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1 **Title: Temperatures that sterilise males better match global species distributions than**
2 **lethal temperatures**

3
4 **Author List:** Steven R Parratt^{1*}, Benjamin S Walsh¹, Soeren Metelmann², Nicola White¹,
5 Andri Manser^{1†}, Amanda J Bretman³, Ary A Hoffmann⁴, Rhonda R Snook⁵, Tom AR Price^{1*}

6 **Affiliations:**

7 ¹Department of Evolution, Ecology and Behavior, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK.

8 ²Health Protection Research Unit in Emerging and Zoonotic Infections, University of
9 Liverpool, Liverpool, UK.

10 ³ School of Biology, Faculty of Biological Sciences, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK.

11 ⁴School of BioSciences, Bio21 Institute, University of Melbourne, Australia.

12 ⁵ Department of Zoology, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden

13 *Correspondence to: s.parratt@liverpool.ac.uk/t.price@liverpool.ac.uk

14 †Current Address: Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies,
15 University of Zürich, Zürich, Switzerland

16

17 **Abstract**

18 **Attempts to link physiological thermal tolerance to global species distributions have relied**
19 **on lethal temperature limits, yet many organisms lose fertility at sublethal temperatures.**

20 **Here we show that, across 43 *Drosophila* species, global distributions better match male-**
21 **sterilising temperatures than lethal temperatures. This suggests that species distributions**
22 **may be determined by thermal limits to reproduction, not survival, meaning we may be**
23 **underestimating the impacts of climate change for many organisms.**

24

25 **Main Text:**

26 To preserve biodiversity, we urgently need to understand the physiological, behavioral and
27 evolutionary factors that underpin species' thermal distributions¹. Laboratory-derived
28 estimates of the highest temperatures at which an organism can survive (critical thermal
29 limits/CTL) provide measures of species' thermal tolerances. Linking CTLs to current
30 distributions has enabled better modelling of future species distributions under climate
31 change scenarios², likely to be vital for prioritizing conservation efforts³ and effectively
32 managing invasive species⁴.

33

34 Despite CTLs being measured in artificial laboratory conditions, they correlate reasonably well
35 with species' macroecological distributions^{5,6} and have been used to estimate species'
36 capacity to tolerate temperature increases across their current range; their 'thermal safety
37 margins'^{5,7}. However, CTLs can be higher than the temperatures that cause seasonal
38 population declines in nature⁸. Some of this discrepancy has been attributed to
39 methodological shortcomings⁹⁻¹¹, but could also be due to organisms becoming infertile at
40 sub-lethal temperatures¹². Sub-lethal temperatures cause losses in fertility in plants¹³,
41 insects¹⁴⁻¹⁶, fish¹⁷, corals¹⁸, birds¹⁹ and mammals, including humans²⁰. If the temperatures
42 that cause infertility (thermal fertility limits/TFLs) are often lower than CTLs, we may both be
43 generally underestimating organisms' vulnerability to climate change, and misidentifying
44 which organisms are most at risk. If TFLs correlate with natural distributions better than CTLs,
45 incorporating TFLs into models of climate change impacts may improve accuracy.

46

47 We recorded three measures of upper thermal limits in adult males from 43 species of
48 *Drosophila*. To compare fertility and survival limits under identical heat-stress conditions, we

49 exposed flies to a 4-hour static heat stress at a range of temperatures from benign through to
50 lethal (Supplementary Table 1). From these data we estimated both the temperature that is
51 lethal to 80% of individuals (LT80), and the temperature at which 80% of surviving males are
52 sterilized (TFL80). Measuring thermal traits under static temperature stress rather than slowly
53 increasing temperatures (i.e. ramping) has received criticism²¹. However, ramping assays
54 require an immediate observable response, such as flies losing coordinated motor function.
55 Unfortunately, sterilization is not immediately observable, so we use static temperatures and
56 assay fertility through subsequent matings. We score fertility at two time points: (i)
57 cumulatively over 1-6 days post-heat, to capture any immediate sterilizing effect of heat, and
58 (ii) 7-days after heat-stress to capture any recovery of fertility or delayed sterility. To compare
59 our estimates of TFL80 and LT80 with a measure of lethal temperature under ramping thermal
60 stress, we also assayed the CT_{MAX} of each species. This is the temperature at which males lose
61 coordinated motor function under gradually increasing temperatures. CT_{MAX} is commonly used
62 to predict species' sensitivity to thermal stress associated with climate change^{3,5,7}.

