

1 **Latitude-specific urbanization effects on life history traits in the damselfly *Ischnura***
2 ***elegans***

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26 **Abstract**

- 27 1. Many species are currently adapting to cities at different latitudes. Adaptation to
28 urbanization may require eco-evolutionary changes in response to temperature and
29 invasive species that may differ between latitudes.
- 30 2. Here, we studied single and combined effects of increased temperatures and invasive alien
31 predator presence on the phenotypic response of replicated urban and rural populations of
32 the damselfly *Ischnura elegans* and contrasted these between central and high latitudes.
- 33 3. Larvae were exposed to temperature treatments (current [20 °C], mild warming [24 °C],
34 and heat wave [28 °C; for high latitude only]) crossed with the presence or absence of
35 chemical cues released by the spiny-cheek crayfish (*Faxonius limosus*), only present at the
36 central latitude. We measured treatment effects on larval development time, mass, and
37 growth rate.
- 38 4. Urbanization type affected all life history traits, yet these responses were often dependent
39 on latitude, temperature, and sex. Mild warming decreased mass in rural and increased
40 growth rate in urban populations. The effects of urbanization on mass were latitude-
41 dependent, with central-latitude populations having a greater phenotypic difference.
42 Urbanization effects were sex-specific with urban males being lighter and having a lower
43 growth rate than rural males. At the current temperature and mild warming, the predator
44 cue reduced the growth rate, and this independently of urbanization level and latitude of
45 origin. This pattern was reversed during a heat wave in high-latitude damselflies.
- 46 5. Our results highlight the context-dependency of evolutionary and plastic responses to
47 urbanisation, and caution for generalizing how populations respond to cities based on
48 populations at a single latitude.

49

50 Keywords: global warming, invasive alien species, *Ischnura elegans*, pace-of-life syndrome,
51 phenotypic plasticity, temperature, urbanization

52 **Introduction**

53 Urbanization has emerged as a strong and widespread source of selection affecting plant and
54 animal communities (Alberti, et al., 2017; Catullo et al., 2019). Urbanization is closely
55 related to drivers of eco-evolutionary change such as temperature and invasive species.
56 Within the cities, the dense concentration of pavement, buildings, and other surfaces that
57 absorb and retain heat creates ‘urban heat islands’ in which temperature is higher (Tam et al.,
58 2015). Urbanization may also favour the introduction of invasive species reducing diversity
59 by competitive exclusion of native species (McKinney, 2006). These phenomena together
60 with other factors related to urbanization, such as pollution or noise, create particular
61 environments within the cities that drive evolutionary changes in organisms, e.g. at the
62 phenotypic and physiological levels, and in their interactions with other organisms (Alberti,
63 et al., 2017; Lambert et al., 2021).

64 Global warming and latitudinal gradient might further interact with urbanization and
65 alter organisms thermal plasticity and evolution (Verheyen et al. 2019). These plastic and
66 evolutionary responses may differ across the species latitudinal distribution because
67 populations from different latitudes encounter different seasonal time constraints (Stoks et al.,
68 2012). Since plastic responses are considered the first response to buffer the effects of novel
69 environmental stressors (Fox et al., 2019), investigating reaction norms of organisms from
70 urban and rural populations at different latitudes in response to warming and stress caused by
71 invasive alien predators may provide valuable insights to forecast species’ phenotypic
72 response to the rapid local and global changes (Verheyen et al., 2019). Life history traits such
73 as body size are responsive to urbanization, although the trends are taxon dependent. While a
74 reduction in body size was observed in urban bumblebees (Eggenberger et al., 2019) and
75 birds (Meillère et al., 2015), the opposite pattern was found in moths (Merckx, et al., 2018).
76 Urbanization effects may also be sex-specific, e.g. urban males are bigger in butterflies

77 (Kaiser et al., 2016). Available theories predict that when facing different ecological
78 conditions, as generally observed along an urbanization or latitudinal gradient, organisms
79 may be ranked from a slow- to fast-living continuum ('pace-of-life' syndrome; Brans & De
80 Meester, 2018; Réale et al., 2010). This may be reflected by a shift towards a faster pace-of-
81 life with accelerated growth, rapid development, and lower body mass as urbanization
82 increases (Brans & De Meester, 2018; Debecker et al., 2016). Therefore, as urbanization is
83 expected to affect life history strategies and patterns of covariation between traits, it is
84 important to consider multiple life history traits, both sexes and other interacting drivers of
85 evolutionary change such latitude-specific growth season length and warming, to better
86 reflect anthropogenic impacts of cities on organisms.

87 In this study, we tested and contrasted the response of life history traits to single and
88 combined thermal and invasive alien predator treatments between urban and rural populations
89 from different latitudes. Special attention went to whether these life history responses were
90 sex specific. We ran a common garden experiment on the damselfly *Ischnura elegans* from
91 replicated rural and urban populations at high- (southern Sweden) and central- (southern
92 Poland) latitudes. In damselflies, urban populations were shown to grow slower than rural
93 populations at central latitudes (Tüzün & Stoks, 2021), but whether such pattern is consistent
94 across the species latitudinal range requires further investigation. At the central latitude, the
95 higher annual temperatures and associated longer growth season allow more generations per
96 year, but less time per generation, thereby causing higher seasonal time constraints (Corbet et
97 al., 2006; Stoks et al., 2012). As the effect of urbanization on life history may differ between
98 mild warming and heat wave temperatures (e.g. 30 °C), we tested both in the same study.
99 Besides a thermal treatment (mild warming and a heat wave), we imposed a treatment where
100 we manipulated the presence of chemical predator cues from an invasive alien predator, the
101 spiny-cheek crayfish, *Faxonius limosus*, which has been co-occurring with Polish *I. elegans*

102 populations for several decades, but has not been yet reported in Sweden. The spread of
103 invasive crayfish predator has been largely mediated by human activities and urban areas
104 represent an attractive environment for this species (Reynolds & Souty-Grosset, 2011).

105

106 **Materials and Methods**

107 *Study species*

108 *Ischnura elegans* is a common damselfly in Europe (Dijkstra & Schröter, 2020). Across a
109 latitudinal gradient, populations are characterized by different number of generations per year
110 (voltinism). At central latitudes (including Poland), populations are generally uni- and
111 bivoltine, meaning one or two generations per year, respectively (Corbet et al., 2006; Norling,
112 2021). At high latitudes (including Sweden), populations are usually uni- and semivoltine,
113 meaning that one or two years are required for completing one generation, respectively.

