

# Variations in seasonal (not mean) temperatures drive rapid adaptations to novel environments at a continent scale

Jean-claude Tourneur, Joël Meunier

## ► To cite this version:

Jean-claude Tourneur, Joël Meunier. Variations in seasonal (not mean) temperatures drive rapid adaptations to novel environments at a continent scale. Ecology, 2020, 101 (4), pp.e02973. 10.1002/ecy.2973 . hal-02471098

# HAL Id: hal-02471098 https://univ-tours.hal.science/hal-02471098

Submitted on 20 May 2020

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# 1 Variations in seasonal (not mean) temperatures drive rapid adaptations to

## 2 novel environments at a continent-scale

- 3 *Running title:* Climate adaptation in earwigs
- 4 Jean-Claude Tourneur<sup>1</sup>, Joël Meunier<sup>2\*</sup>
- <sup>5</sup> <sup>1</sup> Département des Sciences biologiques, Université du Québec à Montréal 141. Avenue du
- 6 Président-Kennedy, Montréal, Québec, H2X 1Y4, Canada.
- 7 Email: jc.tourneur@nb.sympatico.ca
- 8 <sup>2</sup> Institut de Recherche sur la Biologie de l'Insecte (IRBI), UMR 7261, CNRS, Université de
- 9 Tours, Tours, France.
- 10 Email: joel.meunier@univ-tours.fr | ORCID: 0000-0001-6893-2064
- 11 \*Corresponding author.

## 12 ABSTRACT

13 The recent development of human societies has led to major, rapid and often inexorable 14 changes in the environment of most animal species. Over the last decades, a growing number 15 of studies formulated predictions on the modalities of animal adaptation to novel or changing 16 environments, questioning how and at what speed animals should adapt to such changes, 17 discussing the levels of risks imposed by changes in the mean and/or variance of temperatures 18 on animal performance, and exploring the underlying roles of phenotypic plasticity and genetic 19 inheritance. These fundamental predictions, however, remain poorly tested using field data. 20 Here, we tested these predictions using a unique continental-scale data set in the European 21 earwig Forficula auricularia L, a univoltine insect introduced in North America one century 22 ago. We conducted a common garden experiment, in which we measured 13 life-history traits 23 in 4158 field-sampled earwigs originating from 19 populations across North America. Our 24 results first demonstrate that 10 of the 13 measured life-history traits are associated with two 25 sets of variations in seasonal temperatures, i.e. winter-summer and autumn-spring. We found, 26 however, no association with the overall mean monthly temperatures of the invaded locations. 27 Furthermore, our use of a common garden setup reveals that the observed patterns of variation 28 in earwigs' life-history traits are not mere plastic responses to their current environment, but 29 are either due to their genetic background and/or to the environmental conditions they 30 experienced during early life development. Overall, these findings provide continent-scale 31 support to the claims that adaptation to thermal changes can occur quickly (in less than 100 32 generations), even in insects with long life cycles, and emphasize the importance of variation 33 in seasonal temperature over mean population temperatures in climate adaptation.

34 Keywords: Temperature, Adaptation, Reproductive strategy, Climate change, Invasion,
35 Dermaptera

## 36 INTRODUCTION

37 Adaptation to novel and changing environments is a keystone in our current understanding of 38 species distribution, abundance and evolution (Holt 1990). Over the last century, the 39 development of human activities has led to rapid and often inexorable changes in the 40 environment of many living organisms (Parmesan 2006). These changes occur, for instance, 41 due to human trade and transit, which increasingly favours the transport (invasion) of a large 42 number of animal and plant species out of their native area (Hulme 2009), and possibly bring 43 them to novel environments with unfamiliar biotic and/or abiotic properties (Jeschke and 44 Strayer 2005). These changes can also occur in the native area of these organisms due to the 45 global climate change, a phenomenon that has accelerated over the last decades and now 46 reaches an unprecedented speed (Meehl and Tebaldi 2004, Williams et al. 2007). Because the 47 extent and multiplicity of these rapid environmental changes challenge the ability of resident 48 populations to track them and adapt their life histories accordingly, understanding the nature 49 of animals' adaptation to novel and changing environment is considered a critical, ongoing and 50 challenging question in ecology (Parmesan 2006, Hill et al. 2016, 2019, Courchamp et al. 51 2017).

52 Among the multiple parameters that can vary when a species is exposed to a novel or 53 changing environment, the mean and seasonal temperatures can be particularly critical. This is 54 because the severity and duration of changes in the temperatures experienced by an individual during its entire or a specific period of its life cycle can alter a great number of its life history 55 56 traits and ultimately modify its own fitness. For instance, extended winter durations or exposure 57 to warmer environmental conditions can shape the size and time of first reproduction (Fretwell 1972, Altizer et al. 2006), the duration of foetal development and levels of immune activity 58 59 (Körner et al. 2018, Zhang et al. 2019), as well as the mobility, morphology and metabolism 60 of individuals (Adamczewski et al. 1993, Danks 2000, Polidori et al. 2019).

61 Over the last decades, a great number of modelling and theoretical approaches have 62 been developed to better understand the nature and extent of animals' adaptation to novel 63 temperatures (Parmesan 2006). These studies formulated key predictions on how and at what 64 speed animals should adapt to such changes, on the respective importance of an increase in the 65 overall mean temperature and/or seasonality of a population on animal performance, as well as 66 on the underlying roles of phenotypic plasticity and genetic inheritance in adaption (Nylin and 67 Gotthard 1998, Kingsolver et al. 2013, Paaijmans et al. 2013, Gilbert et al. 2014, Merilä and 68 Hendry 2014, Levis and Pfennig 2016, Williams et al. 2017, Corl et al. 2018, Fox et al. 2019, 69 Rohner et al. 2019). For instance, these studies suggest that adaptation to climate change should 70 be rapid in organisms with fast development and short life-cycles, as found in many arthropods, 71 whereas it should be slower in organisms exhibiting delayed development and long life-cycles, 72 as found in many vertebrates. Species should also be less sensitive to changes in seasonality 73 compared to changes in overall mean temperatures when they are endotherms and/or when 74 their entire life-cycle occur within a single season, whereas the opposite pattern is expected 75 when they are ectotherms and/or have a life-cycle encompassing several seasons. Finally, 76 phenotypic plasticity is often considered a keystone of rapid adaptation to environmental 77 changes, whereas fixed and inherited patterns of adaptation are often thought to secondarily 78 derive from the canalization of ancestral plastic variation (Chevin et al. 2010).

Although central in our current understanding of animal's adaptation to novel temperatures, these fundamental predictions remain poorly tested in the field (Janion-Scheepers et al. 2017, Blanckenhorn et al. 2018). This is probably because such field data are difficult to collect, as it typically requires measuring variation in life-history traits across multiple natural populations, over several years, and under different climates. A powerful alternative consists in using field data of introduced species that recently invaded large geographic areas exhibiting a broad diversity of thermal constraints (Huey et al. 2000, Bellard

86 et al. 2016). The European earwig Forficula auricularia Linnaeus (Dermaptera: Forficulidae) 87 is one of these species. This insect exhibits a broad native range extending across Europe, Asia and northern Africa (Lamb and Wellington 1975) from which it has been introduced to 88 89 Australia, New Zealand, East Africa, East Indies, Tasmania and North America (Frank 1918, 90 Guillet et al. 2000, Quarrell et al. 2018, Hill et al. 2019). Its presence in North America was 91 first reported on the Pacific coast in Seattle (WA) in 1907, and then on the Atlantic coast in 92 Newport (RI) in 1911 and in Vancouver (BC) in 1919 (Crumb et al. 1941). From these 93 introductory foci (Figure 1), historical data suggests that F. auricularia first spread along the 94 coasts to cover areas ranging from British Columbia to California and from Newfoundland to 95 South Carolina, and then spread to the interior of the continent in both United States of America 96 and Canada (Crumb et al. 1941, Tourneur 2017)(Historical records are detailed in Appendix 97 S1: Table S1). Given that this species produces only one generation per year (Tourneur and 98 Gingras 1992, Meunier et al. 2012), these data reveal that its successful colonization of North 99 America and thus its adaptation to a broad diversity of thermal environments occurred in less 100 than 100 generations.