63

64 We found that 11 of 43 species experience an 80% loss in fertility at cooler-than-lethal
65 temperatures immediately following heat-stress (Extended Data Figure 1). Interestingly, rather
66 than seeing a recovery of fertility over time, the impact of high temperatures on fertility was
67 more pronounced 7-days post heat stress (Figure 2A). Using this delayed measure of fertility,
68 44% of species (19/43) showed fertility loss at cooler-than-lethal temperatures. The difference
69 between lethal and fertility limits ranged from 0°C to 4.3°C (mean of all species = 1.15 ±
70 0.22°C), and LT80 and TFL80 predict dramatically different rankings of species' robustness to
71 high temperature (Figure 2B). All three thermal limits significantly, positively correlate with
72 each other (Supplementary Table 2). Despite deriving from different types of heat-stress, the

73 correlation coefficient between CT_{MAX} and LT80 is larger than that between TFL80 and either
74 measure of lethal temperature. Relatively low correlations between survival (measured as
75 CT_{MAX} under dynamic conditions or LT80 under static stress) and fertility (measured under
76 static heat stress) suggests they are distinct phenomena, and measuring both may be
77 important for understanding species responses to thermal stress.

78

79 Our data confirm that fertility loss at sub-lethal temperatures is common in *Drosophila*,
80 suggesting that lethal limits alone may overestimate the thermal tolerance of many species.
81 However, the key question is whether TFLs are linked to organisms' distributions in nature. To
82 test this, we integrated existing distribution data of each sampled *Drosophila* species with
83 global climate data. From this we estimated the mean maximum air temperatures species are
84 likely to encounter in natural populations. Our measurement of CT_{MAX} significantly predicted
85 mean maximum environmental air temperature (PGLS: $t_{40} = 2.647$, $P = 0.012$), albeit this
86 relationship negatively interacts with annual rainfall (PGLS: $t_{40} = -2.077$, $P = 0.044$, $adjR^2 =$
87 0.186 , $partialR^2 = 0.336$). LT80 also significantly predicted mean maximum environmental
88 temperature (PGLS: $t_{40} = 3.360$, $P = 0.002$) to a similar extent ($adjR^2 = 0.197$, $partialR^2 = 0.337$).
89 However, the relationship between TFL80 and mean environmental maximum temperature
90 was stronger, both when TFL80 was measured immediately following heat-stress (PGLS: $t_{40} =$
91 4.225 , $P < 0.001$, $adjR^2 = 0.286$, $partialR^2 = 0.401$) and 7 days later (PGLS: $t_{40} = 5.014$, $P < 0.001$,
92 $adjR^2 = 0.365$, $partialR^2 = 0.455$). Comparing all best-fit models, TFL80 measured 7-days after heat
93 shock most strongly predicted mean maximum air temperatures in species' environments,
94 explaining 36.5% to 45.5% of the variation (Supplementary Table 3). Based on $adjR^2$, TFL
95 improves accuracy by 85.3% and 95.8% compared to CT_{MAX} and LT80 respectively. Based on
96 $partialR^2$, which account for non-independence in residuals from phylogenetic models²², TFL80

97 provides a 35.1% and 35.5% improvement over LT80 and CT_{MAX} (Supplementary Table 3). TFLs
98 also outperformed lethal measures when we used a more conservative 50% threshold for LT
99 and TFL estimates (Supplementary Table 4). These analyses suggest that TFLs and species
100 distributions are strongly linked in nature, and that fertility losses due to high temperature
101 may be an important determinant of where species occur.