114

115 *Study populations*

116 Adult *I. elegans* females were collected from two urban and two rural ponds each in southern
117 Sweden (hereafter, high latitude) and in southern Poland (hereafter, central latitude) (Fig. 1,
118 Table S1) on 22-23 June 2021, as described in Sniegula et al. (2020). The distances between
119 urban and rural sites ranged from 5 to 19 km at the high latitude and from 26 to 96 km at the
120 central latitude. We quantified the level of urbanization based on the percentage of
121 impervious surface from the high-resolution layer database (20 m resolution) (EEA, 2020).
122 We created a circular buffer of 1 km around each sampling location and calculated the
123 average value of imperviousness in each buffer using Quantum-GIS (QGIS Development
124 Team, 2017). Ponds were defined as urban when the average percentage of impervious
125 surface area within the buffer was above 20 % and as rural when the percentage was below
126 1.5 % (Brans & De Meester, 2018).

127 Water temperatures in the shallow parts of the collection ponds were estimated using
128 the Lake Model FLake (2009) that closely matches the actual temperature measured in situ
129 (Dinh Van et al., 2014). The modelled temperatures indicated minor differences in water
130 temperature among ponds within- and between both latitudes (Fig. S1A and B). As the FLake
131 model does not include impervious surface as a parameter and because water temperatures
132 within a pond might vary depending on various parameters such as depth or sun exposure, we
133 also placed temperature loggers (50 cm depth) in five ponds during summer and fall, and in
134 one pond during an entire year (2021 and/or 2022; Fig. S1C and D). Based on FLake and
135 dataloggers estimates, the average temperature in central- and high latitude ponds and
136 between urban and rural ponds were similar and oscillated around 20 °C and were below 24
137 °C during summer months (except one record in one Polish pond, Fig. 1C). Based on this and
138 on previous records of freshwater summer water temperatures at these latitudes (Debecker &
139 Stoks, 2019; Dinh Van et al., 2014), we set the following experimental temperatures: 20 °C
140 corresponding to the current mean summer water temperature, 24 °C corresponding to the
141 predicted increased temperature by 2100 under SSP8.5 scenario (Masson-Delmotte et al.,
142 2021), and 28 °C matching a simulated heat wave.

143

144 *The crayfish predator*

145 The spiny-cheek crayfish *Faxonius limosus* is an invasive alien predator and an active
146 colonizer that has locally co-occurred with the central-latitude *I. elegans* for at least 50 years
147 but has not been reported in Scandinavia (Artportalen, 2022; Commission Implementing
148 Regulation, 2016; Kouba et al., 2014). The spiny-cheek crayfish is widely reported in Poland
149 in rural and urban areas (The General Directorate for Environmental Protection, 2018). The
150 spread of the spiny-cheek crayfish is driven by human activities (aquaculture, trading), and
151 natural spread in Europe (Reynolds & Souty-Grosset, 2011) and occurs frequently in warm

152 temperatures (up to 25 °C) and in polluted waters (Chucholl, 2016). Potential future invasions
153 are more likely to occur in urban areas. Prior the experiment, *F. limosus* were collected from
154 Kryspinów Lake in southern Poland (50°3'0.461"N, 19°47'20.85"E) and transported to the
155 Institute of Nature Conservation of the Polish Academy of Sciences, Kraków, Poland (INC
156 PAS). Three crayfishes were kept in an aquarium holding 50 L of dechlorinated tap water
157 along with a control aquarium with 50 L of dechlorinated tap water. Crayfish collection and
158 housing were done with permission from the Regional Directorate for Environmental
159 Protection in Kraków (ref. OP.672.4.2021.GZ).

160

161 *Housing and temperature treatment*

162 Adult female damselflies were individually placed in plastic cups with perforated lids and
163 wet filter paper for egg laying. Females were kept at ca. 22°C and natural daylight
164 (photoperiod). In total 80 clutches (10 clutches per population, hereafter families) were used
165 in the experiment. The design of the experiment involved the same pre-winter and winter
166 rearing conditions (hereafter, first part of the experiment) for all larvae. During post-winter
167 rearing conditions (hereafter, second part of the experiment), larvae were exposed to different
168 thermal treatments and, on the day of entering into the last instar prior emergence (F-0),
169 larvae were exposed to the predator cue treatments for the next 5 days. The experiment ended
170 at the end of this 5-day predator cue exposure period.

171 The first part of the experiment was carried out in plastic containers (size 22×16 cm,
172 height 11 cm) filled with 1500 mL of dechlorinated tap water. Containers were kept in an
173 incubator at 22 °C and a photoperiod of L:D 20:4h. In these containers, larvae were reared in
174 groups. The photoperiod indicated the longest day length at the high latitude collection site,
175 and was expected to create high development and growth rates in both studied latitudes,
176 especially during post-winter conditions (Norling, 2021). Each container was supplied with a

177 plastic structure to minimise predation among larvae. Since there were six different
178 treatments after winter (i.e. during the second part of the experiment), larvae from each of the
179 eight sampled populations were divided into six containers. At hatching, four larvae from
180 each family were randomly placed in each of the six containers, totalling 40 larvae per
181 container (4 larvae x 10 families). This approach ensured that each container started with
182 exactly the same number of individuals from each family. Larvae were fed *ad libitum* with
183 laboratory-cultured *Artemia nauplii*, twice a day on week days and once a day on weekend
184 days. Furthermore, after three weeks of growing, we supplemented the feeding with live
185 *Daphnia* sp. two times a week until autumn conditions. The position of the containers was
186 randomized weekly within each incubator.

187 On 06 August 2021 (ca. four weeks after larvae had hatched), we started simulating
188 autumn temperatures and photoperiods (hereafter, thermo-photoperiod) and, three weeks
189 later, winter conditions. This procedure allowed larvae to experience a winter diapause, as it
190 occurs in nature (Corbet 2006; Norling 2021). With a weekly interval, we gradually reduced
191 the initial thermo-photoperiod from 22 °C and 20:4 h to 6 °C and 0:24 h L:D (simulated
192 winter conditions). A detailed description of rearing thermo-photoperiods during the entire
193 experiment are presented in Fig. S2. During the simulated winter, larvae were fed three times
194 a week with *Artemia nauplii*. On 22 November 2022, we started the second part of the rearing
195 experiment. We transferred the larvae to individual 200 mL cups (height = 9 cm, diameter =
196 4 cm) filled with 100 mL of dechlorinated water and placed each cup into an incubator at 10
197 °C and 4:20 h L:D. With a two-day interval, we gradually increased the thermo-photoperiod
198 to the respective thermal treatment: 20 °C (control), 24 °C (mild warming) or 28 °C (heat
199 wave, high latitude only) with the same 20:4 h L:D photoperiod for all temperature
200 treatments (Fig. S2). For logistic reasons we could not set the 28 °C temperature treatment
201 group for the central-latitude populations. We therefore split our design into two experiments:

202 Experiment 1 focusing on high- and central latitude populations raised at 20 °C and 24 °C,
203 and Experiment 2 focusing on high-latitude populations raised at 20 °C, 24 °C and 28 °C.

