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## The evolution of plasticity at geographic range edges

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<b>Corresponding Author:</b>	Takuji Usui The University of British Columbia Vancouver, BC CANADA
<b>First Author:</b>	Takuji Usui
<b>Order of Authors:</b>	Takuji Usui
	David Lerner
	Isaac M K Eckert
	Amy L Angert, PhD
	Colin J Garroway, PhD
	Anna L Hargreaves, PhD
	Lesley T Lancaster
	Jean-Philippe Lessard, PhD
	Federico Riva, PhD
	Chloe Schmidt, PhD
	Karin Revka Loek van der Burg, PhD
	Katie E Marshall, PhD
	Chloé Schmidt
<b>Abstract:</b>	Phenotypic plasticity enables rapid responses to environmental change, and could facilitate range shifts in response to climate change. What drives the evolution of plasticity at range edges, and the capacity of range-edge individuals to be plastic, remains unclear. Here, we propose that accurately predicting when plasticity itself evolves or mediates adaptive evolution at expanding range edges requires integrating knowledge on the demography and evolution of edge populations. Our synthesis shows that: (1) the demography of edge populations can amplify or attenuate responses to selection for plasticity through diverse pathways; and (2) demographic effects on plasticity are modified by the stability of range edges. Our spatially-explicit synthesis for plasticity has the potential to improve predictions for range shifts with climate change.

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1 **The evolution of plasticity at geographic range edges**

2

3 *Authors:* Takuji Usui<sup>1\*</sup>, David Lerner<sup>2\*</sup>, Isaac Eckert<sup>3</sup>, Amy L Angert<sup>1,9</sup>, Colin J Garroway<sup>4</sup>,

4 Anna Hargreaves<sup>3</sup>, Lesley T Lancaster<sup>5</sup>, Jean-Philippe Lessard<sup>6</sup>, Federico Riva<sup>7</sup>, Chloé

5 Schmidt<sup>8</sup>, Karin van der Burg<sup>9</sup>, Katie E Marshall<sup>9</sup>

6

7 \*These authors contributed equally to this work.

8

9 *Affiliations:*

10 <sup>1</sup>Department of Botany, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada

11 <sup>2</sup>Department of Plant and Environmental Sciences, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot,

12 Israel

13 <sup>3</sup>Department of Biology, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada

14 <sup>4</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada

15 <sup>5</sup>School of Biological Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, United Kingdom

16 <sup>6</sup>Department of Biology, Concordia University, Montreal, QC, Canada

17 <sup>7</sup>Department of Ecology and Evolution, Université de Lausanne, Lausanne, Switzerland

18 <sup>8</sup>German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv), Halle-Jena-Leipzig, Germany

19 <sup>9</sup>Department of Zoology, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada

20

21 *Corresponding authors:* T. Usui (usuitakuji@gmail.com) and D. Lerner

22 (david.lerner@weizmann.ac.il)

23

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25 patterns

26

27 **Abstract**

28 Phenotypic plasticity enables rapid responses to environmental change, and could facilitate  
29 range shifts in response to climate change. What drives the evolution of plasticity at range  
30 edges, and the capacity of range-edge individuals to be plastic, remains unclear. Here, we  
31 propose that accurately predicting when plasticity itself evolves or mediates adaptive  
32 evolution at expanding range edges requires integrating knowledge on the demography and  
33 evolution of edge populations. Our synthesis shows that: (1) the demography of edge  
34 populations can amplify or attenuate responses to selection for plasticity through diverse  
35 pathways; and (2) demographic effects on plasticity are modified by the stability of range  
36 edges. Our spatially-explicit synthesis for plasticity has the potential to improve predictions  
37 for range shifts with climate change.

38

39 **On the importance of plasticity at geographic range edges**

40 Species **range edges** (see Glossary) are shifting rapidly in response to changing climate [1,2].

41 **Leading-edge** populations (i.e., at high-latitude and high-elevation range edges) are  
42 expanding into habitat that is now climatically suitable, whilst encountering novel non-  
43 climate conditions (e.g. in photoperiods [3] or biotic communities [4]). Range-edge  
44 populations can cope with these new conditions by adaptive evolution [5]. The ability and  
45 need for edge populations to adapt to environmental change, however, is affected by  
46 **phenotypic plasticity**– rapid responses that enable individuals to adjust their phenotype  
47 within a single or few generations [6–9].

48

49 Decades of research have allowed for comprehensive syntheses of factors influencing  
50 adaptation to new conditions in edge populations (reviewed in [5]). However, the relative

51 paucity of studies focusing on plasticity at range edges has hampered the formulation of  
52 unifying theories (but see [10–12]), despite the fact that plasticity itself can evolve and can  
53 respond to selection over multiple generations (Box 1) [13]. Lack of synthesis predicting  
54 when edge populations will evolve higher or lower plasticity is a major gap in our ability to  
55 anticipate responses to climate change. Importantly, variation in plasticity may not solely  
56 reflect patterns of environmental selection [12,14,15] (but see [11,16,17]). Rather, it may also  
57 be shaped by demographic and evolutionary processes that can operate with different  
58 strengths toward **species range** edges [18–20] (Box 1).