101 In this study, we conducted a common garden experiment to explore how F. auricularia 102 responded to the different thermal environments encountered during their North American 103 invasion over the last century, i.e. in less than 100 generations. Because the univoltine life cycle 104 of the European earwig encompasses all seasons and temperatures (Lamb 1976, Meunier et al. 105 2012), it has long been thought that annual mean temperatures and/or seasonality could be 106 major constraints in its invasive success (Vancassel 1984, Hill et al. 2019). However, it remains 107 unclear whether this species can mitigate these thermal constraints, and whether it does so by 108 adapting its life cycle and life-history traits (Ratz et al. 2016, Tourneur 2018).

Here, we 1) tested whether and how thermal constraints of the invaded locationsselected for specific developmental, reproductive and fitness traits (later called life history

111 traits), 2) identified the thermal constraints to which they adapted and 3) investigated the role 112 of phenotypic plasticity in this adaptation. From 1988 to 1995, we field-sampled individuals 113 originating from 19 populations located from the East to the West coasts, maintained them under standard laboratory conditions and measured the properties of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> (generally 114 115 terminal) clutches produced by each female in terms of egg laying date, egg number, egg 116 development time and number of newly hatched larvae. We also recorded the reproductive 117 strategy of the females (iteroparity versus semelparity), their reproductive outcome (total 118 number of eggs and larvae produced over lifetime), as well as the experimental survival 119 duration of the field-sampled males and females. To identify which thermal constraints the 120 tested earwigs adapted to, we tested whether our measurements could be explained by the 121 results of a principal component analyses (PCA) of the mean monthly temperatures of each 122 population. This process characterizes patterns of variation among populations' temperatures without a priori definitions of their associations, i.e. without predetermining the focus on 123 124 overall mean temperatures and/or variation of temperatures between seasons or months. 125 Generating these temperature predictor variables without a priori definitions of their 126 composition was important, as both temperatures' average and seasonal variability can shape 127 animal life histories (Kingsolver et al. 2013). If F. auricularia individuals adapted their life-128 cycle and life-history traits to the mean temperatures and/or seasonal temperature variation of 129 the population in which they have been sampled (and if this adaptation is determined by their 130 genetic background and/or early life experience), we predict these traits to covary with the 131 overall mean temperatures and/or variation in seasonal temperatures of their population (i.e. all 132 sampled populations should show different performance in the common garden). Conversely, 133 if earwig life-history traits are independent of the thermal environment of the population in 134 which they have been sampled (i.e. no adaptation) and/or are plastic to their current thermal 135 environment, we predict no apparent association between the traits measured in our fieldsampled individuals and the seasonal temperature variation of their populations (i.e. allsampled populations should show similar performance in the common garden).

#### 138 MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### 139 Earwig biology

140 The life cycle of the European earwig generally starts with the emergence of new adults in late 141 spring to early July (with variation among populations). These adults form groups of up to 142 several hundred individuals, in which both males and females typically mate with several partners (Weiß et al. 2014, Sandrin et al. 2015, Tourneur 2017). Females then burrow in the 143 144 ground from mid fall to early winter and build a nest where they lay their first clutch of eggs. 145 After egg laving, females stop their foraging activity and provide extensive forms of egg care 146 until hatching (Gingras and Tourneur 2001, Boos et al. 2014, Koch and Meunier 2014, Thesing 147 et al. 2015, Diehl and Meunier 2018, Körner et al. 2018). The eggs of this first clutch hatch in 148 spring and mothers remain with their newly hatched larvae for several weeks, during which mothers provide larvae with multiple forms of care (Gingras and Tourneur 2001, Kölliker et 149 150 al. 2015, Kramer et al. 2015) and larvae exhibit forms of sibling cooperation (Falk et al. 2014, 151 Kramer et al. 2015, Kramer and Meunier 2016, Körner et al. 2016). A few weeks later, the 152 family unit is naturally disrupted. While larvae continue their development to adults in new 153 social groups, some females produce a second clutch of eggs (i.e. iteroparous as compared to 154 semelparous females), which will also receive pre- and post-hatching care and will hatch in 155 late spring (Lamb and Wellington 1975, Meunier et al. 2012, Ratz et al. 2016). All females 156 generally die during the following summer (Albouy and Caussanel 1990).

157 Whereas the European earwig is often considered a pest control in its native range 158 (Moerkens et al. 2012), it has been described as an agricultural pest and a nuisance of human

habitations in its newly colonized area (Crumb et al. 1941, Lamb and Wellington 1975, Walker
et al. 1993, Quarrell et al. 2016, 2018). Moreover, this species has been suggested to have partly
drove the decline of threatened and endangered invertebrates in America, such as the El
Segundo Blue Butterfly *Euphilotes bernardino allyni* and the Valley Elder-berry Longhorn
Beetle *Desmocerus californicus dimorphus* (Quarrell et al. 2018).

## 164 Earwig sampling and laboratory rearing

All F. auricularia individuals were collected over 7 years among 19 natural populations located 165 166 across North America (Figure 1, Table 1). These individuals were mostly collected as adults using wooden traps (Tourneur 2018) between July and August, and were immediately setup in 167 168 glass containers (Mason Jars Company, Erie, Pennsylvania, United States of America) in 169 groups of 20 to 30 individuals. These containers received two sheets of creased toilet paper as 170 resting places for earwigs, and were then transported to the laboratory in Montreal, Canada. 171 Upon their arrival, containers were deposited in a shelf covered by a shelter and maintained 172 under the natural outdoor conditions of Montreal. During their transport and outdoor 173 maintenance, containers received an ad libitum amount of carrots and pollen as a food source 174 for earwigs, and were supplied with water by means of a cotton pad regularly soaked in water. 175 This setup allowed earwigs to perform non-controlled mating and to live in groups, which is similar to their natural living conditions (Weiß et al. 2014, Sandrin et al. 2015, Kohlmeier et 176 177 al. 2016, Körner et al. 2018).