204 Throughout the second part of the experiment, larvae were fed daily with *Artemia*
205 *nauplii*. Because larvae came from different latitudes and because rearing temperature also
206 affects larval development rate, larvae reached the F-0 stage at different dates. This led to
207 larvae being exposed to the post-winter temperature treatment for different durations. For
208 each larva, we reported the exact time in days at the temperature treatment during the second
209 half of the experiment ('thermal exposure duration') and this time was included as a covariate
210 in the statistical models (except for developmental time). In addition, when larvae entered F-
211 0, we identified the sex of each individual to test for sex-specific responses to the treatments
212 (Central latitude $N_{\text{females}} = 73$, $N_{\text{males}} = 68$; High latitude $N_{\text{females}} = 158$, $N_{\text{males}} = 182$).

213

214 *Predator cue treatment*

215 When larvae entered the F-0 stage, we applied a five-day-long predator cue treatment. The
216 water level in each cup was reduced to 67 mL and refilled with 33 mL of water from the
217 crayfish aquarium (with predator cue) or the control aquarium (without predator cue). Cups
218 were refilled every second day to keep the predator cue approximately constant, considering
219 the length of predator cue biodegradation (Van Buskirk et al. 2014). Previous experiments
220 have demonstrated that predator cues affect damselfly life history traits, also in case of short-
221 time exposure (13 days exposure in Antoń & Sniegula, 2021; 3-9 days exposure in Van
222 Dievel et al., 2016).

223

224 *Response variables*

225 In total, 481 larvae survived and were phenotyped at the end of the experiment. Details on
226 sample size for each treatment combination and response variable for both experiments are

227 presented in Table S2. When larvae entered F-0 and before the application of the predator cue
228 treatment, we quantified three traits: development time (DT; number of days between
229 hatching and moult into F-0), wet mass (mass_{F-0}), and growth rate until F-0 (GR_{F-0}). Larval
230 wet mass was measured with an electronic balance (Radwag AS.62) and GR_{F-0} was
231 calculated as $\ln(\text{mass}_{F-0})/\text{age}_{F-0}$. After the five-day exposure to a predator cue, we measured
232 the wet mass again ($\text{mass}_{\text{final}}$) and calculated the growth rate over the five-day period: GR_{final}
233 = $[\ln(\text{mass}_{\text{final}}) - \ln(\text{mass}_{F-0})]/5$, as in McPeck et al. (2001) (Table S3).

234

235 *Statistical analyses*

236 All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team, 2013; RStudio Team, 2015). For univariate
237 statistics, we used generalized linear mixed-effects models (GLMMs). First, we ran a model
238 selection analysis (MuMin r package; Barton & Barton, 2015) to select the most appropriate
239 model for each phenotypic variable (DT, mass_{F-0} , GR_{F-0} , and GR_{final}). We included in the
240 initial model the following predictors: latitude (only for experiment 1), sex, temperature,
241 urbanization, predator (for GR_{final} only), and all the possible interactions; thermal exposure
242 duration was added as a covariate (except for DT because this variable was strongly
243 correlated with exposure duration) and population nested in latitude as a random factor. For
244 each phenotypic variable, model selection analysis was based on the corrected Akaike's
245 information criteria for sample size (AICc) and weights as criteria to determine the best
246 explanatory linear model by keeping only the most relevant predictors and interactions (Table
247 S4). In Experiment 1, we compared urbanization type (rural vs. urban population), latitude
248 (high- and central-latitude), temperature (20 °C and 24 °C), sex (males and females) and
249 predator (for GR_{final} only). We ran specific models for each variable: DT_{F-0} with a Poisson
250 distribution, and mass_{F-0} , GR_{F-0} and GR_{Final} with Gaussian distributions, based on the output
251 of the model selection analysis. The variables were normally distributed. In Experiment 2, we

252 tested for effects of urbanisation type, temperature (20, 24 and 28°C) and predator (for GR
253 _{final} only) in high-latitude populations. To fit the GLMMs, we used the function `glmmTMB`
254 (`glmmTMB` package; Magnusson et al., 2017). P-values were obtained using the Wald chi-
255 square test (Wald X^2) implemented in the `car` package (Fox & Weisberg, 2015).

256 To analyse in detail the multivariate phenotypic responses of the larvae we applied
257 Phenotypic Trajectory Analysis (PTA) following the procedure and R scripts described in
258 Adams & Collyer (2009) and Collyer & Adams (2007). For this analysis, we used the
259 measurements when larvae entered F-0 (hence, prior to the predator cue treatment). We used
260 PTA to compare trajectories of high- and central-latitude populations in response to
261 urbanization (evolutionary change expressed as a magnitude of phenotypic difference
262 between rural and urban populations) and to temperature (plastic change expressed as the
263 slope of the thermal reaction norm). We ran PTA both with the sexes pooled and with males
264 and females separately. The procedure consists on a vector analysis in a multivariate space of
265 phenotypic trait change. First, we conducted a PCA using DT_{F-0} , $mass_{F-0}$, and GR_{F-0} . To
266 account for the fact that damselflies were exposed to the temperature treatment for different
267 durations, we ran a GLM model for $mass_{F-0}$ and GR_{F-0} with ‘thermal exposure duration’ as
268 covariate and extracted the residuals that were subsequently used for the PCA and PTA
269 analyses. Then, we created vectors connecting centroids of groups of individuals to calculate
270 and compare the difference in length (magnitude) and angle (direction, θ) between groups.
271 Significance in magnitude and direction were estimated using a permutation procedure ($N =$
272 1000 permutations); significant differences in the magnitude and direction between vectors
273 were interpreted as different evolutionary or plastic trajectories.