59

60 Plasticity evolution at range edges should be affected by the same processes that govern the  
61 formation of range edges. Thus, much of the theory on evolution at range edges can be used  
62 to predict the evolution of plasticity. However, plasticity is more complex than most traits.  
63 First, rather than being a single quantifiable trait, like body size or photosynthetic capacity,  
64 plasticity pervades all traits, and the degree of plasticity can vary among traits within an  
65 individual [21]. Second, by altering the phenotype, plasticity mediates the interaction  
66 between the genotype and environment, and therefore feeds back to affect selection in  
67 complex ways [22]. Plasticity can either hinder adaptation by reducing the genetic response  
68 to selection or, by contrast, facilitate adaptation if initial plastic changes promote subsequent  
69 selection for genetic adaptation (i.e., the plasticity-first hypothesis) [23][24]. Additionally,  
70 while plasticity can dampen or facilitate evolutionary responses, existing plasticity at range  
71 edges could facilitate range shifts without the need for any genetic adaptation. In turn, range  
72 edges may affect the expression and evolution of plasticity in unique ways. Range edges  
73 often involve gradients in environmental heterogeneity, demography, and **gene flow**, all of  
74 which influence the evolution of plasticity. Developing a clearer framework for

75 understanding plasticity at range edges is a challenging but critical step toward predicting  
76 species' responses to climate change.

77

78 Here, we unify theoretical and empirical work to address the expression and evolution of  
79 plasticity at species' leading range edges. We describe how plasticity might vary at range  
80 edges given the ecological and evolutionary processes that: (i) can limit species' geographic  
81 ranges; and (ii) occur during range expansion. We enumerate key hypotheses for patterns of  
82 plasticity evolution toward range edges (Box 2), highlighting gaps in empirical work and  
83 paths forward for testing them.

84

## 85 **Plasticity evolution at species' range limits**

### 86 **Limits and costs to plasticity evolution at range edges**

87 Empirical evidence suggests that habitat quality declines across ~75% of species' range edges  
88 [25]. Plasticity is advantageous in low-quality habitats if it helps organisms adaptively  
89 regulate their environmental tolerances or phenology to improve fitness [26]. However,  
90 predicting whether plasticity will evolve adaptively requires a consideration of its limits and  
91 costs [27]. At **stable range edges** where edge populations are unable to expand their range  
92 due to reduced fitness (Box 1), our synthesis below predicts plasticity to be both limited and  
93 costly (Hypothesis 1; Box 2).

94

95 If adaptive evolution at range edges is constrained by low **effective population size** (Box 1),  
96 then edge populations might lack adaptive variation in all traits, including **genetic variation**  
97 **for plasticity** (GxE; [11,28]). Even where genetic variation for plasticity is present and there  
98 is selection for increased plasticity, the evolution of plasticity can be costly at range edges.  
99 While environmental stress towards range edges (Box 1) could impose costs to any trait

100 regardless of plasticity, it should be particularly demanding to the often complex  
101 physiological and metabolic mechanisms involved in the production, expression,  
102 maintenance, and cue perception required to evolve and express plasticity [29–31].  
103 Furthermore, the adaptive response in stressful environments may involve phenotypic  
104 buffering, where traits involved in fitness maintenance and physiological homeostasis are  
105 favoured to be constant across environments to reduce costs of plasticity [32]. Phenotypic  
106 buffering will thus manifest as flat **reaction norms** and may be common at range edges [32].  
107 There is evidence for reduced plasticity in response to stressful conditions at range edges  
108 [33–36]; but see [37,38]. For example, climatic stress can correlate negatively with the  
109 magnitude of plasticity across space [15,39–41], such as with cold stress limiting plasticity in  
110 physiological traits for terrestrial plant species towards the poles [15].

111  
112 Lastly, empirical evidence suggests an association between range edges and increased  
113 environmental variation for certain species [42,43]; but see [44,45]. If the relative influence  
114 of environmental fluctuations on demography and fitness is stronger at the range edge than at  
115 the range core [46,47], the cost of environmental mismatch (i.e., of expressing the wrong  
116 phenotype at the wrong time) may also increase towards range edges [12,22]. Overall, genetic  
117 variation for plasticity may be limited and plasticity costly to evolve in edge populations,  
118 particularly where populations and habitats are of low quality (Figure 1).

119  
120 Whilst limited genetic variation and increased costs should hold for any trait at a stable range  
121 edge, this is particularly crucial to plasticity for at least two reasons. First, based solely on  
122 assumptions that environmental variation increases towards range edges [43], one might  
123 predict increased adaptive plasticity at range edges without consideration of demographic and  
124 evolutionary constraints. However, populations at stable range edges may lack capacity to

125 respond to selection for adaptive plasticity even if its fitness benefits are predicted to increase  
126 at the range edge [18,19,36]. Second, demographic and genetic constraints on the evolution  
127 of plasticity at range edges may further promote the formation of range limits by decreasing  
128 overall environmental tolerances at the range edge [19]. Considering how these constraints on  
129 the evolution of plasticity are overcome will therefore be key to understanding the  
130 importance of plasticity during climatic range shifts. An interesting exception is species  
131 where populations at range edges become increasingly clonal [48,49]. For clonal individuals,  
132 plasticity may be important at the range edge [50] to compensate for the loss of genetic  
133 variation [51,52].