102

103 Thermal safety margins (the difference between an organism's thermal limit and the
104 maximum temperature it faces in nature) can be used to predict vulnerability to climate
105 change⁷. TFLs produce significantly smaller safety margins than CTLs (Extended Data Figure 2
106 & Table 5). We illustrate the potential implications of TFL-based safety margins with
107 distribution models of *Drosophila flavomontana*, which has one of the largest differences
108 between LT and TFL estimates, a well-documented distribution not associated with urban
109 areas or farms, and a well understood habitat ecology. Safety margins based on TFL80 predict
110 a 17.9% reduction in habitable landscape compared to an identical LT80-based model under
111 current climate conditions (Figure 2A). The disparity between predictions based on sterility
112 and lethality grew to 48.0% by the year 2080 under moderately optimistic future climate
113 forecasts (ICCP-AR5 RCP 4.5, Figure 2B), and to 58.9% under pessimistic climate change
114 scenarios (ICCP-AR5 RCP 8.5, Figure 2C). TFL-based models also predict that by 2080 the
115 available habitat for *D. flavomontana* will have reduced by 42.3% and 62.9% under RCP4.5 and
116 RCP8.5 respectively.

117

118 How to most accurately measure thermal limits to predict how species will respond to climate
119 change is currently being debated^{8,9,11,21}. Tolerance landscape measures of lethal
120 temperatures, which integrate the intensity and duration of heat stress, have been proposed

121 as superior alternatives to point-estimate methods such as $CT_{MAX}^{8,10}$. Here, we step back from
122 this methodological debate and show the importance of identifying and measuring the correct
123 thermally sensitive traits in the first instance. High throughput point-estimates such as we use
124 here for TFL allow cross-species comparison of thermal sensitivity. Importantly, this reveals
125 contrasting patterns of inter-specific variation in survival and fertility, of which fertility loss
126 better matches variation in species natural thermal habitat. Exploration of the physiological,
127 genetic, behavioral and ecological mechanisms that underly thermal fertility limits will now be
128 an important step towards linking temperature-driven sterility with species' responses to
129 climate change.

130

131 If our data for *Drosophila* can be extrapolated to other organisms, then male fertility losses at
132 high temperatures may be common, occurring at substantially lower temperatures than
133 lethality. The limited data on fertility at extreme temperatures supports this, with high
134 temperature losses in male fertility observed in diverse organisms¹², including some high
135 temperature adapted species. For instance, the zebra finch, a desert-dwelling organism with
136 naturally high body temperature and good thermoregulation, shows substantial damage to
137 sperm at temperatures it regularly experiences in nature¹⁹. Behavioral thermoregulation could
138 potentially reduce the impact of high temperatures on fertility in nature. However, while
139 studies have found that *Drosophila* are able to behaviorally thermoregulate in the lab²³, some
140 evidence suggests that behavioral preferences for cooler microclimates such as leaf litter,
141 shade, or higher altitudes do not necessarily translate into natural settings²⁴. Further, many
142 species are able to survive high temperature periods by aestivating as adults, eggs or pupae.
143 This may explain why our data predict negative thermal safety margins for some species.

144 Despite these potential mechanisms, we still find that species' distributions are predicted by
145 thermal fertility limits.

146

147 Our work emphasizes that temperature-driven fertility losses may be a major threat to
148 biodiversity during climate change. We urgently need to understand the range of organisms
149 likely to suffer thermal fertility losses in nature, and the traits that predict vulnerability.
150 However, we currently do not understand the physiology underlying variation in TFLs between
151 species, nor the selective forces that created this variation. Ultimately, we need to know
152 whether evolution for higher TFLs will allow species to adapt to a warming environment.

153

154 **Data Availability:** All novel data underlying the analyses and figures presented in this paper
155 are available from Dryad at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.f4qrfj6tt>.

156 **Code Availability:** Analyses R code are available upon request from the corresponding authors.