One to two months later (between the 7<sup>th</sup> and the 19<sup>th</sup> day of October of each year), we used 4158 of these field-sampled individuals to set up 2079 mating pairs (from 17 to 356 pairs per population, see Table 1), in which we subsequently measured 13 life-history traits (see below). These pairs were set up in Petri dishes (diameter 10 cm) lined with a thin layer of moist sand, and in which food was changed and substrate humidified once a week. Each Petri dish was then transferred in a climate chamber and then maintained at  $10 \pm 1$  °C, a temperature

184 close to the overall median temperature of the 19 sampled populations (i.e. 9.5°C, see Appendix 185 S1: Table S2). Food was removed at egg laying to mimic the natural end of earwigs' foraging 186 activity (Kölliker 2007). At egg hatching, we discarded all newly emerged larvae from the 187 experiments to trigger a novel ovarian cycle in the mothers and allow their production of a 188 subsequent clutch (Vancassel and Foraste 1980, Meunier et al. 2012). We then maintained the 189 pairs under the rearing conditions described above until our experiment ended, i.e. either one 190 year after the beginning of our laboratory setup or at the death of the adult males and females. 191 Overall, 3927 of the 4158 (94.4%) tested individuals died within the year following the 192 beginning of our experiments, a value in line with previous data on F. auricularia lifespan 193 (Albouy and Caussanel 1990). Note that recent studies revealed that North American F. 194 *auricularia* encompasses two genetic subspecies with no apparent mixing of their populations 195 (Wirth et al. 1998, Quarrell et al. 2018, Tourneur 2018). Although these subspecies were not 196 considered in our analyses (our data were collected before the publication of these genetic 197 analyses), the continuous distribution (unimodal data) of the life history traits measured across 198 populations (Figures 2 to 4) suggests an absence of subspecies-specific values regarding these 199 measurements. The potential co-occurrence of the two subspecies in our data set is thus 200 unlikely to bias our study and its main conclusions.

## 201 Measurements of the life-history traits

For each mating pair, we measured 13 life-history traits encompassing the properties of the resulting 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> clutches (when present), the reproductive strategy and reproductive outcomes of each female, as well as the experimental survival duration of both field-sampled males and females. These properties were obtained by recording the date of egg production, counting the number of eggs produced, calculating the duration of egg development until hatching (in days) and finally counting the number of larvae at egg hatching in both 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> clutches (when present). The reproductive strategies and reproductive outcomes of females 209 were obtained by recording whether they were semelparous or iteroparous (i.e. produced one 210 or two clutches in their lifetime, respectively), and by counting the total number of eggs and 211 larvae produced per female during their lifetime. Finally, we measured the experimental 212 survival duration of adults by counting the number of days each male and female survived after 213 October 1<sup>st</sup> of the year of field sampling. Although our measurement of survival duration does 214 not necessarily reflect adults longevity, as individuals could have different ages at field 215 sampling (see discussion), it nevertheless provides important insights into the period at which 216 males and females of each population die during the year. Note that 8.1% and 5.4% females 217 from Santa Cruz and Asheville, respectively, produced a third clutch. This third clutch was not 218 considered in the present study, as our experiment ended before their hatching.

## 219 Extraction of mean and seasonal temperatures of each population

220 We extracted the mean monthly temperature of the 19 studied populations using their GPS 221 coordinates (Table 1) and the Worldclim database v2.0 (http://www.worldclim.org/) with a 222 spatial resolution of 30 seconds. The mean temperatures provided by the Worldclim database 223 are calculated over 30 years, from 1970 to 2000. To reduce dimensionality of co-varying 224 temperatures in our data set while characterizing the variation in seasonal temperature of each 225 population without *a priori* definitions of their composition, we then conducted a Principal 226 Component Analysis (PCA) on the set of 12 mean monthly temperatures per population 227 (Appendix S1: Table S2). This analysis provided us with 12 orthogonal principal components 228 (PCs), out of which we retained the first three PCs (total variance explained = 98.6%, Table 2). 229 The first component (PC1) was positively loaded by almost all monthly temperatures, therefore 230 positively reflecting the overall mean temperature of a population. The second component 231 (PC2) revealed variation in seasonality between February on one hand, and June, July, and 232 August on the other hand. In particular, high values of PC2 reflected populations with cold 233 February (winter) and warm summer, whereas small values of PC2 reflected populations with warm February (winter) and cold summer. Finally, the third component (PC3) captured variation in seasonality between October and November on one hand, and April and May on the other hand. High values of PC3 therefore characterized populations with cold autumn and warm spring, whereas small values of PC3 characterized populations with warm autumn and cold spring.

## 239 Statistical analyses

240 To test whether F. auricularia adapt their life-cycle and life-history traits to North American 241 temperatures, we conducted a series of 12 linear models (LM in R) and one generalized linear 242 model (GLM in R) – see Table 3. In the 12 LMs, the three selected PCs and their interactions 243 were entered as explanatory variables (PC1, PC2 and PC3), whereas the response variable was either egg laying date, egg number, egg development time and larvae number for the 1st or 2nd 244 245 clutches (for a total of 8 LMs), the total number of eggs or larvae produced, or the survival 246 duration of males or females. Note that both egg laying date and adult survival duration were 247 calculated using October 1<sup>st</sup> as day 0. In the GLM, the response variable was the ratio of 248 iteroparous females per population, which was entered using the command *cbind* in R (to 249 weight each ratio by the sample size of its population) and fitted to a binomial error distribution 250 corrected for overdispersion. In all our statistical models, the response variables were the mean 251 values of each measured trait per population. They were also checked for homoscedasticity and 252 normality of residuals, as well as simplified stepwise by removing all non-significant 253 interaction terms (all P > 0.05). To correct for inflated Type-I errors due to multiple testing 254 (and provide an experiment-wide Type I error rate of 5%), all P-values were adjusted using 255 False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995). All analyses were 256 conducted using the software R v3.5.1 loaded with the packages raster, FactoMineR, rsq and 257 rcompanion.

#### 258 **RESULTS**

259 The 19 study sites greatly varied in their mean and seasonal variation of temperature (Appendix 260 S1: Table S2), as well as in the mean values of the 13 traits measured in their sampled 261 individuals (Figures 2 to 4; Appendix S1: Tables S3 to S5). Mean monthly temperatures overall ranged from 22.9°C (July in Saluda) to -10.1°C (January in Montreal), while thermal 262 263 amplitudes over a year ranged from 30.7°C (Montreal) to 7.9°C (Santa Cruz). For the traits 264 measured in the 1<sup>st</sup> clutches, the mean  $\pm$  SE dates of egg production ranged from 47.8  $\pm$  0.8 to  $132.6 \pm 3.3$  days after the 1<sup>st</sup> of October, the mean  $\pm$  SE number of eggs per clutch from 23.2 265 266  $\pm$  1.9 to 66.0  $\pm$  2.3, the mean  $\pm$  SE egg development time from 42.2  $\pm$  1.0 to 71.4  $\pm$  0.8 days 267 and the mean  $\pm$  SE number of larvae per clutch from 11.6  $\pm$  2.0 to 44.8  $\pm$  3.2. For the 2<sup>nd</sup> 268 clutches, the mean  $\pm$  SE dates of egg production ranged from 142.0 to 248.2  $\pm$  5.3 days after 269 the 1<sup>st</sup> of October, the mean  $\pm$  SE number of eggs from 14.0 to 38.4  $\pm$  1.7, the mean  $\pm$  SE egg 270 development time from  $10.0 \pm 3.0$  to  $63.7 \pm 4.6$  days and the mean  $\pm$  SE number of larvae from 0 to  $17.7 \pm 8.8$ . Finally, the total number of eggs  $\pm$  SE produced ranged from  $28.1 \pm 2.6$  to 83.4271 272  $\pm$  2.9, the total number of larvae  $\pm$  SE produced from 13.0  $\pm$  2.2 to 46.3  $\pm$  3.5, the proportion 273 of iteroparous females from 0 to 70.8%, and the mean survival duration  $\pm$  SE of males and females from 82.0  $\pm$  15.4 to 299.8  $\pm$  8.6 days and from 146.0  $\pm$  4.7 to 322.5  $\pm$  7.6 days after 274 275 the 1<sup>st</sup> of October, respectively.