274

275 **Results**

276 ***Experiment 1***

277 *Univariate response patterns*

278 The results testing for the effects of the treatments on DT, mass, and GR are shown in Table
279 1. Urbanization had no main effect, but several interactions involving urbanization were
280 significant. At 20 °C, urban larvae had a lower mass_{F-0} and GR_{F-0} compared to rural larvae.
281 Mild warming (24 °C) reduced mass_{F-0}, especially in rural larvae, and increased GR_{F-0},
282 especially in urban larvae, eliminating the differences for these traits between urban and rural
283 populations at 24 °C (interaction urbanization × temperature) (Fig. 2A and 2B). While urban
284 and rural females did not differ in mass_{F-0} and GR_{F-0}, urban males were lighter and showed a
285 lower GR_{F-0} than rural males (interaction urbanization × sex) (Fig. 2C and 2D). Urbanization
286 decreased larval mass, but in central-latitude individuals only (interaction latitude ×
287 urbanization) (Fig. 1); there was a larger difference in mass_{F-0} between latitudes in females
288 than in males (interaction latitude × sex) (Fig. S3A). The interaction latitude × temperature
289 was significant for GR_{F-0}, with higher values of GR_{F-0} in central- compared to high latitude
290 individuals but only at 24 °C (Fig. S3B). DT was not affected by urbanization type, but
291 independently affected by latitude and temperature, with a shorter development time in
292 central-latitude larvae and in larvae reared at 24 °C (Table S5; Fig. S4).

293 During the five-day predator cue treatment, latitude and predator treatment had
294 significant effect on GR_{final}, with faster growth rate in central-latitude larvae and in the
295 absence of predator cues (Table S5; Fig. S5). None of the interaction terms were significant
296 for the GR_{final}.

297

298 *Phenotypic Trajectory Analysis*

299 For central-latitude populations, evolutionary changes in response to urbanization between
300 larvae raised at 20 °C and 24 °C did not differ in length ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} = 0.39$, $p = 0.306$) nor in
301 direction ($\theta = 10.2^\circ$, $p = 0.830$). Evolutionary changes driven by urbanization pointed mostly

302 to a lower mass and growth rate in urban areas (Fig. 3A). Plastic changes in response to mild
303 warming temperature between rural and urban populations did not differ in length ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} =$
304 0.27 , $p = 0.300$) nor in direction ($\theta = 15.1^\circ$, $p = 0.537$). Urban and rural populations
305 responded in a similar way to mild warming temperature with a shorter development time
306 when temperature increased (Fig. 3C).

307 Next, we ran similar analyses for males and females separately. For males, we found
308 the same patterns for evolutionary and plastic changes as with the sexes pooled (Fig. S6A and
309 C). For females, we found different evolutionary trajectories (differences in direction only)
310 between females raised at 20°C and 24°C (Fig. S7A); at 20°C evolutionary changes in
311 response to urbanization pointed to a decrease in mass and GR_{F-0} and the pattern was
312 reversed at 24°C . Thermal plasticity did not differ between rural and urban females (Fig.
313 S7C).

314 For high-latitude populations, when sexes were pooled, evolutionary changes in
315 response to urbanization differed both in length ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} = 0.70$, $p = 0.007$) and direction ($\theta =$
316 132.4° , $p = 0.001$) between the two temperature treatments (Fig. 3B). Urban larvae had a
317 longer DT, and lower mass and GR than rural larvae at 20°C , whereas there was little
318 difference between urban and rural damselflies at 24°C . Plastic changes in response to an
319 increase in temperature showed no difference in magnitude between rural and urban
320 populations ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} = 0.26$, $p = 0.296$) but significant differences in direction ($\theta = 39.9^\circ$, $p =$
321 0.009) with a decrease in mass and GR at 24°C only being present in rural populations (Fig.
322 3D).

323 When looking at each sex separately, for males, we found the exact same patterns for
324 evolutionary (Fig. S6B) and plastic (Fig. S6D) changes as with the sexes pooled. For females,
325 evolutionary changes differed only in direction between the temperature treatments; at 20°C
326 evolutionary changes pointed to an increase in development time in urban area and at 24°C

327 to an increase in mass and GR_{F-0} (Fig S7B). Plastic changes to mild warming temperature for
328 females followed the same pattern as with the sexes pooled (Fig. S7D).

329

330 ***Experiment 2.***

331 *Univariate response patterns*

332 In the set of high-latitude urban and rural larvae tested at the three temperatures, the score
333 life-history traits (mass_{F0}, DT_{F0}, and GR_{F0}) were not affected by urbanization, but were
334 affected by temperature and sex (Table S4). The interaction temperature × sex was significant
335 for both mass_{F-0} and GR_{F-0}, with higher values in mass_{F-0} and GR_{F-0} in females, especially
336 at 24 °C (Fig. S8). GR_{final} was not affected by urbanization. Exposure to the predator cue
337 during the five-day-long treatment reduced GR_{final} at 20°C and 24°C, but instead increased
338 GR_{final} at 28°C (predator × temperature) (Fig. 1).

339

340 *Phenotypic Trajectory Analysis*

341 Phenotypic trajectory analysis showed that high-latitude populations exhibited different
342 evolutionary changes in response to urbanization across the three temperature treatments
343 (sexes pooled). We did not find significant variation in magnitude between the three vectors
344 ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} = 0.02$, $p = 0.218$) but we found significant differences in their direction ($\text{Var}_{\text{direction}}$
345 $= 3547.0$, $p = 0.001$) (Fig. 4A). At 20 °C and 28°C, urbanization is mostly accompanied by
346 longer development and lower mass_{F-0} and GR_{F-0}, whereas at 24 °C differences between
347 rural and urban individuals were rather small. For plastic changes, PTA revealed significant
348 differences in length ($\text{Var}_{\text{length}} = 0.720$, $p = 0.016$) but not in direction ($\text{Var}_{\text{direction}} = 10.0$, $p =$
349 0.222) between the two vectors indicating a greater thermal plasticity in urban than in rural
350 populations (Fig. 4B).

351 When looking at each sex separately, evolutionary changes in response to
352 urbanization were similar for males and females and followed the same patterns as with the
353 sexes pooled (Fig. S9A and B). For plastic changes, no difference in both length and direction
354 was found in males (Fig. S9C), whereas differences in length were found in females (Fig.
355 S9D); with a greater thermal plastic response in females from urban than rural populations.

356

357 **Discussion**

358 Here, we studied phenotypic adaptation in an ectotherm considering several life-history traits
359 and interacting drivers of evolutionary change. Our results pointed to effects of urbanization
360 in combination with temperature on mass and GR. Notably, the direction and magnitude of
361 the evolutionary and plastic responses to temperature in life history traits (i.e. body mass and
362 GR) were not uniform across studied latitudes. The response to a predator was rather
363 independent of the latitudinal origin of the populations and of the urbanization type. Our
364 results shed some light on the effect of interacting anthropogenic factors in ectotherms life-
365 history traits and how these patterns are latitude dependent.