157

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213

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221

222 **Author Contributions:** The study was conceived by TP, AB, RS, AH & SP. The experimental
223 methodology and data collection were developed and conducted by SP, BW, NW. Data from
224 existing open sources were curated by SP & SM. Statistical analysis and visualization was
225 conducted by SP, AM & SM. The manuscript was drafted by SP, TP, AB, RS & AH. All authors
226 reviewed and commented on the final version of the manuscript.

227

228 **Competing Interests Statement:**

229 The authors have no competing interest to declare.

230

231 **Figure 1: 80% lethal temperatures (LT80) and 80% sterilising temperatures (TFL80) for 43**
232 **species of *Drosophila*.** Species ranked by LT80 from highest tolerance (top) to lowest
233 (bottom). a) Upper lethal temperature (LT80, black circles) and upper thermal fertility limits
234 (TFL80 measured 7-days after heat stress, pink points) of all 43 species. Pale pink bar links
235 estimates from the same species. 19 of 43 species show significantly lower thermal fertility
236 limits than lethal limits. 95% CI are shown as error bars for both measures, differences
237 between a species’ TFL80 and LT80 considered to be significant if these bars do not overlap.
238 Axis phylogeny branches coloured by the difference between species’ LT80 and TFL80
239 measured 7-days post heat stress. Yellower colours indicate larger differences, species with no
240 significant difference indicated in grey. b) Relative ranking of species by each thermal

241 tolerance measure. Dashed lines indicate species with significantly lower TFL80 than LT80. For
242 fertility measured immediately following heat-stress see Extended Data Figure 1.

243

244 **Methods:**

245 We assayed three metrics of upper thermal limits in sexually mature males from 43 species of
246 *Drosophila*: Lethal Temperature (LT), Thermal Fertility Limit (TFL) and Maximum Critical
247 Temperature (CT_{MAX}). We measured LT and TFL under static temperature conditions by
248 exposing flies to four-hour temperature pulses and recording survival and fertility. Using static
249 temperatures to measure thermal tolerances has received criticism²¹. However, in *Drosophila*
250 fertility is internal and has no directly observable marker indicating a male has become sterile,
251 rendering ramping methods impossible. Measuring LT under static temperatures allows us to
252 directly compare measures of fertility loss and lethality under identical conditions. Following
253 heat treatment, males were transferred to fresh vials and allocated to floating racks in pre-
254 heated waterbaths set to a range of temperatures (Supplementary Table 1). Males were
255 heated for 4 hours between ~10am - ~2pm and then returned to temperature-controlled
256 rooms at the species' benign temperature. We scored survival of males the next morning to
257 account for immediate recovery or delayed death. Surviving males were aspirated into
258 separate vials containing 3-4 sexually mature virgin females. Males were kept in these vials at
259 their benign temperature to mate freely for 6 days, then transferred to a second vial with 1-2
260 more virgin females and allowed to mate for 24 hours. This allowed us to score fertility at two
261 time points to capture any recovery or delayed sterilization. Vials were scored as 'fertile' by
262 the presence of larvae or larval tracks. We used dose-response models to estimate the
263 temperatures that kill and sterilize 80% of males; LT80 and TFL80 respectively. We only allow
264 TFL80 to be lower than or equal to the species' LT80 and we only consider a species' TFL to be