Of the 13 measured traits, 10 varied together with the seasonal temperature variation of the population of origin (Table 3). Five of these 10 traits were exclusively associated with PC2 (February-summer temperatures), two traits were exclusively associated with PC3 (autumnspring temperatures), and three traits were associated with both PC2 and PC3. By contrast, no traits were associated with PC1 (overall mean temperatures). The associations with PC2 revealed that populations with cold February and warm summers (high PC2 values) had females that produced their 1<sup>st</sup> clutch of eggs earlier and these eggs had longer development

time compared to populations exhibiting warm February and cold summers (low PC2 values, 283 284 Figure 2). Similarly, females from the former populations were less likely to produce a second clutch (i.e. to be iteroparous, Figure 3) and when they did so, their 2<sup>nd</sup> clutch eggs were less 285 286 numerous (Figure 3) and showed longer development time (Figure 3). Moreover, females and 287 males from populations with cold February and warm summers lived fewer days compared to 288 adults from warm February and cold summers (Figure 4). On the other hand, the effects of PC3 289 reveal that populations exhibiting cold autumns and warm springs (high PC3 values) had females that produced their 1<sup>st</sup> clutch of eggs later in the season and these eggs were less 290 291 numerous compared to females from populations with warm autumns and cold springs (low PC3 values, Figure 2). Females from populations with high PC3 values also had 2<sup>nd</sup> clutch eggs 292 293 that exhibited a shorter developmental time (Figure 3), they produced an overall lower number 294 of eggs (Figure 4) and had males with a longer survival duration (Figure 4). By contrast, PC1, 295 PC2 and PC3 did not shape the number of 1<sup>st</sup> clutch larvae, as well as their total number and the dates of 2<sup>nd</sup> clutch egg laying (Figures 2, 3 and 4; Table 3). 296

#### 297 **DISCUSSION**

298 In this study, we demonstrate that the successful invasion of the European earwig across North 299 America came with multiple changes in their life-history traits, and that these changes are 300 associated with seasonal variation in the temperatures - but not with overall mean temperatures 301 - of the invaded areas. In particular, our data from 19 populations revealed an association 302 between seasonal temperature variation and females' timing of first reproduction, reproductive 303 strategy and investment into egg production, as well as between seasonal temperature variation 304 and the experimental survival duration of both males and females. By contrast, we found no 305 association between seasonal temperature variation and both the timing of second clutch reproduction and the total number of larvae produced per female. 306

307 Our data first showed that females produced their first clutch of eggs earlier when they 308 came from populations facing warm summers and/or warm autumns (PC2 and PC3, 309 respectively), and were less likely to produce a second clutch in populations with cold 310 February. A plastic response to warm temperatures on egg laying date could be expected in 311 nature: adult earwigs typically develop and mate during summer and autumn, so that warm 312 temperatures during these seasons could accelerate their reproductive physiology (as shown in 313 other insect species, Singh et al., 2018) and thus accelerate egg laying (Tourneur 2018). 314 Similarly, cold Februaries might slow down the development of 1<sup>st</sup> clutch eggs and thus extend 315 the corresponding period of egg care. This, in turn, might inhibit females' physiological 316 transformation to produce a second clutch (Vancassel 1984, Gingras and Tourneur 2001, 317 Tourneur 2018, Körner et al. 2018). However, our results were obtained under common garden 318 conditions, which reveals that the observed effects of the variation in seasonal temperature on 319 egg laying dates are not a plastic response to their current environment, but are either due to 320 the environment experienced during their early life development (i.e. before field sampling), 321 or due to an inherited basis that possibly emerged through canalization (Nylin and Gotthard 322 1998, Van Buskrik and Steiner 2009). It has been proposed that traits tightly linked to fitness 323 are more strongly canalized due to past stabilizing selection (Falconer 1990). Our findings may 324 therefore suggest that the observed patterns in the timing of first reproduction and females' 325 reproductive strategy may have first emerged as a plastic response to the thermal constraints of 326 the different localities, then diverged between populations through canalization and ultimately 327 become inherited traits – all this in a maximum of 100 generations. Further experiments with 328 naïve individuals would be required to rule out an effect of early life experience.

Our data also reveal that seasonal temperature variation is associated with lifetime egg production, but not with lifetime larvae production. In particular, the total number of eggs produced per female decreased with decreasing autumn temperatures, whereas this association 332 vanished with larvae number. This apparent discrepancy suggests that eggs from populations 333 with the warmest autumns suffered higher mortality during development. A first explanation 334 of this phenomenon could be that these eggs are of a lower quality and/or that their mothers 335 were less efficient in egg care, a process that is essential to ensure egg development until 336 hatching in earwigs (Boos et al. 2014, Van Meyel et al. 2019). Whereas both effects should be tested in future studies, previous results may suggest that a population-specific efficiency in 337 338 egg care is unlikely in this species, as a previous study showed that maternal investment in 339 post-hatching care is not population-specific, at least in Europe (Ratz et al. 2016). Another 340 explanation is that females consumed a larger proportion of their clutch in populations with the 341 warmest compared to the coldest autumns. Filial egg consumption is a common phenomenon 342 in insects (Elgar and Crespi 1992) and it has been recently reported in several Dermapteran species, such as the species studied here (Koch and Meunier 2014, Van Meyel et al. 2019) and 343 344 the maritime earwig Anisolabis maritima Bonelli (Miller and Zink 2012). In the European 345 earwig, this phenomenon has been proposed to reflect an adaptive strategy to limit female 346 weight loss during the period of egg care (i.e. when they stop all other foraging activities) and by doing so, to reallocate resources into post-hatching care and/or into a 2<sup>nd</sup> oogenesis cycle 347 348 (Koch and Meunier 2014, Tourneur 2018). Given that females lay eggs earlier in populations 349 with the warmest autumns, this increased egg consumption could be an adaptive strategy to 350 limit the cost of tending newly hatched offspring earlier in the season (middle of winter) when 351 food sources are scarce or absent. If this hypothesis holds true, it would suggest that filial egg 352 cannibalism could be a strategy that F. auricularia females have evolved to better cope with 353 warmer autumns.

In addition to the above findings, our results show that the survival duration of both males and females was associated with the seasonal temperature variation of the population of origin. In particular, females' and males' survival duration decreased together with warm 357 summers (and cold Februaries), while male's survival duration also decreased with warm 358 autumns (and cold springs). The first results may be a by-product of the effect of temperature 359 on their date of egg laying and/or egg hatching. We showed that females from populations 360 facing warm summers are the first to lay their eggs. Individuals from these populations might 361 thus have been the oldest at the date of our field sampling, therefore leading to the shortest survival duration in our subsequent experiment. Surprisingly, there was a sex-specific effect of 362 363 spring (and autumn) temperatures on adult survival duration: males lived up to two times longer 364 in populations with warm compared to cold springs (as well as cold compared to warm 365 autumns), whereas this effect was absent in females. This finding may reflect sex-specific 366 sensitivity to high temperatures in terms of, for instance, physiology or expression of costly 367 behaviors. Whereas some physiological traits are known to be sex-specific in this species (Kohlmeier et al. 2016, Vogelweith et al. 2017), further studies should explore the effects of 368 369 temperature on the observed differences. Notwithstanding its underlying mechanisms, the long 370 survival duration of males in warm spring populations opens scope for these males to mate 371 with females of the subsequent generation, as well as for a possible involvement of fathers into 372 larva care - a phenomenon reported in other insect species (Smiseth 2014). These two 373 processes remain unknown in the European earwig, but they could be of central importance in 374 their successful adaptation to climate change.