134

### 135 **Dispersal, gene flow and plasticity evolution at range edges**

136 The prevalence of plasticity at range edges can also be influenced by the magnitude and  
137 direction of dispersal and gene flow. Selection for plasticity during dispersal is analogous to  
138 selection from temporal environmental variability in that plasticity can confer a fitness  
139 benefit for organisms experiencing spatially variable environments [53–56]. Here, plasticity  
140 is advantageous over **specialisation** when dispersal across varying environments selects  
141 against individuals specialized to one environment, due to mismatches with their new  
142 environments [54]. Plasticity would therefore become more common in populations that  
143 experience regular or repeated immigration of individuals across divergent environments.

144

145 Lower dispersal rates between isolated edge populations could reduce the likelihood of  
146 adaptive plasticity (Figure 1) if there is less opportunity for selection from spatial variability  
147 to act when dispersal across environments is rare [54]. Theoretical models also suggest that,  
148 under specific circumstances (Table 1), selection can favour adaptive plasticity in populations  
149 experiencing **gene swamping** if the plastic response is in a direction that mitigates fitness

150 loss that arises due to the introduction of maladaptive alleles [18]. For example, if edge  
151 populations reproduce sexually and experience gene swamping from central populations [57],  
152 adaptive plasticity could evolve at range edges in specific cases where plasticity mitigates  
153 **genetic load** [18]. While empirical work has found evidence that edge populations can be  
154 fragmented and dispersal-limited [58–60], empirical evidence for gene swamping at range  
155 edges is generally weak [5,61]. Overall, in isolated edge populations, limited dispersal could  
156 therefore provide weak selection for plasticity from spatial environmental variation,  
157 contributing further to reduced plasticity at stable range edges (Hypothesis 1; Box 2).

158

159 There are few empirical tests of whether plasticity increases with higher rates of gene flow  
160 (Table 1; but see [62–64]). In the frog *Rana temporaria*, plasticity in metamorphosis rates is  
161 adaptive and highest in populations from ponds that experience higher fluctuations in water  
162 availability and in populations that experienced greater dispersal from islands that were  
163 environmentally dissimilar [63]. However, whilst studies have tested how gene flow affects  
164 the degree of local adaptation at species' range edges [61], we are not aware of empirical  
165 tests of how gene flow might affect the evolution of plasticity at range edges (see  
166 Outstanding Questions).

167

### 168 **Plasticity evolution during range expansion**

169 Range boundaries are dynamic, with periods of both stasis and expansion [65–67]. We next  
170 focus on how demographic and evolutionary processes occurring during range expansion  
171 could shape spatial variation in plasticity (Table 1).

172

### 173 **Demography and evolution of plasticity during range expansion:**



174 During range expansion, the evolution of adaptive plasticity at the leading edge should  
175 depend on the balance between demography and selection from the environmental gradient  
176 across space (Figure 1; Hypothesis 2, Box 2). First, during the initial stages of colonisation,  
177 selection is weak relative to genetic drift due to small population sizes [68]. However,  
178 dispersal during range expansion could subsequently alleviate evolutionary constraints on  
179 adaptive plasticity due to the accumulation of colonising individuals at the leading edge,  
180 increasing genetic variation [69] (although see “Genetic load and the evolution of plasticity”  
181 for dispersal during range expansion leading to the fixation of deleterious variants).

182

183 Second, models of plasticity evolution and colonisation suggest that environmental gradients  
184 impose strong selection for adaptive plasticity if that plasticity promotes tolerance to, and  
185 establishment in, new environments [68,70]. However, whether plasticity or specialisation is  
186 favoured at the leading edge depends on dispersal rates (see Dispersal, gene flow and  
187 plasticity evolution at range edges) and whether range expansion involves dispersal into new  
188 environments. For the latter, recent modelling work shows that when dispersal occurs into  
189 environments that are within the species niche (i.e., non-novel environments), higher  
190 dispersal can introduce genotypes already suited to the environment at the leading edge [20].  
191 When the environment is novel, higher dispersal can favour plasticity (adaptive or non-  
192 adaptive) over specialisation, as none of the genotypes introduced by dispersal are specialised  
193 to the new environment at the leading edge [20].

194

195 While theory suggests that range expansion can select for increased adaptive plasticity, some  
196 empirical results suggest that maladaptive plasticity can also arise during range expansion  
197 [71–74]. This occurs when populations encounter increasingly stressful or novel  
198 environments that limit expression of adaptively plastic phenotypes. Evidence from spatial

199 variation in **transcriptional plasticity** [72,74,75] and lab-based experimental range shifts  
200 [73] suggests that maladaptive plasticity during range expansion can, counterintuitively,  
201 enhance adaptation to environments being colonised. Maladaptive plasticity could promote  
202 adaptive evolution by increasing: 1) the strength of directional selection as a result of lower  
203 relative fitness; and 2) the response to selection by increasing fitness variance [72,74–76].  
204 Therefore, both adaptive and maladaptive plasticity are predicted to have key roles in  
205 promoting colonisation during range expansion (Hypothesis 3, Box 2).

206

207 Empirical data on plasticity evolution during native range expansions is limited (but see [77–  
208 79]). Instead, most evidence for plasticity evolution during range expansion comes from  
209 invasive species, which have found that many traits evolve differences between leading-edge  
210 populations compared to populations further behind the expansion front, though both  
211 plasticity and fixed genetic differences can contribute to such differences [80]. Invasive  
212 populations experience different demographic and environmental conditions than would be  
213 typical of climate-driven range shifts, as the former tends to involve a few founding  
214 individuals colonising new communities and environments [68]. Understanding plasticity  
215 evolution in the context of native ranges will be critical for predicting how plasticity evolves  
216 to facilitate or inhibit range expansion in response to climate change (see Outstanding  
217 Questions).