366

367 *Effects on individual traits*

368 In Experiment 1, we found negative effects of urbanization on larval growth rate and mass,
369 but these effects differed between latitudes and depended on temperature. This partially
370 confirmed that urbanization can decrease mass in insects (Merckx, et al., 2018), and that mass
371 decrease is temperature-dependent (Diamond et al., 2014). A mild warming temperature was
372 sufficient to remove the differences between rural and urban larval mass and growth rate.
373 Intriguingly, these two traits showed higher thermal plasticity at different urbanization types.
374 While mass showed steeper thermal reaction norm in rural populations, urban populations
375 were more plastic for GR. We might hypothesise that the effect of temperature was stronger

376 than the effect of urbanization and that growth rate reached some physiological limits at 24
377 °C (growth rate did not increase at 28 °C in high latitude populations), however, the pattern
378 was less clear for the mass.

379 Notably, the effects of urbanization were also latitude-dependent. The latitudinal
380 difference may be attributed to different life-history strategies related to voltinism and
381 seasonal time constraints. At central latitudes, the species produces, on average, one
382 generation per year more than at high latitudes (Corbet et al., 2006; Norling, 2021).
383 Therefore, central-latitude larvae are likely more time constrained: they develop within a
384 shorter time, grow faster and reach lower mass than at high latitudes (as seen for the species
385 between low and high latitudes, e.g. Debecker and Stoks 2019). A higher growth rate indeed
386 often comes at a cost of having a smaller mass at emergence (Sniegula et al., 2018). In
387 current study, latitudinal differences in mass seemed to be amplified by urbanization. Indeed,
388 with climate change, there might be a further increase in time constraints in urban areas for
389 central-latitude individuals that might arise from the heat-island effects (Chick et al., 2019).
390 However, based on our field measurements, contemporary water temperatures in urban and
391 rural ponds differed slightly (Fig. S1), and it is difficult to predict whether climate change
392 will increase this difference in temperature.

393 Independently of urbanization and latitude, the predator cue negatively affected larval
394 GR. In insects, exposure to a predator alters metabolism (Cinel et al., 2020) and foraging
395 activity (Kohler & McPeck, 1989), with downstream effects on larval development and
396 growth rate. Our results indicate that both central- and high-latitude populations reacted in a
397 similar way to the predator cue in the traits we measured. These results contrast with a recent
398 study showing a differential response in development time in *I. elegans* eggs when exposed
399 to cues from non-native invasive predators (spiny-cheek and signal crayfish *Pacifastacus*
400 *leniusculus*) (Antoń & Sniegula, 2021). However, an exposure to a phylogenetically related

401 predator species, i.e. noble crayfish (*Astacus astacus*) present at both latitudes (Kouba et al.,
402 2014), might enable predator cue recognition and trigger similar responses between the two
403 latitudes (Anton et al., 2020).

404 Results from Experiment 2 did not provide evidence that urban and rural populations
405 coped differently with a simulated heat wave, as previously demonstrated in damselflies
406 (Tüzün & Stoks, 2021) and other ectotherms (Brans et al., 2017; Campbell-Staton et al.,
407 2020). This may stem from the minor mean temperature differences between urban and rural
408 ponds at our study sites or different experimental approaches. Yet, we found a significant
409 effect of temperature in combination with predator cues. Damselflies grew faster in the
410 absence of a predator cue, but only in current and warming temperature. Interestingly,
411 exposure to the predator cues increased larval growth under a heat wave treatment. A
412 combination of stressors may change a strategy in potential prey to escape predator exposure
413 (Warkentin, 2011). Here, an accelerated larval growth in the presence of a predator cue under
414 heat wave may be part of an escape strategy to reduce the time of exposure to predators, as
415 previously shown in odonate species (Antoń & Sniegula, 2021; Stoks et al., 2012) and other
416 taxa (Chivers et al., 2001).

417 In both experiments, we found multiple sex-specific effects on mass and GR with
418 greater phenotypic differences between urbanization types and temperatures in males. These
419 results supported previous studies in which sex-specific effects were found in ectotherms
420 coping with various stressors, i.e. urbanization (Kaiser et al., 2016) and heat stress (Sniegula
421 et al., 2017). Sex-specific effects are generally more pronounced in species with strong sexual
422 dimorphism which is the case in damselflies, with females being usually larger and heavier
423 than males (Corbet, 1999). Sex-specific effects are also common in protandrous species with
424 a strong selection acting on males to emerge before females in order to maximise their mating
425 opportunities (Badyaev, 2002). Hence, different selective pressures resulting in different life-

426 history strategies and associated resource allocation patterns between males and females may
427 lead to different types of trade-offs. For instance, female butterflies maintained a relative high
428 body mass under different thermal conditions compared to males because mass was more
429 important for females in reproduction than for males (Fischer & Fiedler, 2000). This is likely
430 to be the case in odonates (Sokolovska et al., 2000) and matched our observations of mass of
431 females being less affected by urbanization and temperature than males (at least until 24 °C;
432 Fig. S3A).

433

434 *Multivariate approach*

435 Our results indicate multivariate evolutionary change associated to urbanization at the high
436 latitude since larvae from urban and rural sites differed in life history traits and in their
437 thermal plasticity. In contrast, central-latitude damselflies exhibited similar direction and
438 magnitude of evolutionary trajectories in response to urbanization in the two temperature
439 treatments (Experiment 1). Similar results were found in high-latitude individuals in response
440 to urbanization and additional simulation of heat wave (Experiment 2). The ‘pace-of-life’
441 syndrome predicts a shift towards a fast-living strategy when urbanization increases or
442 towards lower latitudes, which was supported empirically in birds and invertebrates (Brans &
443 De Meester, 2018; Charmantier et al., 2017; Debecker et al., 2016). We observed that only
444 high latitude damselflies expressed a consistent decrease in mass and growth rate associated
445 with urbanization at 20 °C, which was further accompanied with an increase of development
446 time. Hence, we found no support for a faster pace-of-life in the studied populations. One
447 explanation might be the minor difference in water temperatures recorded in ponds from
448 which rural and urban *I. elegans* were collected. However, in the damselfly *Coenagrion*
449 *puella* a lower growth rate in urban compared to rural populations was also shown, despite
450 water temperatures being up to 3.5 °C higher in urban than in rural ponds (Tüzün & Stoks,

451 2021). In that study, the population-specific growth pattern was explained by relatively lower
452 temperature and hence shorter growing seasons in rural populations, i.e. compensation to
453 time constraints by increased growth rate. Our results might, therefore, reflect selection
454 caused by other sources of disturbance associated with the urban environment, e.g. different
455 concentrations of pollutants. Notably, we demonstrated sex-specific evolutionary trajectories
456 to urbanization at both latitudes. Therefore, the population origin (latitude) and the sex, which
457 entail different life-history strategies or trade-offs, were more likely to trigger different
458 trajectories than a shared response to urbanization.