All our results are based on a common garden experiment, a method that is often considered a powerful tool to disentangle the roles of phenotypic plasticity and genetic background on adaptation (Franks et al. 2014, Stoks et al. 2014, Blanckenhorn et al. 2018). Individuals reared under a common environment are typically expected to exhibit homogenized life-history traits if adaptation is the outcome of phenotypic plasticity, whereas they should exhibit population-specific traits otherwise. Our results are in line with the latter process for the great majority of the measured traits (10 out of 13), therefore suggesting that the observed 382 associations between variation in seasonal temperature and life-history traits do not stem from 383 a plastic response to their current environment. Nevertheless, common garden experiments can 384 also have some limits: they do not necessarily prevent maternal and grand maternal effects, 385 they cannot preclude the possibility of genotype-by-environment interactions on the measured 386 life-history traits, and they are poorly efficient at shedding light on the multiple facets of 387 plasticity (e.g. some traits can be partially plastic, the plastic responses can vary in intensity 388 and slope, and plasticity may become apparent only after certain thresholds)(Franks et al. 2014, 389 Merilä and Hendry 2014, Stoks et al. 2014, Bodensteiner et al. 2019). Concluding on the 390 absence or limited role of plasticity in earwigs' adaptation to seasonality therefore needs further 391 empirical works. These works should, for instance, explore its pattern using lab-generations of 392 each population to control for potential maternal effects, or investigate the multiple facets of 393 adaptation under different common garden conditions (e.g. using different temperatures) 394 (Bodensteiner et al. 2019) and if an apparent plasticity emerge, they should demonstrate its 395 adaptive value.

396 To conclude, our results demonstrate that the spread of the European earwigs across 397 North America came with important changes in their life-history traits and life cycle, and that 398 these changes emerged in a maximum of 100 generations. Whereas we show that some of these 399 changes are by-products of novel thermal constraints (timing of first reproduction and female 400 iteroparity), we reveal that others are likely to reflect adaptive strategies to cope with different 401 autumn temperatures (egg production and the possibility of egg cannibalism). Overall, these 402 findings emphasize that adaptation of an insect with a relatively long life-cycle does not 403 necessarily operate in response to the overall mean temperatures of the invaded environments, 404 but in response to their seasonality and/or mean temperature at a specific time of their life-405 cycle. Whether the reported adaptations are the product of population-differences in 406 energetic/metabolic constraints experienced by adults during their early development (Wong 407 and Kölliker 2014, English et al. 2016), and/or the product of an inherited genetic basis that 408 varies with seasonal temperature variation (Levis and Pfennig 2016; Corl et al. 2018; Fox et al. 409 2019), as well as whether these adaptations are similar across its worldwide distribution (Frank 410 1918, Guillet et al. 2000, Huey et al. 2000, Quarrell et al. 2018, Hill et al. 2019) will be 411 investigated in future studies. On a more general level, our findings emphasize that studying 412 invasive species can provide unique data sets to empirically and comprehensively test general 413 predictions on animals' responses to novel environmental conditions and climate change 414 (Gilbert et al. 2014, Merilä and Hendry 2014, Levis and Pfennig 2016, Hulme 2017, Fox et al. 415 2019, Rohner et al. 2019), and therefore call for their open access to the entire research 416 community - a timely task to which the present study contributes.

## 417 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is dedicated to the memory of Noelle Tourneur, for her constant support through 418 419 JCT career. We thank Maximilian Körner, Franck Dedeine and Sylvain Pincebourde, as well 420 as Eric Gangloff, Ben Phillips and Fabien Aubret (Peer Community in Evolutionary Biology 421 referees and recommenders, respectively) for their comments on a previous version of this 422 manuscript. Note that a former version of this manuscript has been recommended by Peer 423 Community in Evolutionary Biology. We also would like to thank Jean Gingras for his help during laboratory observations and samplings, as well as Michel Vancassel and Maryvonne 424 425 Forasté for their help in the late 1980s. JCT designed the experiment, conducted field 426 samplings, and run the experiments. JM analysed the data and wrote the first version of the 427 manuscript. The final manuscript was commented and corrected by all authors. The authors 428 declare that they have no financial conflict of interest with the content of this article.

#### 429 **REFERENCES**

- 430 Adamczewski, J. Z., R. J. Hudson, and C. C. Gates. 1993. Winter Energy-Balance and
- 431 Activity of Female Caribou on Coats-Island, Northwest-Territories the Relative Importance
- 432 of Foraging and Body Reserves. Canadian Journal of Zoology-Revue Canadienne De
- 433 Zoologie 71:1221–1229.
- Albouy, V., and C. Caussanel. 1990. Dermaptères ou perce-oreilles. Fédération Francaise des
  Sociétés de Sciences Naturelles, Paris.
- Altizer, S., A. Dobson, P. Hosseini, P. Hudson, M. Pascual, and P. Rohani. 2006. Seasonality
  and the dynamics of infectious diseases. Ecology Letters 9:467–484.
- 438 Bellard, C., B. Leroy, W. Thuiller, J. F. Rysman, and F. Courchamp. 2016. Major drivers of
- 439 invasion risks throughout the world. Ecosphere 7:1–14.
- 440 Benjamini, Y., and Y. Hochberg. 1995. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the false
- 441 discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. Journal of the Royal
- 442 Statistical Society B 57:289–300.
- 443 Blanckenhorn, W. U., S. S. Bauerfeind, D. Berger, G. Davidowitz, C. W. Fox, F. Guillaume,
- 444 S. Nakamura, K. Nishimura, H. Sasaki, R. C. Stillwell, T. Tachi, and M. A. Schäfer. 2018.
- 445 Life history traits, but not body size, vary systematically along latitudinal gradients on three
- 446 continents in the widespread yellow dung fly. Ecography 41:2080–2091.
- 447 Bodensteiner, B. L., D. A. Warner, J. B. Iverson, C. L. Milne-Zelman, T. S. Mitchell, J. M.
- 448 Refsnider, and F. J. Janzen. 2019. Geographic variation in thermal sensitivity of early life
- traits in a widespread reptile. Ecology and Evolution 9:2791–2802.
- 450 Boos, S., J. Meunier, S. Pichon, and M. Kölliker. 2014. Maternal care provides antifungal
- 451 protection to eggs in the European earwig. Behavioral Ecology 25:754–761.
- 452 Van Buskrik, J., and U. K. Steiner. 2009. The fitness costs of developmental canalization and
- 453 plasticity. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 22:852–860.