218

### 219 **Genetic load and the evolution of plasticity**

220 During range expansion, sequential founder events can lead to strong genetic drift and  
221 therefore increased genetic load [81]. Plasticity in particular can accumulate genetic load  
222 during range expansion when plasticity is controlled by conditional, environmentally-induced  
223 gene expression. This occurs because selection for plasticity can be relaxed during range

224 expansion when there is spatial heterogeneity in the environment that induces plasticity such  
225 that plasticity is not expressed consistently across space [82]. This can subsequently lead to  
226 mutation accumulation in conditionally expressed genes that regulate plasticity [82,83].  
227 Although there is no empirical evidence testing whether plastic traits accumulate genetic load  
228 during range expansion, there is theoretical evidence that environmentally induced genes are  
229 especially susceptible to load as a result of relaxed selection [83]. This is especially relevant  
230 for many plastic traits that have specific, environmental cues such as for phenological  
231 plasticity in response to temperature or day length [12]

232

### 233 **Looking forward: testable hypotheses for plasticity at species' range edges**

234 Our synthesis suggests that to predict levels of plasticity in range-edge populations, one must  
235 look beyond measures of environmental variability and incorporate the interactive effects of  
236 demography and evolution (Table 1; Figure 1). Importantly, synthesising the effects of  
237 demography and evolution alters predictions of spatial variation in plasticity based solely on  
238 environmental variability, and provides alternative mechanisms for currently unexplained  
239 patterns. We highlight these key, testable hypotheses on range-edge plasticity that emerge  
240 from our synthesis in Box 2.

### 241 **Empirical approaches for testing hypotheses on plasticity at range edges**

242 We highlight that empirical tests comparing the different ecological and evolutionary drivers  
243 of plasticity in range-edge populations are limited (but see [11]). Our synthesis of drivers of  
244 plasticity shows major gaps in testing the demographic drivers of plasticity (Table 1). This  
245 sort of test is inherently difficult because plasticity is challenging to measure and responds to  
246 a variety of co-occurring environmental gradients. Nevertheless, such studies will be

247 paramount to understand how plasticity will influence species responses to global change.

248

249 Plasticity is typically estimated by sampling individuals from populations and measuring trait  
250 change at the individual level across environments (e.g., in common gardens with two or  
251 more environmental treatments; Figure 2A; [10]). More recently, modern genomic tools have  
252 allowed quantification of plasticity at the transcript level [75,84]. To identify predictors of  
253 plasticity at the range edge, one must then link differences in the magnitude of plasticity to  
254 variation in environmental, demographic, and evolutionary processes occurring at the  
255 population level (Figure 2B). Specifically, we propose that sampling designs should focus on  
256 measuring and contrasting plasticity at both range core and edge populations (Figure 2B).

257

258 To test whether plasticity is limited and costly in smaller and isolated range-edges  
259 (Hypothesis 1) studies could compare levels of genetic variation for plasticity (e.g. in  
260 climate-related traits) between range core and range edge populations, or across range-edge  
261 populations that differ in connectivity and population size. This can be done, for example, by  
262 directly identifying loci associated with plasticity [85], or by quantifying whether selection is  
263 acting to maintain plasticity in edge populations (summarised in [28]), although we note that  
264 these quantitative genetics studies require larger experiments. New studies may be designed  
265 based on prior knowledge of a system, for example, by focusing on environmental predictors  
266 and traits important for persistence at the range edge. Existing studies that quantify local  
267 adaptation at stable range limits [5] are also ripe for testing hypotheses on plasticity at range  
268 edges. These studies have also quantified the effect of gene flow on the degree of local  
269 adaptation at the range edge (e.g., [86]), the effect of which on plasticity is unclear (Table 1;  
270 Outstanding Questions).

271

272 To test whether adaptive and maladaptive plasticity can both facilitate range expansion at the  
273 leading edge (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3) studies on plasticity evolution during the  
274 expansion of native ranges (as opposed to invasive ranges) are much needed. Over-the-edge  
275 transplant experiments, employed to test whether persistence is possible just beyond the  
276 range edges of native populations, could be used to test whether selection favours adaptive  
277 plasticity, or if environments at sites beyond the edge trigger the expression of non-adaptive  
278 plasticity [72]. Laboratory-based experimental range expansions [73,87] are another tractable  
279 approach to explore the evolution of plasticity in real-time. We note that combining genomics  
280 and transcriptomics (e.g., DNA and RNA mapping) with demography (e.g., common gardens  
281 and experimental transplants) is a promising avenue for exploring the genetics of plasticity  
282 and its complex drivers in nature [75,84].

283

#### 284 **Concluding remarks**

285 We stress the importance of bridging two well-established bodies of work: the evolution of  
286 plasticity and the evolutionary ecology of species' ranges. By uniting these two fields, we  
287 provide a synthesis for the importance of plasticity at range edges. Crucially, this synthesis  
288 offers a richer array of mechanisms beyond temporal environmental variability, and provides  
289 improved predictions for when and how plasticity should vary at stable and expanding range  
290 edges. We highlight that these drivers have been previously overlooked in studies of  
291 plasticity in nature.

