001
--------------------------------------	--------	-------	--------	-------------------	---------

Diet (restricted)	-0.157	0.092	186.711	2.91 5	0.088
-------------------	--------	-------	---------	-----------	-------

Temperature (high)	-0.344	0.092	186.843	13.8 78	< 0.001
--------------------	--------	-------	---------	------------	----------------

Random effect	Variance	<i>sd</i>	Number of groups
---------------	----------	-----------	------------------

Brood ID (intercept)	0.261	0.511	28
----------------------	-------	-------	----

687

688