- 454 Chevin, L.-M., R. Lande, and G. M. Mace. 2010. Adaptation, plasticity, and extinction in a
- 455 changing environment: Towards a predictive theory. PLoS Biology 8:e1000357.
- 456 Corl, A., K. Bi, C. Luke, A. S. Challa, A. J. Stern, B. Sinervo, and R. Nielsen. 2018. The
- 457 genetic basis of adaptation following plastic changes in coloration in a novel environment.
- 458 Current Biology 28:2970-2977.e7.
- 459 Courchamp, F., A. Fournier, C. Bellard, C. Bertelsmeier, E. Bonnaud, J. M. Jeschke, and J.
- 460 C. Russell. 2017. Invasion Biology: Specific Problems and Possible Solutions. Trends in
- 461 Ecology and Evolution 32:13–22.
- 462 Crumb, S. E., P. M. Eide, and A. E. Bonn. 1941. The European earwig. Page USDA
- 463 Technical Bulletin. USDA Technical Bulletin 766.
- 464 Danks, H. V. 2000. Dehydration in dormant insects. Journal of Insect Physiology 46:837–
  465 852.
- 466 Diehl, J. M., and J. Meunier. 2018. Surrounding pathogens shape maternal egg care but not
  467 egg production in the European earwig. Behavioral Ecology 29:128–136.
- 468 Elgar, M. A., and B. J. Crespi. 1992. Cannibalism: ecology and evolution among diverse
- 469 taxa. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 470 English, S., T. W. Fawcett, A. D. Higginson, P. C. Trimmer, and T. Uller. 2016. Adaptive use
- 471 of information during growth can explain long-term effects of early Life experiences. The
- 472 American Naturalist 187:620–632.
- 473 Falconer, D. S. 1990. Selection in different environments: effects on environmental
- 474 sensitivity (reaction norm) and on mean performance. Genetical Research 56:57.
- 475 Falk, J., J. W. Y. Wong, M. Kölliker, and J. Meunier. 2014. Sibling cooperation in earwig
- 476 families provides insights into the early evolution of social life. The American Naturalist

477 183:547–557.

- 478 Fox, R. J., J. M. Donelson, C. Schunter, T. Ravasi, and J. D. Gaitán-Espitia. 2019. Beyond
- 479 buying time: the role of plasticity in phenotypic adaptation to rapid environmental change.
- 480 Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 374:20180174.
- 481 Frank, L. M. 1918. Notes from tasmania. J Econ Ent 11:472–475.
- 482 Franks, S. J., J. J. Weber, and S. N. Aitken. 2014. Evolutionary and plastic responses to
- 483 climate change in terrestrial plant populations. Evolutionary Applications 7:123–139.
- 484 Fretwell, J. 1972. Populations in a Seasonal Environment. Page (P. U. Press, Ed.). Princeton,
  485 NJ.
- 486 Gilbert, B., H. S. Greig, K. S. McCann, M. I. O'Connor, J. P. DeLong, C. D. G. Harley, V.
- 487 Savage, T. D. Tunney, and D. A. Vasseur. 2014. Increased temperature variation poses a
- greater risk to species than climate warming. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological
  Sciences 281:20132612–20132612.
- 490 Gingras, J., and J.-C. Tourneur. 2001. Timing of adult mortality, oviposition, and hatching
- 491 during the underground phase of *Forficula auricularia* (Dermaptera: Forficulidae). Canadian
- 492 Entomologist 133:269–278.
- 493 Guillet, S., N. Josselin, and M. Vancassel. 2000. Multiple introductions of the Forficula
- 494 auricularia species complex (Dermaptera: Forficulidae) in eastern North America. Canadian
- 495 Entomologist 132:49–57.
- 496 Hill, M. P., M. Binns, P. A. Umina, A. A. Hoffmann, and S. Macfadyen. 2019. Climate,
- 497 human influence and the distribution limits of the invasive European earwig, Forficula
- 498 auricularia, in Australia. Pest Management Science 75:134–143.
- 499 Hill, M. P., S. Clusella-Trullas, J. S. Terblanche, and D. M. Richardson. 2016. Drivers,

- 500 impacts, mechanisms and adaptation in insect invasions. Biological Invasions 18:883–891.
- Holt, R. D. 1990. The microevolutionary consequences of climate change. Trends in Ecologyand Evolution 5:590–596.
- 503 Huey, R. B., G. W. Gilchrist, M. L. Carlson, D. Berrigan, and L. Serra. 2000. Rapid evolution
- 504 of a geographic cline in size in an introduced fly. Science 287:308–309.
- Hulme, P. E. 2009. Trade, transport and trouble: Managing invasive species pathways in an
  era of globalization. Journal of Applied Ecology 46:10–18.
- 507 Hulme, P. E. 2017. Climate change and biological invasions: evidence, expectations, and
- 508 response options. Biological Reviews 92:1297–1313.
- Janion-Scheepers, C., L. Phillips, C. M. Sgrò, G. A. Duffy, R. Hallas, and S. L. Chown. 2017.
- 510 Basal resistance enhances warming tolerance of alien over indigenous species across latitude.
- 511 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 115:145–150.
- 512 Jeschke, J. M., and D. L. Strayer. 2005. Invasion success of vertebrates in Europe and North
- 513 America. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America
  514 102:7198–7202.
- 515 Kingsolver, J. G., S. E. Diamond, and L. B. Buckley. 2013. Heat stress and the fitness
- 516 consequences of climate change for terrestrial ectotherms. Functional Ecology 27:1415–
- 517 1423.
- 518 Koch, L. K., and J. Meunier. 2014. Mother and offspring fitness in an insect with maternal
- care: phenotypic trade-offs between egg number, egg mass and egg care. BMC evolutionarybiology 14:125.
- 521 Kohlmeier, P., K. Holländer, and J. Meunier. 2016. Survival after pathogen exposure in
- 522 group-living insects: don't forget the stress of social isolation! Journal of Evolutionary
  - 22

- 523 Biology 29:1867–1872.
- 524 Kölliker, M. 2007. Benefits and costs of earwig (<i>Forficula auricularia<i/>) family life.
  525 Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology 61:1489–1497.
- 526 Kölliker, M., S. Boos, J. W. Y. Wong, L. Röllin, D. Stucki, S. Raveh, M. Wu, and J.
- 527 Meunier. 2015. Parent-offspring conflict and the genetic trade-offs shaping parental
- 528 investment. Nature communications 6:6850.
- 529 Körner, M., J. M. Diehl, and J. Meunier. 2016. Growing up with feces: benefits of allo-
- 530 coprophagy in families of the European earwig. Behavioral Ecology 27:1775–1781.
- 531 Körner, M., S. Foitzik, and J. Meunier. 2018. Extended winters entail long-term costs for
- insect offspring reared in an overwinter burrow. Journal of Thermal Biology 74:116–122.
- 533 Kramer, J., and J. Meunier. 2016. Maternal condition determines offspring behavior toward
- family members in the European earwig. Behavioral Ecology 27:494–500.
- 535 Kramer, J., J. Thesing, and J. Meunier. 2015. Negative association between parental care and
- sibling cooperation in earwigs: a new perspective on the early evolution of family life?
- 537 Journal of Evolutionary Biology 28:1299–1308.
- 538 Lamb, R. J. 1976. Parental behavior in the dermaptera with special reference to Forficula
- 539 *auricularia* (Dermaptera: Forficulidae). Canadian Journal of Entomology 108:609–619.
- 540 Lamb, R. J., and W. G. Wellington. 1975. Life history and population characteristics of the
- 541 european earwig, Forficula auricularia (Dermaptera: forficulidae), at Vancouver, British
- 542 columbia. Canadian Journal of Entomology 107:819–824.
- 543 Levis, N. A., and D. W. Pfennig. 2016. Evaluating "Plasticity-First" Evolution in Nature:
- 544 Key Criteria and Empirical Approaches. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 31:563–574.
- 545 Meehl, G. A., and C. Tebaldi. 2004. More Intense, More Frequent, and Longer Lasting Heat