292

293 Our synthesis shows that plasticity at the range edge can be shaped by diverse eco-  
294 evolutionary pathways, and that plasticity can be enhanced or attenuated by the demography  
295 of expanding and stable range-edge populations. While much work has focused on climate-  
296 driven selection for plasticity, a fuller consideration of mechanisms (Table 1) suggest that

297 these predictions may be oversimplified. Predictions arising from our unified perspective lay  
298 the foundation for much needed empirical tests and quantitative syntheses (see Outstanding  
299 Questions). A synthetic approach to plasticity evolution is necessary to better assess when  
300 edge populations are able to respond plastically to rapid environmental change or face local  
301 extinction.

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547 **Figure Legends**

548 **Figure 1.** Underlying mechanisms that drive variation in the evolution and expression of  
549 plasticity at stable and expanding range edges. In Panels A and B, we illustrate how **reaction**  
550 **norms** (the difference in a trait expressed by a single genotype or individual across  
551 environments) can be compared across edge (yellow or orange in map) and core (grey in  
552 map) populations, and the different ways in which the demography of edge populations can  
553 affect the mean and variance (histograms) of reaction norms. Panel C shows specific  
554 predictions for reaction norms and their drivers at (i) stable and (ii) expanding range edges  
555 based on hypotheses in Box 2. (A) From individuals across range-core populations (grey  
556 dots), we can measure plasticity as the slope of reaction norms across testing environments  
557 (A and B) and derive a hypothetical variance distribution of reaction norms (grey histogram).  
558 The width ( $\sigma$ ) of this histogram represents the amount of genetic variation for plasticity in the  
559 core population. (B) By using the distribution of reaction norms obtained from the core  
560 population as a reference, we can compare how changes in demography and evolution impact  
561 the mean and variance of reaction norms in edge populations (orange histogram). A change in  
562 the magnitude of plasticity is represented by a shift in the population mean plasticity ( $\bar{x}$ ),  
563 whilst a change in the genetic variation for plasticity is represented by changes in variance  
564 ( $\sigma$ ). Additionally, a change in the population size is represented by changes in the integral ( $\int$ )  
565 of the histogram. (C<sub>i</sub>-C<sub>ii</sub>) We show our hypothesised distribution of reaction norms and their  
566 drivers for stable and expanding range edges, respectively. We highlight that plasticity should  
567 be limited by demography at stable range edges, while both adaptive and non-adaptive  
568 plasticity may increase at expanding range edges (Box 2). For illustration purposes, we  
569 assume that the variance distribution is normal.

570

571 **Figure 2.** Empirical framework to identify the environmental, demographic and evolutionary  
572 drivers of plasticity at range edges. (A) To encompass differences in demographic rates and  
573 evolution and their influence on plasticity, we suggest sampling replicate populations at both  
574 the range core (grey dots) and the stable (yellow) or expanding (orange) range edge. We may  
575 also utilise existing demographic and evolutionary studies of populations across the species  
576 range (hatched), to incorporate estimates of plasticity at core and edge sites. (B) For  
577 individuals from each population, plasticity can be quantified in a variety of ways, for  
578 example, by measuring trait change across two or more environments (e.g. Environment A  
579 and B) and parameterizing reaction norms for sampled individuals. From here, we can derive  
580 population-level estimates of the mean and variation in reaction norms at the range edge  
581 (stable or expanding, represented by yellow or orange histograms) and the range core (grey).  
582 (C) Ideally, studies would quantify parameters of interest in environmental, demographic,  
583 and/or evolutionary genetic predictors at the range core and edge populations. (D) Spatial  
584 patterns in plasticity at the range edge and core can then be linked to population-level  
585 patterns and processes to test hypotheses on plasticity evolution (Box 2). Studies could focus  
586 on one driver, or use a variety of multivariate approaches (e.g., variance partitioning,  
587 generalised linear models, generalised dissimilarity modelling, and non-parametric  
588 multidimensional scaling) to test the relative importance of different factors at the core and  
589 edge. Experimental tests (e.g. reciprocal and over-the-edge transplants) can further confirm  
590 the role of each driver and whether they promote adaptive or non-adaptive plasticity.

591 **Box 1. Linking plasticity evolution to species range dynamics**

592 Plasticity is the ability of a genotype to produce different phenotypes in varying  
593 environments. Adaptive plasticity refers to phenotypic variations in response to alternative  
594 environments that increase fitness [22]. Whether increased plasticity can evolve in response

595 to environmental selection depends on the temporal or spatial scale over which populations  
596 experience alternative environments (reviewed in [14,23]). However, the evolution of  
597 increased plasticity may not solely reflect patterns of environmental selection [6,14]. Its  
598 evolution can also be shaped by **genetic drift** and gene flow, which depend on demographic  
599 processes related to population size and connectivity (see Table 1 for a synthesis of processes  
600 shaping plasticity).