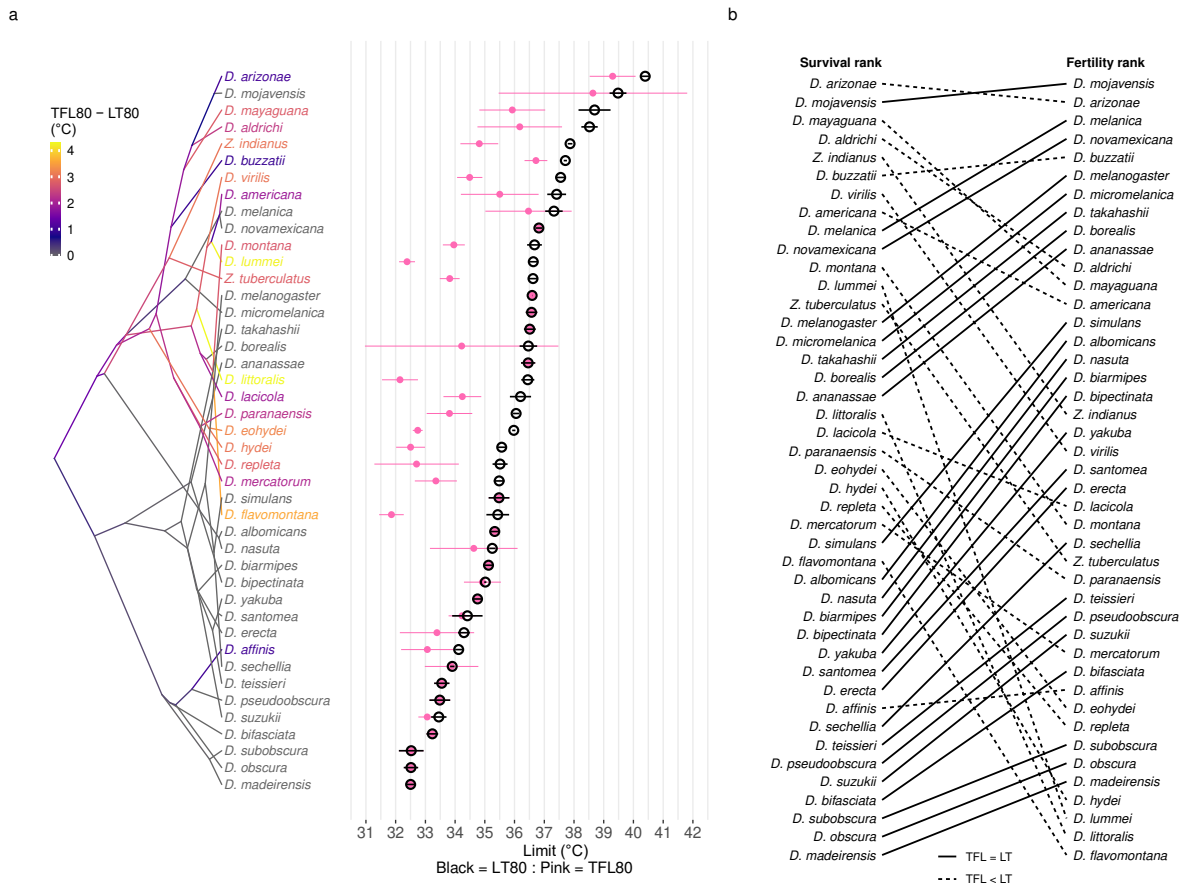
265 statistically lower than its LT if the 95% confidence intervals of these two point-estimates do
266 not overlap. We also measured upper critical limits of our 43 *Drosophila* species under
267 ramping heat conditions (CT_{MAX}). Individual sexually mature males were exposed to
268 temperature increments of 0.1°C/min and the temperature at which flies collapsed for 30
269 seconds and did not right themselves after tapping the vial was recorded. We explored the
270 correlations between LT80, TFL80 and CT_{MAX} using multiple phylogenetically controlled
271 approaches (supplementary methods).

272

273 We tested how well LT80, TFL80 and CT_{MAX} explained interspecific variation in the mean
274 maximum air temperature species experience in nature. We obtained species distributions
275 from Taxodros.ch and integrated these coordinates with the mean maximum air temperature
276 between the years 1970-2000 from the WorldClim V2 database (Tmax hereafter). We used
277 phylogenetically controlled models to fit each physiological limit as a predictor of Tmax. We
278 compare the adjusted and partial likelihood-based R² of each model.

279

280 We predicted future range contraction using TFL and LT for *Drosophila flavomontana*. We used
281 MaxEnt modelling to predict *D. flavomontana*'s putative current range based on ecological
282 parameters at its known occurrence in Taxodros. We then constrained this area by matching
283 both LT80 and TFL80 to the maximum annual temperature experienced across this range. We
284 then forecast this to future moderately optimistic (RCP4.5) and pessimistic (RCP8.5) climate
285 change scenarios.