- 546 Waves in the 21st Century. Science 305:994–997.
- 547 Merilä, J., and A. P. Hendry. 2014. Climate change, adaptation, and phenotypic plasticity:
- 548 The problem and the evidence. Evolutionary Applications 7:1–14.
- 549 Meunier, J., J. W. Y. Wong, Y. Gómez, S. Kuttler, L. Röllin, D. Stucki, and M. Kölliker.
- 550 2012. One clutch or two clutches? Fitness correlates of coexisting alternative female life-
- 551 histories in the European earwig. Evolutionary Ecology 26:669–682.
- 552 Van Meyel, S., S. Devers, and J. Meunier. 2019. Love them all: mothers provide care to
- 553 foreign eggs in the European earwig Forficula auricularia. Behavioral Ecology.
- 554 Miller, J. S., and A. G. Zink. 2012. Parental care trade-offs and the role of filial cannibalism
- in the maritime earwig, *Anisolabis maritima*. Animal Behaviour 83:1387–1394.
- 556 Moerkens, R., H. Leirs, G. Peusens, T. Beliën, and B. Gobin. 2012. Natural and human
- 557 causes of earwig mortality during winter: Temperature, parasitoids and soil tillage. Journal of
- 558 Applied Entomology 136:490–500.
- Nylin, S., and K. Gotthard. 1998. Plasticity in life-history traits. Annual review of
  entomology 43:63–83.
- 561 Paaijmans, K. P., R. L. Heinig, R. A. Seliga, J. I. Blanford, S. Blanford, C. C. Murdock, and
- 562 M. B. Thomas. 2013. Temperature variation makes ectotherms more sensitive to climate
- 563 change. Global Change Biology 19:2373–2380.
- 564 Parmesan, C. 2006. Ecological and evolutionary responses to recent climate change. Annual
- 565 Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 37:637–669.
- 566 Polidori, C., C. Gutiérrez-Cánovas, E. Sánchez, J. Tormos, L. Castro, and D. Sánchez-
- 567 Fernández. 2019. Climate change-driven body size shrinking in a social wasp. Ecological
- 568 Entomology:een.12781.

- 569 Quarrell, S. R., J. Arabi, A. Suwalski, M. Veuille, T. Wirth, and G. R. Allen. 2018. The
- 570 invasion biology of the invasive earwig, *Forficula auricularia* in Australasian ecosystems.
- 571 Biological Invasions 20:1553–1565.
- 572 Quarrell, S. R., N. W. Davies, P. W. Walker, R. Corkrey, J. A. Smith, and G. R. Allen. 2016.
- 573 Identification of the putative aggregation pheromone components emitted by the European
- 574 earwig, Forficula auricularia. Chemoecology.
- 575 Ratz, T., J. Kramer, M. Veuille, and J. Meunier. 2016. The population determines whether
- 576 and how life-history traits vary between reproductive events in an insect with maternal care.
- 577 Oecologia 182:443–452.
- 578 Rohner, P. T., J. Roy, M. A. Schäfer, W. U. Blanckenhorn, and D. Berger. 2019. Does
- 579 thermal plasticity align with local adaptation? An interspecific comparison of wing

580 morphology in sepsid flies. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 32:463–475.

- 581 Sandrin, L., J. Meunier, S. Raveh, J.-C. Walser, and M. Kölliker. 2015. Multiple paternity
- and mating group size in the European earwig, *Forficula auricularia*. Ecological Entomology
  40:159–166.
- 584 Singh, S., G. Mishra, and Omkar. 2018. Plasticity in reproductive output and development in
- 585 response to thermal variation in ladybird beetle, *Menochilus sexmaculatus*. Journal of
- 586 Thermal Biology 71:180–188.
- 587 Smiseth, P. T. 2014. Parental care. Pages 221–242 in D. M. Shuker and L. W. Simmons,
- 588 editors. The evolution of insect mating systems. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 589 Stoks, R., A. N. Geerts, and L. De Meester. 2014. Evolutionary and plastic responses of
- 590 freshwater invertebrates to climate change: Realized patterns and future potential.
- 591 Evolutionary Applications 7:42–55.
- 592 Thesing, J., J. Kramer, L. K. Koch, and J. Meunier. 2015. Short-term benefits, but

- 593 transgenerational costs of maternal loss in an insect with facultative maternal care.
- 594 Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 282:20151617.
- 595 Tourneur, J.-C. 2017. Epigeal phase of the biological cycle of *Forficula auricularia* Linnaeus
- 596 (Dermaptera: Forficulidae) in eastern Canada. Canadian Entomologist 149:600–606.
- 597 Tourneur, J.-C. 2018. Factors affecting the egg-laying pattern of *Forficula auricularia*
- 598 (Dermaptera: Forficulidae) in three climatologically different zones of North America.
- 599 Canadian Entomologist 150:511–519.
- 600 Tourneur, J.-C., and J. Gingras. 1992. Egg laying in a northeastern north american (Montréal,
- 601 Québec) population of Forficula auricularia L. (Dermaptera: Forficulidae). Canadian
- 602 Entomologist 124:1055–1061.
- 603 Vancassel, M. 1984. Plasticity and Adaptive Radiation of Dermapteran Parental Behavior:
- Results and Perspectives. Advances in the Study of Behavior 14:51–80.
- Vancassel, M., and M. Foraste. 1980. Le comportement parental des Dermaptères. Reprod.
  Nutr. Dévelop. 20:759–770.
- 607 Vogelweith, F., S. Foitzik, and J. Meunier. 2017. Age, sex, mating status, but not social
- 608 isolation interact to shape basal immunity in a group-living insect. Journal of Insect609 Physiology 103:64–70.
- 610 Walker, K. A., T. H. Jones, and R. D. Fell. 1993. Pheromonal basis of aggregation in
- 611 european earwig, Forficula auricularia L. (Dermaptera: Forficulidae). Journal of Chemical
- 612 Ecology 19:2029–2038.
- 613 Weiß, C., J. Kramer, K. Holländer, and J. Meunier. 2014. Influences of relatedness, food
- 614 deprivation, and sex on adult behaviors in the group-living insect *Forficula auricularia*.
- 615 Ethology 120:923–932.

- 616 Williams, C. M., G. J. Ragland, G. Betini, L. B. Buckley, Z. A. Cheviron, K. Donohue, J.
- 617 Hereford, M. M. Humphries, S. Lisovski, K. E. Marshall, P. S. Schmidt, K. S. Sheldon, Ø.
- 618 Varpe, and M. E. Visser. 2017. Understanding evolutionary impacts of seasonality: An
- 619 introduction to the symposium. Integrative and Comparative Biology:1–13.
- 620 Williams, J. W., S. T. Jackson, and J. E. Kutzbach. 2007. Projected distributions of novel and
- 621 disappearing climates by 2100 AD. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences
- 622 104:5738–5742.
- 623 Wirth, T., R. Le Guellec, M. Vancassel, and M. Veuille. 1998. Molecular and reproductive
- 624 characterization of sibling species in the european earwig (*Forficula auricularia*). Evolution625 52:260.
- 626 Wong, J. W. Y., and M. Kölliker. 2014. Effects of food restriction across stages of juvenile
- and early adult development on body weight, survival and adult life history. Journal of
- 628 evolutionary biology 27:2420–30.
- 629 Zhang, Y.-B., G.-F. Zhang, W.-X. Liu, and F.-H. Wan. 2019. Continuous heat waves change
- 630 the life history of a host-feeding parasitoid. Biological Control 135:57–65.