459 Increased levels of environmental disturbance, including stress linked to suboptimal
460 temperatures, in cities is expected to favour phenotypic plasticity (Alberti, et al., 2017). In
461 contrast, rural and urban populations from the central latitude responded with similar
462 magnitude and direction to mild warming by decreasing developmental time, whereas high-
463 latitude populations showed similar plasticity in this trait to mild warming in terms of
464 magnitude, but not in terms of direction. However, in response to the heat wave, we did find
465 a greater magnitude of the plastic response in urban populations for GR_{F-0} and mass,
466 matching the expectation of an increased phenotypic plasticity in urban populations. Different
467 effects of urbanization on plasticity between the two latitudes may be partially caused by
468 different life history strategies: lower latitude organisms tend to have shorter generation times
469 (Corbet et al., 2006). Based on these results, we may infer that not only ‘urban heat island’
470 effects impose differential selective pressures on organisms across urbanisation gradients
471 (Shochat et al., 2006), but also geographic origin and temperature exposition in rural and
472 urban populations have the potential to adjust the damselfly phenotype.

473

474 **Conclusion**

475 Despite the accumulating evidence that urbanization shapes phenotypes, and the expectation
476 these evolutionary and plastic responses may differ among latitudes, the latter has rarely been
477 tested. We showed that the damselfly responses to urbanization differed between latitudes.
478 Notably, the latitude-specific responses to urbanisation were temperature-dependent, which
479 could be explained by differences in life-history strategies across latitudes. Both urban and
480 rural populations had the potential to produce a plastic response to warming, yet the
481 magnitude and direction of the plastic changes differed between latitudes. Moreover, we
482 added to the knowledge that the response to urbanization can differ between sexes. In
483 contrast, urban and rural damselflies responded similarly to the presence of a predator cue,
484 the later interacting with different temperatures. Our results highlight the context-dependency
485 of evolutionary and plastic responses to urbanisation, and caution for generalizing of how
486 populations respond to cities based on populations at a single latitude.

487

488

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678
679

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687

688 **Competing interests**

689 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

690

691 **Author contributions**

692 GP, RS and SS conceived and designed the experiments. GP and SS performed the
693 experiments. GW analysed the data. GW and SS led the writing of the manuscript; all authors
694 contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

695

696 **Date availability statement**

697 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this article (and its
698 supplementary information files).

699

700 **Figures.**

701 **Fig. 1.** Summary of the experimental design with a map of our sampled populations in
702 southern Sweden (high latitude) and southern Poland (central latitude). Geographic
703 distribution of *Ischnura elegans* in central and northern Europe is shown in grey and
704 occurrence of the spiny-cheek crayfish *Orconectes limosus* is depicted by red crosses. On the
705 left side, we show the design of the experiment 1 focusing on rural and urban populations
706 from central and high latitude reared at current (20 °C) and warming (24 °C) temperature.
707 Illustrative plot shows the significant interaction latitude × urbanization for the final larval
708 instar (F-0) mass. On the right side, we show the design of the experiment 2 focusing on
709 urban and rural populations from high latitude reared at current (20 °C), warming (24 °C),
710 and heat wave (28 °C) temperature and in a control or a predator cue treatment. Illustrative
711 plot shows the significant interaction temperature × predator cue for the growth rate until F-0.
712

713 **Fig 2.** Larval (A) mass F_0 and (B) growth rate F_0 (GR F_0) across urban and rural populations
714 and current (20 °C) and warming (24 °C) temperature. Larval (C) mass F_0 and (D) GR F_0
715 across urban and rural populations for females and males in experiment 1.
716

717 **Fig 3.** Principal component analysis showing evolutionary changes before the treatment with
718 predator cue in response to urbanization at current (20 °C) and warming (24 °C) for (A)
719 central- and (B) high latitude populations and plastic changes in response to temperature in
720 rural and urban populations for (C) central- and (D) high latitude populations (sexes pooled).
721 Rural and urban individuals are depicted by open circles and triangles respectively;
722 temperature by colours (blue = 20 °C and green = 24 °C); filled circles and triangles
723 correspond to the centroid of each group; solid lines connecting filled symbols represent the
724 vector.
725

726 **Fig 4.** Phenotypic plasticity trajectory in response to (A) urbanization at current (20 °C),
727 warming temperature (24 °C) and heat wave (28 °C) and to (B) temperature for rural and
728 urban populations. Rural and urban individuals are depicted by open circles and triangles
729 respectively; temperature by colours (blue = 20 °C, green = 24 °C and red = 28 °C); filled
730 circles and triangles correspond to the centroid of each group; solid lines connecting filled
731 symbols represent the vector.

Table 1. Results of the GLMM of the Experiment 1. Table shows effects of sex (females and males), latitude (central and high latitude), urbanization (rural and urban), temperature (20 °C and 24 °C) and of their interactions on larval development time, mass and growth rate (A) at entrance to F-0 (DT_{F0}, Mass_{F0} and GR_{F0}) and (B) during the five-days exposure period to predator cues (GR_{final}). For each variable, we limited the analysis to the relevant predictors and interactions determined by the model selection analysis. The duration of the temperature treatment (post-winter ‘thermal exposure duration’) was included as covariate. Effects of random factors are not shown.

		At entrance to F-0					Predator treatment
A.		Dev. time _{F0}	Mass _{F0}	GR _{F0}	B.		GR _{final}
Variables	df	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	Variables	df	<i>p</i>
Thermal exposure duration	1	/	0.001 (10.1) **	0.001 (1150) ***	Thermal exposure duration	1	0.001 (10.6) **
Sex	1	/	< 0.001 (80.7) ***	0.001 (75.2) ***	Latitude	1	0.022 (5.25) *
Latitude	1	< 0.001 (14.2) ***	< 0.001 (53.1) ***	0.001 (112) ***	Predator	1	0.004 (8.39) **
Temperature	1	< 0.001 (50.0) ***	< 0.001 (76.7) ***	0.001 (62.0) ***			
Urbanization	1	/	0.308 (1.03)	0.236 (1.41)			
Latitude × sex	1	/	0.036 (4.40)	0.116 (2.47)			
Latitude × temperature	1	/	0.050 (3.83)	0.017 (5.71) *			
Latitude × urbanization	1	/	0.004 (8.15) **	/			
Temperature × sex	1	/	0.165	/			

			(1.93)				
Temperature urbanization	×	1	/	0.010 (6.70) **	0.047 (3.93) *		
Urbanization × sex		1	/	0.027 (4.87) *	0.032 (4.59) *		

Table shows p-values and Wald Chi-squared statistic (in parentheses) for each variable. Significance is indicated by *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Table 2. Results of the GLMM of the Experiment 2. Table shows effects of sex (females and males), urbanization (rural and urban), temperature (20 °C, 24 °C and 28 °C) and of their interactions on larval development time, mass and growth rate (A) at entrance to F-0 (Dev. time_{F0}, Mass_{F0} and GR_{F0}) and (B) during the five-days exposure period to predator cues (GR_{final}). For each variable, we limited the analysis to the relevant predictors and interactions determined by the model selection analysis. The duration of the temperature treatment (post-winter ‘thermal exposure duration’) was included as covariate. Effects of random factors are not shown.