601 Theory on the evolution of range limits often posits that habitat quality and quantity decrease  
602 toward range edges, resulting in declining population size and connectivity [24]. Empirical  
603 studies show that, while not universal, most range edges overlie gradients in habitat quality  
604 [25], genetic quality of populations [26], and declines in demography [27] (sometimes  
605 referred to as the abundant centre hypothesis [28]). Declines in effective population size and  
606 connectivity should increase the magnitude of genetic drift relative to selection at a **stable**  
607 **range edge** [29]. The relative importance of drift, selection and gene flow can further depend  
608 on whether range edges are stable or expanding [29,30]. While eco-evolutionary dynamics at  
609 range edges shape the role of plasticity at **expanding range edges**, studies of plasticity  
610 evolution and species ranges have often advanced disparately, despite decades of prominent  
611 work on species ranges and their response to changing environments.

612 **Box 2. Hypotheses on plasticity that incorporate demography and evolution at range**  
613 **edges.**

614 Here, we outline three hypotheses for the evolution and expression of plasticity that explicitly  
615 incorporate the demography and evolution of stable and expanding geographical range-edges.  
616 Our hypotheses show that demography interacts with environmental heterogeneity to  
617 augment or attenuate spatial patterns in plasticity, and how it does so depends on the stability  
618 of range limits.

619 ***Hypothesis 1: Demography at stable range limits can constrain plasticity***

620 At stable range edges, there will be greater limits and costs on the evolution of plasticity due  
621 to demography (Fig 1Ci). First, although there may be increased selection for plasticity if  
622 environments at range edges are suboptimal or more variable (but see [49]), response to  
623 selection should be limited by demographic constraints and reduced genetic variation for  
624 plasticity (GxE). This is especially pertinent for smaller, isolated edge populations that  
625 experience strong genetic drift. Second, even with sufficient genetic variation for plasticity,  
626 lower habitat quality and increasing environmental stress at the range edge could result in  
627 higher costs for expressing and evolving plasticity. Third, dispersal could be limited among  
628 more isolated edge populations, resulting in reduced selection for plasticity from spatial  
629 environmental variation.

630

631 ***Hypothesis 2: Demography during range expansion can enhance plasticity***

632 At expanding range edges, there will be increased expression and evolution of plasticity due  
633 to demography's interaction with evolutionary processes (Fig 1Cii). First, demographic limits  
634 to plasticity evolution should be overcome when increased dispersal and gene flow during  
635 range expansion introduces genetic variation for plasticity and increases population sizes at  
636 the range edge. Second, selection for plasticity is predicted to be strong due to individuals  
637 experiencing spatiotemporal variation in the environment during dispersal (Table 1).

638 ***Hypothesis 3: Both adaptive and non-adaptive plasticity are critical for colonisation at the***  
639 ***expanding range edge***

640 At expanding range edges, both adaptive and maladaptive plasticity is important for  
641 colonisation (Fig 1Cii). Adaptive plasticity could facilitate colonisation when plasticity

642 confers increased tolerance to these environments. Maladaptive plasticity could facilitate  
643 adaptive evolution by increasing the strength of selection or fitness variance [22, 78–80], thus  
644 allowing colonisation of new environments where plasticity is unsuited. As the environment  
645 experienced by a colonising individual will be a function of the rate and directionality of  
646 dispersal, whether adaptive or non-adaptive plasticity is expressed at the leading edge  
647 depends on dispersal and the degree of environmental heterogeneity across the landscape. For  
648 example, when range expansion occurs across divergent landscapes with long-distance  
649 dispersal, increased exposure to novel environments may trigger the expression of non-  
650 adaptive plasticity during range expansion.

## 651 **Glossary**

652 **Climate variability hypothesis:** Populations and species exposed to greater climate variation  
653 will evolve greater tolerance (conferred through plasticity or niche evolution) to climatic  
654 change

655 **Effective population size:** The size of an idealised population (i.e., a population that meets  
656 Hardy-Weinberg assumptions) at which populations experience genetic drift, which is  
657 inversely proportional to the efficiency of natural selection. Also described as corresponding  
658 to the number of breeding individuals in a population).

659 **Expanding range edge:** The edge of a species range where populations are expanding across  
660 space

661 **Gene flow:** The transfer of alleles between populations through dispersal and subsequent  
662 interbreeding

663 **Gene swamping:** The decrease in frequency of locally adaptive alleles in a population due to  
664 introduction of alleles from differently adapted populations

665 **Genetic drift:** The random loss of genetic variation due to repeated, random sampling of  
666 alleles

667 **Genetic load:** reduction in mean fitness of a population relative to an idealized population  
668 composed only of individuals with optimal genotypes

669 **Genetic variation for plasticity (GxE):** Genotypes in a population differ in their magnitude  
670 or direction of plasticity when responding to the environment

671 **Leading edge:** Populations at the front of the expanding range

672 **Phenotypic plasticity:** The ability of one genotype to produce different phenotypes in  
673 response to environmental variation within a single generation or across multiple generations  
674 (i.e., transgenerational plasticity).

675 **Range edge:** A population at or near the spatial periphery of a species' geographical  
676 distribution

677 **Range expansion:** When a population expands into space previously unoccupied by that  
678 species

679 **Reaction norms:** Range of traits a genotype can express under different environmental  
680 conditions

681 **Specialisation:** Populations or species adapted to a restricted, local environment (i.e., the  
682 evolution of a narrow ecological niche breadth)

683 **Species' range:** The geographical area within which all individuals of a species occurs

684 **Stable range edge:** The point in space at the limit of a species range beyond which  
685 population growth rates are negative.