631

## 632 DATA AVAILABILITY

633 The complete data set and R script are archived in the open data repository Zenodo:
634 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2652192.

Table 1 – Details of the 19 sampled populations. The table shows the name and location of
each population, their GPS coordinates (Latitude, Longitude), samplings years, total number
of mating pair setup across years (N. pairs), and seasonal temperature variation (defined as
PC1, PC2 and PC3).

		State (USA)/Province				N.			
Populations	Country	(CDN)	Latitude	Longitude	Samplings	pairs	PC1	PC2	PC3
Asheville	USA	North Carolina	35.612	-82.566	1994-95	80	4.60	0.73	0.74
Charlestown	USA	Rhode Island	41.383	-71.642	1990	42	1.37	0.73	-0.84
Deschutes	USA	Oregon	44.157	-121.256	1990	17	-1.54	-2.32	-0.27
Enderby	CDN	British Columbia	50.551	-119.14	1989-90	121	-1.68	-0.02	1.14
Ennis lake	USA	Montana	45.447	-111.695	1990	36	-2.86	-0.36	0.02
Kimberley	CDN	British Columbia	49.635	-115.998	1990	94	-5.27	-0.95	0.73
Kingston	USA	Rhode Island	41.486	-71.531	1991	137	1.00	0.76	-0.75
Montreal	CDN	Quebec	45.542	-73.893	1988,1990- 95	356	-2.78	2.32	-0.07
Pointe Pelée	CDN	Ontario	41.963	-82.518	1992	47	1.25	2.31	-0.37
Revelstoke	CDN	British Columbia	50.998	-118.196	1989-90	100	-2.69	-0.11	0.95
Rocky knob	USA	Virginia	36.832	-80.345	1993-94	304	1.44	-0.07	0.48
Saluda	USA	North Carolina	35.198	-82.353	1993-95	117	5.03	0.69	0.77
Santa Cruz*	USA	California	36.926	-121.845	1991	130	5.04	-4.50	-0.57
Selkirk	CDN	Ontario	42.834	-79.932	1992-94	233	-0.69	1.35	-0.67
Selinsgrove	USA	Pennsylvania	40.832	-76.872	1993-94	134	1.76	1.83	0.27
Truro	CDN	Nova Scotia	45.372	-63.264	1988	39	-3.46	-0.13	-1.42
Vancouver	CDN	British Columbia	49.252	-123.24	1989,1991	84	0.23	-2.89	-0.05
Waterrock knob	USA	North Carolina	35.464	-83.138	1991-94	167	-1.88	-1.69	0.22
Wheatley	CDN	Ontario	42.094	-82.445	1992	52	1.13	2.31	-0.31

\* This population was called San Francisco in (Tourneur 2018).

# 640 Table 2 – Loadings of the four first principal components (PCs) reflecting combinations

641 of the 12 mean monthly temperatures across populations. The traits having significant

	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4
Jan	0.800	-0.589	-0.066	0.083
Feb	0.716	-0.668	0.131	0.139
Mar	0.844	-0.486	0.216	0.048
Apr	0.949	-0.140	0.267	-0.082
May	0.890	0.321	0.286	-0.145
Jun	0.731	0.665	0.123	-0.060
Jul	0.547	0.823	-0.006	0.143
Aug	0.641	0.746	-0.013	0.175
Sep	0.905	0.380	-0.175	-0.019
Oct	0.951	0.019	-0.292	-0.064
Nov	0.931	-0.174	-0.296	-0.112
Dec	0.872	-0.469	-0.113	0.041
Eigenvalues	8.153	3.224	0.453	0.130
Variance explained (%)	67.9	26.9	3.8	1.1
Cumulative variance explained				
(%)	67.9	94.8	98.6	99.7

642 loadings on each PC are in bold.

643 Table 3 –Results of the statistical models on the 13 measured life-history traits. PC1 positively reflects the overall mean temperature of a 644 population. High values of PC2 reflect populations with cold February (winter) and warm summer, and vice-versa. High values of PC3 reflect 645 populations with warm spring and cold autumn, and vice-versa. P-values significant after FDR correction (adj-P) are in bold. Note that FDR 646 correction transforms each P-value in function of its rank of statistical significance in the data set, which can lead to similar corrected p-values. 647 Model estimates (estim).

	PC1			PC2				PC3				
	estim.	SE	Р	adj-P	estim.	SE	Р	adj-P	estim.	SE	Р	adj-P
First clutch												
Egg laying date	-1.55	1.47	0.307	0.665	-8.92	2.34	0.002	0.011	20.37	6.23	0.005	0.014
Egg number	-0.32	0.82	0.705	0.896	1.87	1.30	0.171	0.234	-11.77	3.47	0.004	0.014
Egg development time	-0.31	0.53	0.575	0.896	2.16	0.85	0.022	0.041	-4.57	2.26	0.061	0.132
Larvae number	-1.28	0.72	0.098	0.425	1.53	1.08	0.180	0.234	-3.85	3.39	0.275	0.357
Second clutch												
Egg laying date	0.79	2.01	0.700	0.896	-3.28	3.26	0.331	0.391	13.13	8.46	0.143	0.233
Egg number	0.08	0.44	0.855	0.896	-1.97	0.72	0.016	0.041	0.27	1.86	0.887	0.887
Egg development time	1.92	0.92	0.059	0.381	3.93	1.48	0.021	0.041	-19.02	4.04	0.001	0.005
Larvae number	-0.05	0.38	0.896	0.896	-1.70	0.59	0.012	0.041	2.96	1.78	0.121	0.224
General												
Total egg number	0.17	1.01	0.866	0.896	-0.15	1.60	0.929	0.929	-13.93	4.26	0.005	0.014
Total larvae number	-1.04	0.77	0.198	0.642	0.60	1.16	0.615	0.666	-3.45	3.61	0.355	0.419
Ratio of iteroparous females	0.01	0.09	0.896	0.896	-0.35	0.13	0.022	0.041	-0.48	0.40	0.254	0.357
Male longevity	-10.26	3.63	0.013	0.165	-23.93	5.77	0.001	0.011	65.49	15.39	0.001	0.005
Female longevity	-4.30	3.74	0.268	0.665	-14.80	5.94	0.025	0.041	13.63	15.86	0.404	0.437



**Figure 1** – Map showing the 19 sampled populations across Canada (CND) and United States

650 of America (USA). \* This population was called San Francisco in Tourneur (2018).



Figure 2 – Associations between variation in seasonal temperatures (PC1, PC2, PC3) of the
19 populations of origin and 1<sup>st</sup> clutch parameters. Red lines represent correlations significant
after FDR correction. Mean values ± SE. Egg laying date was calculated using October <sup>1st</sup> as a
reference (i.e. as day 0).



657

Figure 3 – Associations between variation in seasonal temperatures (PC1, PC2, PC3) of the 19 populations of origin and  $2^{nd}$  clutch parameters (when produced). Red lines represent correlations significant after FDR correction. Mean values ± SE. Egg laying date was calculated using October 1<sup>st</sup> as a reference (i.e. as day 0).



662

Figure 4 – Associations between variation in seasonal temperatures (PC1, PC2, PC3) of the 19 populations of origin and females' reproductive strategies and outcomes, as well as adult's survival duration. Red lines represent correlations significant after FDR correction. Mean values  $\pm$  SE.