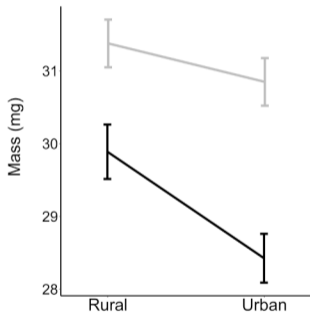
		At entrance to F-0			Predator treatment		
A.		Dev. time _{F0}	Mass _{F0}	GR _{F0}	B.		GR _{final}
Variables	df	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	Variables	df	<i>p</i>
Thermal exposure duration	1	/	< 0.001 (34.3) ***	< 0.001 (1168) ***	Thermal exposure duration	1	< 0.001 (12.5) ***
Sex	1	0.029 (4.78) *	< 0.001 (91.1) ***	< 0.001 (84.8) ***	Temperature	2	0.122 (4.21)
Temperature	2	< 0.001 (43.0) ***	< 0.001 (324) ***	< 0.001 (316) ***	Predator	1	0.344 (0.89)
Urbanization	1	0.063 (3.43)	/	/	Temperature × predator	2	0.001 (13.0) **
Temperature × sex	2	/	0.020 (7.83) *	0.026 (7.29) *			
Temperature × urbanization	2	0.31 (2.36)	/	/			

Table shows p-values and Wald Chi-squared statistic (in parentheses) for each variable. Significance is indicated by *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Experiment 1

Post-wintering

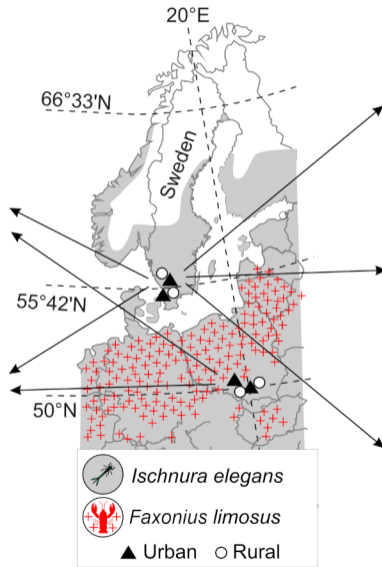
Effect of latitude and urbanization on mass at F-0
F-0



Region

— Central latitude
— High latitude

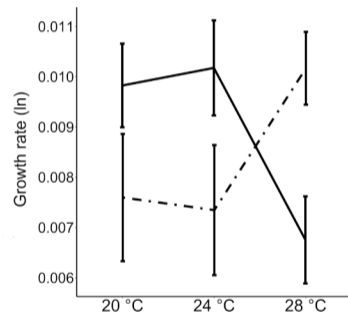
Distributions,
sampling



Experiment 2

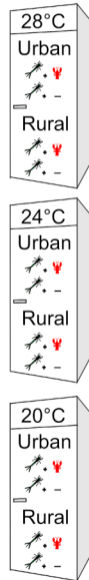
Post-wintering

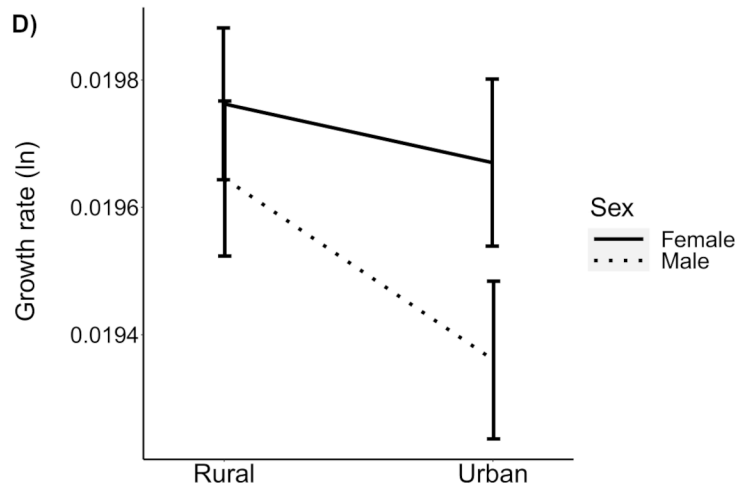
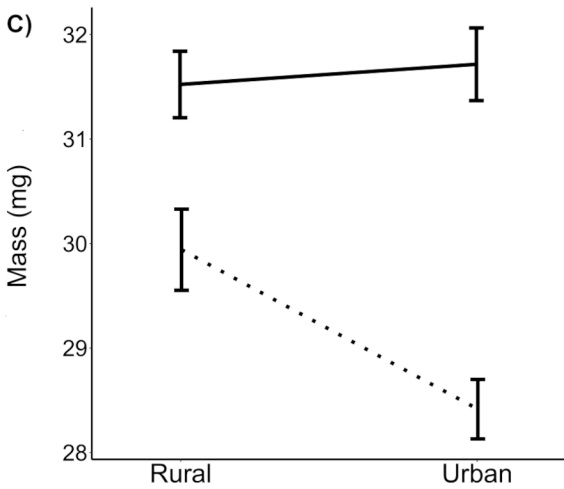
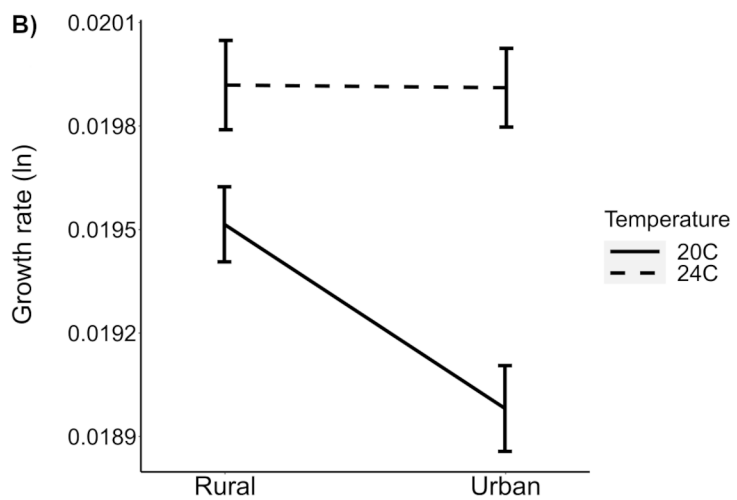
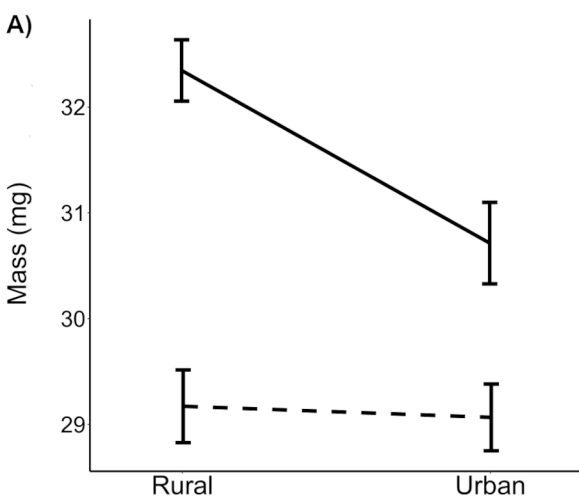
Effect of temperature and predator cue on
growth rate at F-0