686 **Transcriptional plasticity:** Changes in gene expression in response to environmental change



**Table 1. Synthesising drivers of plasticity at range edges.** Our synthesis shows a lack of both theoretical and empirical studies that test how various demographic and evolutionary processes (other than selection from environmental variability) drive plasticity evolution, particularly in a spatial context. These gaps highlight that we are missing critical processes that shape plasticity at range edges, limiting our ability to predict the capacity of plasticity to facilitate responses to rapid environmental change. † Temporal environmental variability increasing plasticity towards poleward edges is commonly argued as part of the **climate variability hypothesis** [88] despite mixed evidence for a latitudinal cline in climatic variables. We suggest that it is critical to go beyond broad-scale metrics of environmental variability, and explore other environmental predictors relevant to theoretical models for plasticity evolution (e.g., scale of spatiotemporal fluctuations, extremes and autocorrelation, as recently explored in [22]).

<b>Drivers of plasticity</b>	<b>Predicted pattern in plasticity at range edges</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Adaptive or non-adaptive plasticity?</b>	<b>Predictions for stable or expanding range edges?</b>	<b>Theoretical evidence</b>	<b>Empirical evidence</b>
Habitat quality	Lower towards edges	When habitat quality declines at range edges (e.g., if range limits reflect niche limits), this can impose a metabolic or physiological cost on plasticity.	Adaptive plasticity reduced	Stable	[9,29–31,53]	[15,36,39–41]

Population size and genetic variation	Lower towards edges	When effective population size and genetic variation decrease towards range edges, this will reduce genetic variation for plasticity (GxE) and the potential for plasticity evolution.	Adaptive plasticity reduced	Stable	[11, 18, 19, 28]	[11, 28, 35, 89, 90]
Dispersal and gene flow	1. Lower in more isolated edge populations	Dispersal is limited among isolated edge populations. Limited dispersal can lead to specialisation over plasticity evolution.	Adaptive plasticity reduced	Stable	[11, 18, 54–56]	[11, 62, 64]
	2. Greater for edge populations experiencing gene swamping	Reduced fitness due to constant gene swamping can increase directional selection in edge populations. If there is enough genetic variation for plasticity, adaptive plasticity can evolve to mitigate this fitness loss	Adaptive plasticity increased	Stable	[18]	
Selection during range expansion	Greater towards leading edge	Range-expanding individuals likely encounter new conditions. Plasticity can promote tolerance and establishment during colonisation.	Adaptive plasticity increased	Expanding	[20, 68]	[66, 71, 77–79, 91–93]

			Maladaptive plasticity expressed at the leading edge may aid colonisation by increasing the strength of directional selection and/or increasing fitness variance.	Non-adaptive plasticity increased	Expanding	[94]	[72-75]
Genetic load during founder events	Lower towards the leading edge	Repeated founder effects lead to strong genetic drift and the accumulation of genetic load. This could increase the cost of plasticity. Loci for plasticity could further accumulate deleterious mutations due to relaxed selection on conditionally expressed genes.		Adaptive plasticity reduced	Expanding	[19,82,83]	[95]
Temporal environmental variability †	Greater towards poleward edges	Temporal variability increases towards the poles. Plasticity confers tolerance to environmental variability.		Adaptive plasticity increased	Stable and expanding	[13,18,96-98]	[14,15,88,99-102]



**Highlights**

Populations at species geographical range edges are experiencing rapid environmental change, driving consequent shifts in species spatial distributions.

Although phenotypic plasticity can facilitate range shifts and responses to environmental change, little is known about how the demography and evolution of range-edge populations influence the evolution and expression of plasticity.

We show diverse pathways by which population dynamics at range edges interact with environmental variation to shape plasticity. Critically, demography of stable range edges may constrain plasticity, whilst that of expanding range edges favor increases in both adaptive and non-adaptive plasticity.

Demography therefore alters where and when we predict plasticity to be important, providing a fuller perspective for the role of plasticity at range edges and its capacity to facilitate responses to climate change.