286

287

Figure 1: 80% lethal temperatures (LT80) and 80% sterilising temperatures (TFL80) for 43

288

species of *Drosophila*. Species ranked by LT80 from highest tolerance (top) to lowest

289

(bottom). a) Upper lethal temperature (LT80, black circles) and upper thermal fertility limits

290

(TFL80 measured 7-days after heat stress, pink points) of all 43 species. Pale pink bar links

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294

Axis phylogeny branches coloured by the difference between species' LT80 and TFL80

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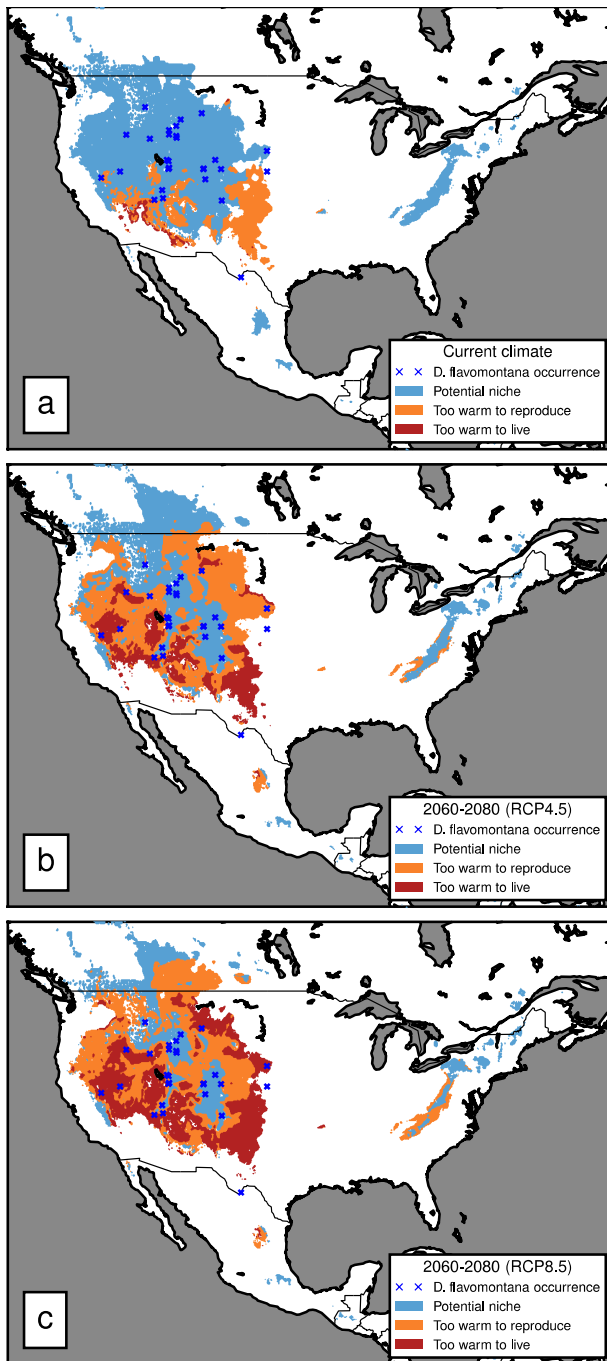
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297

tolerance measure. Dashed lines indicate species with significantly lower TFL80 than LT80. For

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fertility measured immediately following heat-stress see Extended Data Figure 1.



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301

302

303

304

Figure 2: Potential current and future habitat range of *Drosophila flavomontana* (LT80 = 35.4°C, TFL80 = 31.9°C). A) current and B & C) possible future climate scenarios (B = RCP4.5 ‘moderately optimistic’, C = RCP8.5 ‘pessimistic’, predicted for 2060 - 2080). Colored areas in each panel represent suitable habitat range predicted by a model that excludes maximum temperature. Red areas show regions where maximum summer temperatures exceed LT80.

305 Orange areas show regions where maximum summertime temperatures exceed TFL80. Blue
306 regions are areas where limits for *D. flavomontana* are not exceeded all year.

307

308