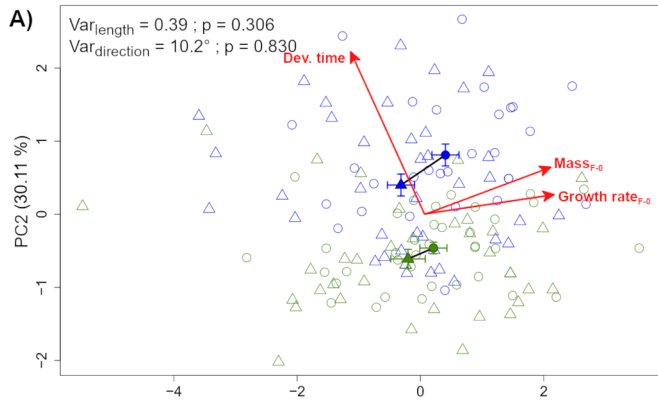
Treatment

— Control
- - - Predator

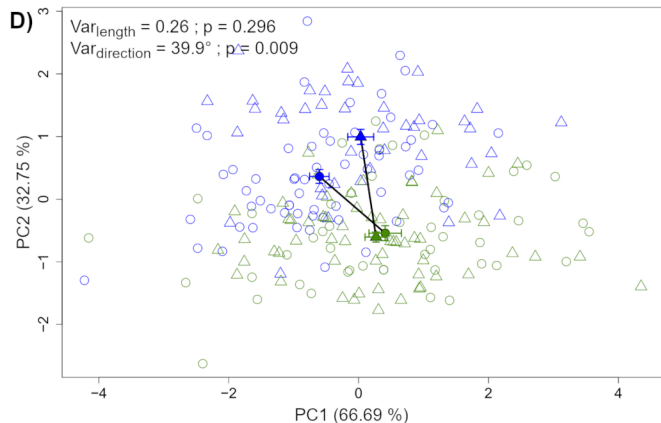
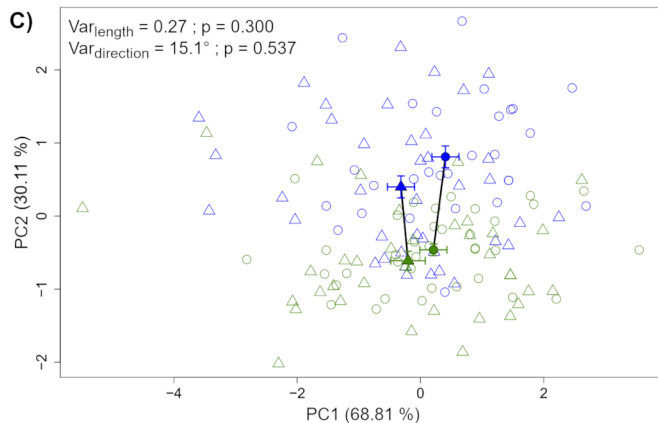
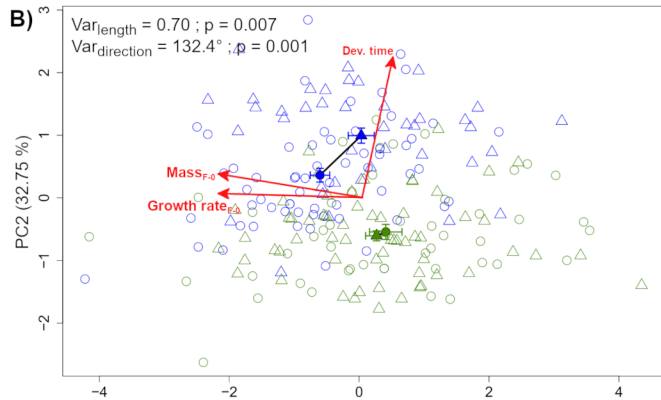




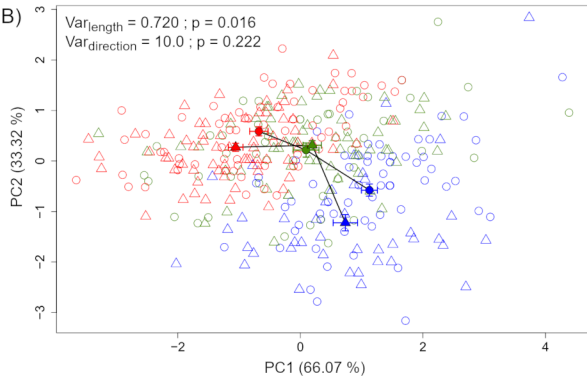
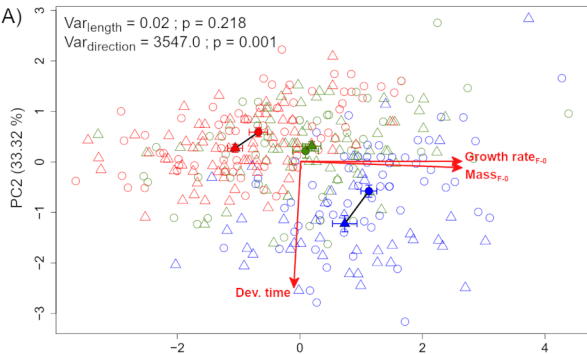
Central latitude



High latitude



○ Rural 20 °C ○ Rural 24 °C
 △ Urban 20 °C △ Urban 24 °C



○ Rural 20 °C ○ Rural 24 °C ○ Rural 28 °C
 △ Urban 20 °C △ Urban 24 °C △ Urban 28 °C