## Outstanding Questions

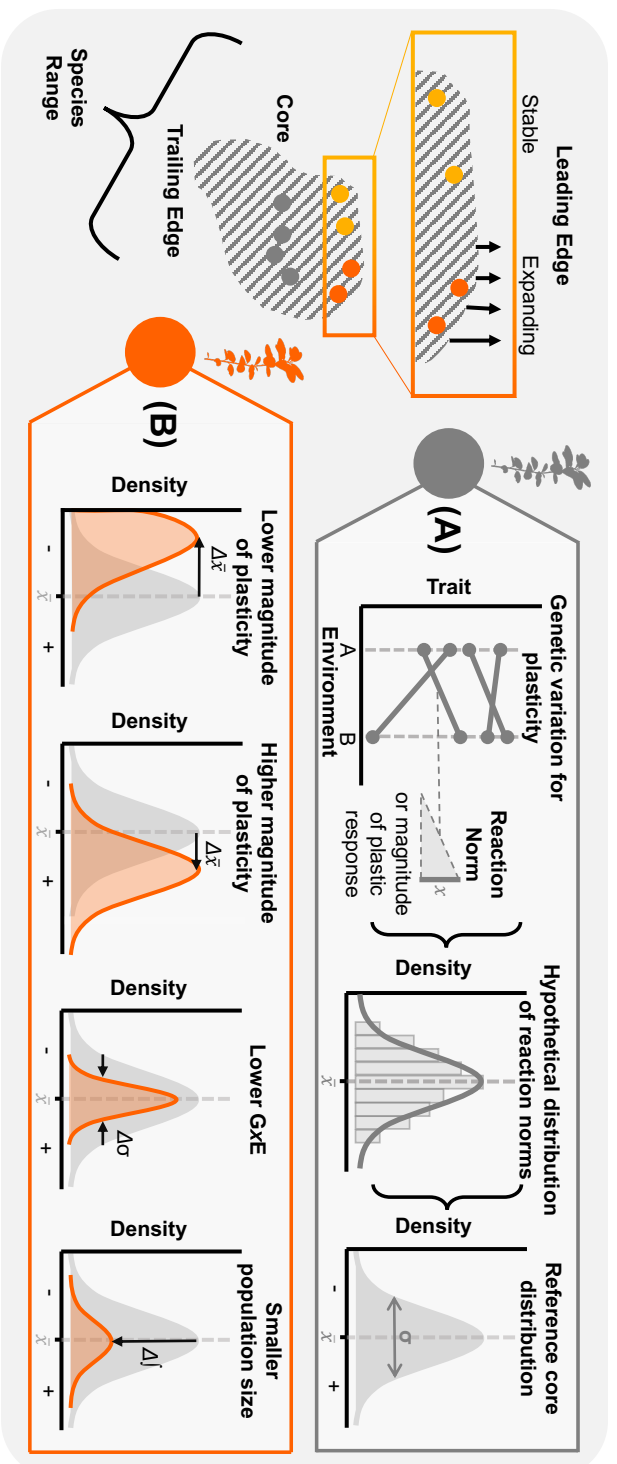
When do spatial patterns in plasticity emerge as the by-product of demographic processes (e.g., constraints in population size and the stability of range edges) as opposed to direct responses to spatially varying natural selection?

How does genetic variation for plasticity ( $G \times E$ ) vary across the range and is it limited at stable range edges? Is lower  $G \times E$  associated with lower habitat quality at the range edge?

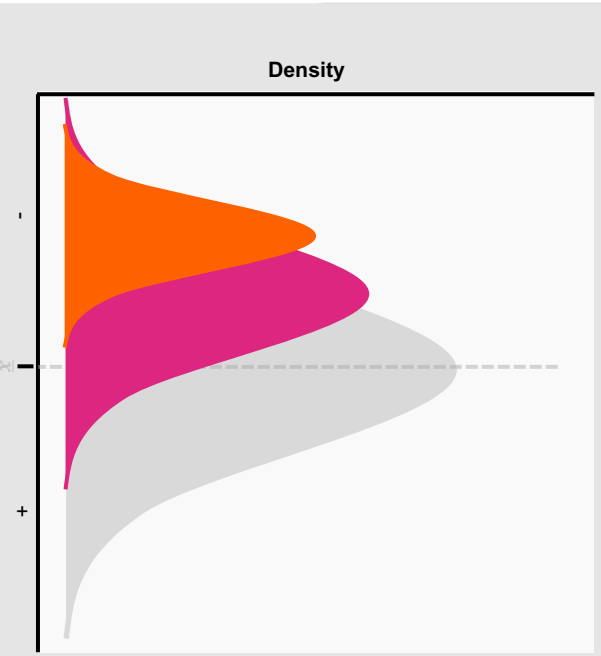
How do patterns of gene flow drive the evolution of plasticity at range edges?

How important is maladaptive versus adaptive plasticity during range expansion?

Is selection for plasticity at the range edge stronger during range expansion than at stable range edges?

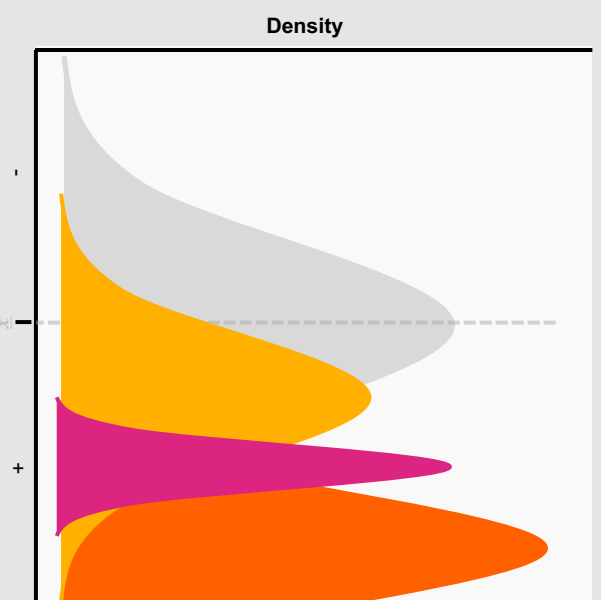


**(C<sub>i</sub>) Stable edge dynamics**



- Lower plasticity due to habitat quality, reduced population size, and reduced genetic variation
- Lower plasticity due to limited dispersal

**(C<sub>ii</sub>) Expanding edge dynamics**



- Higher plasticity due to dispersal increasing population size at the range edge
- Higher plasticity due to selection at range edges
- Higher non-adaptive plasticity triggered due to novel environments

